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Articles

- 1 Japanese Classroom Behavior: A Micro-Analysis of Self-Reports
Versus Classroom Observations, with Implications for
Language Teachers
Mariko T. Bohn
- 37 Learning Linguistic Politeness
Andrew Sangpil Byon
- 63 Error Correction as a Cultural Phenomenon
Richard McGarry
- 83 The Effects of Notetaking, Lecture length, and Topic on a Computer-
Based Test of ESL Listening Comprehension
Patricia L. Carrell, Patricia A. Dunkel, and Pamela Mollaun

Reviews

- 107 Nihongo Shokyu Dokkai Yomikata + Kakikata: Reading and Writing
in Japanese for Beginners.....*Mutsumi Hirai*
- 108 Tema-betsu Chukyu Kara Manabu Nihongo.....*Hisako Yamashita*

News and Views

- 111 *National Language Conference Results*

General Information

- 113 ALL Index
- 121 Calendar of Events
- 127 Information for Contributors

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Japanese Classroom Behavior
A Micro-Analysis of Self-Reports Versus Classroom Observations -
with Implications for Language Teachers

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This article examines the influence of Japanese cultural values, beliefs, and educational style on Japanese students learning English as a second language in an American classroom. In contrast to the Japanese students' high motivation to learn English, their classroom behavior and roles reflect their own cultural perspectives rather than the teacher's expectations based on the behavior and roles of American students.

Through a questionnaire and class observations, a paradox was identified. Most of the Japanese students supported voluntarily asking and answering questions; however, their learning style of being quiet prevented their active participation.

This paper shows that it is important for English-learning Japanese students to become aware not only of their own cultural values and beliefs, but also of the target language's cultural values and beliefs in order to achieve effective learning. Similarly, understanding the student's culture is an important first step for teachers in effectively communicating with the student, since cultural factors influence students' motivation and achievement. Teacher's awareness of cultural differences fosters effective language instruction.

Playing a game such as baseball requires each team to abide by a common set of rules. For example, baseball in Japan and in the United States follows the same set of rules, and players can move from one country to the next while participating in each other's games. However, intercultural communication, especially in the classroom, is different. Each country, Japan and the United States, has its own set of rules based on its own culture. Díaz-Rico and Weed (1995) indicate that:

a culture involves both observable behaviors and intangibles such as beliefs and values, rhythms, rules, and roles. Culture is the filter through which people see the world . . . the judgments that make any action right or wrong for its members (pp. 193-194).

The present study was conducted in order to see how Japanese cultural rules influence Japanese students' participation in an ESL classroom. An intensive English program at a state university was the site of this study. This program has the responsibility of teaching English to international students, the largest group of students coming from Asian countries. The program has two goals: first, to provide the academic English skills necessary for international students to enter college; and second, to provide English skills which can be used both in the United States and in foreign countries.

Many instructors in the program indicate that the Japanese students are very quiet and do not express themselves in class. Through this researcher's experience and discussions with other Japanese students, this phenomenon is also true for many Japanese students in classes in the regular university and has become one of the stereotypes of Japanese students at the school. Based on the American concept of active class participation, these Japanese students may be judged inferior by their instructors and other students. Most of the Japanese students in the intensive English program brought their cultural values with them when they came to study English in the United States. They acquired little American culture while studying English in Japan. The only American culture they might have observed in Japan was from American movies or from associating with American people living in Japan, depending on the friendliness of Americans. However, much of the culture from American movies represents the movie producer's views and is not very accurate for everyday Americans.

In order to understand Japanese students' behavior in the classroom, it is important to understand the background and culture of these students, their learning style in Japan, and how these factors influence the shaping of their participation in the classroom.

Three aspects of the background of these students are considered: (1) the Japanese hierarchical educational system; (2) Japanese social status in interpersonal relationships and the emphasis on harmony, and (3) the importance of nonverbal communication to the Japanese. How these factors affect the educational development of Japanese students in the U.S. classroom has been assessed through class observation and a questionnaire distributed to the students.

The goal of this study is to inform intensive English program teachers and their students of salient differences between Japanese and American cultural values and how these differences influence student participation in the American classroom. The results of this study will also help American students adjust to the Japanese way of class participation when studying in Japan. Likewise, this study will help Japanese students pay attention to their own culture and understand differences in communicative behavior in classroom interaction from U.S. culture. Finally, this study will encourage Japanese students to become gradually accustomed to the American way of class participation in order to enjoy and learn more from their classes.

The limiting aspect of this study was the number of students, twenty-one participants, contained in the study groups. This number was sufficient to

provide initial answers to the study questions, but I encourage that a similar study be repeated with additional students to verify the findings presented in this paper.

Review of the Literature

Past research has shown that many Japanese students have difficulty adjusting to the American way of communication in the classroom. When Japanese students enter the American classroom environment, they often feel frustrated and confused because they find different cultural values, beliefs, and student roles for classroom behavior (Rockelman, 1994; Kurita, 1994; Robbins, 1994). They find that American teachers have expectations of their students which are different from those encountered in Japan. Therefore, it is important to know the blueprint of Japanese students' cultural behaviors and attitudes that they carry into their American classrooms.

Previous researchers have enumerated three major aspects of the background of Japanese students:

- o Japanese attitudes toward education
- o Japanese social relations
- o The importance of Japanese nonverbal communication

Japanese Attitudes Towards Education

Reischauer (1977) points out that Confucian ethics and formal schooling, which were derived from China and spread throughout East Asia (Korea and Vietnam as well as Japan), had a great influence on the Japanese educational system and on students' attitudes towards their teachers. Boss (1983) states that Confucian ethics taught respect for older people, especially for the ones having higher status, such as teachers. Asian students show respect, do not use or ask for too much openness, and avoid confronting or embarrassing their teachers. Nakane (1970) states that the higher honorific term *sensei* (teacher) is used for teachers, showing that Japanese students expect a formal relationship with their teachers. Students know that in the social order they are considered subordinate and their teachers are considered superior.

Confucian ethics also influence Japanese moral discipline. Rohlen (1983) states that the loyalty and obedience of subordinates to superiors is one of the highest moral virtues. Kiefer (1974) indicates that there are two features of the Japanese system of education which present rather striking differences from the United States system. The first is the relative emphasis on moral discipline and the second is the entrance examination system, usually referred to as *shiken jigoku* (examination hell). Moral discipline is nurtured during early school years, focusing on group harmony, respecting teachers and discouraging independence. Independently, Japanese students must study very hard to pass entrance examinations to high-status schools which lead to good employment opportunities.

Moral discipline is also stressed through the use of school rules in elementary and secondary education. Naito (1994) states that Japanese students are expected to consider other people's feelings and to form close interpersonal relationships in order to further group harmony through school education. Accordingly, Japanese schools have many school rules. Naito's study shows that 80% of elementary schools have 10 to 49 explicit rules, and junior high schools even more, 30 to 69. The rules vary from general principles to specific rules, including such general principles as "caring for each other" and such specific rules as "students should knock on the door before entering a teacher's room." These principles and rules are presented to students through notices on the walls of classrooms and pamphlets. The students perceive that they must obey in order to be considered good students and to avoid trouble. Japanese students view the rules as part of their belief that "you should not hurt another person's mind." They obey the rules because the teacher's mind should not be hurt by students who do not obey the rules. However, Naito (1994) points out that, while school discipline remains important, students have now begun to place a higher value on personal happiness. Moral discipline and commitment to relationships are starting to be rejected by the younger generation.

Group loyalty is another important aspect brought to school by children. Duke (1986) claims that in the Japanese school system, group loyalty is present on the very first day that Japanese young children enter school. The Japanese style of the *kumi* or *han* (group or class) system represents the beginning of the formal process of group training in order to achieve the ultimate goal, group harmony. For this aspect of moral discipline, each individual must possess a spirit of perseverance, diligence, and conscientiousness.

An important characteristic of the Japanese educational system, as mentioned earlier, is the entrance examination. Kiefer (1974) points out that the entrance examination, generally starting in junior high school, is an important feature of the Japanese educational system since success for the future depends on gaining an education from the most prestigious institutions in the country. Graduating from a highly ranked university assures the graduate of an opportunity to work for the best and strongest companies in the country. The path to a high-ranked university is controlled by the entrance examination process, which identifies the schools the student can attend. Passing the entrance examinations to gain entrance to the better schools motivates parents to encourage, even force their children to study in order to pass. Passing and failing is related to the parents' "saving or losing face."

Kiefer (1974) states that in contrast to the Japanese system the American educational system emphasizes classroom competition among students. Though the Japanese entrance examination involves competition in an impersonal setting, it takes place outside of the classroom setting. The American classroom often resembles a competitive arena, whereas the Japanese classroom resembles the training ground of a single team learning how to play the game of life cooperatively.

The traditional method of English language learning in Japan involves a continual process of memorization, repetition, drilling, and testing, as reported by Reischauer (1977) and Duke (1986). A high degree of literacy in reading and writing is emphasized in order for students to be able to answer complex grammar questions. Rockelman (1994) reports that taking notes and listening carefully to what the teacher says or writes on the blackboard is a crucial ingredient of students' learning style. As a result of the strong emphasis on reading and writing, verbal communication is excluded from the curriculum. Comprehension skills and critical thinking are also emphasized less. Classes are totally teacher-centered and the students are seated in conventional classroom rows with little interaction and speaking between the students and their teacher.

According to Thorpe's (1991) finding, "Japanese students are very reluctant to speak in front of other students unless they are sure that they will not make any mistakes" (as cited in Kurita, 1994: p. 61). Conversely, Andersen and Powell (1991) report that in the United States a teacher may consider knowledge important, with lively class discussions playing an important role in developing that knowledge. It is common for American teachers and their students to interact regularly in their joint pursuit of knowledge.

Rohlen (1983) reports that the exam-oriented Japanese students are not expected to "find themselves" through a process of choice, experimentation, and individual discovery. The good student is obedient, patient, persevering, and diligent. In contrast, Duke (1986) reports that American teachers expect their students to have creativity, originality, and personality in the classroom. Phillips (1983) points out that teachers in American elementary schools often encourage students' interaction with their teachers as part of the American style of learning. Díaz-Rico and Weed (1995) report that in American classrooms the individual is paramount, which often results in students' competition with each other. Students are routinely expected to answer the teacher's questions, express their opinions voluntarily, and actively participate in class discussions.

Japanese Social Relations

Japanese society is extremely homogeneous and more group-oriented than American society. Conversely, American society has a much greater ethnic diversity and places a much higher value on individualism (Clancy, 1986). Stewart and Bennett (1991) point out that the Japanese place a greater emphasis on understanding and sharing the general attitudes of others. They indicate that stress is placed on human relations among the members of a social nexus rather than on single individuals.

Japanese people follow the ethics of location in achieving interpersonal harmony in location-shared groups (Nakane, 1970). These location-shared groups are built into a situational "frame"-a locality, an institution, or a particular relationship. Essentially, Japanese people establish a special relationship among individuals found in a location (home, school, business, etc.) a relationship which binds them together emotionally and socially. In

comparison, American communication plays an important part in helping Americans construct an American identity that values independence, while Japanese communication helps Japanese construct a Japanese identity that relies on interdependence (Yamada, 1997). *Wa* (harmony) is emphasized in the group. As Yamada notes, *hironami* (behave as other people behave) morality is likewise constructed from a concept of other-centered ethics and guides the Japanese in interdependent situations, tying them to conformity. The Japanese proverb *Deru kugi wa utareru* (nails that stick out get hammered back in) reflects the Japanese tendency to avoid emphasizing individuality and standing out in different situations.

Reischauer (1977) also points out that the group-oriented Japanese tend to suppress individual self-expression. Yamada (1992) notes that the Japanese typically reveal their *honno* (true feelings or intention) to the members of the same group; however, they reveal only their *tatemaie* (socially accepted views) to the members of a different group suppressing their own emotional feelings.

La Barre (1962) states that Japanese 'face' "is more concerned with the status of self; it is a tenuous affair and so frequently hides basic aggressiveness, so a better term for Japanese 'face' might almost be 'mask' " (p. 335).

The structure of *amae* (depending upon and presuming upon another person's benevolence) among Japanese was articulated by Doi (1974). According to Doi, *amae* represents the Japanese perception of interdependence and is a key concept for understanding the Japanese personality. Originally, *amae* derived from a child playing like a baby with his/her mother. *Amae* is also seen in a variety of relationships throughout Japanese society, including within the family, among friends, and within the company. Befu (1983) points out that the group-oriented Japanese have unique social institutions with a predominantly hierarchical alignment of members, bonded by the concept of *amae*.

According to Clancy (1986) and McDaniel (1994), the interdependent relationship of *amae* between the mother and the child fosters empathy and nonverbal communication. Clancy's study (1986) shows that young Japanese children gain sensitivity for the feelings of others through their mothers' directives. At the same time, De Vos (1974) states that young Japanese children are raised to regard poor performance or slipshod behavior as unacceptable behaviors which cannot be tolerated. It brings shame (*haji*) to themselves and to their families. Children are taught to be sensitive and not to lose "face." Japanese personality patterns, constructed to avoid losing face, may lead to a society which avoids failure and maintains a strong need for recognition and success (Clancy, 1986).

Within this homogeneous, interdependent, and high-context cultural situation, Azuma (1980) notes that "verbal expression among the Japanese is context-dependent, indirect, rich in connotation, and evasive in denotation" (cited in Clancy, 1986, p. 213). In contrast, Condon (1984) notes that American culture has low reliance on context and high trust in words (cited in Stewart and Bennett, 1991, p. 157). Clancy likewise explains that the Japanese have a

set of cultural values that emphasizes empathy over explicit verbal communication.

These Japanese cultural values affect communication between Japanese and Americans, as noted by Nakabayashi and Nagao (1994). Their study of the communicative competence of the Japanese, as observed by American students, shows that the Japanese pay attention, show interest with a smile, appear friendly, and listen very carefully. However, American students report that Japanese students use few gestures and do not join in activities with them. Nakabayashi and Nagao explain that the Japanese tend to discriminate between in-group and out-group members. The Japanese like to settle down in one place, and it is difficult for them to establish a close human relationship with out-group members. Even though American students in Japan tried to establish a close friendship, they were viewed as the out-group and the Japanese treated them as visiting guests.

Nakabayashi and Nagao's study also shows that, in contrast to the communication style of Americans in which speakers always try to learn more about their partners by using a direct verbal strategy, the Japanese prefer to use indirect, vague, and informal expressions. Yamada (1997) notes that:

the goal in American communication is for each individual to speak up for him/herself, and to express messages in as explicit a manner as possible. In contrast, the goal in Japanese communication is for members of a group to depend on each other to talk about shared experiences, and to express messages in as implicit style as possible
(p. 4).

Implicit communication, such as the use of indirectness and vagueness, are perceived as being polite among the Japanese. In contrast to Americans, who take pride in being straightforward and in saying what they mean, the Japanese make extensive use of go-betweens to avoid confrontations and maintain group solidarity, and they are sensitive to others' reactions. For example, Americans will say "no" even when the others in the group oppose that position. In contrast, the Japanese tend to avoid saying "no" in an explicit manner (Reischauer, 1977). Yamada (1997) explains that the Japanese, with their in-group, other-centered philosophy, say "yes", or "no" to support the group rather than to express their own opinion.

Brown and Levinson (1978, as cited in Scollon & Scollon, 1983) categorize as "solidarity politeness" that which emphasizes low distance and a low degree of power relationship, and as "deference politeness" that which emphasizes greater distance and a higher degree of power between the interactants. According to Brown and Levinson's model, Japanese students use solidarity politeness to in-group members for harmony and conformity and use deference politeness to their teachers, since the relationship between a teacher and a student is formal and hierarchical. With in-group members, Japanese students are quite talkative and cohesive; however, with out-group or

higher status people, they are quite taciturn and keep their distance. Brown and Levinson state that "taciturnity reflects an assumption of deference politeness and volubility reflects an assumption of solidarity" (as cited in Scollon & Scollon, 1983, p. 8).

As Brown and Levinson claim, teachers in the United States use solidarity politeness strategies emphasizing equality. However, Japanese students use deference politeness strategies emphasizing respect for their teachers. This different use of politeness strategies produces different assumptions and expectations between teachers and their students, often resulting in miscommunication and misunderstanding.

Barnlund's survey (1975) showed that:

The Japanese were perceived as "reserved," "formal," "silent," "evasive," "serious," and "dependent" by American college students and the Americans were perceived as "frank," "self-assertive," "informal," and "talkative" by Japanese students (p. 437).

Importance of Japanese Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication plays an important role in communication patterns and also reflects Japanese cultural values (McDaniel, 1993; Clancy, 1986; Condon, 1974; Morsbach, 1988; and Hattori, 1987). McDaniel and Condon claim that it is crucial to understand nonverbal behavior in intercultural communication and describe nine specific Japanese nonverbal behaviors: a. kinesics (body language), b. eye behavior and facial expressions, c. proxemic behavior, d. haptics (touch), e. appearance, f. space and time, g. olfactics (smell), h. paralanguage (vocalics), and i. silence. As Hall (1981) notes, "Considered a high context culture, the Japanese place a significant degree of reliance on nonverbal activities and much is left to the receiver's interpretation" (cited in McDaniel, 1993, p. 5). Clancy (1986) states that "the Japanese have little faith in verbal expression and when verbal communication does enter in, it will often be inexplicit and indirect" (p. 214).

Of the nine nonverbal behaviors, five in particular are seen extensively in the American classroom environment. They are:

o *Kinesics*. Cohen (1991) and Ishii (1975) point out that the Japanese are more relaxed and expressive within their group (in-group); however, within a different group (out-group) they restrain their use of body language (cited in McDaniel, 1993, p. 11). March (1990) states that "In public, it is quite common to see both Japanese men and women sitting quietly and unobtrusively, with hands folded" (cited in McDaniel, 1993, p. 11). McDaniel (1993) explains that the Japanese self-restraint of body movement in public or with the out-group is derived from their attempt to avoid attention and to maintain situational harmony.

Sherman (1989) reports that three gestures are used by the Japanese, usually unconsciously, which

indicate awkwardness, hesitation, dismay or predicament or embarrassment: (1) inhaling air audibly through clenched teeth, (2) scratching the back of one's head, (3) and hitting one's open palm lightly against the forehead (p. 13).

o *Eye Behavior and Facial Expressions.* Sweeney, Cottle, and Kobayahi's (1980) cross-cultural comparison of American and Japanese emotional facial expressions showed that American females scored higher than did American males, Japanese females scored slightly lower than did American males, and Japanese males attained the lowest score. These results suggest that the Japanese do not evince a great deal of emotion through facial expressions.

Hattori (1987) says that in Japanese culture the amount of gaze is very slight during a conversation, since prolonged eye contact is considered rude, especially to a higher-status person. The Japanese are taught to avert their gaze and to look at a person's throat area as polite behavior. In contrast, in American culture students show respect to teachers by looking at them directly when the teachers talk to the students.

The smile is a universally positive gesture. However, Sherman (1989) reports that smiling is also used by the Japanese when another person might frown. The smiling expression is used as a kind of etiquette or politeness. Sherman states that it is important to the Japanese not to express emotions which might upset social harmony. The smile is also used to protect privacy. For example, when a teacher asked the Japanese students whether they understood what was just taught, even though the students did not understand, they simply smiled. The students did not want to be embarrassed themselves or to embarrass the teacher by not understanding what was taught.

o *Proxemic Behavior.* McDaniel (1993) indicates that the Japanese attitude toward personal space differs between in-group and out-group situations. In an uncrowded out-group environment the Japanese keep a larger personal distance with an unfamiliar or a higher-status person. With in-group members, personal distance is dramatically reduced.

o *Paralanguage.* Hall (1981) reports that "A hissing sound, made by sharply sucking in one's breath between the teeth, usually connotes embarrassment or consternation" (cited in McDaniel, 1993, p. 21). Yamada (1997) indicates that the Japanese frequently have a certain type of vocalization, *aizuchi* (back-channel). *Aizuchi* such as *ee* (yes), *ah soo* (I see) and *soo desune* (that's true) are used by the hearer to indicate that the hearer has listened carefully to the speaker and indicates "I'm following you" or "I'm listening to you." *Aizuchi* does not always mean agreement with what was said. It can also be used to let the speaker know that what was said is understood.

o *Silence*. Buruma (1985), Cohen (1991), Hall and Hall (1990), Ishii (1975), and Lebra (1976) all report that silence is considered a virtue as well as a sign of respectability and trustworthiness, as reported by McDaniel (1993). Rockelman (1994) reports that in Japanese culture there is a belief that intuitive or feeling communication is the most effective form of communication. Rockelman also states that silence in the classroom is deemed much safer than speaking and taking the risk of offending or disagreeing with the teacher.

McDaniel (1993) and Morsbach (1988) report that silence hides one's real feelings and is used to tactfully signal disagreement, non-acceptance or an uncomfortable dilemma. Common Japanese proverbs such as *Kuchi wa wazawai no moto* (the mouth is the source of calamity) and *Iwanu ga hana* (to say nothing is a flower 'beauty') demonstrates that the Japanese are concerned with saying the wrong thing. However, Yamada (1997) says that in the western world, speech is increasingly associated with culture, and silence is treated as unsociable.

Locastro (1990) points out that in general the Japanese have great difficulty engaging in conversation with native and nonnative speakers of English. Busch (1982) presents the hypothesis that in countries where introversion levels are high, such as Japan, "cultural and social barriers prevent a person from going out and getting input in the second language" (cited in Kurita, 1994, p. 57).

Research Questions

Japanese students bring their cultural and social values with them when they study English in the American classroom. As shown by Doi (1974) and Nakane (1970), the Japanese have a unique cultural background, and the American and Japanese ways of communication are quite different. The following questions are addressed by this study:

1. What are the Japanese students' interaction patterns in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom?
2. Do traditional learning methods, the memorization and repetition used to develop high literacy (reading and writing), bring benefits to Japanese students?
3. What aspects of Japanese cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes inhibit Japanese students' interaction in the ESL classroom?
4. Are there any mismatches between "teacher" and "student" assumptions regarding verbal interaction in the ESL classroom?

Method

Participants and Setting

The data were collected from two different ESL classes at San José State University (SJSU), and from one ESL class at Cabrillo College. The first

SJSU class consisted of a special ESL class of fifteen Japanese students. Two class sessions were visited, a grammar class and the other a conversation class, both taught by different faculty members. The class observations were set one week before the students were to finish their program. This class was part of a special program organized by the International Farmers Aid Association. All fifteen Japanese students were engaged in agriculture and had had little opportunity to study English after they graduated from their Japanese high school. The English program was part of their U.S. curriculum and was planned to strengthen their English language ability. The fifteen Japanese students, five females and ten males, ranged in age from twenty-one to twenty-four. They had been studying English at San José State University for nine months.

The second SJSU group was a regular ESL class of twelve students; four were Japanese, three females and one male, with ages ranging from twenty-one to twenty-seven, and the other eight were Taiwanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Thai, and Mexican. They have been studying English in this program for one to two years. Two class sessions were visited, a grammar class and a conversation class. The visitation took place during the ninth and tenth weeks of the semester.

The Cabrillo College ESL class was a regular ESL class of seventeen students; two were Japanese female students with ages of nineteen and twenty-six, and the other fifteen students were Mexican, Chinese, Cambodian, Russian and Thai. The visitation took place during the twelfth week of the semester.

Data Collection

The purpose of using two different types of Japanese groups—a class of all Japanese students (identified as a special ESL class) and two classes with Japanese students mixed with students from other countries (identified as regular ESL classes)—was to study Japanese students' interactions with classmates and with their teachers in both in-group and out-group situations. All fifteen students in the special ESL class traveled together, ate together, and used the same language outside of the classroom (as observed during the break), thus becoming a cohesive group.

Two of the four students in the SJSU regular ESL class, one male and one female, were absent during both the grammar and conversation classes; thus only two of the female students were observed. However, all four completed the questionnaire.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire, which included a Japanese translation to assure accurate responses, was provided to each student to be completed after the class was finished. The questionnaire consisted of two parts: Part 1—background information asking each student's age, college major in Japan, and main purpose for studying English; and Part 2—twelve questions in such areas as the student's cultural background, interactions with the teacher, and participation in group discussion. The responses from both regular ESL classes,

SJSU and Cabrillo College, were combined in the analysis of data. The questionnaire used is included in the Appendix.

Class Observation

All class observations were conducted from a corner of the classroom. The researcher took notes instead of using a recording device. The focus of the class observations was:

- o students' learning styles in the classroom
- o students' interactions with their teachers
- o students' interactions with each other
- o students' nonverbal behaviors.

Data Analysis

The questionnaire was analyzed by tabulating the data from all the Japanese students in both the special ESL and regular ESL classes. A total of twenty-one questionnaires were analyzed, fifteen from the SJSU special ESL class, four from the SJSU regular ESL class and two from the Cabrillo College regular ESL class. The observation was analyzed by combining the common classroom behaviors of the Japanese students in all classes, focusing on the four research questions of this study. The results of the questionnaire and observations were then analyzed to identify similarities and differences in the two bodies of data.

Next, the questionnaire and observation data were divided into the special ESL and regular ESL classes and male and female students. The results were analyzed to identify similarities and differences between the two groups of students and between the male and female students.

The final section of this report looks at the data in terms of the four research questions presented for the study. This section brings together the data from the study, the literature review, and an analysis of the data.

Results

The questionnaire consisted of twelve objective questions plus two subjective questions. As noted earlier, the first section, Part 1, identified the students' age and other pertinent information. A copy of the questionnaire, which contains Parts 2 and 3, appears in the Appendix. Part 2 consists of twelve objective questions for student response. Part 3 consists of two open-ended questions regarding approval and disapproval of teacher performance. In Part 3, one student left the approved section blank, and three students left the disapproved section blank.

Part 1 - Student Age and Pertinent Information

o *Age.* All fifteen students in the special ESL class were in the 21 - 24 age group. The six students in the regular ESL class varied from 19 - 27, providing both extremes for the group. As a result, the ages ranged from 19 - 27, with

23 years being the median age, and 22.68 the mean age.

o *College Major in Japan.* The special ESL students were engaged in an agricultural curriculum in Japan. Their majors included International Agriculture (5), Agricultural Technology (4), Agricultural Economics (2), Environmental Study (1), Orchard Horticulture (1), Landscaping Planning (1), and Agricultural Civil Engineering (1). For the regular ESL students, three was directly out of high school, and there was one major in each of art history, accounting, and economics.

o *Main Purpose for Studying English.* In the special ESL class six students were studying English as part of their curriculum (International Farmers Aid Association ESL Program), four students were developing general English language skills, three wanted to live in the United States, and two were learning about American culture. Three students in the regular ESL class were planning to enter an American university, and three were developing English language skills.

Part 2 - Student Questionnaire

Table 1. *Questionnaire (Part 2)*

Total Data: Special and Regular ESL Students

Question	Response (Percentage of Total in Parentheses)					
	Yes	No	a.	b.	c.	Created Ans.
1	-	-	13(62%)	8(38%)	-	-
2	-	-	1(5%)	13(62%)	5(32%)	2(10%)
3	-	-	5(24%)	5(24%)	11(52%)	-
4	-	-	6(29%)	2(10%)	13(61%)	-
5	-	-	18(85%)	2(10%)	1(5%)	-
6	-	-	5(24%)	15(71%)	1(5%)	-
7	-	-	13(62%)	8(38%)	-	-
8	-	-	7(33%)	1(5%)	13(62%)	-
9	15(71%)	6(29%)	-	5(83%)	1(17%)	-
10	11(52%)	10(48%)	2(20%)	2(20%)	6(60%)	-
11	-	-	11(52%)	1(5%)	9(43%)	-
12	-	-	20(95%)	1(5%)	-	-

Special Characteristics:

- o Two students did not like any of the three possible responses to Question 2 and created their own response. It is reported as a "Created Answer."

- o Questions 9 and 10 first asked a "Yes" or "No" question. Only those responding with "No" were asked to make a choice of three responses..

The responses which received an answer of over 50% are considered significant for this study. In Table 1, each question has one answer with more than 50% of the responses. The Japanese in both groups were reasonably consistent in their responses.

In response to Question #1, "What is your preferred method of classroom interaction?", thirteen (62%) answered "To voluntarily ask and answer questions at any time." Question #2 asked "When the teacher directs a question to you, how do you feel?" thirteen (62%) answered, "This is a great chance for me to use English." The response to these two questions disagrees with both Thorpe (1991) and Yamada's (1997) statements that the Japanese tend to avoid standing out and speaking in front of others.

Question #3 states, "When the teacher asks you a question and you don't have the answer, what will you do?" Eleven students (52%) indicated, "I will clearly say, I don't know." This answer also seems to be in contrast to the findings of Yamada (1997), who stated that implicit communication such as the use of indirectness and vagueness is perceived as being polite.

Question #4 asks, "When you come late to class, what will you do, or what will you say to the teacher?" Thirteen (61%) answered, "I will say 'I am sorry that I am late,' and then sit down." This answer expresses the politeness and respect of Japanese students toward the teacher. Question #5 asks, "What do you think about placing the chairs in a semicircle or circle?" Eighteen (85%) stated, "I am quite comfortable and this is a good chance to interact with other students." This seating arrangement is in contrast to the traditional Japanese style of learning, which is teacher-centered with students seated in conventional classroom rows with minimal interactions.

Questions #6, #7, and #8 cover student responses to questions. Question 6 asks, "Do you interact with the teacher after the class is finished?" Fifteen (71%) answered "No, I ask questions only during the class." Question #7 asks, "Do you participate in group class discussion?" with thirteen (62%) students answering, "I only answer a question when someone asks me." Question #8 asks, "Do you talk to other students while the teacher is lecturing or teaching the class?" Thirteen (62%) responded, "When a student asks me, I will answer - but not more than that." Questions #6 and #8 support the finding reported by Boss (1983) that Asian students show respect and do not use or ask for too much openness with the teacher.

Questions #9 and #10 are directed to asking or answering questions during the class. Both questions first required a "Yes" or a "No" response. Students answering "No" were asked to select a multiple-choice response.

Question #9 asked, "Do you ask questions of the teacher during the class?" Fifteen (71%) said "Yes." Question #10 asked, "When the teacher asks a question to the entire class, do you volunteer an answer to the question?" Eleven (52%) answered "Yes." Question #11 asks, "When the instructor makes a mistake in the classroom, what will you do?" Eleven (52%) answered, "I don't need to correct the mistake since other students will." This answer relates to Doi's (1974) concept of *amae*, "depends upon and presumes upon another person's benevolence."

Question #12 asks, "When the teacher has direct eye contact with you, how do you feel?" Twenty (95%) answered "I don't mind." This answer is in contrast to Hattori (1987) who states that prolonged direct eye contact in Japanese is considered rude, especially to a higher-status person.

Table 2. *Questionnaire (Part 2): Responses Divided by Special and Regular ESL Students*

Question	Response (Percentage Total on Second Line)					
	Yes	No	a.	b.	c.	Created Ans.
1 Spec. ESL/Reg. ESL			9/4	6/2	-	-
			43/19(%)	29/9(%)	-	-
2	-	-	1/0	9/4	3/2	2/0
			5/0(%)	43/20(%)	14/9(%)	9/0(%)
3	-	-	5/0	3/2	7/4	-
			24/0(%)	14/9(%)	33/20(%)	
4	-	-	0/6	2/0	13/0	-
			0/29(%)	9/0(%)	62/0(%)	
5	-	-	14/4	1/1	0/1	-
			66/19(%)	5/5(%)	0/5(%)	
6	-	-	4/1	11/4	0/1	-
			19/5(%)	52/19(%)	0/5(%)	
7	-	-	8/5	7/1	-	-
			38/24(%)	33/5(%)		
8	-	-	6/1	0/1	9/4	-
			28/5(%)	0/5(%)	43/19(%)	
9	11/4	4/2	-	3/2	1/0	-
	52/19(%)	19/10(%)		50/33(%)	17/0(%)	

10	10/1	5/5	2/0	0/2	3/3	-
	47/5(%)	24/24(%)	20/0(%)	0/20(%)	30/30(%)	
11	-	-	8/3	1/0	6/3	-
			38/14(%)	5/0(%)	29/14(%)	
12	-	-	15/5	0/1	-	-
			71/24(%)	0/5(%)		

In Question #2, two male students' created answers to the question, "When the teacher directs a question to you, how do you feel?" They answered, "To find an answer which causes other students to laugh." This response shows the value of strong interpersonal relationships among the group of fifteen Japanese students.

The students' answers to Question #4 and Question #10 revealed a difference between the special and regular ESL students. Question #4, which read, "When you come late to class, what will you do, or what will you say to the teacher?" all six regular ESL Japanese students answered, "I will sit down in the chair near the corner of the room without saying anything because I don't want to disturb the class." None of the special ESL students provided this answer. The special ESL students reported being polite to the teacher and apologizing to the teacher, but the regular ESL students were also worried about the students from other countries and did not want to disturb either the students or the teacher.

To Question # 10, which asks, "When the teacher asks a question to the entire class, do you volunteer an answer to the question?" five of the six regular ESL students answered "No" while the majority of the special ESL students said "Yes." "No" shows the Japanese characteristic of avoiding standing out in the classroom and possibly giving an incorrect answer.

Table 3. *Questionnaire (Part 2)*
Responses Divided by Male and Female Students

Question	Reponse (Percentage of Total on Second Line)					
	Yes	No	a.	b.	c.	Created Ans.
1 Male/Female			7/6	4/4	-	-
			33/29(%)	19/19(%)	-	-

2	-	-	1/0	6/7	2/3	2/0
			5/0(%)	28/33(%)	10/14(%)	10/0(%)
3	-	-	5/0	2/3	4/7	-
			24/0(%)	10/14(%)	19/33(%)	
4	-	-	1/5	1/1	9/4	-
			5/23(%)	5/5(%)	43/19(%)	
5	-	-	9/9	1/1	1/0	-
			42.5/42.5(%)	5/5(%)	5/0(%)	
6	-	-	3/2	7/8	1/0	-
			14/10(%)	33/38(%)	5/0(%)	
7	-	-	7/6	4/4	-	-
			33/29(%)	19/19(%)		
8	-	-	5/2	1/0	5/8	-
			24/9(%)	5/0(%)	24/38(%)	
9	8/7	3/3	-	2/3	1/0	-
	38/34(%)	14/14(%)		33/50(%)	17/0(%)	
10	6/5	5/5	1/1	1/1	3/3	-
	28/24(%)	24/24(%)	10/10(%)	10/10(%)	30/30(%)	
11	-	-	5/6	1/0	5/4	-
			24/28(%)	5/0(%)	24/19(%)	
12	-	-	10/0	1/0	-	-
			48/48(%)	4/0(%)		

The students' answers to Question #3 showed differences between the male and female students. The question asked was, "When the teacher asks you a question and you don't have the answer, what will you do?" While 45% of the male students answered the question with the response, "I'll ask the person next to me for the answer," none of the female students provided this response. This represents male cohesiveness with in-group members which will later be revealed in the class observations.

Part 3 -Open Ended Questions

The last part of the student questionnaire contained two open-ended questions, Questions 13 and 14. The first question asked students to identify "What kind of teacher's behavior makes you feel comfortable in class?"

Students' responses were broken into two categories for analysis. Some of the nineteen students identified more than one behavior that they preferred to see the teacher perform, providing a total of 28 responses. Only one student left this section blank.

Question 13

Teachers Attitude	Number of Responses (Total Percentage in Parenthesis)	
Has patience	5	(17%)
Is smiling/friendly	4	(14%)
Is active	3	(11%)
Uses positive thinking	3	(11%)
Uses humor	2	(7%)
Cheers up students	2	(7%)
Pays attention to all students	2	(7%)
Teaching Style		
Teaches details	4	(14%)
In class, speaks of Japanese culture, customs and food	1	(4%)
Explains until students understand	1	(4%)
Is always helpful to students	1	(4%)
	28	(100%)

The second question asked the students "What kind of teacher's behavior makes you feel uncomfortable in class?" There were seventeen responses; four students left this section blank.

Question 14

Teacher's Attitude	Number of Responses (Total Percentage in Parenthesis)	
Ignores lower level students	2	(12%)
Does not smile	1	(6%)
Is lazy	1	(6%)
Is not strict	1	(6%)

Teaching Styles		
Does not consider student's comprehension	4	(24%)
Worries about schedule	3	(17%)
Speaks too fast	3	(17%)
Favors one student, ignores others	1	(6%)
Does not remember student's name	1	(6%)
	17	(100%)

Class Observation

Class observations of both the special and regular ESL classes follow:

Prior to Class

o Before the class started, the special ESL students were very noisy, both sexes talking to each other in Japanese in a friendly and cordial manner. The students were not separated by gender and they interacted and helped each other. In contrast, the two SJSU and the two Cabrillo College regular ESL, female students sat separately and had no conversation in Japanese. Instead, three of the four students interacted in English with students from other countries. The fourth student sat quietly without any interaction with other students.

Learning Styles of the Japanese Students in Both Groups

o All of the Japanese students sat with their heads down listening to the lecture and waiting for directions from the teacher.

o Most of the Japanese students copied everything the teacher wrote on the blackboard, but never took notes on what the teacher was saying.

o Most of the Japanese students brought an English / Japanese dictionary. Whenever they saw an unfamiliar word in the textbook or printed materials, they looked up the definition in Japanese.

Nonverbal Behaviors

o Whenever the Japanese students in both classes agreed with the teacher or other students' answer, they used nonverbal behavior - nodding many times for a "yes" response. When they did use a verbal response of "yes," they said "yes-yes-yes." Whenever the students disagreed, they only shook their heads and did not use a verbal response. In the regular ESL class there were students from different cultures: Taiwanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Thai, and Mexican. These students used a lot of gestures, but nodded much

less frequently than the Japanese students.

- o *Aizuchi* (back-channel), such as *ah soo* (I see) and *ee* (yes) were changed to English "I see," "yes," and "hmmm." Although the linguistic form was changed, the use of *Aizuchi* did not change and was often used with Japanese students nodding their heads in interactions with both teachers and other students. Students from other cultures in the regular ESL class also used back-channels, but less often and with less nodding than the Japanese students.

- o Whenever the special ESL class teacher talked or directed a question to the students, most of the students would first look at the teacher, but then gradually turn their eyes to a different location to avoid continuing direct eye contact with the teacher. Whenever the teacher did not look directly at a student, most of the students continued looking at the teacher. Only one of the SJSU regular ESL Japanese female students maintained direct eye contact whenever the teacher talked directly to her. The other three Japanese female students looked at the teacher for a short period of time and then looked down at their notebook while the teacher was talking.

- o The five male and two female students in the special ESL class yawned a number of times during class. The boys would also grab and scratch their heads. Two of the male students looked sleepy, held their hands to their chest, and closed their eyes. When the teacher then called on each of them, one looked around and asked other students for the answer. The other one smiled the answer away and said nothing. During the middle of both the grammar and the conversation classes, some of the special ESL class students started chattering and teasing each other in Japanese. In the SJSU regular ESL class, the Japanese female student, who sat quietly prior to class, brushed her hair with her hands and took off and put on her glasses a couple of times. She seldom smiled. A couple of the special ESL class male students and three of the four regular ESL class, female students leaned back against their chairs and stretched their arms and hands forward a couple of times. This action did not happen with the special ESL class, female students and one of the regular ESL female students.

- o When the students were looking for an answer, they looked at the ceiling and then took a long pause (sometimes as long as a minute). Some of the special ESL class male students put their elbows on the table and supported their chins with their hands during these long pauses. Some said "hmmm" and then folded their arms and sat there thinking. Some of the time, the teacher did not wait for the answer and went on to another student with the question.

- o Many of the Japanese students used fillers such as "uh," "ah," and "um" with a long pause between the filler and the other words. This was especially true of the male students.

Interaction with Teachers

- o When the special ESL class teacher asked whether the students understood the answer to a question, the Japanese students smiled and an-

swered "yes." However, when they tried to write that answer in their notebook, they couldn't. They asked others what the answer should be.

- o Most of the students in both the special and regular ESL classes did not ask any questions whenever the teacher asked, "Are there any questions?" However, one SJSU regular ESL class Japanese female student voluntarily asked about vocabulary words which she did not understand. She tried to participate in the class discussion. Also, one special ESL class male student asked the teacher a question a couple of times in the conversation and grammar course. Whenever he asked a question, he raised his hand and said "Teacher."

- o During class breaks of ten minutes, the special ESL class students, both males and females, showed the teacher pictures which they had taken on farms in the United States. When the students talked to the teacher during the break period, the students kept a distance equal to two persons away from the teacher.

- o The two Cabrillo College regular ESL class female students did not interact with their teacher during class breaks. Each of them left with a different group of students from the class.

Interaction with Other Students

- o In interactions with the other students, most of the special ESL class students maintained direct eye contact with each other. The special ESL class chairs were placed close together and the standing distance between each of the students was very small, without any consideration for gender. The active Japanese female student in the SJSU regular ESL class sat very close to the Taiwanese male student. In contrast, the quiet Japanese student in the same class sat more than a person away from any other students. She avoided direct eye contact with other students and looked at the other person's hands or notebook. She never turned her body to face her partner but only turned her head. The two ESL female students at Cabrillo College did not sit together, but sat with other students. They maintained direct eye contact and sat close to these students.

- o One Japanese male student in the special ESL conversation class, when asked to read a paragraph, found unfamiliar words and asked for help in Japanese from other students in the class. Other male students, when asked a question by the teacher, also sought the answers from other classmates. This did not happen with the female students.

- o The active, female student in the SJSU regular ESL class and one female student from Cabrillo College were very helpful to the other students, assisting them with answers in the classroom.

- o Students took long pauses between turns in the classroom. There was no overlapping or interrupting by other students whenever someone was talking to the teacher.

Discussion

The results revealed several points which are worth noting. They indicate that some students did not always respond as predicted by the literature. First, the literature indicates that Japanese students are very quiet, with little interaction with each other or with the teacher in the classroom. However, the special ESL class students were chattering and teasing each other in Japanese during the classes. According to the literature, this behavior indicates a lack of respect for the teacher. Likewise, many special ESL students wanted to interact and enjoy conversation with their teacher during the break time.

Second, the statements of Thorpe (1991) and Yamada (1997) indicating that the Japanese tend to avoid standing out and speaking in front of others were not always supported. Two of the special ESL class male students created an answer to Question #2 that was designed to make the class laugh. The active female student in the SJSU regular ESL class voluntarily participated in the class by asking the teacher about unfamiliar words. In addition, she helped other students who were not Japanese and did not understand the instructions. This student never hesitated to have direct eye contact with the teacher, contrary to what the literature reports. She might have adapted herself to American culture, since she lived with two native English speakers and had minimal contact with other Japanese students, in contrast to the special ESL class students who came as a group and spent most of their time with group members. This result suggests that associating with English speakers in daily life is important both to gain English language skills and to acquire knowledge of American culture.

Research questions #1 and #4 are related and are presented together in this discussion. **Research Question 1** asks "What are the Japanese students' interaction patterns in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom?" **Research Question 4** asks "Are there any mismatches between "teacher" and "student" assumptions regarding verbal interaction in the ESL classroom?"

The classroom observation report described that most of the students in both the special and regular ESL classes rarely volunteered to ask or answer questions. However, in the questionnaire Question #1 "What is your preferred method of classroom interaction?" most students answered "To voluntarily ask and answer questions at any time." Question #9 asked, "Do you ask questions of the teacher during the class?" and Question #10 asked, "When the teacher asks a question to the entire class, do you volunteer an answer to the question?" Fifteen (71%) and eleven (52%) answered these questions with "Yes," respectively. However, in the observation this did not happen. A couple of male Japanese students did ask a few questions in the class, but whenever they asked questions, they raised their hands and said "Teacher." Also, they asked "What" and "When" questions but not "Why" or "How" questions that require reasoning and comprehension skills. Otherwise, they participated when called upon but did not volunteer.

There was no interruption by the Japanese students in class. It is common among American students to interrupt and compete for the floor, sometimes voicing opinions contrary to a previous answer. This style, "a competitive style" as named by Tannen (1990), was never seen among the Japanese students. Tannen called the Japanese style of long pauses and taking turns in an organized manner the "cooperative style," which is part of the communicative competence of Japanese. Accordingly, there is a mismatch between the Japanese and American conversational style in the classroom. This relates to the mismatch between teachers' and students' assumptions about interaction in the classroom as addressed in **Research Question 4**. The Japanese cooperative style may not always work in the American classroom since it reflects harmony and a high value on interpersonal relationships, both important in Japanese culture. The special ESL class students showed strong cohesiveness and used *amae* (depends upon and presumes upon another person's benevolence) as they interacted among themselves. Based on the observations, the special ESL students and three of the four female students in the regular ESL class often talked to students sitting next to them. As the literature has shown, Japanese students are quite talkative and cohesive with in-group members. These three female students of the regular ESL class established a special relationship in the classroom setting even though the other students were not Japanese. This finding is supported by Nakane (1970), who indicates that location-shared groups are built into a situational "frame." The answers to Question #10 demonstrated *amae* among the students who expected other students to answer the question for them.

Research Question 2 asks "Do traditional learning methods, the memorization and repetition used to develop high literacy (reading and writing), bring benefits to Japanese students?" In response to questionnaire Question #2, "When the teacher directs a question to you, how do you feel?" thirteen students answered "This is a great chance for me to use English." In the class observation, they answered the teacher's questions of "What is that person's name" or "What is he / she doing" with a simple phrase. However, they hesitated to answer questions which asked for reasons, requiring comprehension skills and critical thinking, since the traditional method of learning English in Japan focuses on memorization, repetition, drilling, and testing. Although these latter questions provided an opportunity for the Japanese students to use English in an effective manner, their English skills may not have reached that point and they were not accustomed to these types of questions.

Language learning in Japan does not focus on comprehension skills or discussion among teachers and students. Accordingly, these Japanese students were not accustomed to the American style of instruction and learning. Also, their traditional class participation would be to attend class regularly, be quiet, and answer when the teacher called on them. If the Japanese students had experienced extended American classroom participation and instruction, the results might have been different.

They had brought a Japanese learning style to the American classroom. They were accustomed to a teacher-centered learning style at their school

in Japan, which included listening to the teacher, taking notes, and not interacting with the teacher and other students. In addition, the questionnaire showed that certain unconscious Japanese cultural factors, such as *amae*, were used by the students in presuming that another student would answer a question for them. Harmony was present in the special ESL class. When the male students could not answer a question, they often asked the help of other students in the class, and the class members indeed tried to help each other. Whenever the students wanted to interact in the classroom, they used Japanese instead of English to communicate. These factors, plus poor performance related to losing face, unconsciously hindered their active class participation. However, in their questionnaires students indicated that they desired to voluntarily ask and answer questions at any time and to use English in their answers to the teacher.

Research Question # 3 asks "What aspects of Japanese cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes inhibit Japanese students' interaction in the ESL classroom?" The quiet female student in the SJSU regular ESL class was an example of the description provided by the literature on Japanese students (Rockelman, 1994); (Nakabayashi & Nagao, 1994); (McDaniel, 1993); and (Hattori, 1987). She sat quietly and mostly kept her head down, and she interacted with her teachers only when they called on her. During break time she never talked to either the teacher or the other students, and she kept a distance between herself and her partner student during paired discussion. This behavior indicated that, for her, the classmates were out-group members.

The problems the student faced in the situation described above, the cooperative conversational style reflecting the Japanese cultural value of *amae* that emphasizes group harmony, and the behavior of the quiet student all respond to **Research Question #3**. It is very helpful for Japanese students if their teachers understand their culture and learning styles and discuss the differences between their culture and American culture and how it may affect their learning. The students need to know what the teacher expects of them to improve their English and to understand American culture and learning styles. This information includes knowing the appropriate classroom language for asking and responding, offering and expressing opinions, and agreeing and disagreeing, as well as understanding classroom expectations, roles, and customs. If the situation has mixed students, such as in the regular ESL class, it is difficult for the teacher to know the cultures of all the students in the class. However, the teacher can include in the curriculum a discussion of the students' individual cultures and the learning style which will be used in the English language class. Similarly, Fujiwara (1994), Kiji and Kiji (1994), Fujita (1994), Seelye (1976), and Wallerstein (1983) all state that both the teacher and the second language learners need to recognize cultural differences and that the teacher needs to inform the students of appropriate American educational customs.

The students responded to Question #6, which asked, "Do you interact with the teacher after the class is finished," with 15 (71%) students indicating, "No, I ask questions only during the class." This response con-

flicted with the observation, which showed that many of the special ESL students and the active female in the SJSU regular ESL class spoke to the teacher during the class break. Japanese students expect a formal relationship with their teachers in Japan, avoiding interaction with them. In the Japanese social order, teachers are considered superior and students are considered subordinate, thereby requiring students to show modesty and respect to their teachers. While this attitude of no interaction was observed during class time, the Japanese students were quite willing to talk to their teachers during break time.

According to Question #13, many Japanese students felt comfortable with the teacher's friendly, active, and humorous style in class. This type of behavior contrasts with the more formal Japanese teacher's behavior. Since the special and regular ESL students had been in America for more than six months, they might have had a chance to associate with American people and experience Americans' friendliness and frankness. Therefore, the students may have expected a less formal style of association with their teachers during break time since they were in America.

In Question #12 which asked, "When the teacher has direct eye contact with you, how do you feel?" twenty (95%) of the students responded, "I don't mind." However, during the observation, only the active female student from the SJSU regular ESL class maintained direct eye contact while the teacher was talking to her. All of the special ESL class students and three of the regular ESL class student first looked at the teacher and then looked at different locations. This is unconscious behavior. Even though the students reported not minding direct eye contact, their accustomed behavior led them to avoid direct eye contact with the teacher.

In addition, certain nonverbal behaviors should be noted. Students often used head nodding for a "yes" response and *aizuchi* (back-channel) to both the teacher and the other students in the class. When students did use the response of "yes", they said "yes-yes-yes." This type of Japanese response indicated that they were listening closely and paying attention. It also indicated high involvement in the classroom, but with a different communication style. In contrast, for American students, high involvement and participation involves taking turns and voluntarily asking questions or providing opinions. One problem that the Japanese students had was their proficiency in English. They could not use English as well as they could use Japanese, and this problem was coupled with the different learning styles of Japanese schools.

The Japanese students rarely interrupted the turn of another student and took longer pauses between taking turns. There was no overlapping or interrupting by other Japanese students whenever someone was talking to the teacher. When the students were looking for an answer to a question raised by the teacher, they looked at the ceiling and then took a long pause before answering. Also, many Japanese students used fillers such as "uh," "ah," and "um" with a long pause between the filler and the next word. This behavior might relate to the cultural value of silence. There are cultural differences in the attitudes toward silence between the United States and Japan. Many English

speakers avoid silence, emphasize simultaneous speech during conversation, and use overlapping and competition for taking turns. In Japan, silence is considered a virtue, and the Japanese tend to use longer pauses and avoid overlapping in conversation to show respect for other people.

Some Japanese students leaned back against their chairs and stretched their arms and hands forward a couple of times. This action might have indicated that they were bored or tired, since it never happened during the beginning part of the class. Likewise, some male students scratched their heads. This might indicate that they didn't understand the question or that the question was very difficult for them. This behavior is quite common among Japanese students as an expression of their frustration.

Another common behavior among the Japanese students was "smiling." Question #3 asked, "When the teacher asks you a question and you don't have the answer, what will you do?" Five (24%) of the students responded "I will not say anything since I don't know the answer." In the class observation, some of the special ESL class male students smiled at the teacher when she asked a question, but they didn't respond. Also, when the teacher wanted feedback on whether the student understood or not, the student would smile at the teacher without saying "yes." However, this smiling did not mean that the student understood. Sherman (1989) reports that a smile is used by Japanese as a means to protect privacy and also that smiling serves as a kind of etiquette or politeness. Even though the students did not understand, they would simply smile so that they would not be embarrassed by not understanding what the teacher had said. The Japanese students also smiled because they did not want the teacher to be disappointed.

It is quite helpful for Japanese students if their teachers understand this nonverbal behavior, as the students are unconsciously giving their teachers signs expressing their feelings. If the teachers understand the signs, they can adjust their teaching style, change to group activities from the lecture style, or ask questions of the individual students. It is helpful for teachers to recheck information by asking questions or making students write the answer.

It is also quite helpful to Japanese students to have instruction gradually shift from the Japanese style to the American style of learning. This means that in the beginning part of the class, the interactional patterns of the classroom can have the teacher initiating the conversation by asking questions of each student. Gradually, the teacher can switch to whole-class discussion. Over the course of time, this procedure will inform the students of the American style of class participation and bridge the gap between the Japanese and American style of learning. Japanese students are accustomed to the group system in order to achieve the ultimate goal of group harmony. Therefore, it is beneficial for Japanese students to have many group activities. Group competition may also improve their learning skills.

It is important for Japanese students to pay attention to their own cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes, and to learn American cultural values through the teacher's instruction and discussion. It is also important for them to pay attention to their nonverbal behavior, unconsciously performed in daily

communication, and to compare the differences between their own and American students' nonverbal behavior. Group activity and observation of nonverbal behavior will provide a great opportunity for Japanese students to participate and develop knowledge of the American style of classroom learning.

Likewise, it is important for American students studying in Japan to learn Japanese culture and the Japanese method of instruction as presented in this study. It would be a good idea for them to attend a Japanese grammar class which uses a teacher-centered lecture style, as well as to associate with Japanese students and discuss with them the differences between Japanese and American culture. It is also important for them to practice simultaneous *aizuchi* and to take longer pauses to avoid overlapping in order to communicate with Japanese people more effectively.

Conclusion

Each country has its own set of cultural values, beliefs and attitudes. It is important for both teachers and students in special and regular ESL class to be aware of cultural differences and different learning styles. To understand the student's culture is an important first step in effectively communicating with the student since cultural factors influence student's motivation and achievement in the classroom.

This study is a starting point for understanding Japanese students in ESL classrooms. It is hard to generalize the findings since the number of Japanese students in the three classes is small. However, it is noteworthy to show that both the special and regular Japanese ESL students faced a paradox. They desired to voluntarily ask and answer questions at any time and use English in responding to the teacher's questions. However, in opposition was their accustomed Japanese learning style and Japanese cultural values, which hindered their active classroom participation. This paradox emerged in a number of different ways.

First, the questionnaire showed that they wanted to voluntarily answer and ask questions at any time and that, whenever the teacher directed a question to them, they felt that this was a great chance for them to use English. However, the observation showed that they seldom asked questions of the teacher and seldom voluntarily answered the teacher's questions. They followed the Japanese learning style of being quiet and attentive without interacting with the teacher during the class; instead, they interacted with each other in Japanese.

Second, the questionnaire showed that most of the students reported not interacting with the teacher, but asking questions only during the class. Observation showed, however, that the students enjoyed interacting with the teacher during the break period, sharing pictures and information from their trips.

Third, the questionnaire addressed the students' feeling toward the teacher's having direct eye contact with them. The majority answered that they

did not mind the teacher having direct eye contact. However, observation showed that most students gradually turned their eyes away to avoid continuing direct eye contact with the teacher.

These examples demonstrate that the Japanese students might have both the knowledge and desire to follow the American learning style and student roles in the classroom. However, it was difficult to shift from the Japanese traditional passive learning style to the American active class-participation style.

Even though the Japanese students desired to learn through class discussions, they relied on their previously learned practices in the classroom. It is, therefore, important for language teachers to make Japanese students aware of the differences between the Japanese and American learning style as well as the differences between the two cultures. It will benefit both teachers and students greatly to discuss these differences during the beginning part of the course in order to avoid misunderstanding and miscommunication.

A mismatch of the role perceptions of the teacher and the student can easily occur. How can the teacher and the student avoid this mismatch? What is the teacher's role in encouraging Japanese students to participate actively in the classroom? One way to solve this problem might be to establish small group activities in the classroom. The teacher may ask each group of international students to present aspects of their background, such as their individual culture, society, family, and personal history. This information should include their sociocultural systems, such as customs, different holidays and celebrations, and noticeable behavioral patterns. The activity will help both the teacher and the students to get to know each other well, as well as develop interpersonal relations through sharing their ideas, opinions, attitudes, and feelings. Japanese students are not accustomed to interacting with the entire class and following the American style of active classroom participation. A small-group activity will give them the opportunity to express readily what they want to say in English. They do not need to worry so much about making mistakes, which relate to shame, nor do they need to worry about standing out, which they believe will destroy harmony in the group. It is also a great way to establish an in-group situation since Japanese students are comfortable and talkative within in-group settings.

The teacher can work with each group to show American cultural patterns and how they might complement or contrast with the group's cultural patterns. Gradually, the teacher can present the American style of classroom participation to the students. Finally, each group can present their cultural classroom patterns to the entire class. This activity will help each class understand the culture of the different students in the class, encourage class participation, and introduce the students to the American style of instruction. This process will also help students reduce their anxiety since the topic will be their own background and culture, an area they know well and for which they have their own schemata. In this process, the teacher can encourage each student to participate actively in the whole class. The teacher and the students must cooperate and work together so that the students can improve their English ability and the teacher can develop effective teaching skills.

How do Japanese students motivate themselves to participate actively in the classroom? It is necessary for Japanese students to develop awareness of themselves as learners. Making mistakes is a necessary and important learning process. It helps students to have social interaction outside of the classroom. To associate and interact with native English speakers, like the active female student from the SJSU regular ESL class did, contributes to the learning process and helps the student gain knowledge of American culture. Other activities can include working as a volunteer in community activities or joining campus social and service clubs.

As a basis for classroom group activities, the teacher can encourage group harmony and cooperation among the members of the group to help them avoid standing out. Working in groups is very comfortable for Japanese students. Likewise, group competition may help develop higher achievement for students. Understanding this concept will also help American students planning to study in Japan. They need to recognize that they will need to learn as part of a group rather than building on their individuality. Emphasizing individuality and standing out in the classroom are considered selfish among the Japanese.

It is also important for newcomers to understand the Japanese hierarchical system. The teacher is considered to be at a higher level than the students, thus creating a formal relationship between students and teachers. Being too informal to the instructor is considered rude. It is important to understand Japanese nonverbal behavior in order to be able to show formality in respecting teachers.

An appropriate course plan needs to be designed to help Japanese students understand American learning styles and recognize the differences and the relationship between Japanese and American cultures. Such a course could be offered in Japan to students planning to study in the United States. This course would help prepare students for studying English as well as studying other subjects in regular American classrooms. The course should consider both cultures so that the students can learn how to adapt themselves to American culture with minimum anxiety.

For future research, both classroom observations and questionnaires need to be used with Japanese students who are in regular university classrooms with native English speakers. How Japanese students participate and interact with both their teachers and classmates needs to be studied and analyzed. Inamoto (1987) states that Japanese are not free of an inferiority complex towards Americans derived from their historical background. The Japanese may take a negative, hesitating, and modest attitude toward Americans for historical reasons (as cited in Nakabayashi and Nagao, 1994; p. 103). The special and regular ESL classes, the research group for this paper, had no native English speakers present. The active Japanese female student in the SJSU regular ESL class and one female student from Cabrillo College helped other students who were from other Asian countries. Since the Japanese economy is stronger than that of other Asian countries, did this factor influence her behavior? Another area for further research might focus on gender

differences among Japanese students studying English in the United States. Whether and how they show gender differences in interaction with their teachers and classmates should be studied and analyzed. These studies can contribute to a more sophisticated understanding of the factors influencing the behavior of Japanese students in U.S. classrooms.

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Appendix

Questionnaire - This questionnaire was presented to students in both English and Japanese.

Part 1

Age: _____ Male / Female (Circle One)
College Major in Japan: _____
Main Purpose for Studying English: _____

Part 2

Instructions: Please circle only the best answer.

1. What is your preferred method of classroom interaction?
 - a. To voluntarily ask and answer questions at any time.
 - b. To answer the teacher's question when the teacher calls on me.
 - c. Only to listen and not to answer questions.
2. When the teacher directs a question to you, how do you feel?
 - a. I wonder why the teacher asked me?
 - b. This is a great chance for me to use English.
 - c. If I give the wrong answer, I will be very ashamed.

3. When the teacher asks you a question and you don't have the answer, what will you do?
 - a. I'll ask the person next to me for the answer.
 - b. I will not say anything since I don't know the answer.
 - c. I will clearly say, 'I don't know.'
4. When you come late to class, what will you do, or what will you say to the teacher?
 - a. I will sit down in the chair near the corner of the room without saying anything because I don't want to disturb the class.
 - b. I will explain to the instructor why I was late and then sit down in the chair.
 - c. I will say 'I am sorry that I am late,' and then sit down.
5. What do you think about placing the chairs in a semi-circle or circle?
 - a. I am quite comfortable and this is a good chance to interact with other students.
 - b. I am not comfortable but the teacher wants it this way, so I will follow the teacher.
 - c. I am very ashamed because I feel like everyone is watching me.
6. Do you interact with the teacher after the class is finished?
 - a. Yes, very much.
 - b. No, I ask questions only during the class.
 - c. No. We should respect the teacher and not bother the teacher after class.
7. Do you participate in group class discussions?
 - a. I only answer a question when someone asks me.
 - b. I express my opinions on most topics.
 - c. Normally, I am not comfortable with participating in class discussion.
8. Do you talk to other students while the teacher is lecturing or teaching the class?
 - a. Yes, I often talk to students sitting next to me.
 - b. It is quite rude to the instructor, so I never do.
 - c. When a student asks me, I will answer - but not more than that.
9. Do you ask questions of the teacher during the class? Yes or No (Circle one).
For the person who said no, what is your reason?
 - a. It is rude to ask questions of the teacher.
 - b. I am ashamed because I might ask an inappropriate question.
 - c. I don't want to stand out in the class.
10. When the teacher asks a question to the entire class, do you volunteer an answer to the question? Yes or No (Circle one).

- For the person who said no, what is your reason?
- a. I would be very ashamed if my answer were wrong.
 - b. I don't want to stand out in the class.
 - c. I don't need to answer the question since other students can answer.
11. When the instructor makes a mistake in the classroom, what will you do?
- a. I don't need to correct the mistake since other students will.
 - b. I never correct the teacher's mistake because it would be rude to the teacher.
 - c. Voluntarily, I tell the instructor that he/she made a mistake.
12. When the teacher has direct eye contact with you, how do you feel?
- a. I don't mind.
 - b. I am uncomfortable.
 - c. It is rude to look at the teacher's eyes, so I will look elsewhere
13. What kind of teacher's behavior makes you feel comfortable in class?
14. What kind of teacher's behavior makes you feel uncomfortable in class?

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Learning Linguistic Politeness

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American KFL (Korean as a foreign language) students' communicative success depends to a large extent on their ability to express interpersonal meanings with target-language resources. However, information regarding how KFL students acquire, or fail to learn linguistic politeness through classroom learning is scarce. The nature of this study is cross-sectional. In addition, rather than directly examining the effects of particular approaches to instruction, the focus is on the observation of second year KFL students' pragmatic ability, resulting from previous classroom language learning.

The goal of this article is twofold: (a) to investigate the second-year KFL students' pragmatic judgment of an appropriate speech act, and (b) to discuss pedagogical implications based on the findings. Overall, the study found that the KFL students got 73.3% correct responses. In addition, the study identified five reasons for the wrong responses. Moreover, as possible factors influencing the students' assessment ability, this study identified the possible effects of negative transfer from their L1 sociopragmatic aspect: the egalitarian value system and the directness of American English (Sohn, 1986; Byon, 2001). Furthermore, the study identified the KFL instructors' lack of awareness regarding the needs of teaching KFL pragmatic elements and the grammar-oriented instructional goals of current KFL curriculum as two factors that need to be readdressed in order to enhance current KFL pragmatic teaching.

Rationale

Language has two functions: (1) to convey referential contents of the message such as knowledge and information, and (2) to express the social indexical meanings of the message (e.g., social meanings such as who we are, what we are doing, and how we feel toward the addressee and the events). The linguistic elements employed for the second function of language have been associated with the term 'linguistic politeness' (Sohn, 1999) or 'indexicality'

(Och, 1988; Duranti, 1997). According to Sohn (1999), many studies on linguistic politeness have identified two types of politeness: discernment and volitional. The function of discernment politeness is to index social meanings involved in contexts such as speakers' attitudes toward the addressee or referent (e.g., politeness, respect, and humility), as well as social variables involved in interactions (e.g., age, seniority, rank, gender, and education background). Discernment politeness use is controlled by the cultural norms of the society, and often it is realized in the form of honorifics.

For example, Korean honorifics, rich in morphological variation, belong to discernment politeness, and they function to establish and maintain human relationships through their complicated honorific elements (e.g., speech levels, honorific suffix, vocatives, euphemistic words, and various discourse sentence-ending particles). The Koreans use honorific suffixes and euphemistic words to indicate respect toward an addressee, someone who holds a higher social status. In addition, they use humble person pronoun forms such as *ce* 'first person singular' and *cehuy* 'first person plural' to indicate humility. Moreover, Koreans use various speech levels to indicate politeness, intimacy, and formality level of discourse during interaction, and various discourse-sentence ending particles as hedges to reduce the illocutionary force and/or directness level of their utterance.

The following examples illustrate the social indexing function of Korean honorifics.¹

1a. *Ecey wuli moim-ey wa-cwu()-ese komawe-ss-e*
Yesterday our meeting-to come-give()-so thank-PST-INT
'I appreciated that you came to our meeting yesterday.'

1b. *Ecey cehuy moim-ey wa cwu-si-ese komawe-ss-supnita*
Yesterday our meeting-to come-give-SH-so thank-PST-INT.
'I appreciated that you came to our meeting yesterday.'

The above two examples are speech acts of gratitude. The referential meanings of the examples are the same; however, their social meanings are different. For example, in (1a), the use of the plain first person pronoun, *wuli*, the absence of the honorific suffix *-(u)si*, and the use of an intimate speech level *-e* indicate that the speaker is likely to address a person either who has equal (=power) or lower status (-power), whom he/she knows well (-distance). The example in (1a) can be rude, if such an expression is used by a lower person (e.g., a college student) in a formal situation to a higher-status person (e.g., professor) because the utterance lacks the proper honorific elements.

To make (1a) socially appropriate in a +power situation, one should change the *wuli* first person plural genitive pronoun to the *cehuy* humble first plural genitive pronoun as shown in (1b). In addition, one should affix the honorific suffix *-(u)si* to the gerundive verb *cwuese* (giving [me]) to *cwusiese* transforming it into an honorific verb, and use the deferential speech level sentence-ending *supnita* to change *komawe-ss* (thanked [you]) to *komawess-*

supnita, in deferential speech level. The above examples illustrate how the use of honorifics in the Korean language function as a social indexer. In addition, it shows how an utterance is said is more important than what is said during the social interaction. Moreover, in the case of Korean, as pragmatic information is frequently embedded in the morphological rules, it is more salient. Along with Korean language, only a few languages such as Japanese and Javanese have such sophisticated systematic honorifics. The use of honorifics poses most daunting challenges to American KFL learners in that such sophisticated systematic linguistic coding of discernment politeness is not present in their L1, English.

Meanwhile, the volitional politeness is conspicuous both in English and Korean. Volitional politeness is to save one's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987), and it is influenced by interactive speech act situations. Brown & Levinson's (1987) adopt Goffman's (1967) concept of 'face' as 'a loan from society,' upon which they conceptualize two types of faces: 'negative face,' desires to be free from other people's intervention, and 'positive face,' desires to be accepted by others.² Based on universal assumption that people use linguistic politeness strategies to satisfy these 'faces' in interaction, Brown & Levinson develop a model of politeness, in which again they distinguish two types of politeness strategies: (a) positive, which attends to the hearer's positive face, and (b) negative, which attends to the hearer's negative face.

Their notion of 'face' wants and politeness are based on assumption that certain communicative acts are innately 'face-threatening acts (FTA)', thus needs to be counterbalanced by an appropriate amount of politeness. All speech acts are involved in FTA. For example, speech acts such as requests, orders, suggestions, advice, gratitude, and accepting offers are threatening 'negative face'. On the other hand, the speech acts such as apologies and accepting compliments threaten 'positive face'.

Because speech acts are FTA, the speaker has the choice to perform the act or not to perform it. If the speaker decides to perform an act, he or she may need to deploy some sort of politeness strategy to reduce the seriousness of FTA effects. The act can be either 'off-record' (e.g., performed in such a way that it can be ignored by the addressee) or 'on-record.' On-record acts can be either 'baldly on record' (by using direct speech acts such as 'give me the pencil') or can involve 'face-saving activity.' If the speaker decides to perform a face-saving activity, he or she can adopt either a negative strategy (e.g., Would you mind lending your pencil to me?) or a positive strategy (e.g., My friend! Let me use your pencil, OK?).

The directness level of speech act is associated with volitional politeness. According to Brown & Levinson, those who were in some way less powerful than the addressee are likely to use indirect politeness strategies (e.g., negative politeness as a social strategy), whereas using direct strategies (e.g., positive politeness) is a sign of social closeness. They assert that people tend to use a high-numbered of indirect politeness strategies in a society where high 'Distance' dominates (e.g., England). On the other hand, in those societies where low Distance dominates in public and Power is minimized,

people tend to use more of direct politeness strategies. In addition, Brown & Levinson discuss that power, distance, and the degree of imposition are the most important social variables determining the politeness of speech act performance. The amount of politeness can be measured through a computation of $\text{Weightiness} = \text{Distance} + \text{Power} + \text{Degree of imposition}$. Relative power may be given more weight than distance in a more hierarchical or vertical society such as Korean and Japanese culture, whereas relative distance may be more weighted in an egalitarian society such as American culture.

In sum, according to Brown & Levinson's view, 'face' wants motivate politeness, thereby it is volitional. However, beside 'face' wants, 'normative orientations' often motivate politeness (e.g., via honorifics) in Korean society. For example, the desire to index social relationships rather than to save one's face also motivates politeness in Korean culture. In Korean society, the use of politeness in interaction is not always strategic, but also normative.

So far, we have discussed discernment and volitional politeness in understanding Korean linguistic politeness. However, the aforementioned two types of politeness are not sufficient in order to perceive and produce Korean linguistic politeness successfully. For example, one must also be aware of cognitive values orientations of the Korean language and culture such as hierarchism, collectivism, and indirectness in engaging in Korean linguistic politeness. Sohn (1986) asserts that neither pragmatic principles of Brown & Levinson's face-saving view (1978), nor that of Grice's (1975) can explain,

Why Americans treat everyone more or less equally in speech acts, whereas Koreans are overly helpful and courteous to some people but act with no regard for others; why an angry American tends to upgrade address terms, as from "John" to "Mr. John Smith" when addressing someone with whom he is angry, whereas an angry Korean tends to downgrade address terms and speech level; why unlike Americans, Koreans cannot use a second person pronoun when addressing a social superior; and why American adults most commonly use nicknames like "Bob" and "Liz" while Korean adults most frequently use the deferential speech style for smooth daily social interaction. (p. 444)

Sohn (1986) further argues that Koreans and Americans have distinctively different cognitive cultures, underlying intercultural communication between Americans and Koreans.³ He asserts that Americans are, relatively speaking, more egalitarian, individualistic, direct, practical, and rationalistic than Koreans, and Koreans are more hierarchical, collectivistic, indirect, formalistic, and emotionalistic than Americans. Moreover, Byon investigates how these values are reflected in the Korean speech act of request (2002) and refusal (2003).

Learning to interpret and use Korean linguistic politeness is a daunting task for KFL students for at least two reasons. First, students must learn the effects of social constraints, bound by Korean cultural and social norms (e.g., cognitive value orientations), on the use of Korean honorifics, and perception of various aspects of volitional politeness such as directness level of Korean speech acts. For example, the use of relevant linguistic politeness (e.g., honorifics) is essential for the +power situation. However, in different social contexts such as -power situations, where the speaker has a higher status because of his/her age, or seniority compared to that of the hearer, the use of honorific elements must be suppressed to make the utterance socially appropriate. The use of honorifics in inappropriate contexts (e.g., -power situation) makes speakers' utterance sound cynical or even sarcastic to hearers.

Second, honorific elements such as appropriate speech level, euphemistic words, and honorific suffix normally co-occur to produce a polite utterance in the given context (+power). Consequently, KFL students must learn to collocate several honorific elements to produce certain social meanings. In other words, in order to speak and interpret Korean linguistic politeness, KFL students must know what social role they play in a given context and what is the normative anticipation of that role in Korean society; and they must know that certain linguistic features collocate in a certain speech level.

Then, how do KFL students learn to use such a difficult honorific system? According to Gumperz (1996), the use of contextualization conventions (e.g., honorifics) can be learned primarily through gradual and long-term socialization in the family, among friends, and institutional environments. Cook (2001) further adds that learning linguistic politeness via socialization is difficult because the process is typically unconscious, and often the use of conventions are inherently ambiguous because they are context-dependent (e.g., the complex effects of social constraints on contextual language use). In the reality of KFL students' learning, whose primary source of socialization depends on less than five hours of KFL language instruction every week, KFL students' opportunities for learning linguistic politeness through socialization are very much limited in classrooms. Despite the importance of linguistic politeness in KFL learning, the number of research findings regarding how KFL students acquire, or fail to acquire linguistic politeness through KFL classroom learning is scarce.

Research Issues

The goal of this paper is to investigate second-year American KFL students' pragmatic ability to assess an appropriate speech act (perceiving socio-culturally appropriate request forms) in three different situations, after three and a half semesters of typical foreign language instruction at the university level. The nature of this study is cross-sectional. In addition, rather than directly examining the effects of particular approaches to instruction, the focus here is on the observation of second year KFL students' pragmatic ability, resulting from previous classroom language learning. I attempt to measure the

students' pragmatic competence by examining their ability to assess appropriate request because the ability to produce and perceive speech acts appropriately is one way to assess KFL students' pragmatic learning process.

I chose the speech act of request as means to measure KFL students' pragmatic competence for two reasons. First, requests are a "face-threatening act (FTA)" (Brown & Levinson, 1987), which calls for considerable cultural and linguistic expertise on the part of the student. Moreover, requests differ cross-culturally and linguistically in that they require a higher level of appropriateness for their successful completion; very often, they are realized by means of clearly identifiable formulae. Second, non-native speakers such as American KFL students are likely to encounter problems in handling this particular speech act properly in Korean (Byon, 2001). The consequence of inappropriate requests by American KFL students may evoke rude or awkward impressions in the eyes of Korean native speakers. This can lead to misunderstanding, caused by the KFL students' lack of knowledge in relation to mitigating strategies and devices in Korean, which in turn may lead to "pragmatic failure" (Thomas, 1983). In the speech act of request, I focus on the students' pragmatic awareness when using the following three Korean honorifics: (1) speech levels: the use of plain, intimate, polite, and deferential, (2) the use of honorific suffix *-(u)si*, and (3) the use of euphemistic verbs such as *tulita* the humble verb of *cwuta* [to give].⁴ These honorific elements are assumed to be covered in the previous three semesters of Korean (e.g., Korean 101 through 201).

The data for this study is elicited from individual interviews with 30 Korean 202 KFL students. The interview consisted of a listening task (10 minutes) and reflection (5 minutes). In the listening task, a student is asked to listen to three request situations, followed by four choices of request. Then, the student is asked to assess the most appropriate request form for each situation. After the listening task, the student is asked to provide reasons for his/her selection of the particular request form.

The contribution of this study is at least threefold. First, investigation of the second year KFL students' ability to assess an appropriate speech act will help KFL teachers evaluate the KFL students' Korean linguistic politeness learning. The results will suggest what needs to be reconsidered and re-evaluated in the KFL curriculum in order to enhance students' pragmatic learning. Second, studies on KFL pedagogy have focused on learning vocabularies and grammatical points, whereas the studies that investigate learning pragmatic aspects such as the use of speech acts have often been ignored. It is my hope that the findings of this study will stimulate KFL teachers and researchers' interests in conducting further KFL pragmatic learning research.

The research questions are threefold. First, are KFL students able to distinguish an appropriate request form among inappropriate request forms? Second, what factors influence their success or failure in recognizing such stylistic differences? Third, what are pedagogical implications of this study?

Method

Participants

The subjects of this study were 30 KFL students of Korean 202 classes: 19 from the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor (Spring 2002) and 11 from State University of New York at Albany (Spring 2003). Subjects consisted of 15 heritage learners and 15 non-heritage students.⁵ The heritage learners were mostly from NY, and they were either born in the States or came to the States as infants. The non-heritage learners consisted of five White Americans, seven Korean adoptees, and one third-generation Korean descendant, and two Chinese Americans.⁶ Nineteen were female students, and 11 were male.

The instructors of these two courses, consisting of one female and one male, agreed to participate in this study. They were all native speakers of Korean, who were raised in Korea, and received their B.A. and M.A. from a Korean university. The female instructor of the University of Michigan had been teaching KFL for six years, and the male instructor from the University at Albany for five years. The instructors also participated in this study, and provided the native speakers' response. In addition, in order to shed light on possible sources for the subjects' judgments, they were interviewed after the task results were obtained. I interviewed the Korean instructors in my office in a friendly atmosphere, and the following two questions were used as a guideline during the interview.

1. Do you teach the elements of Korean linguistic politeness (e.g., the use of the honorific suffix *-(u)si*, speech levels, and the use of euphemistic verbs) in class?
2. Do you teach socio-pragmatic aspects of the Korean language (e.g., the effects of social constraints on the use of appropriate speech acts)?⁷

Procedure

The data collection procedure consisted of a listening task and a student reflection report. The detailed procedure is as follows. First, a subject is asked to listen to a sequence of three audio-taped situations, each followed by four choices of requests. After listening to each situation, the subject is prompted to listen to four audio-taped possible request forms, which are played three times, and then to judge the most appropriate request among the four choices in each given context. The appropriateness of the requests should be judged by the subject according to the referential content of the message, social meaning (e.g., politeness via the use of appropriate honorific elements), and pragmatic meaning (e.g., directness). After the listening task, the subject is asked to provide the reason that he/she chose the particular response.

Materials

Situations in the questionnaire were constructed to evaluate KFL learners' ability to assess the appropriate speech act of request. In order to choose the right act, learners must understand the honorifics elements (related to discernment politeness), as well as aspects of directness level of speech acts (associated with volitional politeness).

The situations in this study aim to investigate the systematic variation of the social factors: Power and Distance, which had both been shown to be significant variables in determining speech performance (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper, 1989; Brown & Levinson, 1987). The power variable is treated as a trinary value where the hearer was either of lower status (-power), interlocutors were of equal status (=power), or the hearer was of higher status (+power). In addition, the distance variable may be treated as a binary value so that interlocutors either knew each other (-distance) or did not know each other (+distance). However, for ease of exposition, this study narrowed down the above six combinations into the following three situations: (+power, -distance), (=power, -distance), and (-power, -distance). Table 1 below presents the social constraints embedded in three situations. These role relationships reflect common occurrences in the daily life of college students.

Table 1. *Social Constraints Embedded In The Scenario*

Situation	Power (Social Status)	Familiarity (Social Distance)
1. Professor	S<H	Familiar
2. Best Friend	S=H	Familiar
3. Roommate (junior)	S>H	Familiar

Among the possible four request forms, there is only one appropriate form and the three inappropriate forms, judged by the native speakers of Korean.⁸ Can KFL students make a pragmatic judgment similar to that of Korean native speakers? This investigation offers a good opportunity to investigate KFL students' ability to focus on social meaning as indexed by the honorific elements.

Now, let us see how these politeness constructs (honorifics elements and directness levels) are embedded in each situation. The following are the texts that were read to the students three times.

Situation 1 (+P, -D)

You are very much interested in auditing a class taught by Professor Kim. You already have taken two classes from Professor Kim, and you KNOW him personally. So you decide to ask this professor's permission to audit. What would you say to get this professor to allow you to audit this class?

Choice 1

1. *Sensayng-nim, annyeng ha-sey-yo?*

Teacher-HT Well do-SH-POL?

'Professor, how are you?'

2. *Sensayng-nim-i ipen hakki-ey kaluchinun*

Teacher-HT-NM this semester-at teaching

swuep-ul tutko siph-ese mwule polyeko wa-ss-eyo.

class-AC take want-so ask see come-PST-POL.

'I came here to ask (for your permission) because I want to take a class taught by you this semester.'

3. *Cinan hakki sensayng-nim-uy*

Last semester teacher-HT-GN

swuep-i nemwu caymi iss-ess-ko manhun kes-ul paywul swu-ka iss-ess-eyo.

class-NM very interesting PST-and much things-AC learn can-NM PST-POL.

'Last semester, your class was very interesting, and I was able to learn much.'

4. *Sensayng-nim kkok tutkosiph-eyo. Tutkey hay cwu-lkeci-yo?*

Teacher-HT certainly take want-POL. Take do give-will-POL.

'Professor, I really want to take it. You will let me take it, right?'

Choice 2

1. *Sensayng-nim, annyeng ha-sy-ess-supni-kka?*

Teacher- HT Well do-SH-PST-DEF-Q?

'Professor, How are you?'

2. *Sensayng-nim-kkeyse ipen hakki-ey kaluchi-si-nun swuep-ul tutko*

Teacher-HT-NM this semester-at teaching-SH class-AC take

siph-ese yeccwue polyeko wa-ss-supnita.

want-so ask (EU) see come-PST-DEF.

'I came here to ask (for your permission) because I want to take a class taught by you this semester.'

3. *Cinan hakki sensayng-nim swuep-i nemwu caymi iss-ess-ko*

Last semester teacher-HT class-NM very interesting-PST-and

manhun kes-ul paywul swu-ka iss-ess-supnita.

Much things-AC learn can-NM PST-DEF.

'Last semester, your class was very interesting, and I was able to learn much.'

4. *Sensayng-nim, kkok tutko siph-supnita.*

Teacher- HT, certainly take want-DEF.

'Professor, I really want to take it.'

5. *Tutkey hay cwu-si-l swu issu-si-keyss-supni-kka?*

Take do give-SH can SH-intention-DEF-Q?

'Will you be able to let me take it?'

Choice 3

1. *Sensayng-nim, annyeng-ha-sey-yo?*

Teacher-HT Well do-SH-POL?

'Professor, How are you?'

2. *Ipen hakki-ey sensayng-nim-kkeyse kaluchi-si-nun swuep-ul tutko*

this semester-at teacher-HT NM(hon.) teaching SH class-AC take

siph-ese yeccwue polyeko wa-ss-nuntey-yo.

want-so ask(EU) see come-PST-hedge-POL.

'I came here to ask (for your permission) because I want to take a class taught by you this semester (hedge)...'

3. *Cinan hakki sensayng-nim swuep-i nemwu caymi iss-ess-ko*

Last semester teacher-HT class-NM very interesting PST-and

manhun kes-ul paywul swu-ka iss-ess-ketun-yo...

much thing-AC learn can-NM PST-hedge-POL.

'It is because your class last semester was very interesting, and I was able to learn much (hedge)...'

4. *Sensayng-nim, kkok tutko siph-untey...tutkey hay cwu-si-lkeci-yo?*

Teacher-HT certainly take want-hedge...take do give-SH-will-POL?

'Professor, I really want to take it (hedge)... You will let me take it right?'

Choice 4

1. *Annyeng-ha-sey-yo? Ipen hakki sensayng-nim-kkeye kaluchi-si-nun swuep-ul tutko siph-eyo.*

Well do-SH-POL? This semester teacher-HT-NM teaching-SH class-AC take want-POL.

'How are you? I want to take a class taught by you this semester.'

2. *Cey-ka i swuep-ey kwansim-i manh-ayo. Kulayse com tutkey hay cwu-sey-yo.*

I-NM this class-at interest-NM a lot-POL. So little take do give-SH-POL.

'I am really interested in this class. So, please let me take it.'

KFL learners must understand the honorifics or 'conventionality' of linguistic politeness expressions, as well as differences in the directness. Native speakers confirmed that Choice 3 is the most appropriate choice for this situation, whereas the other three choices are inappropriate.

Let us first examine why other choices are inappropriate. Choice 1 sounds inappropriate because of the absence of the honorific suffix *-(u)si*. It is conventional to use the honorific suffix in addressing a person with higher status such as one's professor, regardless of familiarity. The absence of the suffix in the expression makes the speaker sound very rude. Choice 2 is awkward because of the deferential speech level *-supnita*, whose usage is restricted to a formal setting. In this private conversation setting, the use of informal polite speech level *-yo* is conventional. They also judged Choice 4 inappropriate because it sounds too direct and thus impolite for this situation. Indirectness is one of the cognitive value orientations of Korean language and culture (Sohn, 1986). Despite the close social distance between the speaker and the hearer, the use of indirect strategies is normative in Korean in this particular situation, where a student makes a request to his/her professor. Such interpretation supports Byon's argument (2001) that power is a more dominant social factor in comparison to distance, and Sohn's proposal (1986) that hierarchism and indirectness are two cognitive value orientations of Korean. At last, Choice 3 is the most appropriate in that it contains all the necessary elements of honorifics: the right speech level: polite speech level *-yo*, the use of honorific suffix *-(u)si*, the use of euphemistic verb *yeccwupta* 'to ask (humble verb)', and appropriate indirectness level, expressed by the use of hedge *-untey*.

Situation 2 (=P, -D)

Because of the stomach flu, you were absent from last Friday's history class. So you decide to borrow your INTIMATE classmate's notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you notes for the class you missed?

Choice 1

1. *Cinan swuep-ey apha-se mos ka-ss-ta. Swuep note-lul pilliko siph-ta.*

Last class-at sick-so can't go-PST-PLN. Class note-AC borrow want-PLN.

'I could not come to the last lecture for I was sick. I want to borrow your notes.'

2. *Note-lul pillye-to twa-y?*

Note-AC borrow-though become?

'Is it okay that I borrow then?'

Choice 2

1. *Cinan kumyoil-ey aphu-sye-se swuep note-lul mos ha-sye-ss-e.*

Last Friday-on sick-SH-so class note-AC can't take-SH-PST-INT.

'I could not take notes for I was sick last Friday.'

2. *Note-lul pillye tulye ung?*

Note-AC lend-give (EU) Okay?

'Lend me your notes (for someone)? Okay?'

Choice 3

1. *Cinan kumyoil-ey apha-se swuep note-lul mos hay-ss-eyo.*

Last Friday-on sick so class note-AC can't do-PST-POL.

'I could not take notes last Friday for I was sick.'

2. *Note-lul pillye cwu-sey-yo.. Ney?*

Note-AC lend give-SH-POL Yes?

'Please lend me your notes. Yes?'

Choice 4

1. *Cinan kumyoil-ey apha-se swuep note-lul mos hay-ss-e.*

Last Friday-on sick so class note-AC can't do-PST-INT.

'I could not take notes last Friday for I was sick.'

2. *Note-lul com pillye cwul-lay, ung?*

Note-AC little lend(me) give-will Okay?

'Will you lend me your notes? Okay?'

In this situation (=P, -D), the use of intimate speech level is the most acceptable. In addition, the use of any honorific elements such as honorific suffix, and euphemistic words is not normative. Korean native speakers picked Choice 4 as the most appropriate for this situation and judged all other choices inappropriate. Choice 1 sounds awkward for its plain verb ending *-ta*. The plain speech level *ta*, which is the lowest speech level in Korean language is used by any speaker, in general, to any child, and between intimate adult friends whose friendship began in childhood. On the other hand, the intimate speech level is used by close friends whose friendship began in adolescence (Sohn, 1999). Considering that the speakers in the situations are college friends, native speakers of Korean judged Choice 1 inappropriate for it sounds too blunt. Choice 2

is incorrect because of the use of the honorific suffix *-(u)si*, and the use of the wrong humble verb *tulita*. Choice 3 is again inappropriate because of the polite speech level. At last, Choice 4 is the best choice in that it has the most conventional speech level without any honorific elements.⁹

Situation 3 (-P, -D)

Your roommate is your best friend's younger sibling, who is your high school junior. Your computer is out of order because of a virus, but you have a paper due tomorrow. You decide to ask your ROOMMATE whether you can use his computer tonight. What would you say to get your roommate to do this favor for you?

Choice 1

1. *Nayil kkaci swukcey-ka iss-nuntey cey computer-ka kocang-i na-ss-eyo.*

Tomorrow until homework-NM have-but my computer-NM broken-NM occur-PST-POL.

'I have homework due tomorrow, but my computer is out of order.'

2. *Mian ha-ciman twusikan-man pillye cwu-sey-yo.*

Sorry do-but two hours-only lend give-SH-POL.

'I am sorry but please lend it to me (only) for two hours. Please?'

Choice 2

1. *Nayil kkaci swukcey-ka iss-usi-ntey cey computer-ka kocang-i na-sy-ess-e.*

Tomorrow until homework-NM have-SH-but my computer-NM broken-NM occur-SH-PST-INT.

'I have homework due tomorrow, but my computer is out of order.'

2. *Mian ha-ntey twusikan-man ssu-si-ko siph-e. Ung?*

Sorry do-but two hours-only use-SH-and want-INT. Okay?

'I am sorry but, I want to use it for (only) two hours. Okay?'

Choice 3

1. *Nayil kkaci swukcey-ka iss-nuntey computer-ka kocang-i na-ss-e.*

Tomorrow until homework-NM have-but computer-NM broken-NM occur-PST-INT.

'I have homework due tomorrow, but my computer is out of order.'

2. *Mian ha-ciman twusikan-man pillye cwul-lay, ung?*

Sorry do but two hours-only lend give-INT. Okay?

'I am sorry but will you lend it to me (only) for two hours? Okay?'

Choice 4

1. *Nayil kkaci swukcey-ka iss-nuntey nauy computer-ka kocang-i na-ss-ta.*

Tomorrow until homework-NM have-but my computer-NM broken-NM occur-PST-PLN.

'I have homework due tomorrow, but my computer is out of order.'

2. *Kulayse neuy computer-ka philyo-ha-ta. Computer-lul pilliko siph-ta.*

So your computer-NM need-do-PLN. Computer-AC borrow want-PLN.

'So, I need your computer. I want to borrow your computer.'

3. *Computer-lul com sse-to tway?*

Computer-AC little use-though become?

'Is it okay that I use it (for a little while)?'

Similar to Situation 2, the use of intimate speech level is normative in (-P, -D) situation. In addition, the use of any honorific element, such as honorific suffix, and euphemistic verbs, is inappropriate. Korean native speakers excluded Choice 1 (for its polite speech level), and Choice 2 (for the use of the honorific suffix). They judged Choice 4 less appropriate than Choice 3 in that the use of the intimate speech level in Choice 3 sounds more natural than the use of plain speech level in Choice 4.

Results

Overall Performances

Table 2 shows the number of correct responses. A total 30 subjects participated in this study. Each subject had to pick one correct response from three situations, which yielded 90 possible answers (30 subjects x 3 questions).¹⁰

Table 2. *The Number of Correct Responses*

Situation	Number of Questions	Number of Correct Answers
One	30	19
Two	30	22
Three	30	25
Total	90	66

(N = raw score)

Overall, the KFL students, both heritage and non-heritage students, got 73.3% correct responses (66 out of 90 possible answers). In addition, Situation 1 was the most difficult question for both groups in that they scored 63.3% (19 out of 30 possible answers), and Situation 3 was the easiest in that they scored 83.3% (25 out of 30 possible answers).

Analysis of Each Situation

Situation 1

In this situation, a student makes a request to a professor (+P, -D) whom he/she knows personally, and Choice 3 is the right response.

Table 3. *Distribution of Choices in Situation 1*

Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Total
5 16.7%	6 20%	19 63.3%	0 0.0%	30 100%

As Table 3 shows, 19 students (63.3%) picked the right response, Choice 3. They reported that they judged Choice 1 was wrong for the absence of *-(u)si*, the honorific suffix, and Choice 2 was inappropriate for the use of the deferential polite ending in this informal context. Moreover, they assessed Choice 4 was inappropriate for it sounded too direct. On the other hand, six students (20.0%) picked the wrong response: Choice 2. According to their self-reflection report, they picked Choice 2 because they thought that the deferential level sounded more polite than the polite level. In addition, five students (16.7%) picked Choice 1, perceiving that the use of the honorific suffix *-(u)si* is unnecessary because of the intimacy between the speaker and the hearer. Egalitarianism has been discussed as one of the main characteristics of American English in previous studies (Sohn, 1986; Byon, 2001). The students' selection of Choice 1 may be attributed to negative transfer from their L1 sociopragmatic aspect: the egalitarian value system of English. In all, based on the analysis, it turned out that the students recognized that direct expressions would be inappropriate in this particular context (e.g., none picked Choice 4). On the other hand, some found the use of different speech levels perplexing (e.g., in the selection of Choice 3).

Situation 2

In this situation, a speaker makes a request to his/her intimate classmate (=P, -D), and the right response is Choice 4.

Table 4. *Distribution of Choices in Situation 2*

Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Total
1 3.3%	7 23.3%	0 0.0%	22 73.3%	30 100%

As shown in Table 4, 22 students (73.3%) picked Choice 4, the correct response. They reported that they recognized Choice 1 was inappropriate in that the plain verb ending *-ta* sounded strange in this context; Choice 2 was incorrect on an account of the wrongly used honorific suffix and the euphemistic verb, *pillye tulye*; and Choice 3 was again awkward because the polite verb ending *-yo* did not suit this context. On the other hand, seven students (23.3%) picked the wrong response, Choice 2: they reported that they could not comprehend the euphemistic verbs in listening, and wrongly thought that the use of honorific suffix would render the request polite even in addressing a close friend.

Situation 3

In this situation, a speaker makes a request to an intimate roommate (-P, -D), and Choice 3 is the right response.

Table 5. *Distribution of Choices in Situation 3*

Choice 1	Choice 2	Choice 3	Choice 4	Total
0 0.0%	0 0.0%	25 83.3%	5 16.7%	30 100%

As Table 5 shows, 25 students (83.3%) picked the right response: Choice 3. In addition, five students (16.7%) chose a wrong response: Choice 4. They perceived both Choice 3 and 4 were acceptable at first, but regarded Choice 4 more appropriate in that the referential message of Choice 4 was clearer than Choice 3. For example, compare Choice 3 and 4:

Choice 3

I have homework due tomorrow, but my computer is out of order.

I am sorry but will you lend it to me only for two hours? Will you?

Choice 4

I have homework due tomorrow, but my computer is out of order.
So, I need your computer. I want to borrow your computer. May I use it please?

Choice 4 has two more additional referential messages than Choice 3: "I need your computer, and I want to borrow your computer." They perceived the illocutionary force of Choice 4 more straightforward than Choice 3 and judged that the direct request is more appropriate in this context (-P, -D). Such a finding is reminiscent of Byon's finding (2001): the American English native speakers were more direct than the Korean native speakers in producing the speech act of request. For example, in coinciding with Grice's (1975) cooperative principles, American English native speakers preferred 'clarity' over 'indirectness' in realizing the act of request (Byon, 2001).¹¹ Consequently, the judgments made by the four non-heritage students may be the result of negative transfer from L1 culture: directness of American English (Sohn, 1986; Byon, 2001).

Discussion

Reasons for Wrong Responses

The sum of wrong responses of students was 24 (out of 90 possible responses). Table 6 shows the reasons for choosing wrong responses.

Table 6. *Reasons For Choosing Wrong Responses*

Reason for Choosing Wrong Responses	Number
Difficulty in recognizing the euphemistic verbs	7
Misjudged the use of appropriate speech levels	6
Failure in using the honorific suffix in addressing an intimate professor	5
Different perception regarding directness level in speech act	5
Don't know	1
Total	24

Out of 24 wrong responses, 23 responses were based on the following reasons. First, the most common reason was the difficulty in recognizing the euphemistic verb (e.g., *yeccwupta* [to ask (humble)] and *tulita* [to give (humble)]): 7 errors (in Situation 2). The second reason was the misjudgment in the use of appropriate speech level: 6 students thought that the deferential level is more polite than polite level even in informal contexts (Situation 1). The third reason was the failure in using the honorific suffix in addressing an intimate professor: they thought that the use of honorific suffix addressing an intimate professor was unnecessary. The fourth reason was the different per-

ception regarding directness level of speech act: they regarded the more straightforward the request appropriate when addressing an intimate junior (-P, -D).

The Effects of Instruction

According to the instructors, the use of the honorific suffix *-(u)si* and the use of deferential, polite, intimate, and plain speech levels are covered in the first year of Korean language education (by the end of 102 level). However, 202 level students, who are assumed to have learned all of the aforementioned elements, had 24 errors out of 90 possible answers (26.7% inaccuracy). This raised the questions regarding the effects of instruction. In order to shed light on possible sources for the students' misjudgments, I interviewed the instructors, and the following two questions were used as a guideline during the interview.

1. Do you teach the elements of Korean linguistic politeness (e.g., the use of the honorific suffix *-(u)si*, speech levels, and the use of euphemistic verbs) in class?
2. Do you teach socio-pragmatic (volitional politeness) aspects of the Korean language (e.g., directness level and the effects of social constraints on the use of appropriate speech acts)?

First, both instructors were unanimously surprised that some students picked wrong responses due to the difficulty in recognizing euphemistic verbs and the misjudgment of the appropriate use of speech level. The instructors commented that the prototypical uses of the honorific suffix and all four speech levels (plain, intimate, polite, and deferential) were introduced in the textbooks of the 101 and 102 levels and were mentioned throughout the textbooks of 201 and 202 whenever relevant discussions appeared.¹² For this reason, they assumed that most students would not have problems in perceiving a correct speech level, and they did not lecture the explicit pragmatic functions of the honorific suffix, the speech level and the use of euphemistic words in their current 202 classes.

For the questions whether they teach volitional aspects of the Korean language (e.g., the directness and the effects of social constraints on the use of appropriate speech acts), the instructors also reported that they did not really take their pedagogical importance seriously, and normally do not provide explicit instruction regarding the socio-pragmatic aspects of speech acts. Both instructors acknowledged that teaching socio-pragmatic issues have been largely ignored on the account that their current KFL curriculum, and their current KFL instructional objectives and teaching materials are designed to focus on grammatical teaching rather than communication oriented teaching. Although they realize the importance of teaching pragmatic elements, in practical terms, it is difficult to teach these elements to the students because the amounts of grammatical points to teach within a semester is already so immense that there is really no time to spend on teaching and learning prag-

matic aspects of the Korean language.

However, according to Kasper and Rose (2001), teaching pragmatic elements is beneficial to second and foreign language students. In addition, previous studies (Beebe and Takahashi, 1989a, 1989b; Olshtain and Cohen, 1990) have supported that teaching speech acts is essential. This study suggests that as the first step to enhance pragmatic language teaching in KFL education, it is crucial to raise the KFL instructors and curriculum designers' awareness in teaching socio-pragmatic elements of the Korean language use. Cook (2001) discusses that the enhancement of instructors' pragmatic, sociolinguistic and discoursal knowledge of the target language and culture is the key to effective pragmatic language teaching. According to Cook (2001: 100), in order to enhance pragmatic language learning, "the instructor needs to analyze the social context of the teaching materials and fully understand pragmatic function of linguistic forms and what exactly constitutes 'framing' or expectation structure that surrounds an utterance."

Conclusion

Pedagogical Implications

This study investigated the second-year American KFL students' pragmatic judgment of an appropriate speech act. Overall, the KFL students achieved 73.3% accuracy. In addition, the study identified five reasons for the wrong responses: (a) difficulty in recognizing the euphemistic verbs; (b) misjudgment in the use of appropriate speech levels, (c) failure in using the honorific suffix when addressing an intimate professor; (d) different perception regarding directness level in speech acts; and (e) lack of knowledge regarding Korean honorifics. Moreover, as possible factors influencing the students' assessment ability, this study identified the possible effects of negative transfer from their L1 socio-pragmatic aspect: the egalitarian value system and the directness of American English (Sohn, 1986; Byon, 2001). Furthermore, based on the interview results of the instructors, the study identified the KFL instructors' lack of awareness regarding the needs of teaching KFL pragmatic elements and the grammar-oriented instructional goals of current KFL curriculum as two factors that need to be readdressed in order to enhance current KFL pragmatic teaching.

Pedagogical implications of this study's findings are at least three-fold. The first finding is related to 'what to teach.' The finding highlights the explicit instruction of three aspects of the Korean linguistic politeness: honorifics (discernment politeness), directness level of speech acts (volitional politeness) and the cognitive value orientations of Korean language underlying Korean linguistic politeness behaviors. Explicit instruction on Korean honorifics should be strengthened even in the intermediate Korean class. In addition, contextual factors (e.g., social variables such as power and distance) are essential in using the Korean honorifics, thus teaching honorifics through Korean FTA speech acts such as requests and refusal is beneficial. Another

practical suggestion is to teach students the cognitive value orientations of American English and Korean (Sohn, 1986). Understanding the differences between the underlying cognitive value orientations of American English and Korean, students can better relate these value differences to the aspects of volitional politeness, such as the directness level of speech acts and the role of social variables (e.g., power and distance) affecting speech act performances.

The second implication is related to 'how to teach' linguistic politeness through classroom activities. I support a view that students learn Korean linguistic politeness most effectively only when they can make sense of what is being taught.¹³ In other words, simple memorialization of some linguistic features of Korean honorifics and/or cognitive value orientations of the Korean language in order to simply do well in a test without personalizing the contents will never sustain successful learning outcomes. I suggest the following three principles in planning instruction:

1. An emphasis on learning the Korean linguistic politeness to communicate through interaction in Korean.
2. The employment of authentic texts as much as possible in learning Korean linguistic politeness situations.
3. An attempt to link classroom language learning (the honorifics) with language activation outside the classroom.

First, the instructional opportunities that stress learning through interaction include role-play and interview assignments. For example, role-playing assignments allow learners to take active roles as interlocutors in plausible socio-cultural situations, such as reaching agreement, expressing disagreement or agreement with others, making requests or apologies, and making or accepting compliments. Further, it helps the students practice strategic competence such as topic control, turn-taking behaviors, and repairing communication breakdown. During the process, the students will learn socio-culturally appropriate attitudes and behavior relevant to Korean honorifics. In addition, interview assignments are effective in that the learners have to interview other KFL teachers, in which they have to use the linguistic politeness during the assignment, thereby experiencing Korean inter-personal relationships in an authentic context.¹⁴

Second, the use of authentic material is essential in the instructional design of Korean linguistic politeness.¹⁵ Choi (1978) indicates that the acquisition of honorific usage is largely a matter of family education and practice. Choi's statement highlights the significance of authentic learning contexts and materials for teaching the honorifics. One practical application is the use of multi-media materials, such as television dramas, and commercials. For example, after watching dramas or commercials, teachers can lead class discussions regarding which socio-linguistic elements (e.g., social variables such as power, distance, and gender) elicit which politeness features (e.g., speech levels) in interlocutors' utterances, and the volitional politeness strategies (e.g., directness level), embedded in the contents. The use of multi-media au-

dio-visual materials is particularly useful in that it teaches not only linguistic politeness but also non-verbal communicative behaviors, such as gestures and eye contact between interlocutors.

Third, it is important for students to link classroom language learning (the honorifics) with language activation outside the classroom. This idea is closely related to the value of "community" of the 5 C's of the National Standard (Standards for foreign language learning: Preparing for the 21st century, 1996, p.9).¹⁶

5.1. Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting.

5.2 Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment."

Because of its linguistic complexity along with socio-pragmatic constraints, learning Korean linguistic politeness will never be effective unless the learners extend their knowledge beyond the school setting. One practical pedagogical application is to encourage students to explore their own favorite Korean dramas or pop-songs, urge language exchange opportunities with native Korean speakers through e-mail, and provide them with information regarding educational and career opportunities in Korea. In addition, activities should help learners be aware of the significance of the learning points so that learners can personalize the value of learning in a broader cultural context. In short, such an approach will stimulate the students' motivation and help them make sense of what is being taught, which in turn expedites the process of learning.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The application of this study is at least twofold. First, this investigation of the second year KFL students' ability to assess an appropriate speech act can help KFL teachers evaluate the students' Korean honorifics learning. The results suggest what needs to be reconsidered and reevaluated in the KFL curriculum in order to enhance students' pragmatic learning. Second, studies on KFL pedagogy have focused on learning vocabularies and grammatical points, whereas the studies that investigate learning pragmatic aspects, such as the use of speech acts, have often been ignored. Consequently, it is hoped that the findings of this study stimulate KFL teachers and researchers' interests in conducting further KFL pragmatic learning research.

This study raises questions for further research. First, since the population of KFL students in U.S. college settings is small, it was not possible to obtain a large sample size to conduct advanced statistical analyses. The general KFL learners' population should be further investigated through the use of advanced statistical methods. Second, this study systematically examined the effects of only two social variables (i.e., power and distance) on the Korean

speech act of request. Future research should investigate other possible social variables, such as the degree of imposition of request. Third, conducting a similar investigation, using other pragmatic ability assessment tools, such as a written task, should be considered in future studies to see the full picture of the students' pragmatic assessment ability. Fourth, Cook (2001) asserts that integrative motivation is helpful in noticing pragmatic features that have been instructed. Future studies should obtain more detailed information from the participants regarding the reason they are studying Korean, their attitudes toward Korean people and heritage, and their socio-cultural knowledge. Fifth, a future study should investigate the relative effects of different instructional approaches (e.g., role play, and conversational drills), since our ultimate goal is to teach KFL students both grammatical as well as socio-pragmatic competence of the Korean language more effectively.

Notes

¹The Yale romanization system is used to transcribe the Korean utterances in this paper. In addition, The following abbreviations are used to label the linguistic terms employed in this paper:

AC	Accusative particle
DEF	Deferential speech level
EU	Euphemistic verbs
GN	Genitive particle
HT	Honorific title
INT	Intimate speech level or suffix
NM	Nominative case particle
PLN	Plain speech level or suffix
POL	Polite speech level, suffix, or particle
PST	Past tense and perfect aspect suffix
SH	Subject honorific suffix

²According to Goffman, 'face' is an individual's most personal belonging but it is only 'on loan' from society; and every member of society tends to behave in such a way so as to establish and maintain both her/his own 'face' and that of the other members.

³In discussion of contrastive cognitive value orientations between Americans and Koreans, Sohn (1986) notes that it is impossible to statistically measure the value of society because it varies with time, space, and social class; and, his assertion regarding the value of society is strictly based on relative terms, as they are deduced from the members' general communicative patterns.

⁴There has been disagreement of levels that should be recognized and on the hierarchical order of those levels shown below. Some scholars proposed six levels (Martin, 1964; Sohn, 1988, 1994) or five (H. Lee, 1970) or four (Hwang, 1975), or two (Suh, 1984). Despite the disagreement, it is the six-level

system of sentence enders (Sohn, 1994, p. 8) that receives the most support. For the analysis of the speech levels, Sohn's (1994) categorization is used in this investigation:

5

Speech level	Declarative	Interrogative	Imperative	Propositive
Deferential	<i>-sup-ni-ta</i>	<i>-sup-ni-kka</i>	<i>-sup-si-o</i>	<i>-sup-si-ta</i>
Polite	<i>-e.yo</i>	<i>-e.yo</i>	<i>-e.yo</i>	<i>-e.yo</i>
Blunt	<i>-o</i>	<i>-o</i>		
Familiar	<i>-ney</i>	<i>-na/-nunka</i>	<i>-key</i>	<i>-sey</i>
Intimate	<i>-e</i>	<i>-e</i>	<i>-e</i>	<i>-e</i>
Plain	<i>-ta</i>	<i>-ni/-nya</i>	<i>-la</i>	<i>-ca</i>

Originally, 26 heritage students (18 from the University of Michigan, and 8 from SUNY-Albany) participated in the project. However, the data of only 15 participants out of 26 was randomly chosen for the sake of comparison with non-heritage students.

⁶The distinction of heritage and non-heritage students was made based upon the students' family, education, and living experience backgrounds. Participants, who have acquired the Korean language naturally from their family members and others in their Korean-American community, were considered heritage students. On the other hand, participants who never had exposure to either Korean language or culture except through KFL classrooms were identified as non-heritage students.

⁷According to Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), sociopragmatics refers to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action.

⁸As Korean native speakers, the two instructors of second-year Korean participated in this study, and picked the most appropriate request form for each situation with rationale for the selection.

⁹The use of honorific elements does not render utterance always polite in that they must be used according to its social norms. For example, the use of honorific elements inappropriately to a person (=P and/or -P) makes his/her utterance sound jovial, and even sarcastic.

¹⁰The total number of subjects who got the correct response is equivalent to the total number of correct answers because each situation has only one possible answer.

¹¹Maxim of Manner: to avoid obscurity and ambiguity.

¹²The textbook used at SUNY-Albany was Integrated Korean, published by the University of Hawaii Press, and the book used at the University of Michigan was College Korean, published by the University of California Press.

¹³However, it should be noted that there is no absolute or definitive answer in relation to how to teach Korean linguistic politeness effectively. It is because each learner, teacher and even learning environment are all different individually, which in turn makes it impossible to devise a single most effective teaching and learning approach.

¹⁴KFL teachers should always remember that they should not treat Korean language as the only object of instruction, much the same way as autonomous linguists regard the syntactic structure as the most interesting object of inquiry. KFL teachers should have the attitude that language is one manifestation of a cultural complex. Cultural materials, in whatever format, whether presented by students or by the teacher, should be incorporated into classroom teaching in order to provide implicit exposure. The general cultural background, which the students bring to the classroom from their source culture, should be respected so that the students will feel open to accepting cultural differences in a non-threatening learning environment.

¹⁵Here, I define the term 'material' to refer to anything which is used by teachers or learners to facilitate the learning process of Korean language (e.g., the honorifics).

¹⁶The standards define five goals for foreign language learning, i.e., Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities, which should serve as guides for language educators when developing classroom activities for their students.

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Andrew Sangpil Byon

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Error Correction as a Cultural Phenomenon

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This study examines the pedagogical and pragmatic motives behind error correction both in classroom contexts and in everyday conversation among native Spanish-speaking English teachers in Costa Rica. Survey and interview data are analyzed and discussed in terms of participants' attitudes toward correction of errors in L1 and L2 in various contexts. I argue that error correction is not only a matter of pedagogy, but rather, at its heart, is a by-product of the cultural notion of "beneficio," an act of benefit on the part of one interlocutor toward another.

This study was prompted by intercultural teaching experiences in Costa Rica. While living and teaching in Costa Rica, I noticed that my Costa Rican colleagues rarely hesitated to correct an interlocutor's language errors, mine included, in both classroom and social settings. Interestingly, I discovered that Costa Rican teachers did not hesitate to correct even a fellow native-speaker interlocutor's Spanish on certain occasions. This phenomenon was striking in that it has been my observation that fewer of my American colleagues overtly correct the speech (pronunciation & grammar) of a non-native interlocutor unless there is a severe breakdown in communication or unless the non-native interlocutor specifically requests correction. If correction is warranted, I have found that my American colleagues will commonly correct language errors indirectly by modeling correct language at the end of the non-native interlocutor's discourse.

In this study, I argue that the reason for this seeming focus on error correction goes beyond the usual pedagogical explanations that error correction is a vestige of classroom practice. Rather, at its heart, I understand that error correction is a combination of pedagogy and a manifestation of cultural identity. Specifically, error correction is intimately tied in with the cultural notion of "beneficio" (defined below).

Literature Review

When first exposed to this phenomenon, I considered error correction merely to be a pedagogical strategy. I originally believed that overt error correction techniques, termed "reactive focus on form" by Ellis et al. (2001), have been used for many years in Costa Rica, and is still being taught as a pedagogical technique in teacher-training programs. Further, I assumed that

predominant among these techniques is one in which teachers immediately correct malformed language as soon as the error is made. However, I found this not to be the case. Teacher training at Costa Rica's leading teacher-training center, the Centro de Investigación de Docencia en Educación (CIDE) at the Universidad Nacional, reflects the latest trends in second language teaching methodologies, including context- and content-based and communicative/pragmatic approaches to language teaching. In the second language curriculum of CIDE, teachers are instructed to correct errors both, in Ellis' (2001) terms, preemptively and reactively. When errors are corrected reactively, teachers usually correct through modeling techniques where teachers will mirror the with the correct structure or lexical item. (Hilda Fonseca and Sonya Vargas, personal interview). Overt, reactive error correction techniques, wherein errors are corrected with the appropriate "correct" form as soon as they are made, are rarely discussed in the context of the teacher-training curriculum except for reviewing historical methodologies or when discussing specific errors in second language acquisition. Indeed, the data from this study show that teachers, while giving explicit form correction on occasion, usually favor such implicit correction techniques as modeling/recitation or elicitation/questioning (cf. James, 1998, Lyster & Ranta, 1997, Lyster, 1998, Oliver, 2000). Therefore, although second language pedagogy plays an important role in a teacher's decision to overtly or covertly correct errors at the point at which the error is made or closely thereafter, pedagogy alone cannot sufficiently explain the divergence in the degree of reactive error correction used by Costa Rican teachers. What, then, prompts Costa Rican teachers to overtly correct errors, even correcting the Spanish errors of their native-speaker counterparts?

Costa Rican Culture

To answer this question, we must look at Costa Rican culture in general, and specifically to the cultural construct of Costa Rican society, "beneficio". Costa Rican culture is an interesting and unique admixture of collective and individualist values (Biesanz et al., 1998). Nowhere is this collective orientation more noticeable than in the family unit. For Costa Ricans, family is the central focus of their world. It serves as the primary social organization from whence they derive meaning and value in life. "Most Costa Ricans remain very strongly oriented around traditional values based on respect for oneself and others, tolerance being one of their most characteristic traits. The cornerstone of society is still the family and the village community. Social life centers on the home and family. Bonds are so strong that sons and daughters do not see a need to leave the home until they marry," and rarely consider living away from the home village (www.infocostarica.com). Barbosa (1999) argues that Costa Ricans value "the interdependence of people, particularly family, an established hierarchical structure, and the belief that human beings need higher assistance and the importance of cultivating interpersonal relationships."

Within this society, so intimately rooted in the primacy of the family, is the notion of progress. Costa Rican history and its place of prominence among nations in Central America, enable Costa Rica to sustain this mixture of values. Costa Ricans view their country as the “shining star” of Central America. They pride themselves on having no military. Likewise, education is highly valued as a way to improve society. “While much of Latin America was founded by the conquistador culture of fifteenth century Spain and Portugal, Costa Rica was largely founded by nineteenth and twentieth century Europeans who had already experienced republican revolutions at home, and who were democrats, not aristocrats, at heart” (www.learnaboutcultures.com). Reflecting this history, Costa Rican culture views itself on the continual road to social progress.

It is within the scope of this confluence of collective and individualist values, that the notion of “*beneficio*” is established. A “*beneficio*” is an act (linguistic or otherwise) given to the benefit of another person with the expressed greater goal of benefiting the society at large. The act of “*beneficio*” carries with it two inherent cultural assumptions. First, *beneficio* is rooted in a collectivist society where family is the cornerstone. Second, “*beneficio*” is based on the assumption that anything which benefits an individual also benefits the collective society. My hypothesis is that, in addition to pedagogical considerations, error correction is used to benefit one’s fellow citizen. It may be part and parcel of the “*saludo*,” a linguistic recognition of friendship and implicitly establishes the parameters of communication including permission to correct errors in speech. Correction is viewed as helping the interlocutor improve him or herself. It is this admixture of culture and pedagogy that this study addresses.

Method

The methodology for this study consisted of a language-attitude survey and a set of interviews (Appendices A & B). The language-attitude survey was comprised of three sets of questions: 1) personal information, such as nationality, age, gender, educational levels taught, years of educational service; 2) attitudes toward error correction in the classroom and in everyday conversation; 3) attitudes toward language learning. The survey consisted of twelve multiple choice questions using a Likert Scale. The goal of the language-attitude survey was to discover if there were any differences in the participants’ approach to error correction in the classroom as opposed to everyday conversation and if there was any correlation between the respondents’ views about error correction and their attitudes toward the efficacy of learning and/or using a particular language in particular contexts. If it can be shown that language correction in everyday conversation is important, and correlates with the importance of correcting errors in the classroom, it may be possible to identify the various factors contributing to the respondents’ attitudes toward error correction. Namely, in what contexts is correcting errors in everyday conversation viewed as an extension of classroom pedagogy, and in

what contexts is error correction viewed as a part of a larger cultural notion? To what extent are both of these notions in force at the same time?

The survey was given to 32 English instructors teaching at varying levels in Costa Rican schools, colleges and specialized training institutes. Twenty-nine of the participants were Costa Rican nationals, one was a Colombian national, one a Cuban, and one a Chilean. Participants were mostly female, reflecting the higher percentage of women teaching English in Costa Rica. Most of the participants were under the age of fifty, were relatively balanced in terms of years of experience, and grade-level experience (note: the grade-level experience figure reflects teachers who have taught at one or more levels) (Table 1).

The survey data was analyzed in two ways: numerically- raw totals and percentages, and statistically-distribution, and median. Further, the data were analyzed holistically, comparing raw totals and percentages for each question without regard for demographics. The results are discussed below. The data were controlled demographically for age and years of experience. However, the average deviation among control factors compared with the total average deviation was not wide enough to be statistically relevant.

Table 1. *Demographics*

Gender	Males 9	Females 23		
Age	20-29 13	30-39 11	40-49 6	50-59 2
Years of Teaching Experience	0-4 years 11	5-9 years 9	10-14 years 5	15+ years 7
Grade-level Experience	Primary 9	Secondary 19	University 10	Adult Education 14

Second, a group of six Costa Rican teacher-trainers and program administrators were interviewed as to their attitudes toward the importance of error correction as a pedagogical process, their attitudes toward error correction in everyday conversation, and the purpose of error correction (Table 2). The interviews were designed to discover what error correction techniques are taught in CIDE's teacher-training programs well as the teacher-trainer/administrators' attitudes toward error correction as language-learning pedagogy. Moreover, the goal of conducting the interviews was to identify other factors which might precipitate error correction in their training, teaching and everyday lives. To what extent is error correction motivated by pedagogy, or a combination of pedagogy and beneficio?

Table 2. *Interview Participants*

Name	Title	Institution
Dr Gilberto Garro Garita	Professor of Educational Administration	CIDE University of Costa Rica
MA Enriqueta Zúñiga	Director, Masters Program	CIDE
MA Hilda Fonseca	Professor, EFL	CIDE
MA Sonya Vargas Brown	Professor, EFL	CIDE
Dr. Miguel Gutierrez	Dean and Professor of Curriculum and Instruction	CIDE
MA ANA Bonilla	Professor, EFL	CIDE

Results and Discussion

General Trends

Although a small sampling, the data reveal some interesting trends which merit further investigation with a larger data sample. The numerical and percentage data in Table 3 (and charted in Table 4) indicate general agreement with the initial hypothesis: error correction is viewed as being important in both classroom and everyday contexts. Further, the data reveal that this sampling of Costa Rican teachers view learning a second language, whether it be Costa Ricans learning English or Americans learning Spanish, as very

important for reasons that will be discussed below. Although the raw numbers argue for general agreement across questions, the average and median data reveal more neutrality toward error correction in everyday conversation (Table 3). The statistical averages of responses to questions regarding the importance of correcting a Costa Rican's English grammar and pronunciation are 3.16 and 3.22 respectively (3 being neutral).

Table 3. *Language Attitudes-Numerical Data*

Survey Question	N=	SA #	SA %	A #	A %	N #	N %	D #	D %	SD #	SD %
1-Correcting English grammar in English classroom	32	6	0.19	23	0.72	1	0.03	1	0.03	1	0.03
2-Correcting English pronunciation in English classroom	32	7	0.22	21	0.66	2	0.06	1	0.03	1	0.03
3-Costa Rican speaking English-Correcting grammar in everyday Conversation	32	3	0.09	12	0.38	5	0.16	11	0.34	1	0.03
4-Costa Rican speaking English-Correcting pronunciation in everyday Conversation	32	3	0.09	12	0.38	7	0.22	3	0.28	1	0.03
5-American Speaking Spanish-Correcting grammar in everyday conversation	32	4	0.13	12	0.38	6	0.19	9	0.28	1	0.03
6-American speaking Spanish-Correcting pronunciation in everyday conversation	32	4	0.13	12	0.38	6	0.16	9	0.28	1	0.03
7-Costa Rican speaking Spanish-Correcting grammar in everyday conversation	32	1	0.03	17	0.53	4	0.13	7	0.22	3	0.09
8-Costa Rican speaking Spanish-Correcting pronunciation in everyday conversation	32	2	0.06	16	0.50	4	0.13	7	0.22	3	0.09
9-Importance for non-native speakers to speak Spanish in Costa Rica	32	13	0.41	17	0.41	1	0.03	1	0.03	0	0
10-Importance of Costa Ricans to learn English	32	15	0.47	17	0.41	0	0	0	0	0	0
11-Importance of non-native speakers to speak English in the U.S.A.	32	16	0.50	16	0.50	0	0	0	0	0	0
12-Importance for people in the U.S.A. to learn Spanish	32	9	0.28	20	0.63	3	0.09	0	0	0	0

The average of responses to questions regarding the importance of correcting an American's Spanish grammar and pronunciation are somewhat

higher at 3.3 and 3.44 respectively. The averages are a bit lower for questions about the importance of correcting a Costa Rican's Spanish grammar and pronunciation (3.19 and 3.22 respectively). These averages point to fact that, while slightly more respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the questions, the teachers were split on whether it is appropriate to overtly correct language errors in everyday conversation. This conclusion is supported by the average deviation of responses to questions 3-8 (questions pertaining to everyday conversation). While the standard deviation on questions pertaining to error correction in classroom contexts and questions pertaining to attitudes toward learning and speaking a second language ranged from .4 to .6, the average deviation for questions regarding error correction in everyday conversation was near 1.0 which indicated that teacher responses were more widely variant. This discrepancy can be explained by the fact that more respondents agreed with questions pertaining to error correction in the classroom than agreed with other questions regarding error correction in everyday conversation. More respondents strongly disagreed, and fewer respondents were neutral in their attitudes toward correcting the Spanish errors of their countrymen. These two questions evoked stronger feelings than those regarding corrections in an L2.

Questions Regarding Language Attitudes (Questions 9-12)

Importance of Speaking an L2 (Questions 9 & 11)

There was wide agreement that it is important for non-native speakers to speak Spanish in Costa Rica for a variety of reasons (30 strongly agreed or agreed, 1 disagreed, 1 was neutral). First, Costa Ricans place great pride in the variety of Spanish spoken in the country and the country's comfortable learning environment. One respondent indicated that the Costa Rican dialect of Spanish, "is a good Spanish and it provides a friendly environment for learning the new language." A second factor is mere survival. "They (the non-native speaker) are in a different country. They have to defend themselves."

In like fashion, there was unanimous agreement that non-native speakers should speak English in the United States. The assumption here is that English is the Lingua Franca of the United States. By speaking English in its natural environment, the non-native speaker is both adapting to the target cultural milieu and improving him or herself by acquiring new knowledge and a new skill.

Importance of Learning an L2 (Questions 10 & 12)

The salient reason for Costa Ricans learning English and for Americans to learn Spanish is globalization and shifting demographics. For Costa Ricans, a knowledge of English means greater competitiveness in the labor market. Moreover, the respondents agreed that English proficiency is important for greater access to technological advances. One respondent stated, "Nowadays, everybody has to know English. It is the universal language. Everything is in English, internet, music. Wherever you go in the world there will be people who speak English. Here in Costa Rica, English is required for

many jobs because there are a lot of American tourists who visit the country.” Likewise, the teacher participants believed it was equally important for Americans to learn Spanish. One respondent summed it up best,

It’s important because the Spanish community is very big and it’s getting bigger. I remember once people were discussing whether or not to translate specific propaganda to Spanish. This was for elections. I think about the relation between employers and employees. There are lots of employees who don’t speak the language, but they must work in the States. Besides that, it’s important for the globalization process.

This general agreement that second languages are important to learn and use within the context of the host culture correspond with the data demonstrating general agreement that error correction is important in classroom and everyday contexts. One can conclude then that the degree to which language learning and L2 use is deemed important will have a direct influence on the degree to which error correction, in both the classroom and in everyday conversation, is deemed important. In other words, measured against the importance of learning and using the L2 is a heightened requirement for proficiency and accuracy in the L2. The correlation between the importance of learning and using an L2 in the host country and its relationship to using that L2 accurately is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

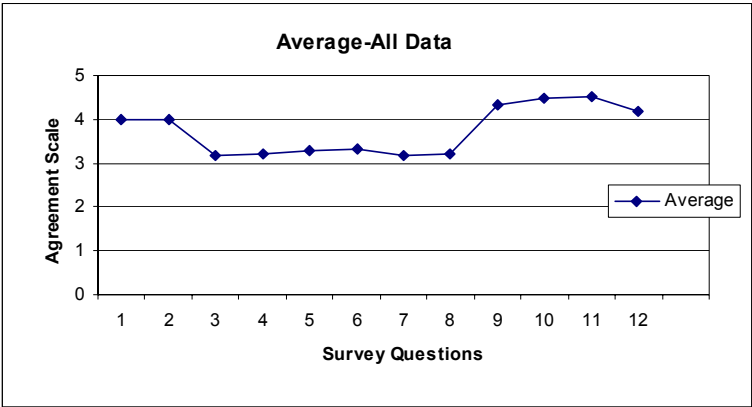


Figure 1. *Average Mean Value of Responses*

Questions Regarding Pedagogy (Questions 1 & 2)

To the questions, “It is important to correct the English grammar of my students in class when they make a mistake,” and “It is important to correct the English pronunciation of my students in class when they make a mistake,”

29 teachers responded that the correction of grammar is important in the classroom, 28 indicated that correction of pronunciation is important. Only 2 respondents countered that they disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that correction of errors in the classroom is important. Participants gave a variety of reasons for this, "it is a part of the learning process." "Because they will remember the correct way." "When they are in the classroom, our duty is to teach them everything, not only grammar. It's better for them to know the correct pronunciation of a word." Although a large percentage of teachers believe correction is important, when to employ correction strategies varied widely. Some correct immediately. One participant indicated, "If we don't correct that at the moment, it will be hard to do it later." Other participants believed that he/she should wait until after the students finishes his/her discourse. While others believe that error correction should be done only when it is necessary, when there are serious breaches of understanding.

The interviewed teacher participants also indicated the methods they use to focus on form. Some participants enable the students to use self-correction strategies. "It's very important to do it with students who [are] at beginning levels, but it is important to provide students with self-correction techniques so students are autonomous learners." Another participant offered, "I will offer the students two options and [encourage them to] choose. [For example, I will say] 'I'm Miss Armando.'" [Did I say] "Miss" or "Mr. Armando"? So, he corrects himself." Other teachers employ other indirect correction strategies. "[I will correct the student] after presentations or before finishing the class." Another teacher indicated that she corrects "by a gesture or any strategy they can check and say again the word or phrase. It's not given directly."

The interview data confirm and support the results of the survey. Teacher-training professionals unanimously agreed that error correction is an important component of pedagogy, while disagreeing over the particular techniques of correction. While four of the six use (and teach) indirect techniques such as modeling and elicitation, two interviewees indicated that correction should be covert at the precise point where the correction is made. Professor Sonya Vargas Brown stated, "I think of it (error correction) as part of the (language) construction process. I look at myself as the mediator between students' previous knowledge and the target objective. We learn from our mistakes." Dean Miguel Gutierrez of CIDE best sums up the view that the pedagogy of error correction should be employed to encourage learning,

It should be used in a constructive and timely way. To do otherwise leads to hindering the language learning process. We should not forget that particularly in the process of learning a foreign language, we should encourage our students to communicate. If they are able to communicate their needs and thoughts and make themselves understood, the objective is accomplished and the learners feel motivated. The error correction conducted in a constructive and timely

fashion will help in accomplishing the other objective, to speak and write correctly.

The data tell us that, in the classroom, it is generally important that both grammar and pronunciation be corrected. Correction improves both fluency and accuracy. Correction is not made immediately following every language misstep. Rather, correction tends to be most frequently made when there the misstep interferes with communication. In cases of misstep, correction tends to be indirect through modeling and the recitation of the correct form or giving students a variety of choices and asking the student to self-correct. Some teachers interviewed and surveyed indicated that they use these correction techniques as a regular component of their pedagogy.

Questions Regarding Everyday Conversation (Questions 3-8)

The data gathered from these questions indicate a more neutral position regarding the efficacy of error correction. A series of questions were included concerning participants' attitudes of correcting the grammar and pronunciation of Americans and their fellow Costa Ricans in both non-native (NNS) and native-speaking (NS) contexts.

Costa Ricans Speaking English (Questions 3 & 4)

Fifteen respondents indicated that they either strongly agreed or agreed that it was important to correct a Costa Rican's English grammar and pronunciation in everyday conversation. By contrast, twelve teachers strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement that it was important to correct a speaker's English grammar in everyday conversation (10 said that they strongly disagreed or disagreed with correction a person's pronunciation). Five respondents were neutral in question 3, seven in question 4.

Of the respondents agreeing, one gave the overt explanation, pointing to "beneficio" as a factor in correction. The teacher said, "Yes, if you want to help him." Those in disagreement indicated that correction would not be appropriate for both cultural and pedagogical reasons. One teacher said that correction "can be very embarrassing for the person." Another responded, "I don't think so because he is trying to communicate, and even though he makes mistakes, we don't have to interrupt." One teacher gave a response which reflected his/her notion of proper pedagogy. "You are allowed to correct a student when it is absolutely necessary." While another stated, "If it is a mistake that affects the whole structure I think we can correct him or her indirectly."

Teachers who were neutral said if they were able to comprehend the discourse, correction was not necessary. However, the teachers indicated that if they were asked to correct a speaker's English, they would not hesitate to do so.

There may be many reasons for the disparity of responses. One explanation can be attributable to pedagogy. The role of the language teacher

is to correct language errors, and, consequently, participants view their role as English teachers as one of enabling competence and accuracy in English as an L2. By contrast, the teacher respondents appeared to distinguish between reactive correction as a classroom practice and reactive correction as a practice in conversation. In conversation, the role of the interlocutors is different. There is a dissolution of teacher-student roles. Therefore, error correction as a teaching tool is inappropriate, unless the interlocutors understand that the correction of errors is performed to effect “beneficio,” to help or aid the interlocutor.

Americans Speaking Spanish (Questions 5 & 6)

To these questions, there was stronger agreement that errors in Spanish should be corrected (16-strongly agreed or agreed for grammar correction, 19 strongly agreed or agreed for pronunciation correction). Ten respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed that correction of Spanish grammar and pronunciation were important. Five were neutral.

Interestingly, the teacher participants appeared to assume that the American interlocutor is a student learning Spanish in Costa Rica. In that case, the teachers reflected the view that students should take complete advantage of the native Spanish-speaking context. “He has to take advantage if he is in Costa Rica.” Teachers would correct in order to help with students’ fluency and accuracy. As one respondent stated, “the person is trying to acquire a L2. So, it is important for him to be corrected [at] the moment because otherwise he won’t know the correct way.” Another response reflects the expectation of accuracy on the part of Costa Rican interlocutors, “People expect to be as closest [sic] as possible.” “I expect the person to improve his/her performance.” Yet another response reflects the assumption that American interlocutors tend not to focus on grammatical accuracy nor pronunciation, “Americans rarely care about their mistakes in Spanish but we have to let them see that it is incorrect.”

Those who disagreed indicated that correction would both unnecessarily embarrass the American interlocutor and break the flow of discourse. “They are speaking freely and it’s not fair to correct them frequently.” Many respondents indicated that any corrections would be covert. “Only one thing, if correction takes place it needs to be subtle so that it doesn’t make him/her feel bad.

Costa Ricans Speaking Spanish (Questions 7 & 8)

Almost 2 to 1, teachers agree that it is important to correct the Spanish of other Costa Ricans (18 strongly agree or agree for both grammar and pronunciation; 10 strongly disagree or disagree for grammar correction (10 for correction of pronunciation); 4 neutral for both questions. These results are interesting in that it is more important to correct errors in an interlocutor’s native language than in an interlocutor’s second language. Here, pedagogy does not appear a determinant in error correction. Rather, the decision to correct an error depends upon the relationship between the interlocutors. As

one participant stated, “it depends on the relation between listener and speaker. If the person is a relative or friend you tend to correct that person. But if you don’t know the person, you don’t do it.” Age and power distance also appear to be important mitigating factors in error correction. Interview respondents almost unanimously indicated that they correct their children and grandchildren the most, then other members of their immediate and close extended family, followed by their close friends. Interviewees also acknowledged that they sometimes correct the language mistakes of people on their immediate staff in work situations. Acquaintances and strangers are rarely corrected. These results seem to coincide with the literature on Costa Rican culture where the notion of “*beneficio*” is strongest inside the family unit.

Conclusion

In terms of the pedagogy of error correction, the data indicate that error correction is an important part of the classroom pedagogy. Teachers are aware of and, for the most part, practice a combination of modeling/recitation, elicitation/questioning, and direct correction techniques. Fluency and accuracy are important goals for language learning. This pedagogical significance is carried over to some extent in everyday conversation with non-native speakers of Spanish. Correction in everyday conversation, whether it be Costa Ricans (NNSE) speaking English or Americans (NNSS) speaking Spanish, is viewed as an extension of the classroom, enabling non-native speakers to improve their language skills.

Second, and interestingly, the data point to other factors precipitating error correction, especially Costa Ricans correcting their compatriots’ Spanish (NSS). Among these factors are: a strong sense of pride in the native language, the notion that error correction is used to enable individual and societal improvement, and error correction enhancing opportunities and success in the business world. Correcting the Spanish errors of Costa Ricans, although employed in limited circumstances with family and close friends, appears to be motivated by factors separate from pedagogy, a desire on the part of the friend or family member to benefit, aid, help the other thereby helping the culture at large. Here, the notion of “*beneficio*” may be strongest.

Finally, as a result of this study, I have come to view the request of non-native English speaking students and colleagues for error correction as having a dual role. First, there is awareness that teacher feedback is of vital importance in the learning process. Second, I am aware that these students and colleagues are, in a great sense, sanctioning my admission into their “circle of *beneficio*,” that any corrective advice given will be received not as criticism but as a means whereby they can improve their proficiency. The insights and confusions about language error correction indicate that there are ways of correction that might be interpreted as “*beneficio*” by some, while others might interpret the correction as critical or rude.

Appendices

Appendix A

Language Attitude Survey

Please circle the category most representative of you.

Nationality: Costa Rican United States
Other-please identify _____

Gender: M F

Age: 20-29 30-39 40-49 50 and older

Years of experience teaching language: 0-4 5-9 10-14 15 and above

Grade level taught: Primary Secondary University Adult Education

Please circle the statement which most closely represents your answer for each question. The abbreviations represent the following statements:

SA Strongly Agree
A Agree
N Neutral (No opinion)
D Disagree
SD Strongly Disagree

1. It is important to correct the English grammar of my students in class when they make a mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

2. It is important to correct the English pronunciation of my students in class when they make a mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

3. When a Costa Rican speaks English in everyday conversation, it is important to correct that person's English grammar when they make a

mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

4. When a Costa Rican speaks English in everyday conversation, it is important to correct that person's English pronunciation when they make a mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

5. When an American speaks Spanish in everyday conversation it is important to correct that person's Spanish grammar when they make a mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

6. When a American speaks Spanish in everyday conversation, it is important to correct that person's Spanish pronunciation when they make a mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

7. When a Costa Rican speaks Spanish in everyday conversation, it is important to correct that person's Spanish grammar when they make a mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

8. When a Costa Rican speaks Spanish in everyday conversation, it is important to correct that person's Spanish pronunciation when they make a mistake.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

9. It is important for non-native speakers of Spanish to speak Spanish in Costa Rica.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

10. It is important for Costa Ricans to learn English.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

11. It is important for non-native speakers of English to speak English in the United States.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

12. It is important for people in the United States to learn Spanish.

SA A N D SD

Comments:

Appendix B

Error Correction as Cultural Phenomenon

Interview Questions

Interviewees

Gilberto Garro Garita, School Administrator and Professor of Educational Administration, UNA. Enriqueta Zuniga,

Director of the Maestria Programs-CIDE-UNA. Miguel A. Gutiérrez, Dean CIDE-UNA. Hilda Fonseca, Professor, Maestria in Learning English, CIDE-UNA. Sonya Vargas-Brown, Professor, Maestria in Learning English, CIDE-UNA. Ana Bonilla, English Teacher.

Date: March & April, 2001

1. How important is error correction in your teaching?

- a. To me, error correction is the essence of teaching, no matter if that action occurs in the classroom or in any informal conversation.
- b. Correction is an important part of the learning and teaching process. It is part of the knowledge construction. Must be in a natural way.
- c. Too important.
- d. I do not stress correction at all as I teach. I see errors/mistakes as part of the learning process. Then, I decide to correct them (in an indirect way) only when communication is completely affected by them.
- e. At this level, I make it a point to correct or ask questions of unclear (ideas/thoughts). I usually repeat the correct word or phrase and say nothing.
- f. I do not correct my students right away. But I repeat the correct sentence again.

2. How important is error correction in your everyday life?

- a. In terms of learning another language, error correction is extremely important. In general, error correction is important in any type of learning process.
- b. I think that it is important we learn out of own mistakes. It will be wonderful if we could correct them and learn from it.
- c. Too important.
- d. Again, I feel this need of correcting mistakes in others only when I hear a misconception, but first I am ready to listen to the speaker's point of view. Maybe then misconceptions can be corrected.
- e. It is important in a comfortable way. I try to explain my point of view and try to understand others. I just repeat the corrected form and explain why.
- f. So important because I can improve pronunciation & spelling. I can be understood.

3. What is the purpose of correcting language errors in everyday conversation?

- a. The purpose is to take conscious of our mistakes with the objective of avoiding them in the future.
- b. Help the other learn from their mistakes.
- c. Continuous improvement of our command of the language and communication skills.
- d. Possibly, to make people aware of them and overcome misconceptions(or mispronouncing) in new situations where communication can be affected.
- e. Students and I must listen carefully to correct English speakers in order to improve our English.
- f. The purpose is to have students improve their learning process.

4. Other than your students, who do you correct most often?

- a. As a natural consequence of parenthood, I most often correct my children. I also do the same in the work environment with people on my staff.
- b. My friends, my relatives, people who I care (about).
- c. My children and close friends.
- d. My children and husband, but I am very careful with co-workers or people that are not very close to me.
- e. My grandson.
- f. My two sons using the correct verbs: the present tense, "s" in verbs.

5. When in the conversation do you correct them?

- a. I usually wait for a pause and try to relate my observation to my own experiences learning the English language.
- b. It depends. If we are alone could be after the error was made. If we are in a class or group, I take notes and then call the student to talk to him/her.
- c. At the end.
- d. Only when they say a "barbarism." But I try to make it in an indirect way. (example: Oh! You mean...).
- e. If and when there's a chance or when they (whoever) pay attention to me.
- f. I let my students finish, then I repeat the correct sentence.

6. What can you tell me about error correction as a pedagogical technique?

- a. As I said in the answer to the first question, error correction is the essence of teaching. Therefore, this pedagogical technique is most effective when the error is fresh. However, it will always be a good pedagogical technique, depending on the interest of the learner.
- b. I do not think about error correction as a pedagogical technique. I think of it as a part of the construction process. I look at myself as a mediator between student previous knowledge and the target objective. We learn from our mistakes.
- c. Error correction, when appropriately used, is an important teaching technique in helping others improve their command of the language. However, it should be used in a constructive and timely way. To do otherwise leads to hindering the language learning process. We should not forget that particularly in the process of learning a foreign language, we should encourage our students to communicate. If they are able to communicate their needs and thoughts and make themselves understood, the objective is accomplished and the learners feel motivated. The error correction conducted in a constructive and timely fashion will help in accomplishing the other objective, to speak and write correctly.
- d. I emphasize in my courses that we, as teachers and professionals, should learn techniques, rather tactics to deal with correction in ways that do not affect the students' affective filter and disposition in the classroom.
- e. It should not interrupt students' thought. Repetition and clarification is good. When the error is generalized (common to the group), I take a few minutes to explain.
- f. Some students feel unhappy or embarrassed but they need to improve.

7. How do you resolve the conflict between immediate error correction and the modeling approach where the stream of conversation is not interrupted?

- a. I do not see any conflict between the two techniques, because it is just a matter of opportunity or circumstances.
- b. Depends on the situation. In a formal situation I will be aware and determine which approach must be used in each case.
- c. By doing the error correction at the end. Because if we constantly interrupt the students they will lose fluency and feel threatened, frustrated and disappointed.

- d. I would never interrupt a conversation. I think I'm concerned about the negative effect of direct correction. I may correct, but I usually do it at the end, and in different indirect ways (by paraphrasing, asking, etc.).
- e. I don't correct immediately-I model when I can.
- f. What I do is to let them finish and retell-or redo it again.

8. What are your expectations about native speakers of English correcting errors in your English?

- a. Based on past experiences, I would hope that native speakers of English would be slightly more aggressive in making corrections.
- b. I will love it. I do not have problems accepting that. I always could do better, that includes language learning.
- c. I have no problem with that, for I believe that to the extent it is done constructively and timely, they are helping me improve my command of the language and my communication skills.
- d. I expect them to correct me in such a way that I do not feel ashamed or, I believe, in such a way that I do not feel hurt or embarrassed (especially in front of others).
- e. I appreciate them.
- f. I think it is the excellent way to practice, learn and acquire language.

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The Effects of Notetaking, Lecture Length, and Topic on a Computer-Based Test of ESL Listening Comprehension^{*1}

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With the goal of improving the reliability and validity of tests of English as a foreign language, in particular with respect to the question of whether to allow notetaking on EFL/ESL computer-based listening comprehension tests, the present study examined the effects on ESL listening comprehension of notetaking (allowed or disallowed) in relation to lecture length (minitalks of 2.5 or 5 minutes) and topic (arts/humanities or physical sciences). A listener-aptitude variable, overall English listening comprehension proficiency, was also examined. Two hundred and thirty-four ESL students took tests of computer-based (CB) listening comprehension and the listening comprehension section of a disclosed paper-and-pencil TOEFL. Results of the post-listening comprehension assessment revealed: (1) interaction between notetaking and topic: on arts/humanities topics listeners performed least well when no notetaking was allowed, better when notetaking was allowed, and about the same on physical science topics whether notetaking was allowed or disallowed; (2) interaction between notetaking and lecture length: on short lectures listeners performed better when notetaking was allowed, less well when notetaking was not allowed, and about the same on longer lectures whether notetaking was allowed or not. No statistically significant differences in the pattern of results were found when overall English listening comprehension proficiency was factored into the 2 (notetaking) X 2 (lecture length) X 2 (topic) ANOVA-R model. Results of the study have implications for allowing notetaking on computer-based testing of listening comprehension, especially the computer-based TOEFL.

Introduction and Literature Review

Taking notes while listening to a lecture is widely accepted as a useful strategy for augmenting student attention to and retention of academic discourse. Notetaking is generally viewed as facilitative of the process of learning and remembering lecture material (Clerehan, 1995; Crawford, 1925 a, b, c; Dunkel, 1988a; Dunkel & Davy, 1989; Kiewra, 1987; McKenna, 1987; Palmatier & Bennet, 1974). Empirical investigations of the facilitating effects of notetaking with native speakers have yielded conflicting results (Aiken, Thomas & Shennum, 1975; Crawford 1925a; DiVesta & Grey, 1972; Dunkel, 1985; Kiewra, *et al.*, 1991). Hartley and Davies (1978) summarized a number of empirical studies and determined that about half (17 of 35) the studies supported enhancement of recall as a function of notetaking.

Scholarship on the topic of English lecture listening and notetaking by nonnative speakers has been approached from a variety of perspectives. Some of the scholarship has been non-empirical, non-experimental treatises based on reviews of the then-extant literature. For example, Dunkel (1988a) reviewed previous L1 research concerning learning from lectures as a function of L1 notetaking, and then highlighted the dearth of related L2 research. She concluded by outlining accepted axioms of good notetaking, noting that, while the guidelines were drawn from the L1 literature and were, therefore, developed with L1 notetakers in mind, they seemed not only to be relevant to L2 learners, but might also provide the basis for further L2 lecture listening and notetaking research.

Other scholarship on the topic of English lecture listening and notetaking by nonnative speakers has been empirical, but not experimental. For example, Benson's (1989) ethnographic case study of an ESL student's listening activities in a U.S. university academic class was based on the student's class notebooks as well as on interviews and lecture recordings. Benson concluded that "rather than being preoccupied with the acquisition of new facts" (p. 421), the student was "engaged in a variety of processes relating both to the material and to the teacher" (p. 421). According to Benson, these processes included trying to identify with the teacher's point of view, as well as coping with the reduction of incoming linguistic data and making connections with already familiar concepts. Drawing from two different discourse analysis traditions, Hansen (1994) described an approach to discourse analysis (how to identify major topics, subtopics, and minor points in a lecture) and suggested that the topic hierarchy resulting from such an analysis can be used to evaluate the qualitative completeness and correctness of students' lecture notes.

Other scholarship has been both empirical and experimental, but has not directly addressed the types of research questions addressed in the current study. Dunkel and Davy's (1989) empirical study investigated both American and international students' perceptions about the value and practice of notetaking, but did not relate those perceptions to performance in either notetaking itself or any related listening comprehension task.

Several studies have examined notetaking practices and notetaking strategies of L2 students in testing settings (Cushing, 1991a, 1991b; Dunkel, 1988b). Dunkel (1988b) examined the relationships between various aspects of the lecture notes of L1 and L2 students who had viewed a videotaped lecture and then took a postlecture multiple-choice retention test covering general concepts as well as facts and details from the lecture. Cushing (1991a) examined the relationship between academic status (graduate, undergraduate or extension), language proficiency (higher vs lower proficiency levels), and various aspects of the notes L2 students took during an ESL placement examination at UCLA. In a follow-up study, Cushing (1991b) provided a qualitative analysis of those same notes and concluded with a list of characteristics of "good notes."

Other empirical studies have examined the relationship between L2 students' notes and the lectures they listen to in their chosen fields of study. Olsen and Huckin (1990) investigated "learning" by nonnative English-learning engineering students by examining summaries (i.e., notes) taken while listening to a 16-minute videotaped lecture and by conducting interviews with the students. They found that students who were "information-driven" rather than "point-driven" were more concerned with "the facts" and kept missing the main issues in the lectures. By contrast, the point-driven listeners attempted to distinguish clearly between main and subordinate points, and demonstrated an effort to interpret the "speaker's presumed intention" (p. 33). King (1994) similarly reported research into notetaking by nonnative English-learning engineering students, with the dual focus of exploring the relationship between the visual and verbal aspects of the lecture, and the notes made by overseas students with respect to the visual-verbal distinction. Clerehan (1995) examined the notes taken by L2 business students during a 50-minute commercial law lecture. She found that the L2 students omitted much of the macrostructure or hierarchical structure of the lecture from their notes.

However, the L2 research most relevant to the present study has empirically investigated the question of whether notetaking *per se* has an effect on English lecture listening comprehension (Chaudron, Cook & Loschky, 1988; Chaudron, Loschky & Cook, 1994; Dunkel, 1985; Dunkel, Mishra & Berliner, 1989; Hale & Courtney, 1994; Liu, 2001). This research has yielded conflicting results with respect to the relationship between notetaking and English lecture listening performance. Dunkel's seminal study (1985; see also Dunkel, Mishra & Berliner, 1989) examined the effects of the "act" of notetaking (the encoding function of notetaking) on ESL listening comprehension test performance. Students were not allowed to review their notes before or during the test. That study failed to find a positive effect of notetaking on ESL listeners' comprehension/recognition of information (as measured by multiple choice questions) presented in a 22-minute English minilecture. However, Dunkel found a sizeable "memory" effect: listeners with high short-term memory ability accurately recalled significantly more lecture concepts and details than did listeners with low short-term memory ability. Level of English proficiency was also found to have a positive effect on comprehension and test performance.

Native speakers of English (higher proficiency listeners) outperformed nonnative speakers of English (lower proficiency listeners) in recognizing concepts and details presented in the lecture, whether or not they took notes.

Chaudron, Cook and Loschky (1988; see also Chaudron, Loschky, & Cook, 1994) examined the effects of the external storage function of notetaking (i.e., taking notes and then either keeping or not keeping the notes during testing) on L2 students' recall of lecture information. Their results showed, on both multiple choice and close listening comprehension measures, no favorable role for keeping or not keeping notes in students' short term recall success. However, they found complex relationships between various measures of lecture note quality and successful recall.

Liu (2001) examined the encoding versus the encoding and external storage functions of L2 lecture listening notetaking. The study utilized three groups of Chinese EFL learners: one group listening to a lecture with no notetaking; a second group listening to the lecture with notetaking allowed, but being precluded from reviewing the notes (the encoding function of notetaking alone); and a third group listening to the lecture with notetaking allowed and being allowed to review the notes afterwards (the encoding *and* external storage functions). All three groups were evaluated on immediate and delayed performance on general and specific multiple choice test items. Results showed significant effects for the review of notes (the external storage function of notetaking) on recognition of specific information at both testing times, but non significant effects on recognition of general information at both testing times.

Hale and Courtney (1994) specifically examined notetaking in the context of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). Utilizing a research design that allowed notetaking, disallowed notetaking and urged notetaking (students were allowed to keep their notes before them while answering test questions), Hale and Courtney found no significant effect for allowing notetaking, and a negative effect of being urged to take notes. Hale and Courtney speculate that failure to find a notetaking effect may have been affected by the relatively short length of the minitalks in their study (less than 2 minutes) and the types of comprehension questions which did not query about facts and details.

A final study relevant to the current research is that of Freedle and Kostin (1999). Although this study does not deal with notetaking, it examined the relationship between the ease/difficulty of TOEFL listening items and a number of text variables, one of which included the topical effects of subject matter. In an ex-post facto correlational analysis of 337 listening comprehension items associated with 69 minitalks, they found complex topical effects. Freedle and Kostin suggest that, instead of relying on examination of accrued TOEFL data, additional empirical work should be conducted to clarify how text variables such as topic affect listener performance on the TOEFL minitalks.

Given the intuitive belief held by college students (and lecturers alike) that notetaking promotes lecture learning, listeners (e.g., TOEFL and other test takers) place great value on the ability to take notes during lecture (or minitalk)

presentations. Not being allowed to take notes during the TOEFL minitalks seems to concern many TOEFL test takers (personal communication with Gordon Hale of Educational Testing Service, March, 1993) regardless of the fact that research has not been able unequivocally to show that notetaking *per se* has a facilitative effect on ESL lecture listening comprehension, in general, and TOEFL minitalk listening comprehension, in particular. Thus, within the context of the broad goal of improving the reliability and validity of tests of English as a foreign or second language, but, in particular, with respect to the question of whether or not to allow notetaking on EFL/ESL computer-based listening comprehension tests, it seemed time to reexamine the issue of notetaking and second language listening comprehension within the context of (1) lengthier minitalks being considered for use in the TOEFL 2000, and (2) the computer-based (CB) testing environment. Also, given the Hale and Courtney (1994) speculation, it seemed important to include minitalk length as a variable: shorter, representing the current length of the TOEFL minitalks, approximately 2 minutes; and longer, representing the effect of doubling the present minitalk length. Moreover, again given the Hale and Courtney speculation, we also wanted to include comprehension questions which queried other than general gist or main idea information, and which did so in other than a multiple-choice format. In addition, given the Freedle and Kostin (1999) results, we also wanted to determine whether topic interacts with the effects of notetaking and lecture length. Finally, although the present study focused primarily on the three main factors of notetaking (allowed or disallowed), lecture length (shorter or longer) and topic (arts/humanities or physical sciences), we also included as a secondary factor a learner-aptitude variable previously found to be relevant to notetaking (Dunkel, 1985), namely general listening comprehension proficiency.

Research Questions

Four primary research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Is listening comprehension, as measured by the percent correct score on a computer-based test, affected by the opportunity to take and use notes?
2. Is listening comprehension, as measured by the percent correct score on a computer-based test, affected by the length (2.5 versus 5 minutes) of the minitalk used to present the content?
3. Is listening comprehension, as measured by the percent correct score on a computer-based test, affected by the topic (arts/humanities versus physical sciences) of the minitalk?
4. Are there interactions among notetaking, lecture length, and topic which affect listening comprehension, as measured by percent correct score on a computer-based test?

A secondary research question was addressed in the study:

What effect does general English listening proficiency (as measured by the paper-and-pencil TOEFL) have on the answers to the primary research questions above?

Method

Participants

Data from a total of 234 participants are included in the study. Of the 234, 139 were males, 88 females. Participants were international students studying ESL at five participating institutions: Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah (BYU); Indiana University in Bloomington (IU); Southern Illinois University in Carbondale (SIUC); the University of Arizona in Tucson (UAZ); and the University of Southern California, in Los Angeles (USC). Participants were considered representative of the typical TOEFL test-taking population in terms of their biographical data as well as in terms of their general levels of English proficiency as measured by the Institutional TOEFL listening comprehension section (range = 31-66, $M = 48.61$, $SD = 6.21$). They represented various regions of the world, various native language backgrounds, and various proposed fields of study. All available and willing participants enrolled in ESL and/or IEP courses at each institution were solicited by coordinators at the participating institutions; participants were randomly assigned to conditions.

Materials and Procedures

Participants were tested in two distinct sessions, with a maximum time of two weeks and a minimum time of one hour between sessions. Each session lasted between one hour and one hour and 15 minutes.

Materials administered in the first session consisted of an informed consent form, a biodata questionnaire, and the listening comprehension section of a disclosed, institutional, paper-and-pencil TOEFL. Materials administered in the second session consisted of the computer-based test designed for this study and a debriefing questionnaire (not reported here).

Listening Comprehension Test and Institutional Paper-and-Pencil TOEFL

In order to establish initial listening comprehension proficiency levels, participants were administered a disclosed form of the listening comprehension component of the TOEFL. The listening section has three parts: In Part A, examinees listen to 30 brief conversations; Parts B and C consist of 5 longer conversations or monologues.

Computer-based Test of Listening Comprehension

Eight listening comprehension stimuli (lectures), with six to eight related items per stimulus, were designed for the study. The stimuli were modeled

on the minitalks currently used in the computer-based TOEFL.

Lecture Length. Four stimuli were “short,” similar in length to the current TOEFL minitalk. These short talks averaged 2 ½ minutes (ranging from 2' 19" to 2' 45"; 365 to 422 words). Four stimuli were “long,” twice the length of the short talks. These long talks averaged 5 ¼ minutes (ranging from 5' 07" to 5' 29"; 748 to 848 words).

Topic. The study was limited to two content/topic categories to keep the study manageable logistically, including both the number of participants and the length of the test for any individual participant. The two major content categories of the current computer-based TOEFL deemed to be the most different or distinct from each other were included: arts/humanities and physical sciences. Four lectures (two long and two short) were based on topics in the Arts/ Humanities category, and four (two long and two short) in the Physical Science category. Topics in the Arts/Humanities included the following: a comparison of features of the Renaissance, Baroque, and Neo-Classical styles of art (hereafter Baroque) (long); a discussion of the Dada movement in 20th century abstract art (hereafter Dada) (long); analyzing works of art in terms of visual elements (hereafter Form) (short); a description of techniques used in printmaking, the basic process, creating multiples, the difference between relief and intaglia (hereafter Prints) (short). Topics in the Physical Sciences category included: factors that lead to irregular land surface formations, land subsidence, karst topography (hereafter Karst) (long); causes of erosion to desert land forms (hereafter Deserts) (long); an explanation for recent changes in Louisiana wetlands (hereafter Wetlands) (short); a discussion of hydroelectricity as an alternative energy source, how it works, its limitations and advantages (hereafter Hydro) (short).

Item Type. Each of the eight sets included a Main Idea (MI) item type (as in the current computer-based TOEFL). Because the current TOEFL does not test facts or details that might be easily forgotten without notetaking, the specifications for testing details were broadened to include three types of detail questions which could now be investigated with notetaking as a variable in the study. The three types added were: supporting information (SI), details (D), and minor details (MD). SI items tested broader concepts related to the main idea, generally requiring integration of information presented in the talk, either explicitly or implicitly. D items tested key points in the talk, presented with some redundancy. MD items tested specific details, such as names and dates, presented with limited redundancy.

Information Type. As in the current computer-based TOEFL, items tested information explicitly mentioned in the talk (EX) and that not explicitly mentioned (NEX), but implied and intended to be inferred.

Table 1. Computer-based Test Format -Items

Short Sets--Six Items		
Item Type	Information Type	Response Type
MI	NEX	MC
SI	NEX or EX	MC
D	EX	MC
D	EX	O/M or MSMC
D	EX	CR
MD	EX	MC
Long Sets--Eight Items (Six as above and two as below)		
SI	NEX	MC
MD	EX	C

Key Item Type: MI=main idea, SI= supporting information, D= detail, MC= minor detail, Information Type: EX= explicitly mentioned, NEX= not explicitly mentioned, Response Type: MC= multiple choice, O/M= order/match, MSMC= multiple selection multiple choice, CR= constructed response.

Response Type. The selected-response item types included in the study were similar to those in the current computer-based TOEFL: multiple-choice items (MC), order/match items (O/M), and multiple-selection multiple-choice (MSMC). Visual response items were not included in the study since it had been decided that no content visuals were to be used in the talks. In addition to the MC, O/ M and MSMC selected-response items, the study included a constructed-response (CR) item type. These responses were limited to one word or a short phrase, which participants typed into a box on the screen.

Number of Items. Each short lecture was followed by 6 items (five selected-response and one constructed-response). Each long lecture was followed by 8 items (six selected-response and two constructed-response). See Table 1 for the item distribution across the short and long lectures.

Administration Procedures. The computer-based test served as the testing environment. Before beginning the test, participants were required to work through a brief set of tutorials, providing information on how to use the computer. The tutorial included general information about the test format, how to adjust the volume, how to answer the questions, and several practice items.

During oral presentation of the lecture, to establish setting, a context visual containing no information related to the content of the talk appeared on the screen, depicting a professor and several students in a classroom setting.

Each participant listened to four talks (two short and two long) and answered the related 28 items. The listening material was presented only once. Participants were allowed to take notes during two of the talks (one long and one short) and were not permitted to take notes during the other two talks (one long and one short). The items were presented both orally and printed on the screen. To respond, participants were required to click on the correct answer choice (multiple-choice items), click and move options to the appropriately marked space (order/matching items), or to type in a short answer (constructed-response items). Participants were informed that they would not be penalized for spelling or grammar errors on the constructed response items. (N.B. A spelling close enough to make a word recognizable was accepted: e.g., “renasance,” “runessance,” “renissance,” and “rennascence” were all accepted as spellings for “Renaissance.” However, a gross misspelling which rendered the word unrecognizable or rendered it in a different form was not accepted: e.g., “renacentism,” “renacissm,” “renainess,” and “renasentist” were unacceptable as spellings for “Renaissance.”)

Specific instructions were given before each pair of talks regarding notetaking. That is, immediately before the pair of lectures (one long and one short) on which notetaking was permitted, participants received instructions that they could take notes; immediately before the pair of lectures (one long and one short) on which no notetaking was permitted, participants received instructions that they could not take notes. Test administrators distributed and collected the paper used for notetaking at appropriate times for each participant.

Participants were given a total of 30 minutes to answer all 28 questions (excluding time spent listening to the lectures). Participants comfortably answered questions within the total allotted time.

In total, there were 16 different forms of the computer test. Forms 1-8 were on the content category of Arts and Humanities; forms 9-16 were on the content category of Physical Science. On forms 1-4 and 9-12, notetaking was permitted on the first two lectures, but not on the last two lectures. On forms 5-8 and 13-16 notetaking was permitted on the last two lectures, but not on the first two lectures. Forms 1, 5, 9 and 13 had lectures in the order: short, long, short, long; forms 2, 6, 10 and 14 had the lectures in the order: long, short, short, long; forms 3, 7, 11 and 15 had the lectures in the order: short, long, long, short; forms 4, 8, 12 and 16 had the lectures in the order: long, short, long,

short. Participants were randomly assigned to forms at each test site. Computer instructions informed participants to raise their hands and receive notetaking paper when they were beginning to work on a section notetaking paper when they were beginning a section on which notetaking was allowed. Computer instructions informed participants to raise their hands to receive notetaking paper when they were beginning a section on which notetaking was allowed. Computer instructions also informed participants to raise their hands when they finished those lectures so that the notetaking paper could be collected before they continued on sections on which no notetaking was permitted.

The computer test was administered in computer laboratories of the five participating universities. Aggregate percent correct scores (across all item types, information types and response types) on each of the computer-based sub-tests were used in the statistical analyses.

Data Analyses

To address the primary research questions, the data were analyzed by a 2 (notetaking) x 2 (length) x 2 (topic) analysis of variance with repeated measures (ANOVA-R) for two factors. The between subjects factor was the topic of the mini-talk.² Topics were classified into two main categories, arts/humanities and physical sciences. The within subjects factors were length of the minitalk and notetaking status. The minitalks were classified as either being short (approximately 2.5 minutes) or long (approximately 5 minutes) in duration. The two levels of notetaking included listening with notetaking allowed and listening with notetaking disallowed. When notetaking was allowed, the participants were subsequently allowed to use their notes when completing the short test following the mini-talk. The results of both main and interaction effects are reported. Separate error terms were used in the simple effects analyses (Maxwell & Delaney, 1990). An alpha level of $p < .05$ was used to determine statistical significance.

To address the secondary research question, the data were analyzed by incorporating the additional learner-aptitude variable into the model described above. The factor was included in the analysis as a between subjects factor, using a median split to form two groups for the variable: those with scores at or above the median, and those with scores below the median.

Results

Statistically significant main effects were found for notetaking and length. In addition, statistically significant interaction effects were also found for notetaking and topic, and notetaking and length. (See Table 2).

Table 2. Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance of the Effects of Notetaking, Lecture Length, and Topic on Percent Correct Scores

<i>Source</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Eta Squared</i>
Between Subjects				
Topic	2778.33	1	2.60	0.012
Error	1066.96	211		
Within Subjects				
Notetaking	3291.57	1	9.91**	0.045
Notetaking x Topic	1832.26	1	5.52*	0.025
Error	332.02	211		
Length	3905.82	1	15.02***	0.066
Length x Topic	505.32	1	1.94	0.009
Error	260.06	211		0.148
Notes x Length	7993.69	1	36.63***	
Notes x Length x Topic	393.92	1	1.81	0.008
Error	218.23	211		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

The cell means and standard deviations are reported in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations (Percent Correct Score) for Notetaking Status and Lecture Length by Topic

<i>Topic</i>		<i>NS</i>	<i>NL</i>	<i>NNS</i>	<i>NNL</i>
Arts/Humanities (N=113)	Mean	44.25	36.73	32.60	34.62
	SD	25.37	20.20	21.29	19.62
Physical Sciences (N=100)	Mean	48.83	34.50	39.33	41.00
	SD	22.30	19.87	25.02	18.56
Total (N=213)	Mean	45.93	35.68	35.76	37.62
	SD	23.99	20.03	23.30	19.35

Key: NS = notetaking allowed, short lecture; NL = notetaking allowed, long lecture; NNS = no notetaking allowed, short lecture; NNL = no notetaking allowed, long lecture.

Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations for the Main Effects of Topic, Notetaking Status, and Lecture Length

Effect	Mean	SD	N
Notetaking Status (w)*			
Notetaking Allowed	40.81	18.88	213
Notetaking Disallowed	36.69	18.72	213
Length of Mini-talk (w)			
Short	40.85	20.13	213
Long	36.65	16.22	213
Topic (b)			
Arts & Humanities	37.05	16.73	113
Physical Sciences	40.67	15.87	100

*(w) = within subjects factor, (b) = between subjects factor

Interaction of Notetaking and Topic

The results of the posthoc analysis of the interaction between notetaking and topic are reported in Table 5. See also Figure 1.

Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and ANOVA-R Results for the Simple Main Effects Analysis for the Notetaking and Topic Interaction

Topic	Source	MS	df	F	Eta Squared	Notetaking Status	Mean	SD
Arts & Humanities	Note-taking	2671.94	1	15.81***	.124	Allowed	40.49	20.28
	Error	168.96	112			Disallowed	33.61	17.81
Physical Sciences	Note-taking	50.00	1	.31	.003	Allowed	41.17	17.25
	Error	162.67	99			Disallowed	40.17	19.2

***p<.001

Figure 1 depicts the interaction between notetaking and topic.

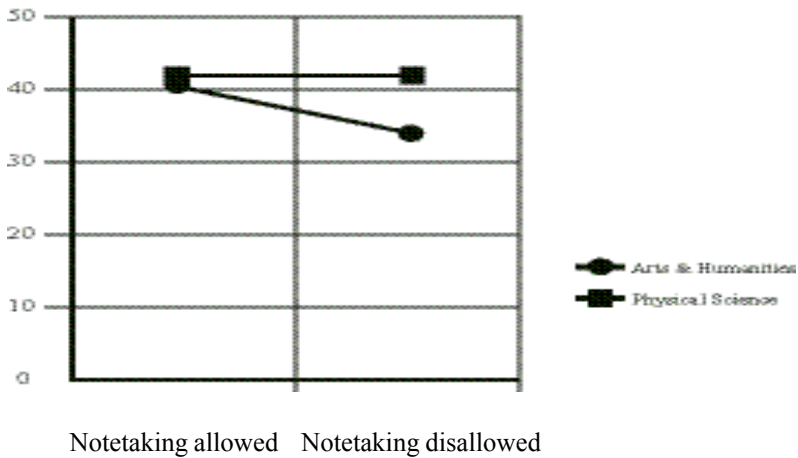


Figure 1. Means of the Percent Correct Scores for Interaction Between Notetaking and Topic.

Thus, students taking the arts and humanities topics scored significantly higher when notetaking was allowed versus when it was not allowed. However, students taking the physical sciences topics performed no differently when they were allowed to take notes and when they were not.

Interaction of Notetaking and Length

The results of the posthoc analysis of the interaction between notetaking and length of minitalk are reported in Table 6. See also Figure 2.

Table 6. Means, Standard Deviations and Anova-R Results for the Simple Main Effects Analysis for the Interaction between Notetaking and Lecture Length.

Minitalk Length	Source	MS	df	F	Eta Squared	Notetaking Status	Mean	SD
Short	Notetaking	11019.82	1	35.74***	.144	Notetaking allowed	45.93	23.99
	Error	308.35	212			Notetaking disallowed	35.76	23.30
Long	Notetaking	399.43	1	1.60	.007	Notetaking allowed	35.68	20.03
	Error	249.81	212			Notetaking disallowed	37.62	19.35

Figure 2. Means of the Percent Correct Scores for Interaction Between Notetaking and Topic

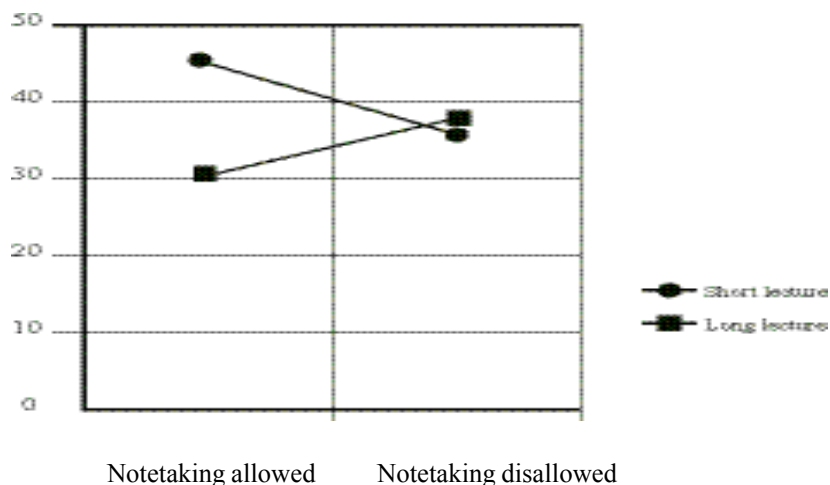


Figure 2 depicts the interaction between notetaking and length of minitalk.

Thus, on the short minitalks, students did statistically significantly better when they were allowed to take notes versus when they were not allowed to take notes. On the long minitalks, there was no statistically significant difference when notetaking was allowed or disallowed.

Secondary Analysis with Overall Listening Comprehension Proficiency Added to the Basic Model

The secondary analysis was conducted in order to examine the additional effects of overall English listening comprehension proficiency on test performance. The additional factor, based upon a median split of the scores on the listening comprehension section of the paper-and-pencil institutional TOEFL, was entered into the 2 (notetaking) x 2 (lecture length) x 2 (topic) basic model used for the primary analysis. The pattern of results was examined for similarities with the results for primary analysis.

Table 7. Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance of the Effects of Notetaking, Lecture Length, Topic and Overall English Listening Comprehension Proficiency on Percent Correct Scores

<i>Source</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Eta Squared</i>
Between Subjects				
Topic	1985.79	1	2.73	.013
TOEFL Group	68627.79	1	94.44***	.316
Topic x TOEFL Group	271.16	1	.37	.002
Error	726.67	204		
Within Subjects				
Notetaking	3239.58	1	9.93**	.046
Notetaking x Topic	1326.55	1	4.07*	.020
Notetaking x TOEFL Group	424.14	1	1.30	.006
Notetaking x Topic x TOEFL Group	1026.58	1	3.15	.015
Error	326.37	204		
Length	3440.95	1	13.44***	.062
Length x Topic	380.53	1	1.49	.007
Length x TOEFL Group	1281.34	1	5.00	.024
Length x Topic x TOEFL Group	176.07	1	.69	.003
Error	256.09	204		
Notetaking x Length	7464.83	1	33.69***	.142
Notetaking x Length x Topic	351.19	1	1.59	.008
Notetaking x Length x TOEFL Group	.00	1	.00	.000
Notetaking x Length x Topic x TOEFL Group	270.15	1	1.22	.006
Error	221.58	204		

When English listening comprehension proficiency (as measured by the listening comprehension section of the paper-and-pencil TOEFL) was added to the basic model, resulting in a 2 (notetaking) x 2 (stimulus length) x 2 (topic) x 2 (English listening comprehension) model, the results were those reported in Table 7.

The significant main effect for TOEFL group shows, not surprisingly, that those scoring at or above the median (49) on the listening comprehension section of the paper-and-pencil TOEFL outperformed those scoring below the median. The other results were similar to those reported for the primary

analysis with significant main effects for notetaking and length of minitalk, as well as significant interaction effects for notetaking by topic and notetaking by length of minitalk. In addition, the interaction between length of minitalk and TOEFL median group was found to be significant. This effect was examined by analyzing simple main effects. For students with TOEFL listening comprehension scores below the median score, there was very little difference between the mean percent correct scores for the long minitalk ($M = 27.29$, $SD = 12.72$) and the short minitalk ($M = 29.34$, $SD = 14.60$). However, for students with TOEFL listening comprehension scores at or above the median, there was a larger and statistically significant difference for the mean percent correct scores for the long and short minitalks, $F(1,113) = 17.70$, $p < .001$. The mean for the short minitalks was 50.37 with a standard deviation of 18.96 and the mean for the long minitalks was 43.80 with a standard deviation of 15.21.

Discussion

Results from the primary analysis show statistically significant interactions between notetaking and length, and between notetaking and topic. These two significant interactions mitigate the significant main effects both for notetaking and for length. The significant interaction between notetaking and length revealed that when the lecture length was shorter (between 2'19" and 2'45") and participants were allowed to take notes, they performed far better ($M = 45.93$) than they did when lecture length was shorter and they were not allowed to take notes ($M = 35.76$) or when lecture length was longer (between 5'07" and 5'29") regardless of whether they were allowed ($M = 35.68$) or not allowed ($M = 37.62$) to take notes. The combination of both a shorter lecture length and the ability to take notes worked together to enhance performance. These results run counter to those of Dunkel (1985) as well as those of Hale and Courtney (1994) who found no effect for notetaking, although those researchers did not consider the factor of length *per se*.

The significant interaction between notetaking and topic revealed that for the physical sciences topics there was no difference between notetaking being allowed ($M = 41.17$) or not being allowed ($M = 40.17$). However, for the arts and humanities topics, there was a statistically significant difference between being allowed to take notes or not, with participants performing far worse on the arts and humanities topics when they were not allowed to take notes ($M = 33.61$), than when they were allowed to take notes ($M = 40.49$). When participants were allowed to take notes on arts and humanities topics, they performed about the same as participants on physical science topics, with or without notetaking being allowed. Evidently, the arts and humanities topics were more difficult for these participants than the physical science topics were for these participants. This may be due to the fact that a larger proportion (32%) of all participants in our study, regardless of what topics they were randomly assigned to, were scientifically-oriented participants (i.e., had a declared intent to major in engineering, physical sciences, mathematics or computer science). A smaller proportion (14%) of the sample were participants with

a declared intent to major in humanities fields. As a result, it seems as though participants were advantaged when they were allowed to take notes on the Arts and Humanities topics, possibly because a large proportion of the participants were not as familiar with Arts and Humanities topics as with the Physical Science topics. It may be that their greater familiarity with topics in the Physical Sciences allowed them to recall more of the information without having taken it down in note form.

When the participants were divided into high and low groups based upon their scores on the listening comprehension section of the institutional TOEFL, utilizing a median split, and when this variable was added into the model for analysis, none of the basic results was affected. That is, the same main effects and same interaction effects were significant with and without the addition of the overall English listening proficiency variable. In addition to a significant effect for the paper-and-pencil institutional TOEFL, notetaking and length continued to be significant main effects, and notetaking and length, as well as notetaking and topic continued to be significant interactions, as discussed above. There was also a significant interaction between length and overall English listening proficiency. Participants in the group below the median performed virtually the same whether the lectures were shorter or longer; however, participants in the higher group performed better on the shorter lectures than on the longer lectures.

Those participants with higher levels of listening ability in English as a foreign/second language were more advantaged when the lectures were shorter, while participants with lower levels of listening ability in EFL/ESL were less affected by lecture length. Their ability in English listening comprehension may have been too low to be affected by lecture length. In other words, a floor effect may have prevailed for the lower proficient listeners. Examinees may need to have a certain level of listening proficiency for the effects of notetaking, length, and topic to have any significant effect on test performance.

Some Evidence for the Concurrent Validity of the Computer-Based Test

Results from the secondary analysis showed that the paper-and-pencil institutional TOEFL listening comprehension test correlated moderately well with the computer-based test constructed for this study ($r = .71$). (TOEFL reports a correlation of .82 between the listening components of the paper-and-pencil traditional test and the computer-based test scores on a concordance sample (TOEFL, 1998, p. 31).) In a sense, the correlation is significant in that it provides some evidence of concurrent validity for the computer-based test used in this study.

Summary of Main Findings

The following summarize our main findings:

1. A positive effect for allowing notetaking was found, like that found by Liu (2001) and in contrast to previous experimental work by Dunkel (1985; Dunkel, Mishra, & Berliner, 1989), Chaudron (Chaudron, Cook, & Loschky, 1988; Chaudron, Loschky, & Cook, 1994) and Hale and Courtney (1994). The interactive effect of notetaking and length, as well as of topic, has been noted. However, the fact remains that this study provides rare support for the value of notetaking for L2 learners.

2. A positive effect for lecture length was found; shorter lectures produced higher percent correct scores than longer lectures.

3. However, these two main effects are mitigated by the interaction effects found for the following:

a. An interaction between notetaking and topic was found; students performed least well on arts and humanities topics when no notetaking was allowed, performed best on arts and humanities topics when notetaking was allowed, and performed virtually the same on physical science topics regardless of whether notetaking was allowed or disallowed.

b. An interaction between notetaking and lecture length was found; students performed best when notetaking was allowed on short lectures, and performed less well when not allowed to take notes on short lectures or when lectures were long, regardless of whether they could or could not take notes.

4. No differences in the pattern of results were found when overall English listening proficiency (as measured by the listening comprehension section of the institutional TOEFL) was added to the equation along with the three main factors of notetaking, lecture length, and topic. However, there was a significant interaction between lecture length and overall English listening proficiency, with participants with lower listening comprehension performing virtually the same whether lectures were short or long, but participants with higher listening comprehension performing far better on shorter minilectures than on longer minilectures.

Implications of These Findings for TOEFL 2000 and Other Similar Computer-Based Tests of Listening Comprehension

These results suggest that examinees might be allowed the opportunity to take paper-and-pencil notes while listening to the computer-based

minilectures. Clearly, the finding of a significant interaction for notetaking and length, for notetaking and topic, and for notetaking and English listening comprehension proficiency suggest that notetaking *per se* will not always help examinees, depending upon the length of the lectures and the topic, and whether they have sufficiently high English listening comprehension proficiency. The perceived comfort of being able to jot down notes while listening to the minitalks may also allow examinees to demonstrate higher levels of performance, since they will not have to rely so heavily on their memory to store all the information heard in the minitalks. They can reference their notes to check information asked in the test questions. Furthermore, the face validity of the test should improve somewhat if notetaking is allowed, since university lecturers encourage (and even expect) students to listen and take notes on their lecture presentations. In allowing notetaking, TOEFL 2000 and other similar computer-based tests of listening comprehension would be reiterating one of the traditional approaches to learning from lectures (i.e., listening to the discourse heard, and noting down information perceived as important or relevant for recall in an examination).

With respect to length of minitalks on TOEFL 2000 or other computer-based tests of listening comprehension, our results do not provide the basis for definitive recommendations. Whether TOEFL 2000 or similar tests should use longer (e.g., approximately 5 minutes) or shorter (e.g., approximately 2.5 minutes) minitalks remains a question for further study. In this study, notetaking helped listeners on the shorter lectures, but not the longer lectures. It should be noted that the longer minitalks also had greater information density than the shorter minitalks. It may be that if the minitalks had been increased in length but without an increase in information load, with the addition of iteration and expansion of information, a slower pace, and addition of backtracking, fillers, etc., the students might have done as well on the longer talks as on the shorter. Additional research should be conducted investigating the increase in lecture length in two different ways: (a) longer minitalks which carry a concomitant increase in information density as a result of the increase in length (which was the case in the present study), and (b) longer minitalks which, while longer, do not increase the information load, by virtue of the addition of iteration, elaboration, etc. Our finding in the current study reinforces the principle that notetaking on shorter minitalks is advantageous, when compared with the first type of longer minitalk. However, it may be that on the second type of longer minitalk that students would have done as well or better on the longer lectures as on the shorter lectures, with or without notetaking.

Notetaking effects may interact with topic to affect performance; all topics may not behave the same with respect to notetaking effects. This may be due, in part, to the backgrounds of examinees. This is worthy of further investigation.

A conclusion one might draw from the correlation between the computer-based test with its novel item and response types and the traditional paper-and-pencil audio-tape institutional TOEFL test is that TOEFL 2000 and other similar computer-based tests of listening comprehension might well

include some of these novel item types (detail and minor detail) and novel response types (constructed response). However, before that possibility is implemented in large-scale, high-stakes standardized testing, further study needs to be undertaken examining our results by different item types, since the current study used only an aggregate score encompassing all of the different item, information and response types.

Further Research

Follow-up studies should investigate the various item types, response types, and information types utilized in this study, since, as previously stated, the current study used only an aggregate percent correct score encompassing all of these different item types. Further research on the various item types and response types included in this computer-based test might end up suggesting that such novel item and response types could eventually be added to future operational computer-based tests of listening comprehension.

Additional follow-up studies might further pursue other aspects of the results of the current study. First and foremost, students' notes should be examined to determine whether students even took notes when allowed to. The extent of the notes they took should also be examined. All we can state at this point is that approximately 90% of students, when allowed to take notes, made some type of written notation. Second, the quality of the notes taken by the students should be analyzed by content analysis. Finally, the relationship between the notes taken and their quality, on the one hand, and test performance, on the other hand, should be explored. For example, did students who took high quality notes perform better than students who either did not take notes when they were allowed to or whose notes were not of high quality?

We also recommend that further studies be conducted to examine the question of notetaking directly on the computer compared with the paper and pencil notetaking allowed in this study, and to investigate the different ways in which the minitalk stimuli might be lengthened (e.g., both with or without increase in information density) to be more similar to longer classroom lectures and to investigate how such different kinds of increases in length of stimuli interact with notetaking.

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Notes

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² Notetaking (allowed or disallowed) was the variable of primary interest in this study. Lecture length was the variable of secondary interest in

this study, given the speculation by Hale and Courtney (1994) on the possible relationship between notetaking and lecture length. Both of these variables were incorporated into the research design as repeated measures. Topic was subsequently added to the research design as a main effect due to its significance found in the testing of second/foreign language listening comprehension (albeit not in connection with notetaking) by Freedle and Kostin (1999). To have added topic as a third repeated measure would have significantly lengthened the test for examinees. It was felt that there was no loss to add topic as a between subjects, group factor, with examinees randomly assigned to topics.

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Reviews

Nihongo Shokyu Dokkai Yomikata + Kakikata: Reading and Writing in Japanese for Beginners. (2000). By Kyoko Chinami and Yasuyo Uegaki. Tokyo: ALC Press. Pp. 166, ISBN 4-7574-0242-2.

Reviewed by MUTSUMI HIRAI

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As its title indicates, *Nihongo shokyu dokkai yomikata + kakikata* aims to help beginners learn Japanese through reading and writing. Considering adult learners who live in Japan as its ideal audience, the book offers varied content, from reading that learners are likely to encounter in their everyday lives to reading that is interesting for adult, educated learners to discuss. This book comprises 20 chapters with different types of reading text for each, including business name cards, posters, essays, conversational dialogues, newspaper articles and so on. Supplements such as vocabulary lists and sample answers to tasks follow as study guides. Appendices that give overview of Japanese sentence structures and basic conjugations of verbs and adjectives are provided at the end of the book. Each chapter employs the same structure, which begins with a text for reading, tasks that check learners' reading of kanji words and the basic structures used in the text, short-answer questions for comprehension checks, and a writing task. Writing tasks vary according to the content of the core reading. For instance, in a chapter featuring a postcard message as its reading text, the writing task posed to learners is writing a postcard to their friends.

A strength of this textbook is that tasks are designed to promote communication between learners and native speakers of Japanese. As can be seen in the example of writing a postcard to a friend, learners are encouraged to undertake writing tasks that can be used as communication tools with native speakers. Moreover, although they are not purely authentic, some reading texts at least simulate common text types, as they are close to authentic texts that learners will encounter in their everyday lives (e.g., business name cards, mailing addresses, a notice from a post office, and so on).

Adult learners will also benefit from sophisticated words used in *Nihongo shokyu dokkai*, whose main purpose is to provide learners an opportunity to enjoy reading and writing from beginner level. A typical approach to Japanese language teaching novices in Japan is to focus on speaking and listening skills rather than reading and writing, due to the burden of acquiring the complex orthography and the great gaps between spoken and written language. Learners who are not satisfied with everyday language and are eager to express abstract ideas will enjoy this book by learning sophisticated words presented in the written language. Learners whose orthographic background is not related to kanji can also enjoy reading, as each chapter contains a text with furigana (hiragana presented above each kanji symbol, which shows how to read the kanji) after the main reading text, which does not present furigana.

Although Nihongo shokyu dokkai is strong in many respects, several shortcomings are worth noting. Supplements such as study guides may help learners to some extent; however, the hints given for writing tasks are inadequate. For example, for a task describing the writing system in learners' mother tongues, the supplement only gives sample topics to write about (e.g., "What kind of letters do you use in your country?"); it does not provide other important information such as discourse organization or grammatical structure that learners can use. Other than topical hints and vocabulary presented in the supplements, no exercises accompany the writing tasks, requiring considerable additional preparation by teachers who wish to develop their students' writing skills.

In terms of the book's overall design and organization, readers will note a serious gap between the variety of text types and the consistency of task types. The genres that are presented in this book vary from reading a poster to reading a newspaper article, suggesting a need to offer a range of skills development tasks. However, task types are small in number, including only identifying kanji words, grammar exercises, and short-answer comprehension questions. These tasks follow a consistent, mechanical format in all chapters. Although this book can meet different needs of learners in terms of various text types, it fails to do so in terms of the variety of task types. Again, teachers will need to prepare additional tasks that are appropriate to type of text in each chapter in order to help learners develop sufficiently varied reading skills. The text types covered in Nihongo shokyu dokkai also make it difficult for teachers to identify the book's true focus. It is unclear what reading and writing skills will be promoted by using the book. In addition, due to the diverse text types, chapters offer few opportunities for learners to practice previously-introduced skills; the book recycles skills and knowledge only minimally.

Despite its several shortcomings, if used properly, Nihongo shokyu dokkai could be very useful. A textbook that relies too heavily on a fixed set of activities and provides too much guidance can inhibit teachers' creativity due to a lack of flexibility. This book is highly flexible in the sense that it allows teachers to adapt materials and exercises according to their learners' needs. Moreover, the variety of text types can be a valuable resource for teachers selecting materials to acquaint learners with a range of written genres.

Tema-betsu Chukyu Kara Manabu Nihongo. ((2003). By R. Arai, J. Ota, M. Kameta, K. Kikawa, N. Kuwahara T. Nagata, K. Matsuda. Tokyo, Japan: Kenkyusha. Rev. Ed.

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Extensively revised from the first edition in 1991, Tema-betsu Chukyu Kara Manabu Nihongo (Rev.ed.), accompanied by a workbook, is an integrated skills textbook that aims to develop four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. This book is suitable for prospective students of Japanese

universities and vocational schools, as well as those who plan to work in Japan.

Each of the 25 chapters forms a self-contained unit that can be studied out of sequence as needed or desired. Each chapter includes the following sections: new words, pre-reading task, main reading, reading comprehension questions, grammar and exercises, gapped-summary exercise, discussion questions, and useful phrases. The pre-reading task at the beginning of each chapter introduces the theme of the chapter, and when used in a classroom, gives an opportunity for learners to talk about the theme with other learners, thereby developing learner's speaking and listening skills.

Japanese culture, intercultural communication, gender issues, and environmental issues are some of the themes covered in *Tema-betsu Chukyu Kara Manabu Nihongo* (Rev.ed.). Some chapters feature texts written from the perspective of foreigners living in Japan and could appeal to the students.

Written by seven Japanese language professionals, this edition is a great improvement from the last edition. New samples have replaced the old samples in the main reading, less frequently used words and grammatical structures have been replaced, and the amount of vocabulary items has been increased. According to the authors, three chapters have been completely rewritten. Extensive revisions were made in three chapters, and some parts were revised in 18 other chapters. Similarly, the new edition presents 250 more target words than the earlier edition. Furthermore, a total of 22 additional katakana words were added; these items are current in Japanese society and are often difficult for learners to master.

Tema-betsu Chukyu Kara Manabu Nihongo (Rev.ed.) can also be used in preparation courses for the Japanese Language Proficiency Tests. 13% of the all the words in the book are included in the Level One Japanese Language Proficiency Test; more than 47% of the words are listed for the Level Two Japanese Language Proficiency Test.

A weakness of *Tema-betsu Chukyu Kara Manabu Nihongo* (Rev.ed.) involves a serious lack of authenticity. The sources of the core reading texts are unknown; they seem to have been composed by the authors themselves. The materials do not feature genre or text types that learners will need to read, understand, and reproduce in the future. Moreover, the layout and visual appeal of the text are poor. The design offers limited space for learners to write in their answers, and the margins are not wide enough for note-taking. The grammar section of the textbook provides no grammatical rules, making the book unsuitable for those who are studying on their own.

Despite the weaknesses, this is a well written book for learners who plan to take the Japanese Language Proficiency Tests and for those who plan to continue their studies in Japanese universities. The text is best used in classroom contexts, as many of the sections involve development of four skills through classroom discussions. The first edition of this book has been widely used in Japanese language schools since its publication in 1991, and teachers involved in test preparation courses will find the revised edition well worth examining.

National Language Conference Results

The Department of Defense announced today the initial results of The National Language Conference that was held June 22-24 at the University of Maryland. The conference was prompted by the greater need for citizens with foreign language competence to help respond to requirements of the 21st century and the Global War on Terrorism, the increasing globalization of industry, and the need to provide government services to a diverse and multilingual population in the United States. The initial findings of the conferees were:

Increasing language skills and cultural awareness are national requirements that will be filled primarily at the state and local level.

There is a need for greater coordination within the elementary, secondary, and post secondary educational system and a need for coordination at the national level.

The rich population of multilingual Americans found in our heritage communities need to be invited to participate in this national initiative.

The population needs to be aware of career opportunities for those possessing language skills, and these skills should be recognized as valuable in today's business and governmental environment.

An increased government and industry emphasis on the value of foreign language competency is necessary to spur the allocation of resources for education and also to attract students to study them.

Deputy Secretary of Defense Paul Wolfowitz, praised the efforts of the conferees, and the promise for national security, saying,

The greater our ability to communicate with people, the easier the burden on our troops and the greater the likelihood that we can complete our missions and bring our people home safely. Even better, the greater our linguistic skill, the greater the possibility that we can resolve international differences and achieve our objectives without having to use force. I am asking the under secretary of defense for personnel and readiness to follow-up on the recommendations of the conferees with other interested federal agencies.

Conference speakers and panelists outlined the needs of the federal sector and industry, and the capabilities and possibilities of the American educational system. Conferees then met to propose actions that might be taken to make the United States population more competent in foreign languages. The results of the conference work will be assembled in a white paper proposing national policies and programs to address foreign language needs, in a first step toward spurring national action on this issue.

Rep. Rush Holt, the keynote speaker for the conference, said,

In 1958, Congress responded to Sputnik by passing the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), which created a generation of scientists, engineers, and Russian linguists who helped win the Cold War. Immediately after September 11, 2001, Americans found themselves again facing a Sputnik moment. They realized that they were caught flatfooted, unprepared to confront Al Qaeda terrorists. We need a national commitment to languages on a scale of the NDEA commitment to science, including improved curriculum, teaching technology and methods, teacher development, and a systemic cultural commitment.

More than 300 people attended the event, representing federal agencies, the nation's educational system, industry, language experts and researchers. Experts from Australia, Finland, and the Netherlands were also on hand to discuss their nations' responses to foreign language needs. Rosemary G. Feal, the executive director of the Modern Language Association said,

The National Language Conference was great. The conference brought together people from many difference communities, and all voices were heard. The conference participants found much common ground and have begun the important task of identifying next steps. The language future of the United States just became a lot brighter as a result of the light shed at the National Language Conference.

The Department of Defense cosponsored the conference with the Center for Advanced Study of Language.

General Information

ALL Index

Authors and Articles

- Abraham, Roberta G. (1996). *Introduction: Validity Issues in the Assessment of L2 Learner Strategies*. 7(1&2), p. 1.
- Abraham, Roberta G. (1996). *Using Task Products to Assess Second Language Learning Processes*. 7(1 & 2), p. 61.
- Aldrich, Ray Lane. (2000). *Army Language Training in the 21st Century*. 11(2), p. 363.
- Allen, Linda Quinn. (2000). *Nonverbal Accommodations in Foreign Language Teacher Talk*. 11(1), p. 155.
- Ariew, Robert. (1991). *Effective Strategies for Implementing Language Training Technologies*. 2(2), p. 31.
- Bar-Lev, Zev. (1993). *Sheltered Initiation Language Learning*. 4(1 & 2), p. 95.
- Bush, Michael D. (1991). *Hardware for Language Training: Coping with Confusion*. 2(2), p. 77.
- Butler, Stephen L. (2000). *It's Not Training, It's Education*. 11(2), p. 357.
- Byrnes, Heidi. (1989). *Features of Pragmatic and Sociolinguistic Competence in the Oral Proficiency Interview*. 1(1), p. 1.
- Cadierno, Teresa. (1997). *The Effects of Lexical and Grammatical Cues on Processing Past Temporal References in Second Language Input*. 8(1), p. 1.
- Callahan, Philip, @ Shaver, Peter. (2001). *Formative Considerations Using Integrative CALL*. 12(2), p. 147.
- Chapelle, Carol A. (1996). *Validity Issues in a Computer-Assisted Strategy Assessment*. 7(1 & 2), p. 47.
- Child, James. (1993). *Proficiency and Performance in Language Testing*. 4(1 & 2), p. 19.
- Child, James R. (1998). *Language Aptitude Testing: Learners and Applications*. 9 (1 & 2), p. 1.
- Cho, Kyung-Sook. (1997). *1998 Free Voluntary Reading as a Predictor of TOEFL Scores*. 8(1), p. 111.
- Clark, John L.D. (1991). *Measurement and Research Implications of Spolsky's Conditions for Second Language Learning*. 2(1), p. 71.
- Clifford, Ray T. (1993). *Proficiency and Performance in Language Testing*. 4(1 & 2), p. 19.
- Cohen, Andrew D. (1992). *Language Learning Strategies: Crucial Issues of Concept and Definition*. 3(1 & 2), p. 1.
- Cohen, Andrew D. (1996). *Verbal Reports as a Source of Insights into Second Language Learner Strategies*. 7(1 & 2), p. 5.
- Constantino, Rebecca. (1997). *Free Voluntary Reading as a Predictor of TOEFL Scores*. 8(1), p. 111.

- Davis, Lynne. (1998). *Essay Scores as Instruments for Placement and Advancement in an Intensive English Program*. 9(1 & 2), p. 107.
- Derwing, Tracey M. (1997). *Pronunciation Instruction for "Fossilized" Learners: Can It Help?* 8(2), p. 217.
- Derwing, Tracey M & Rossiter, Marian J. (2003). *The Effects of Pronunciation Instruction on the Accuracy, Fluency, and Complexity of L2 Accented Speech*. 13(1), p. 1.
- Douglas, Dan. (1989). *Testing Listening Comprehension*. 1(1), p. 53.
- Dunkel, Patricia A. (1992). *The Utility of Objective (Computer) Measures of the Fluency of Speakers of English as a Second Language*. 3(1 & 2), p. 65.
- Dupuy, Beatrice. (1993). *Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in French as a Foreign Language*. 4(1 & 2), p. 55.
- Dupuy, Beatrice. (1997). *Voices from the Classroom: Intermediate-Level French Students Favor Extensive Reading over Grammar and Give Their Reasons*. 8(2), p. 285.
- Dutertre, Ayça. (2000). *A Teacher's Investigation of Her Own Teaching*. 11(1), p. 99.
- Ehrman, Madeline. (1998). *The Modern Language Aptitude Test for Predicting Learning Success and Advising Students*. 9(1 & 2), p. 31.
- Eisenstein Ebsworth, Miriam. (1997). *What Researchers Say and Practitioners Do: Perspectives on Conscious Grammar Instruction in the ESL Classroom*. 8(2), p. 237.
- Ellis, Rod. (1994). *Factors in the Incidental Acquisition of Second Language Vocabulary from Oral Input: A Review Essay*. 5(1), p. 1.
- Feyten, Carine M. (1999). *Consciousness Raising and Strategy Use*. 10(1 & 2), p. 15.
- Flaitz, Jeffra J. (1999). *Consciousness Raising and Strategy Use*. 10(1 & 2), p.15.
- Ganschow, Leonore. (1992). *Factors Relating to Learning a Foreign Language among High- and Low-Risk High School Students with Learning Disabilities*. 3(1 & 2), p. 37.
- Gardner, Robert C. (1991). *Second-Language Learning in Adults: Correlates of Proficiency*. 2(1), p. 1.
- Garrett, Nina. (1989). *The Role of Grammar in the Development of Communicative Ability*. 1(1), p. 15.
- Garrett, Nina. (1991). *Language Pedagogy and Effective Technology Use*. 2(2), p. 1.
- Glass, William R. (1997). *The Effects of Lexical and Grammatical Cues on Processing Past Temporal References in Second Language Input*. 8(1), p. 1.
- Gonzalez-Bueno, Manuela. (2001). *Pronunciation Teaching Component in SL/FL Education Programs: Training Teachers to Teach Pronunciation*. 12(2), p. 133.
- Granschow, Leonore. (1998). *Factors in the Prediction of Achievement and Proficiency in a Foreign Language*. 9(1 & 2), p. 71.

- Han, Youngju. (2000). *Grammaticality Judgment Tests: How Reliable and Valid Are They?* 11(1), p.177.
- Hayakawa, Harumi & Yoshinori Sasaki. (2003). *Does a Quiz Facilitate or Spoil Language Learning? Instructional Effects of Lesson Review Quizzes.* 13(1), p. 33.
- Hedgcock, John. (2000). *Overt and Covert Prestige in the French Language Classroom: When Is It Good to Sound Bad.* 11(1), p. 75.
- Hinkel, Eli. (2001). *Matters of Cohesion in L2 Academic Texts.* 12 (2), p. 111.
- Hinkel, Eli. (1994). *Pragmatics of Interaction: Expressing Thanks in a Second Language.* 5(1), p. 73.
- Hinkel, Eli. (2001). *Matters of Cohesion in L2 Academic Texts.* 12(2), p. 111.
- Hodges, Rosemary. (1995). *Examining the Value of Conversation Partner Programs.* 6(1 & 2), p. 1.
- Hokanson, Sonja. (2000). *Foreign Language Immersion Homestays: Maximizing the Accommodation of Cognitive Styles.* 11(2), p. 239.
- Holznagel, Donald C. (1991). *Managing Innovation and Change for Instructional Technology.* 2(2), p. 45.
- Hughes Wilhelm, Kim & Rivers, Marilyn. (2001). *An Audience Approach to EAP Writing Assessment: Learners, Teachers, Outsiders.* 12(2), p. 67.
- Hussein, Anwar S. (1995). *Sociolinguistic Patterns of Arabic Native Speakers: Implications for Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language.* 6(1 & 2), p. 65.
- Izumi, Shinichi. (2000). *Implicit Negative Feedback in Adults NS-NNS Conversation: Its Availability, Utility, and the Discourse Structure of the Information-Gap Task.* 11(2), p. 289.
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News and Views

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Calendar of Events*

2004

Cultural Diversity and Language Education, 17-19, September, University of Hawaii. Contact: National Foreign Language Resource Center, University of Hawaii at Manoa, 1859 East-West Road #106, Honolulu, HI 96822; (808) 956-9424, Fax (808) 956-5983, Email: nflrc@hawaii.edu, Web: nflrc.hawaii.edu/

First International Online Conference on Second and Foreign Language Teaching and Research, 25-26 September. Contact: www.readingmatrix.com/
Symposium on Second Language Writing, 30 September - 2 October, Purdue University, West Lafayette. Contact: Nona Schaler, Conference Coordinator, Symposium on Second Language Writing, 1586 Stewart Center, West Lafayette, IN 47907-1586; (765) 494-2756, Fax (765) 494-0567, Email: njschaler@purdue.edu, Web: symposium.jslw.org/2004

American Translators Association (ATA), 13-16 October, Toronto, Canada. Contact: ATA, 225 Reinekers Lane, Suite 590, Alexandria, VA 22314, (703) 683-6100, Fax (703) 683-6122, Email: conference@atanet.org, Web: www.atanet.org

7th Conference on the Acquisition of Spanish and Portuguese as First and Second Languages, University of Minnesota. Contact: Carol Klee, Dept. of Spanish and Portuguese Studies, University of Minnesota, 34 Folwell Hall, 9 Pleasant St. SE, Minneapolis, MN 55455, (612) 625-5858, Fax (612) 625-3549, Email: hispling@umn.edu, Web: spanport.cla.umn.edu/conferences/lingconferences.htm

Pathways to Bilingualism: Evolving Perspectives on Immersion Education, 21-23 October, University of Minnesota. Contact: CARLA, 619 Heller Hall,

271 19th Avenue South, Minneapolis, MN 55455, (612) 626-8600, Fax (612) 624-7514, Email: carla@tc.umn.edu, Web: www.carla.umn.edu/conferences/immersion

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 19-21 November, Chicago. Contact: ACTFL, 700 S. Washington St., Suite 210, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2903, Fax (703) 894-2905, Email: headquarters@actfl.org, Web: www.actfl.org

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 19-21 November, Chicago. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398, Email: headquarters@aatg.org, Web: www.aatg.org

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI), 19-21 November, Chicago. Contact: Piero Baldini, Department of Languages and Literatures, Arizona State University, P.O. Box 870202, Tempe, AZ 85287-0202; Email: pbaldini@asu.edu

- Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 19-21 November, Chicago. Contact: CLTA Headquarters, Cynthia Ning, Center for Chinese Studies, Moore Hall #416, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, HI 96822; (808) 956-2692, Fax (808) 956-2682, Email: cyndy@hawaii.edu, Web: clta.deall.ohio-state.edu
- National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 19-21 November, Chicago. Contact: Mary Lynn Redmond, NNELL, P.O. Box 7266, A2A Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu, Web: www.nnell.org
- Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), 19-22 November, Tezukayama University, Nara. Contact: Web: jalt.org/jalt2004/main/call/
- CLS International Conference, 1-3 December, National University of Singapore. Contact: The Secretary, CLaSIC 2004 Organising Committee, Centre for Language Studies, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, National University of Singapore; (65) 68746715, Fax (65) 67777736; Email: clasic@nus.edu.sg, Web: www.fas.nus.edu.sg/cls/clasic2004/
- Modern Language Association of America (MLA), 27-30 December, Philadelphia. Contact: MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212) 477-9863, Email: convention@mla.org, Web: www.mla.org
- American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages (AATSEEL) and American Council of Teachers of Russian, 27-30 December, Philadelphia. Contact: AATSEEL, Kathleen E. Dillon, Executive Director, P.O. Box 7039, Berkeley, CA 94707-2306, Email: aatseel@earthlink.net, Web: www.aatseel.org
- International Association of Teachers of Czech (IATC-NAATC), 27-30 December, Philadelphia. Contact: Hana Píchová, Executive Officer, Slavic Languages and Literatures, University of Texas at Austin, P.O. Box 7217, Austin, TX 78713-7217; Email: pichova@mail.utexas.edu, Web: www.language.brown.edu/NAATC/index.html

2005

- Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), 24-26 February, Charlotte, NC. Contact: Lynne McClendon, SCOLT, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; (770) 992-1256, Fax (770) 992-3464, Email: lynnemcc@mindspring.com, Web: www.valdosta.edu/scolt
- Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 10-12 March, Columbus, OH. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, P.O. Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650, Email: CSCTFL@aol.com, Web: www.centralstates.cc
- 20th Conference on Spanish in the US, 24-26 March, Chicago. Contact: fstayn1@uic.edu Web: <http://spaninus.uic.edu/>

- Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), 29 March - 2 April, San Antonio, TX. Contact: TESOL, 700 S. Washington Street, Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email: conventions@tesol.org, Web: www.tesol.org
- Association for Asian Studies (AAS), 31 March - 3 April, Chicago. Contact: AAS, 1021 East Huron St., Ann Arbor, MI 48104; (734) 665-2490; Fax (734) 665-3801, Email: annmtg@aasianst.org, Web: www.aasianst.org
- Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL), 31 March - 3 April, New York. Contact: Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, P.O. Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email: nectfl@dickinson.edu, Web: www.dickinson.edu/nectfl
- Southwest Conference on Language Teaching (SWCOLT), 7-9 April, Irving, TX. Contact: Audrey Cournia, SWCOLT, (775) 358-6943, Fax (775) 358-1605, Email: CourniaAudrey@cs.com, Web: www.swcolt.org
- American Educational Research Association (AERA), 11-15 April, Montreal, Canada. Contact: AERA, 1230 17th St. NW, Washington, DC 20036-3078; (202) 223-9485, Fax: (202) 775-1824, Web: www.aera.net
- International Reading Association (IRA), 1-5 May, San Antonio, TX. Contact: International Reading Association, Headquarters Office, 800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, (302) 731-1600, Fax: (302) 731-1057, Web: www.ira.org
- Computer-assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO), 17-21 May, East Lansing, MI. Contact: CALICO, Southwest Texas State University, 214 Centennial Hall, 601 University Drive, San Marcos, TX 78666, (512) 245-1417, Fax: (512) 245-9089, Email: info@calico.org, Web: www.calico.org
- American Association of Teachers of French (AATF), 7-10 July, Quebec City, Canada. Contact: Jayne Abrate, AATF, Mailcode 4510, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; (618) 453-5731, Fax (618) 453-5733, Email: abrate@siu.edu, Web: www.frenchteachers.org
- Summer Institute in Applied Linguistics, 27 June - 21 July, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA. Contact: James P. Lantolf, Dept. of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies, The Pennsylvania State University, 305 Sparks, University Park, PA, 16802; (814) 863-7038, Email: jpl7@psu.edu
- AILA 2005, 24-29 July, 14th world congress, Madison, WI. Contact: Richard F. Young, AILA 2005, Department of English, University of Wisconsin, 600 North Park Street, Madison, WI 53706; (608) 263-2679, Email: ryoung@wisc.edu, Web: www.aila2005.org
- American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), 24-29 July, Madison, WI. Contact: Contact: AAAL, 3416 Primm Lane, Birmingham, AL 35216; (205) 824-7700, Fax (205) 823-2760, Email: aaaloffice@aaal.org, Web: www.aaal.org

- International Conference on Task-based Language Teaching, 21-23 September, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Belgium. Contact: Web: www.tblt.org/index.htm
- American Translators Association (ATA), 9-12 November, Seattle. Contact: ATA, Contact: ATA, 225 Reinekers Lane, Suite 590, Alexandria, VA 22314, (703) 683-6100, Fax (703) 683-6122, Email: conference@atanet.org, Web: www.atanet.org
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 18-20 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: ACTFL, 700 S. Washington St., Suite 210, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2903, Fax (703) 894-2905, Email: headquarters@actfl.org, Web: www.actfl.org
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- National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 18-20 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: Mary Lynn Redmond, NNELL, P.O. Box 7266, A2A Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu, Web: www.nnell.org

2006

- Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), 16-18 February, Orlando, FL. Contact: Lynne McClendon, SCOLT, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; (770) 992-1256, Fax (770) 992-3464, Email: lynnemcc@mindspring.com, Web: www.valdosta.edu/scolt
- Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), 15-19 March, Tampa Bay, FL. Contact: TESOL, 700 S. Washington Street, Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email: conventions@tesol.org, Web: www.tesol.org
- Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 9-11 March, Chicago. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, P.O. Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650, Email: CSCTFL@aol.com, Web: www.centralstates.cc
- Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL), 30 March - 2 April, New York. Contact: Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, P.O. Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email: nectfl@dickinson.edu, Web: www.dickinson.edu/nectfl

- Association for Asian Studies (AAS), 6-9 April, San Francisco. Contact: AAS, 1021 East Huron St., Ann Arbor, MI 48104; (734) 665-2490; Fax (734) 665-3801, Email: annmtg@asianst.org, Web: www.asianst.org
- American Educational Research Association (AERA), 8-12 April, San Francisco. Contact: AERA, 1230 17th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036-3078; (202) 223-9485, Fax: (202) 775-1824, Web: www.aera.net
- International Reading Association (IRA), 30 April - 4 May, Chicago, IL. Contact: International Reading Association, Headquarters Office, 800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, (302) 731-1600, Fax: (302) 731-1057, Web: www.ira.org
- American Translators Association (ATA), 2-5 November, New Orleans. Contact: ATA, 225 Reinekers Lane, Suite 590, Alexandria, VA 22314, (703) 683-6100, Fax (703) 683-6122, Email: conference@atanet.org, Web: www.atanet.org
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 17-19 November, Nashville. Contact: ACTFL, 700 S. Washington St., Suite 210, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2903, Fax (703) 894-2905, Email: headquarters@actfl.org, Web: www.actfl.org
- American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 17-19 November, Nashville. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398, Email: headquarters@aatg.org, Web: www.aatg.org
- Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 17-19 November, Nashville. Contact: CLTA Headquarters, Cynthia Ning, Center for Chinese Studies, Moore Hall #416, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, HI 96822; (808) 956-2692, Fax (808) 956-2682, Email: cyndy@hawaii.edu, Web: clta.deall.ohio-state.edu
- National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 17-19 November, Nashville. Contact: Mary Lynn Redmond, NNELL, P.O. Box 7266, A2A Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu, Web: www.nnell.org

Information for Contributors

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of *Applied Language Learning* (ALL) is to increase and promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program and academic communities on adult language learning for functional purposes.

Submission of Manuscripts

The Editor encourages the submission of research and review manuscripts from such disciplines as: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, and social sciences; (5) assessment of needs within the profession.

Research Article

Divide your manuscript into the following sections:

- Abstract
 - Introduction
 - Method
 - Results
 - Discussion
 - Conclusion
 - Appendices
 - Notes
 - References
 - Acknowledgments
 - Author

Abstract

Identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and suggest findings in an abstract of not more than 200 words.

Introduction

In a few paragraphs, state the purpose of the study and relate it to the hypothesis and the experimental design. Point out the theoretical implications of the study and relate them to previous work in the area.

Next, under the subsection *Literature Review*, discuss work that had a direct impact on your study. Cite only research pertinent to a specific issue and avoid references with only tangential or general significance. Emphasize pertinent findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work. Whenever appropriate, treat controversial issues fairly. You may state that certain studies support one conclusion and others challenge or contradict it.

Method

Describe how you conducted the study. Give a brief synopsis of the method. Next develop the subsections pertaining to the *participants*, the *materials*, and the *procedure*.

Participants. Identify the number and type of participants. Specify how they were selected and how many participated in each experiment. Provide major demographic characteristics such as age, sex, geographic location, and institutional affiliation. Identify the number of experiment dropouts and the reasons they did not continue.

Materials. Describe briefly the materials used and their function in the experiment.

Procedure. Describe each step in the conduct of the research. Include the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.

Results

First state the results. Next describe them in sufficient detail to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.

Tables and figures. Prepare tables to present exact values. Use tables sparingly. Sometimes you can present data more efficiently in a few sentences than in a table. Avoid developing tables for information already presented in other places. Prepare figures to illustrate key interactions, major interdependencies, and general comparisons. Indicate to the reader what to look for in tables and figures.

Discussion

Express your support or nonsupport for the original hypothesis. Next examine, interpret, and qualify the results and draw inferences from them. Do not repeat old statements: Create new statements that further contribute to your position and to readers understanding of it.

Conclusion

Succinctly describe the contribution of the study to the field. State how it has helped to resolve the original problem. Identify conclusions and theoretical implications that can be drawn from your study.

Appendices

Place detailed information (for example, a table, lists of words, or a sample of a questionnaire) that would be distracting to read in the main body of the article in the appendices.

Notes

Use them for substantive information only, and number them serially throughout the manuscript. They all should be listed on a separate page entitled *Notes*.

References

Submit on a separate page of the manuscript a list of references with the centered heading: *References*. Arrange the entries alphabetically by surname of authors. Review the format for bibliographic entries of references in the following sample:

- Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16 (1), 93-95.
Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

List all works cited in the manuscripts in *References*, and conversely, cite all works included in *References* in the manuscript. Include in reference citations in the text of the manuscript the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the materials that you are quoting originally appeared, e.g., (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238).

Acknowledgments

Identify colleagues who contributed to the study and assisted you in the writing process.

Author

Type the title of the article and the author's name on a separate page to ensure anonymity in the review process. Prepare an autobiographical note indicating: full name, position, department, institution, mailing address, and specialization(s). Example follows:

JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306. Specializations: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

Review Article

It should describe, discuss, and evaluate several publications that fall into a topical category in foreign language education. The relative significance of the publications in the context of teaching realms should be pointed out. A review article should be 15 to 20 double-spaced pages.

Review

Submit reviews of textbooks, scholarly works on foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, video tapes, and other non-print materials. Point out both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered. In the three to five double-spaced pages of the manuscript, give a clear but brief statement of the work's content and a critical assessment of its contribution to the profession. Keep quotations short. Do not send reviews that are merely descriptive.

Manuscripts are accepted for consideration with the understanding that they are original material and are not being considered for publication elsewhere.

Specifications for Manuscripts

All editorial correspondence, including manuscripts for publication should be sent to:

Applied Language Learning
ATFL-AP-AJ
ATTN: Editor (Dr. L. Woytak)
Defense Language Institute
Foreign Language Center
Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006

Manuscripts should be typed on one side only on 8-1/2 x 11 inch paper, double-spaced, with ample margins. Subheads should be used at reasonable intervals. Typescripts should typically run from 10 to 30 pages.

All material submitted for publication should conform to the style of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th Ed., 1994) available from the American Psychological Association, P. O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784.

Review Process

Manuscripts will be acknowledged by the editor upon receipt and subsequently sent to at least two reviewers whose area of expertise includes the subject of the manuscript. *Applied Language Learning* uses the blind review system. The names of reviewers will be published in the journal annually.

Specifications for Floppy Disks

Preferably use Windows-based software. Format manuscripts produced on one of the DOS-based or Macintosh systems, as an ASCII file at double density, if possible. Please name the software used. MS Word or text documents preferred.

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