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Editors

Editorial Board

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Volume 18, 1997

In *this* Issue

This issue of the *ORTESOL Journal* contains articles that reflect the diverse interests of TESOL professionals. Contributors represent the range of settings where TESOL education occurs, including K-12, university, and adult education programs.

- In their article, Marjorie Terdal, Linda Dunn and Robert Gaynor explore the ways in which **16 ESL teachers trained in** communicative teaching methodologies adapt their teaching to a Japanese university setting. They conclude that the adaptations generally result in relatively teacher-centered classrooms.

Also in this issue:

- Teaching Notes: **Marianne McDougal Arden describes how telephone voicemail can be used to provide students with pronunciation practice and homework.** Using voicemail in this way can provide students with multiple opportunities for personalized feedback from the teacher that is quick and easy for the teacher to provide. The author describes several homework assignments as examples.

- Research Notes: **Carlyn Syvanen reports on her research with fourth and fifth grade ESL students serving as reading tutors to Kindergarten and first grade students. She describes how the** program helped increase students' attitudes toward reading and their beliefs that they control some aspects of their learning, both helpful in long-term school success.

- Research Notes: **Rickford Grant reports on his research with a Japanese student learning English and the influence that her L2 (German) has on her L3 (English). Pronunciation is the main focus** of his research. This study fills an important gap in research on the transfer of L2 features to subsequently learned languages.

- Review: **Carlann Scholl reviews** *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-Cultural Aspects of Second Language Writing.* **In the review she describes how the author reviews the history of the study of contrastive rhetoric, its influences from other disciplines and the** influence it has bad on second language writing pedagogy. She recommends the book as a resource for understanding the study of contrastive rhetoric as it relates to the belief that writing is both a

process and a product of a complex interaction between culture, genre and discourse communities.

- **Review: Craig Machado reviews** *Let's Talk: Speaking and Listening Activities for Intermediate Students.* In the review he describes how the book presents a variety of activities in each chapter and has a clearly organized and well written teachers' manual. Despite its strengths, Machado criticizes the book for including topics that are not thematically connected and for avoiding topics that might be in any way controversial. He concludes that the book is useful but would need supplementation if one wants to challenge students to understand and reflect on the issues of our times.

- **Review: Pat Wilcox Peterson reviews** *From Reader to Reading Teacher: Issues and Strategies for Second Language Classrooms.* She describes how the authors provide a background of reading theory, but that the strength of the book lies in its focus on the practice of teaching reading. She relates how the authors supply numerous teaching scenarios, anecdotes, learner narratives, and text materials to help teachers learn the many ways in which student learning objectives can be accomplished.

- **Review: Ronald Eckard reviews** *The Self-Directed Teacher: Managing the Learning Process.* He describes how the authors move beyond a focus on ESL methodologies to a focus on the processes of teaching that create effective contexts and conditions for learning. Eckard strongly recommends the book for both preservice and inservice teachers.

- **Review: Diana Omura Versluis reviews** *Film Communication Theory and Practice in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.* In the review Versluis describes the book's strength as its many practical teaching suggestions and illustrative examples for specific movies. She also criticizes the book for a lack of theory to tie together the different principles presented, as well as some organizational points and high cost.

- **Review: Elza Magalhaes Major reviews** *Multilingualism.* In the review she details the topics covered in the book and the use it has for people who work in language-related fields. She recommends the book as a good resource on issues in the interaction of language with nationalism, self-identity, ethnicity prescriptionism, politics, and educational policies.

The Editors

Communicative English Language Teaching in Japanese Universities: Teacher Adaptations

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The goal of this research was to determine the extent to which English teachers adjust their teaching style to better meet the needs and expectations of their Japanese students and how these adaptations influence the communicative orientation of their classes. Sixteen university English teachers in Japan, trained in communicative language teaching methods, were interviewed and observed teaching. Classroom activities were coded using the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme designed by Allen, Frohlich, and Spada (1984). Results indicate that all of the sixteen teachers demonstrated adaptations to the Japanese environment. Classes tended to be teacher-centered, with teachers talking at length while students responded minimally, if at all. Most classes provided time for pair and group work, but students often used L1 and got off task frequently. Limitations of the research are also discussed.

Marjorie Terdal teaches applied linguistics and TESOL methods at Portland State University. She has done teacher training in China, Germany, Costa Rica, and Hungary. She is interested in classroom-oriented research using both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Linda Dunn has taught English in Japan for six years and currently teaches at Rikkyo University in Tokyo. Her research interests include cross-cultural pragmatics and intercultural communication in EFL classrooms.

Robert Gaynor teaches English as a foreign language at Tokai University in Hiratsuka, Japan. He has taught in Japan for six years, previously in Nagoya. His research interests include intercultural communication and computer-assisted language learning, especially Internet applications.

Introduction

Each April thousands of Western-trained teachers of English greet their new classes in Japan and begin the academic year. Since the current trend in foreign language education in Japan is toward Western communicative methods (Ike, 1995, pp. 8-9; Koike & Tanaka, 1995, pp. 18-19), many of these teachers are hired because they have been trained at Western universities and they will try to use their training to create classroom situations in which the focus is on communication. However, the majority of them will find that cultural and educational barriers make communicative language teaching difficult in Japan. How teachers respond to these barriers is a compelling question for prospective EFL teachers and teacher-educators. This study began with the question, "What classroom adaptations do Western-trained EFL teachers make in response to the teaching environment in Japan?"

For this study, 16 university English teachers, trained in communicative language teaching methods, were interviewed and observed teaching. The activities in the classrooms were coded using the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme designed by Allen, Frohlich, and Spada (1984). The intent was to determine the extent to which teachers adjust their teaching style to better meet the needs and expectations of their Japanese students and how these adaptations influence the communicative orientation of their classes.

Review of Literature

Since the early 1980s communicative language teaching (CLT) has been the predominant approach in North America and Western Europe, even though there are different interpretations of how CLT is implemented in classrooms (Spada & Frohlich, 1995). ESL/EFL teachers are usually well grounded in the theory of CLT and its methodology. In a popular textbook for ESL/EFL teacher trainees, Brown (1994) asserts that

Communicative goals are best achieved by giving due attention to language use and not just usage, to fluency and not just accuracy, to authentic language and contexts, and to students'

eventual need to apply classroom learning to heretofore unrehearsed contexts in the real world. (p. 29)

in recent years, changes in Japanese society and in Japan's role in the world have led to a perceived need for CLT in Japan. While the traditional (grammar-translation) methods used in English classrooms have proven effective in enabling Japan to absorb culture and advanced technology from the West, today most Japanese feel that direct communication skills in English are needed for international communication (Koike & Tanaka, 1995, p. 23). As a result, teachers with training in CLT are now in demand and many Western-trained teachers have responded to fill this need.

Despite the Japanese interest in CLT, teachers trained in these techniques discover in Japan a culture that places value on behaviors that work against many accepted communicative techniques. In a successful communicative classroom, students are active, initiate interactions, and ask the teacher questions when they want to know more or do not understand. Japanese students, on the other hand, are generally quiet, passive and obedient. They learn by watching and listening to their teachers, not by questioning (Nozaki, 1993). Perhaps due to their Confucian heritage (Stapleton, 1995), Japanese students do not like to stand out from their peers and are reluctant to volunteer for fear of making a mistake or being seen as knowing more than their classmates (Anderson, 1993).

Japanese and Western communication styles are different in several respects and that can cause problems in a communicative classroom. For example, Western tradition places responsibility for communication on the speaker and it is the listeners' job to indicate whether they understood the message. However, in Japan and other Asian cultures, listeners are expected to work out the meaning of the message for *themselves* and they generally will not admit to not having understood. Repetition or rephrasing by the listener is considered discourteous (Bowers, 1988). Also, conversational turn-taking in Japan is very different from that in Western cultures. Sakamoto and Naotsuka (1982) express the difference by comparing Western conversation to a game of volleyball, in which the topic or ball is hit back by "whoever is nearest and quickest" (p. 82), while Japanese conversation is more like bowling, with each person taking his or her turn while the others wait

patiently. Sakamoto and Naotsuka maintain that a Western teacher who tries to get a Western-style discussion going in a Japanese class is doomed to failure because the students are "playing the wrong game" (p. 84; see also Sato, 1990). Other cultural patterns that can cause problems for Western teachers were reported by Barnlund (1975), who found that Japanese prefer formal and regulated interactions, are reserved and cautious in expressing themselves, and prefer to be evasive and silent rather than open and frank.

Japanese students are products not only of their culture, but also of the educational system that trains them. While preschools and elementary schools in Japan tend to tolerate a wide range of child behavior, with teachers maintaining a relatively low profile (Lewis, 1991), by the time students reach junior high school the pressure to master large amounts of material in preparation for high school entrance exams has begun. Once students enter high school they begin to prepare for college entrance examinations. Teaching methods and curricula are designed to help students pass these important tests and "have evolved in cram systems in one way or another" (Shimahara, 1991, p. 127). Memorization becomes perhaps the most important learning tool, not only because of its place in the Confucian tradition (Stapleton, 1995) but because the large number of kanji (Chinese characters) to be learned requires it. Students must learn to read and write 1,900 characters by the end of junior high school (White, 1987).

The Japanese education system has become renowned for the *examination hell* it imposes on college-bound students. Not only does it affect what and how students learn, but why they learn. According to Shimahara (1991), "Adolescents undergo a great deal of personal sacrifice and have little intrinsic motivation for learning because of the extrinsic pressures imposed upon them" (p. 127). Once a student has succeeded in entering a university, the extrinsic motivation that has controlled his/her behavior is gone and there is often nothing to replace it, since graduation is almost assured. This situation has been called the *escalator system,* since if both feet are placed firmly on the first step, the student will automatically progress to graduation (Nozaki, 1993). Passing courses is a formality and students, faculty, and society regard the college years as a time to relax after *examination hell.*

Faced with the cultural and educational background of their students, how do Western teachers respond? This has been a major topic of discussion in Japan Association for Language Teaching publications recently. Cogan (1995) maintains that in the inherent culture clash of the Japanese oral English class, "the onus should be on the teacher to ensure that this cultural encounter is successful . . ." (p. 37), that the teacher should be aware of the cultural expectations of the students, and that the goal of communicative competence may need to be modified accordingly (Kemp, 1995; Sano, Takahashi, & Yoneyama, 1984). Greene and Hunter (1993) found that the different expectations of teachers and students lead to an acculturation process and the resulting establishment of a "culture of oral language learning and teaching" (p. 9) requiring adaptations from teachers and learners. Dinsmore (1985), observing classes in Japan taught by American teachers found a shortage of communicative activities. He also observed a lot of teacher talk and foreigner talk with an emphasis on form over meaning and a large proportion of time spent in explaining activities.

The current study explores the difference between what communicatively trained English teachers expect to do in their classrooms and what they actually do when placed in the Japanese teaching context.

Method

Subjects and Setting

Three methods of data collection were used: interviews, classroom observation, and audiotaping of the observed classes. Sixteen teachers at three universities in Japan volunteered to participate in the study. All of the teachers had completed graduate programs in TESOL at universities in Canada or the United States. All were native speakers of English except for one, who had native-level proficiency. The time that the teachers had been at their current positions ranged from less than one year to more than six years. With the exception of two teachers, this time period was the same as the length of time they had been in Japan. Teaching experience before coming to Japan also ranged from less than one year to more than six years.

Twelve teachers reported informal culturally specific preparation before coming to Japan, such as conversations with Japanese friends, casual reading, and films. Eight teachers reported formal preparation, including reading professional journals, formal cultural study, Japanese language study, and teaching Japanese students. Twelve teachers also reported informal preparation and eight teachers formal preparation after coming to Japan.

The majority of classes observed were required Freshman speaking courses; four were required Freshman integrative courses where speaking was the major focus. Eleven of the classes met twice a week for 90 minutes (usually with two different teachers), three met five times a week for 45 minutes, and one class met once a week for 90 minutes. Class sizes ranged from approximately 20 to 50 students.

<u>Jnterviews</u>

Interview questions were open-ended and covered these general areas:

- teaching experience in Japan and elsewhere
- culturally-specific preparation for teaching in Japan before and after relocation
- awareness of Japanese cultural traits perceived to influence student behavior in speaking classes
- awareness of features of education in Japan also perceived to have an effect on student behavior
- modifications to teaching practices to accommodate cultural traits or features of education in Japan
- factors that influenced the teacher to make specific modifications
- descriptions of typical speaking classes

A copy of the questionnaire is included in the appendix.

In most cases, the interviews took place before the observations, with a few conducted shortly after. In one case, the teacher provided written responses to the interview questions. Typically, one researcher conducted an interview while making written note of responses, as well as an audio-recording. The interviewers requested that teachers elaborate upon individual questions as much as possible; interviews took from 60 to 90 minutes. Later, each interviewer summarized the key points of the interview, based on written notes and the audio

recording. **Finally, responses were analyzed and placed in an appropriate category.**

<u>Classroom Observations</u>

Observational data were collected and coded using the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme developed by Allen, Frohlich, and Spada (1984) and elaborated upon by Spada and Frohlich (1995). COLT was selected because it is grounded in the communicative approach to second language teaching. The COLT categories enable an observer to describe classes as more or less communicatively oriented. In more communicatively oriented classes, teachers spend "more time focusing on meaning and group work interaction," ask more "genuine questions," and provide more opportunities for students to use language creatively and to participate "in negotiation of topics and tasks" (Spada & Frohlich, 1995, p. 7). In less communicatively oriented classes teachers tend to focus more on form and error correction, ask questions to which they already know the answer, and restrict the variety of language forms that learners produce.

The COLT scheme is divided into two parts. Part A describes classroom events in terms of activities and episodes and is coded as the events occur. Part B analyzes the verbal exchanges between teacher and students and is coded from a transcript. For Part A, the basic unit of analysis is the activity or episode within an activity. The main features of Part A are the following:
- **time spent on each activity or episode**
- **participant organization (whole class, group, individual)**
- **content of each episode (management, language, other topics)**
- **content control (who selects the topic or task that is the focus of instruction)**
- **student modality (listening, speaking, reading, writing, or any combination of skills)**
- **materials (minimal or extended, audio or visual, authentic or written specifically for nonnative speakers)**

For this study, two observers visited each class, audiotaped the class, took extensive field notes, and did a partial coding on Part A while observing. Immediately after the observation, field notes and

coding were compared to resolve discrepancies. Data collected from Part A were then analyzed in terms of percentage of total class time spent on each of the features.

The basic unit of analysis for Part B of COLT is the student-teacher turn. The main features of Part B are the following:
- **use of target language**
- **information gap (giving predictable or unpredictable information; making genuine or pseudo requests for information)**
- **sustained speech (length of utterances)**
- **reaction to form or to message**
- **incorporation of utterances (correction, repetition, paraphrase, comment, expansion, clarification request, elaboration request)**
- **discourse initiation by students**
- **form restriction imposed on students' utterances**

For this study, all the audiotapes were transcribed and then checked for accuracy by another person. Two persons independently coded Part B, using a time sampling procedure suggested by Spada and Frohlich, coding one minute of *every* three minutes. During each one-minute coding period, the frequency of occurrence of each category of the communicative features was recorded. Data from Part B were analyzed in terms of proportion of the main feature. For example, pseudo and genuine requests were calculated as proportions of the larger category "Requesting Information."

Results

Interviews

The teachers interviewed were generally quite aware of the educational and cultural factors identified above in the review of the literature. Factors related to language education in Japan included: (a) the perceived function of the university in Japan as more social than academic, (b) the granunar-centered teaching practices in junior and senior high schools, (c) the emphasis on creating products and taking tests versus participating in a process, (d) the tendency to favor passive learning, and (e) large class sizes. The majority of teachers interviewed believe university attendance is seen not as a time for

serious academic pursuit, but rather as a time to relax and develop social connections before entering the work world. **They also mentioned** an overemphasis on tests, resulting in rote memorization with a focus on correctness over creativity and form over content. Others cited the use of Japanese as the medium for instruction in junior and senior high schools and the fact that communication skills were rarely practiced prior to entering university. Table 1 shows the number of teachers who identified each of these factors as a problem affecting students in their classes.

Table 1

Features of Education in Japan and Cultural Traits Seen by Teachers to Affect Student Behavior in Class

Language education in Japan:	No. of Teachers	Cultural traits of students:	No. of Teachers
Role of university in Japan is more social than academic	11	Social pressures: Group orientation, Fear of censure	11
Teaching practices:	10	Reticence/shynest	9
Product/tests emphasized over process	10	Unused to foreigners	S
Passive learning	9		
Lack of oral communication practice	7		
Larger class size	6		

Table I also shows the number of teachers who mentioned cultural traits that have an inhibiting effect on students in class. Teachers mentioned factors related to social pressure, such as fear of social censure and a strong group orientation, resulting in unwillingness to stand out as an individual, and a cultural tendency toward reticence or shyness. Five teachers felt that students were unused to foreigners in

general, and that this also contributed to their reluctance to speak in language classes with native speakers.

To *deal* with the problems identified above, all of the teachers stated that they have made adaptations to teaching in Japan. Tables 2 and 3 show the number of teachers who noted adaptations in the areas of materials, classroom management, techniques, and evaluation.

Table 2

**Teacher Adaptations: Materials and
Classroom Management**

Materials:	No. of Teachers	Classroom Management:	No. of Teachers
Use texts more	15	Assigned seating	10
More basic/ structured materials	9	Some use of LI by teacher	7
Materials of interest to Japanese students	7	Students allowed limited use of Li	6
More supplementary materials	6	More time spent on procedure	5
Fewer authentic materials	4	Students assigned to permanent groups	4
		Students allowed extensive use of LI	2

All but one of the teachers use a required text, and more than half indicated that they use materials more basic and structured than they would in a teaching situation outside of Japan. Teachers also reported using materials of specific interest to Japanese students, for example using personalities or events from Japanese popular culture as topics, and using more supplementary materials, most of which they created themselves or took from ESL resource books. To cope with larger classes, 10 teachers use assigned seating and four teachers establish permanent student groups. Other classroom management adaptations

include spending substantially more time on procedure and explanations, and allowing some use of Japanese in class.

Table 3

**Teacher Adaptations: Methods/Techniques/
Activities/Evaluation and Grading**

Methods Techniques Activities	No. of Teachers	Evaluation and Grading:	No. of Teachers
Activities more basic/ structured	9	Oral Testing	12
More pair work/ group work	7	Listening quizzes	8
Use incentives (e.g., points) to encourage speaking	6	Written tests	5
More info-gap activities	5	Participation most important criterion	10
		Grading is more subjective	10
		Attendance is more important	8
		Minimal or no homework	8

Teachers also reported adapting methods, techniques, and activities. Nine teachers stated that classroom activities are more basic and structured than in an ESL setting. They rarely conduct discussions or present open-ended questions. To encourage speaking, six teachers provide incentives, such as awarding points or tokens. Teachers also claimed to use information gap activities and more pair and group work in Japan than they had in their classes outside of Japan.

Other adaptations were in the area of evaluation and grading, with most teachers relying on oral testing and listening quizzes rather than

written tests. Eight teachers stressed the importance of attendance in assigning final grades and 10 said that participation was their single most important grading criterion. Teachers also said that they had quit assigning homework because so few students completed out-of-class assignments.

COLT Part A

A global score was calculated for each classroom, providing an overall picture of the communicative orientation on the day when the class was observed. Spada and Frohlich provide guidelines for calculating this global score, using features from Part A of COLT that are considered representative of the communicative approach--group work, focus on meaning, learner control of content, use of extended text, and use of target language adapted and unadapted materials. A value from 1-5 was assigned to each of these five features based on the percentage of class time spent on that feature. Figure 1 shows the global score for each of the 16 classes observed. Global scores ranged from a low of 5, which would be considered a weak indicator of communicative orientation, to a high of 22. The mean score for the 16 classes was 11.87, just below the midpoint on the global scale.
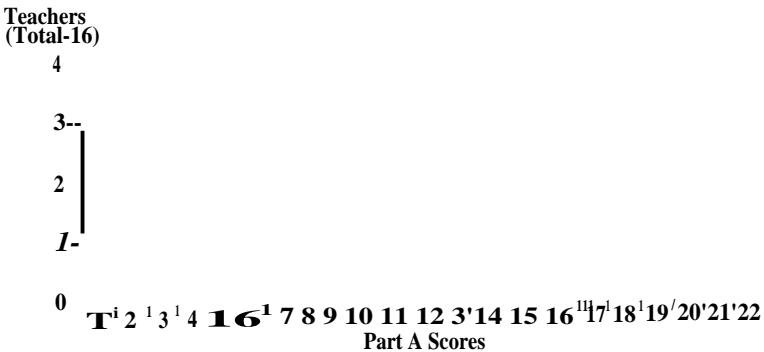

Figure 1. Global scores.

In the class with the highest communicative score, the students carried out an information gap task in groups of two. Earlier, each student had gathered information about a country, such as population,

type of government, geographic features, and economy. Then in pairs they shared this information with a partner, who asked questions in English and took notes. After 15 minutes, students found new partners and shared information about a different country. In the classes with the lowest global scores, the teachers closely followed the textbook, assigned individual seat work on formal exercises in the text, and used group work less than 15 % of the class time.

Twelve of the 16 classes received a score of 2 or less on the 5-point scale for use of group work, a key feature of communicative language teaching. Only two classes spent more than 50% of class time on group work. On the other hand, all but two of the classes received a score of either 4 or 5 for focus on meaning, which is another key feature of the communicative approach. In only four of the classes was more than one third of class time devoted exclusively to form, that is, grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation. Figure 2 shows the percentage of time devoted to group work in each classroom and the percentage of time devoted to meaning.
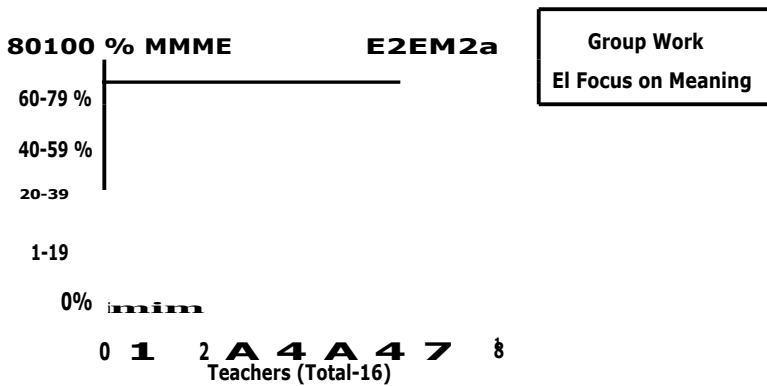
Figure 2. Group work and focus on meaning.

Choice of topic or task was generally controlled by the teacher or text. With the exception of three classes in which students were giving speeches, writing letters, or exchanging information gathered previously, classes tended to follow a textbook, completing various

exercises from the text, repeating chorally after the teacher, and reciting dialogues.

The use of extended materials ranged from 0% in one class where all exercises were at the sentence level to 73% in the highly communicative class. Most classes also scored low on use of authentic materials originally intended for native speakers. One teacher, however, used segments from a popular American movie, and another had developed her own video describing American Thanksgiving customs.

COLT Part B

Audiotapes from 15 of the 16 observed classes were transcribed and coded according to Part B of COLT. The teacher of one class requested that her tape not be used for analysis. A time sampling procedure was used, with one minute of every three minutes coded. Because of large class size, *however,* the tape recorder could not pick up voices during small-group activities, and those segments could not be coded. It was determined that the one-minute segments were representative of the teacher-student interaction of the entire class period, but that they did not capture what actually happened during group activities.

The target language was used almost exclusively by the teachers, with occasional single words being spoken in Japanese. In group activities, however, the observers noted frequent use of Japanese by students in almost every class, particularly when the task could be solved more readily in the native language than in the target language.

To some extent, there was an information gap in the teacher-student interaction in these 15 classes. The proportion of unpredictable information given by the teacher ranged from 65 % in one class to 100% in six classes, with an average of 85 %. Use of genuine questions requesting information was considerably lower, ranging from below 25% in 5 classes to 100% in one class, with an average of 48%.

In the segment below, the teacher begins by giving unpredictable information, then gives predictable information, and then asks a pseudo

question. The student responds with predictable information, since he is reading the answer from a matching exercise in the textbook.

> T: All right now I'd like to give you the answers. They have matched the first one for you.
> A: "Hand in your homework for tomorrow.* It is something that a teacher might say. Can you tell me what would a hairdresser say? What would a hairdresser say? What would a hairdresser say?
> S: (reading from text) "I think it's too long in front."

Teachers took sustained turns--that is, turns with three or more main clauses—to a much greater extent than did students. Teacher turns were sustained at an average of 58% of the time. Student turns, on the other hand, tended to be extremely short, that is less than three words. In only three classes did students produce any sustained turns. In the excerpt above, the teacher's turn is sustained, and the student's is minimal.

Student utterances also tended to be restricted by the teacher, as in the excerpt above. Choral repetition characterized a high percentage of student utterances in three of the classes, but in ten other classes there was no choral repetition at all.

Figure 3 shows the proportion of teacher responses to message as compared to responses to form. Response to message ranged from 11% in one class to 100% in three classes, with an average of 56% responses to message.

The following excerpt illustrates a teacher's focus on form after students had been carrying out a group work task.

> T: Your attention please. A few things I heard. Don't forget to put your verb. Could you tell me where Macy's . . . is. It's quiet. You may not hear an English person saying it, but for good gram= you have to have it. Could you tell me where Macy's is? OK. I heard this. Across from bus station. Something is missing. What is missing? Across from bus station. There is something missing here.
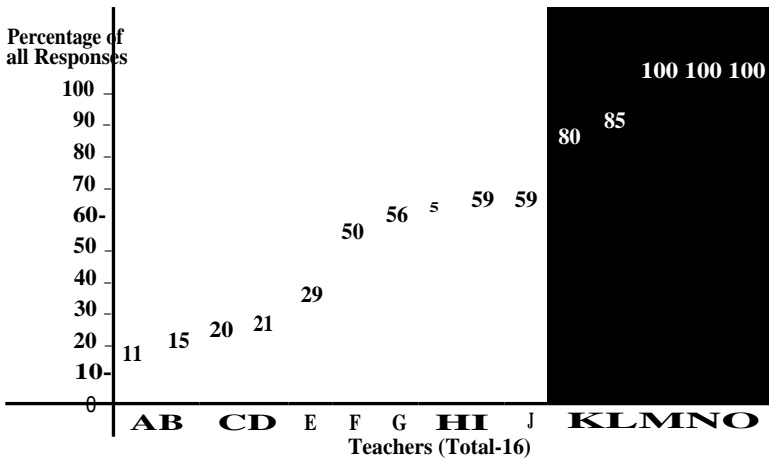
Figure 3. Teacher response to message.

The next excerpt illustrates a focus on meaning. The teacher opened this class by asking each student to first answer the question "What do you think of fall?'' and then to ask another student the same question.

    S: I like fall because I feel calm.
    T: That's an interesting answer. Why?
    S: I feel calm.
    T: Why do you feel calm in the fall?
    S: I don't . . .
    T: OK. Think about it and talk to me after class. That was a good answer.

In this excerpt, the student gives unpredictable information, but the form of the student's statement "I like fall because .. **has been** restricted by the teacher's initial direction to the entire class. The teacher responds to the message and makes a comment, "That's an interesting answer." She then asks for elaboration. When the student is unable to elaborate, the teacher repeats and expands her request for elaboration and paraphrases the comment, "That was a good answer." Comment and elaboration requests are two ways in which a teacher may incorporate student utterances. Other ways coded on Part B of COLT include correction, repetition, paraphrase, expansion, and

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clarification request. Several of these are illustrated in the following excerpt.

> T: (reading from handout) In 1620 some people came to America called the . . . ?
> S:
> T: That's right. The Pilgrims, right. [message, repetition, comment]. We always use a big P, OK. [form] (continues to read) They wanted to start a new life here but they didn't have very many . . . ? [pseudo request]
> S: Fanning skills. [predictable, restricted, message]
> T: Very good. Farming skills. [message, repetition, comment]

Discussion

The data presented above illustrate that teachers made a variety of adaptations to teaching in Japan. As a result their classrooms, on the day of the observation, were not very communicative. Almost every class was teacher-centered, with teachers talking at length while students responded minimally if at all. Although most of the classes did provide time for pair or small group activities, the students did not always use that time to practice English communicatively. In group work, students tended to use Japanese, often at the beginning of an activity to decide what they were expected to do, and whenever the teacher was not in hearing distance. Also students tended to get off-task, especially if the teacher spent more than one minute per group before moving on to the next group, or if the teacher allotted more time for the group activity than was needed to complete it.

Even in group work there was little opportunity for the negotiation of input through interaction, which is believed to contribute to second language acquisition *(see,* for example, Doughty & Pica, 1986). Instead, students were frequently asked to complete dialogues or ask each other questions from their textbooks. In such activities, the form of student responses was often highly restricted. Some teachers used choral repetition of patterns to provide speaking practice in class.

The textbooks selected by these teachers reflect their belief in a communicative approach. All of the books were organized around

topics or language functions rather than form. The books were also
selected because they are appropriate for low-proficiency students, have
many structured activities, and include supporting materials such as
audiotapes. Although these books do provide the simplified input that
may help learners comprehend, they do not usually provide samples of
authentic language.

Most of the classes emphasized meaning over form. Little class
time was spent in explicit teaching of pronunciation, grammar, or
vocabulary. At the same time, several teachers did focus on form in
their reactions to student utterances. **Current research (see, for
example, Lightbown & Spada, 1993)** supports the view that some focus
on form and corrective feedback within a meaning-based lesson
enhances second language acquisition more than programs which are
exclusively form-based or meaning-based.

All of the classrooms demonstrated adaptations to the Japanese
environment. Many of these adaptations suggest that the observed
teachers have lowered their expectations for their students. In teacher-
student interaction, they accept minimal responses from students, with
few requests for clarification or elaboration. They allow students to
use Japanese in group activities and tolerate off-task behavior. One
reason why there were few student-generated materials in the classes
observed is that teachers have learned from experience that many
students will not complete homework assignments. One teacher who
had asked the students to bring an advertisement came prepared with
sample advertisements for the 90% who *forgot* to bring one.

Several teachers have devised various means to motivate their
students extrinsically. Six use a point system for participation. Others
have assigned seating and make notes on seating charts whenever a
student participates. For grading, most of these teachers reported that
attendance and participation were more important than improvement or
performance. Several teachers reported that subjective assessment was
the single most important factor in determining students' final grades.
They also give fairly high grades because in the Japanese university
system, any grade below "Cm is failing.

There was no clear relationship between length of time teaching in Japan or prior teaching experience and the global COLT score. The teachers with the lowest and highest global scores were each in their first year of overseas teaching, while those who had taught five or more years received scores all along the communicative continuum.

Limitations of the Study

The interviews provided valuable information regarding teachers' perceptions of cultural and educational factors, as well as common teaching adaptations. Because interviews were open-ended rather than specific, however, lack of a response for a particular item does not imply a negative response. For example, only four teachers volunteered the information that they use fewer authentic materials in Japan, but the actual number of teachers who do this may be greater. A more specific follow-up interview would have provided more accurate information.

Furthermore, teachers were not asked directly about the communicative orientation of their classrooms in Japan or in other environments. It was thought that asking such questions, and thus indicating the researchers' interest in CLT, might cause teachers to change their behavior during subsequent classroom observations. However, all the participants implied in their responses to other questions that they did use communicative techniques both before and after coming to Japan. Their ability to relate ways in which they had adapted communicative teaching methods to the Japanese environment also showed that they were generally using a communicative approach. For example, teachers spoke about using more pair work or group work (an important feature of CLT methodology) or rewarding students for using English for real communication in the classroom. While it is true that training in a particular method does not ensure use of that method, the teachers' responses to interview questions showed their awareness of and commitment to CLT. A follow-up interview would have provided an opportunity to ask about CLT specifically.

While the COLT provides an excellent record of activities and episodes, it is difficult to document how successfully activities are in fact executed. In one case a class received a global score of 17 on Part

A of the COLT, even though more than half of the students were off-task more than 50% of the time. In fact, Part A of the COLT scheme did not capture much student behavior occurring in small group or pair work, nor did it account for the teachers' actions during these times. Recording for Part B was also difficult in the large classes predominant in Japanese universities; consequently, the researchers were not able to code much of the verbal interaction between students. Field notes were used to supplement the coding scheme and the audio recordings.

It should be noted that this study in no way attempts to evaluate the effectiveness or communicative orientation of the individual teachers who participated. In order to assess any one teacher or course, it would be necessary to have several observations over an extended period of time, in contrast to the single observations undertaken in the current study. Additional information would also be necessary since the COLT scheme is not designed to assess nonverbal behavior, classroom atmosphere, or the effectiveness of activities or lessons. Nevertheless, because several teachers were observed at different locations in various phases of lessons, the researchers believe that some general statements can be made regarding the communicative orientation of university English classes in Japan.

Suggestions

The low global COLT scores many of the observed classrooms received were often due to the large amount of time spent on procedure. Furthermore, the classes that seemed most successful to the observers were those that had a quick pace and many different activities. In order to raise the communicative level and heighten student interest, teachers could take steps to reduce the time spent in explaining activities to students. Japanese students have very little experience with pair and group language learning activities and find them confusing at first. They do need very clear explanations of what is expected. But the ratio of explanation time to the time actually spent doing the activity is important to consider. Teachers could do more modeling of the activities rather than repeating verbal instructions several times, select activities that are less complex, and repeat the same types of activities throughout the semester. For example, once students understand how to do information gap pair work (an unfamiliar

activity for Japanese students), they can get right into the activity with minimal preparation.

The observers also noted a lot of Ll use by students. Because of their limited English proficiency, students often discussed activities in Japanese even while *doing them* in English. They also tended to slip frequently into off-task LI use in some classes. This is a difficult problem for foreign language teachers in Japan. In fact, one of the most important challenges teachers face is to convince students that English can be used for communication and not just to answer test questions. Teachers may need to implement specific strategies for reducing use of students' first language in their classrooms. For example, one teacher in the study includes use of English both inside and outside of class as a category on a student self-evaluation scheme. Other techniques used by some teachers to limit LI use include tokens and penalty points. The observers noticed that during group and pair work use of Japanese was significantly reduced by the proximity of the teacher. Moving more quickly between groups is a simple way to encourage the use of English in class.

Teachers could also introduce such authentic texts as restaurant menus, bus schedules, and movie listings as the basis for information gap activities. Ideally, students could generate more materials. However, as several teachers mentioned, students will rarely do homework and classroom time is often too limited to be used for materials preparation.

As noted in other sections of this paper, the authors recognize the many constraints placed upon English teachers in Japanese classrooms. Some of these cannot be changed by individual foreign teachers and it would be presumptuous to think otherwise. Some changes are happening slowly. For example, at one university classes meet with the same teacher five times a week and at another an attempt is being made by the administration to reduce class size and to schedule two meetings per week with the same English teacher. Meanwhile, it is important for teachers to understand which aspects of English teaching in Japan they can change and which they must accept for now. Working within the constraints of the culture and the educational system is a challenge for Western-trained teachers and teacher educators that should be met with both understanding and creativity.

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APPENDIX: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How long have you been in your current position?

2. What kinds of classes do you teach?

3. How long have you been in Japan?

4. What other teaching experience have you had?

5. Where did you receive your teacher training?

6. Before coming to Japan, how did you gather information about Japanese culture or education (e.g., books, articles, classes, other people? After coming to Japan?

7. Are you aware of any Japanese cultural traits that may affect your students' attitudes, expectations, or behavior in class?

8. Are you aware of any features of Japanese education that may also have an effect?

9. Have you in any way modified your teaching to accommodate these cultural traits or features of Japanese education?
   Specific areas:
   Choice of materials
   Classroom management
   Teaching methods, techniques, classroom activities
   Evaluation of students (participation, homework, testing)

10. What influenced you to make specific modifications (e.g., other teachers, conferences, reading, teacher development programs, trial and error, feedback from students)?

11. Could you walk me through a typical speaking class (e.g., how do you begin a class, how are the students seated, what happens next, etc.)?

TEACHING NOTES

Using Telephone Voicemail for Pronunciation Homework

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Marianne McDougal Arden, currently an ESL instructor at Santa Rosa Junior College in California, taught for 13 years in the ELI at Oregon State University. She is the coauthor of several ESL textbooks and has done teacher training in Mexico, Peru, Ecuador, and the Republic of Georgia.

A common challenge for teachers of large pronunciation *classes* is incorporating enough individualized interaction with each student. Yet this is something that most pronunciation students crave: to have a native speaker listen to them and provide useful feedback about their pronunciation.

In pronunciation classes of 25 or more students at Santa Rosa junior College, I have felt the frustration of this dilemma. I tried working with small groups in the classroom to give feedback, but found that it was either very rushed or I was only able to interact with a limited number of groups per class session. I also tried having students tape-record their lessons at home and turn in the cassette tapes for homework. This provided the opportunity for individual students to participate and to receive thoughtful feedback from the instructor, but it was very cumbersome. In addition, many students did not own tape recorders and had to make special arrangements to do their homework.

The solution to this challenge of providing individualized feedback to my pronunciation students ended up being as simple as making a telephone call. I now have my pronunciation students do weekly pronunciation homework assignments via my telephone voicemail. They can "call in" their homework from the comfort and privacy of their own home, and I can listen and respond to it at my convenience, building in enough time to provide useful, clear feedback. These telephone assignments have become a key component of my pronunciation course, and students consistently evaluate them as one of the most useful activities of their pronunciation curriculum. The only requirements are for the instructor to have a telephone voicemail number, and for the students to have *access* to a touch-tone telephone.

To get started, I give the students two handouts that explain the steps involved. One handout provides instructions on how to use the voicemail system at my college. It details the prompts they will hear at the beginning of their call, and what some of the commands at the end of the conversation mean in case they want to erase their messages or review them. (This latter function is particularly important as students learn to self-critique throughout the semester.) In addition, I point out that the voicemail system allows them to call at any time of the day or night. This greatly enhances their chances to participate,

given work schedules, child care responsibilities, etc. The second handout includes information on telephone protocol. It provides models for introducing themselves on the phone (e.g., "Hello. This is _____ I'm in your ESL 311P class and I'm calling to give my telephone homework."). Students also practice ways to finish their conversation instead of just hanging up at the end of the assignment. Some students feel nervous and uncomfortable the first few weeks of doing these assignments and there are occasional hangups and long silences, but with practice they quickly get used to communicating their homework via the telephone.

The actual assignments can be as simple or as complex as the instructor wants. I usually have short, easy assignments that *take* the students no longer than a minute or two to read. For example, if the focus of pronunciation class is on the difference between /I/ and /iy/, students might be asked to read ten sentences using words such as *ship, river, sleep,* and *week. If* the focus is intonation of yes/no questions and wh-questions, students could be given a list of both types of questions to read aloud, such as *"What time is it? Will it rain tomorrow? What's your name? Can you speak Spanish?"* Near the end of the semester, students are assigned longer passages where they focus on a variety of pronunciation aspects, such as word and sentence stress, intonation, rhythm, etc. The students always know what the focus of each assignment is, and that I'll be listening for and marking those aspects.

When I create an assignment, I make two sets of the homework handouts: one to pass out to the students in class and one for myself to use for evaluation and marking as I listen to the students' homework on the telephone. Or instead of creating a homework assignment, I sometimes select an exercise from their pronunciation book and ask the students to read that aloud for their homework. In that case, I just need to make one set of copies for myself to use for response marking.

A deadline is established for completion of the assignment, usually Sunday by 5:00 p.m. I give a small prize each week to the first caller. This has been surprisingly effective in motivating many students to do their homework as soon as they get home. In fact, a few students have raced to the nearest telephone booth right after class to make their

calls. As the calls come in, I just put them in the voicemail memory and listen to them all at once at a later time. Because the assignments are short, it doesn't take me long to respond. I use the speaker phone so that my hands are free to mark the papers. I mark errors using an agreed upon set of symbols, for example, black circles to show stress, arrows to show intonation, etc. I do an overall evaluation with a simple grading system of V+ , V, and 14. Marked papers are returned the next class and we review all the responses. Students always have the option of redoing an assignment for a higher grade. Occasionally I save a particular student's response in my voicemail long-term memory so that the student and I can listen to it together in my office.

The benefits of using telephone voicemail for pronunciation homework are many:
- It meets the challenge of providing individualized feedback to each student on a frequent basis.
- It's easy for the instructor to either create assignments or just select activities from the pronunciation text to use as homework.
- It's quick and easy for the instructor to respond to and mark the student homework assignments.
- It allows the instructor to know which students need more work on what.
- It is also easy for the students to participate. They can call from the privacy of their own home at a time convenient for them.
- It provides students with numerous opportunities to become comfortable and competent responding to an answering machine.
- Because the telephone approach is so easy for the instructor (in comparison to using cassette tapes), he or she is inclined to give more homework assignments, thus increasing the students' opportunities for feedback.
- Students feel very special with so much individual attention, and it increases rapport with the person listening and responding to their telephone calls.
- The students view it as a useful and important part of their pronunciation curriculum and feel it helps them improve.

Using telephone voicemail for homework is an easy, fun, and effective technique for individualizing instructor feedback to pronunciation students.

Resources

The following two titles include many useful activities and exercises that can be adapted to telephone voicemail pronunciation homework assignments:

Lane, L. (1993). *Focus on pronunciation: Principles and practice for effective communication, teacher's manual.* New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Beisbier, B. (1994). *Sounds great, book I: Beginning practice for speakers of English, teacher's manual.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

RESEARCH NOTES

English as a Second Language Students as Cross-Age Tutors

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The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of cross-age tutoring on fourth and fifth grade English as a second language students who were tutoring kindergarten and first grade students in reading. After tutoring for a 19-week period, the tutors made gains in their perceptions of control in the cognitive domain and improved their attitudes toward reading. There was no change in their perceptions of control in the social domain, no significant increase in their interest in school, and their reading achievement improved at the same rate as other ESL students.

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At a time when higher levels of literacy are required for people to be successfully employed in our society, there are groups of minority children who are at high risk for school failure. Children who come to school speaking a home language other than English are among these groups. Children who speak Spanish as a home language are among those at greatest risk (Henry, 1992; Sue & Padilla, 1986). Within groups that are at risk for school failure there are wide ranges of success and failure. Two factors that have been correlated with school success are positive attitudes toward school and achievement motivation (Schultz, 1993; Soto, 1989; Wittig, Harnisch, Hill, & Maehr, 1983). Achievement motivation is the amount of effort a student will make in school in order to do well.

Cross-age tutoring was chosen as a topic of study because it has been found to be effective in improving academic skills, improving attitudes toward school and toward the subject tutored, and in contributing to increased scores on self-concept measures (Cohen, Kulik, & Kulik, 1982; Giesecke, Cartledge, & Gardner, 1993; Sprinthall & Scott, 1989; Supik, 1991). Further, students involved in tutoring are engaged in activities that allow them to demonstrate their *competence* and feel like useful members of the community--important factors affecting achievement motivation (Brophy, 1987; Connell, 1985; Harter, 1981).

Method

This study examined academic growth, interest in subject tutored and interest in school. The Multidimensional Measure of Children's Perceptions of Control (MMCPC) was used to measure perceptions of locus of control. A locus of control measure was chosen because those individuals who feel they have control over their successes and failures try harder to succeed (Brophy, 1987). Teachers and tutors were surveyed regarding tutors' interest in school and in reading. The school district achievement test was used to measure reading achievement.

It was not possible to have a true random selection of the subjects. At the beginning of the school year all students, including ESL students, were assigned to homeroom classes for the purpose of

creating heterogeneous groupings. The subjects of the study were in groups that met at a time convenient for the younger children to be tutored.

Sixteen fourth and fifth grade intermediate ESL students tutored kindergarten and first grade students in reading. The tutors and tutees met twice a week, 30 minutes each meeting over a 19 week period. Ten of the tutors were part of one homeroom class where the whole class tutored. The other 6 students were in an ESL pull-out class.

Each tutoring session was preceded by a 20-30 minute preparation session. Tutors planned lessons, chose books to read, and practiced reading. Often this time was spent in training. Teachers demonstrated oral reading techniques, how to choose appropriate books for the younger children and other techniques as needed. When teachers observed problems that arose they would plan *a* training session. For example they noticed that tutors needed to use more words of praise. In the next training session the class brain-stormed a list of words of praise which was displayed prominently in the classroom for the rest of the year.

Tutoring sessions were followed by 20 minutes of writing in reflective journals. Tutors wrote about what had happened that day when working with their buddies. After writing, students were asked to share what they had written and time was spent talking about lesson plans that had been successful or problems that may have arisen. Students often volunteered advice to their peers who may have been having trouble keeping the attention of their buddies or finding interesting books.

The MMCPC was administered in the fall and in the spring. The scale is based on three sources of control: unknown control, powerful others control, and self control. Each of these sources of control is found within four domains: cognitive, social, general, and physical. Only the cognitive and social domains were used in this study. There were 24 questions presented in a four point Liked-type scale. For example:

- **If I want to do well in school, it's up to me to do it: very true/sort of true/not very true/not at all true (Connell, 1985, p. 1,021).**

- **The score for each category was the mean score of the four questions pertaining to that category such as "unknown control of the cognitive domain."**

Teacher and student surveys were developed in order to determine the tutors' attitudes toward school and reading. Some items were designed on a Liked-type scale while others were open ended questions. These were administered in both the spring and fall. t tests for correlated groups were run on the differences between the fall and spring scores on the MMCPC and the Liked-type items of the teacher and student surveys. The Portland Achievement Levels Test for reading was administered in the spring, but only nine of the tutors had scores from the previous year with which to make a comparison. A single sample r test was run on the gain scores, using the mean of the gain scores of all ESL students as a population mean.

Results

When r tests were run on the fall and spring scores of the MMCPC in the cognitive domain there were no significant differences in the sources of unknown control and powerful other control. There was a significant increase in the source of self control, from a mean of 2.7 to a mean of 3.14. Within the social domain there was no significant difference in any of the three sources of control (see Table 1).

When t tests were run on the Liked-type items of the teacher and student surveys (which pertained to tutors' attitudes toward reading) there were statistically significant differences between the fall and the spring scores (see Table 2).

Students' attitudes toward school were ascertained through student and teacher surveys. All students did improve in their attitudes toward school, but in the spring teachers still expressed concern that some had not improved enough to be out of danger of failing at school.

Table 1

Multidimensional Measure of Children's Perceptions of Control

Control	Fall	Spring	*df*	*t*
Cognitive				
Unknown	1.95	2.16	15	.62 n.s.
Powerful Other	2.06	1.80	15	-1.07 n.s.
Internal	2.70	3.14	15	3.36**
Social				
Unknown	2.14	2.19	15	.24 n.s.
Powerful Other	1.62	1.91	15	1.39 n.s.
Internal	2.70	2.91	15	.81 n.s.

Note: **$p < .05$

Table 2

Attitudes Toward Reading

	Teacher Survey	Student Survey
Fall mean	3.69	14.89
Spring mean	4.74	15.78
df	15	13
t	3.78**	2.33**

Note: **$p < .05$

When a single sample *t* test was run on the gain scores of the district reading achievement *test* using the mean gain of 70 other ESL students at the school as the population mean, there was no significant difference in the gain scores of the tutors (see Table 3).

Table 3

Reading Achievement Test
Gain Scores

Population Mean	Sample Mean	*df*	*t*
12.31	10.78	8	-.45 n.s.

Discussion

Because of the small sample size the results of this study cannot be conclusive, but may be suggestive of effective practices for ESL students. The tutors who were involved in this cross-age tutoring project made significant gains in two areas that are important for success in school—perceptions of self control and attitudes toward reading. Although they did not make greater gains in reading achievement than other ESL students at their school, they did progress at the same rate. Students who believe that they have control over their successes and failures are more likely to put forth the effort to succeed in school (Sagor, 1988; Soto, 1989; Willig et al., 1983).

There are three reasons cross-age tutoring may have affected students' perceptions of control. First, within the design of the tutoring sessions students were given control over the lesson plans and the books they read. During sessions, if tutors were having trouble, teachers did not step in. Problems were brought up in the feedback period and all students had an opportunity to help solve the problems.

Second, tutors were engaged in real work—teaching others. They took pride in the progress of their tutees, and felt that they were responsible. Finally, these ESL students, who were in the process of acquiring English, had an opportunity to display their competence as readers and writers. Although they were not performing at grade level, they knew more than their younger tutees.

The improvements in the tutors' attitudes toward reading were reinforced by teacher and student comments. Teachers noted that the tutors chose to read more often in the spring than they had in the fall. In the spring interviews, students spontaneously made comments about the importance of reading. Examples of comments were *Reading is fun and it is good so we can learn'' and "It's fun. It's not hard to do. Just do it everyday." Improved reading attitude is important for success in school because those students who read more do better in school (Krashen, 1994; Weaver, 1988).

ESL teachers need to *see* their students as people with contributions to make to their school community, rather than as the ones who are only in need of special help. When students have the opportunity to demonstrate their competence through an activity, where they are engaged in real work and have control over aspects of that activity, they can begin to see themselves as having more control over their own successes.

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L2 and L3 mo

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Although there have been numerous studies on transferfivm LI to L2, there has been relatively little written on the effects that L2 might have on subsequently learned languages. What has been written on she subject up until now, however, suggests that in terms of lexis, grammar, and phonology, Ll is not alone as a source of linguistic transfer. This study examines the case of a Japanese woman whose first interlanguage is JapaneselGetman and who first studied English after developing relative fluency in German. The study focuses primarily on cases of phonological transferfrom German to English as well as other features that surfaced in the form of grammar and lexis.

Rickford Grant has taught ESL for over 16 years including 10 years in Japan. He is currently teaching at Clark College and completing work on his master's thesis at Portland State University.

Introduction

Although it is commonly accepted that a person's first language can affect the production of his or her second language in terms of grammar, lexis, pronunciation, and prosodic features, there are also other factors which can come into play. Often ignored is the role that a second or other language can have on the acquisition and production of other subsequently learned languages.

When such a role has been discussed in the literature, the focus has primarily *been* on cases involving multiple European languages. Although there are a few studies which deal with cases of African, Arabic, and Indian speakers with second and third languages that are of European origin, there seems to be little or no such material dealing with similar cases involving speakers whose native language is Japanese. This paper attempts to begin to address this void through the case study of the production of English by a native speaker of Japanese whose first interlanguage is Japanese/German.

Background

My own interest in this particular subject area began more than 10 years ago, while I was teaching in Japan. Once while conducting a placement interview, I was rather surprised by the decidedly German accent I heard coming from the Japanese student before me. Upon inquiry, I learned that she had lived in Germany for five years and had gone to German public schools during that time. That a person's nonnative language could influence the production of a third language, and be so noticeable, struck me as fascinating.

It was to be another three years, however, when hearing a colleague's description of her friend's German accent when speaking English, that I realized that what I had witnessed before might not have been an isolated phenomenon. The data for this phase of the study was taken from an interview of this second subject.

Review of the Literature

Although the role of interference in second language acquisition is well addressed in the literature, it is predominately concerned with the effect which LI has on the production of L2. Early research in this area was based on assumptions implicit in the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, which held that interference would occur where languages were most different and not occur in areas of similarity (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

This hypothesis was later refined to take into account structural and functional correspondence between Ll and L2. This "hierarchy of difficulty" rated these correspondences in order of difficulty with splits, cases *where* a single form in the Ll is realized in two or more forms in the L2, rated as most difficult, and those where there is a corresponding form in both languages as easiest.

Contrastive Analysis was to later come under criticism for its failings. Most significant of these was its failure to account for numerous errors which were produced while over-predicting others that did not occur. A "weak" a *Posteriori* version of Contrastive Analysis was then proposed by which to examine rather than predict L2 errors and explain the reasons for their production through structural and phonological comparisons with the LI.

From this background, further research in phonological similarity has developed. According to Wode (cited in Major, 1994), L2 sounds which are similar to LI sounds are likely to show LI influence, while in cases where sounds which are dissimilar substitutions which are not from the L2 will *be* used. Bohn and Flege (1992) support this contention, albeit with the caveat that dissimilar sounds will be problematic for less experienced learners. They found, for example, that in German students of English production of he, a sound absent in German, often approached target level with increased 12 experience.

Yet other research, rather than focusing only on the role of interference Li, has examined internal and universal factors affecting L2 phonological development. Phonological environment is one such factor whereby a sound is influenced by those sounds which form its

ịmmediate environment. Thus, a certain variant may only occur, or occur more often before or after certain other sounds variations. Edge (cited in Carlisle, 1994), for example, found that her Cantonese and Japanese students only devoiced word-final obstruents, or consonants, after a voiceless obstruent or pause.

Yet, as for research specifically dealing with L2's effect on the production of L3, however, there is a much more limited body of literature. What does exist comes mainly from European sources, which, given the close proximity of so many countries with different languages in such a limited geographic space, seems quite understandable.

The bulk of this literature falls into two groups, the first of which is that dealing with situations in which all three (or more) languages in question are European. The second group, in which this particular study falls, is that which deals with situations in which L2 and L3 are European languages while Ll is not.

In regard to the first group, as Ringbom (1987) points out, L2 interference is most often realized in the area of lexical transfer. Ringbom gives examples from native Finnish speakers who are also fluent in Swedish. To these speakers, the perceived proximity of English and Swedish, both Germanic languages, is much closer than that of Finnish, a Finno-Ugric language, and as such, is responsible for more of the instances of lexical transfer. This seems to support !OWN (cited in Ringbom) contention, of what could be called a "proximity principle," that "where one of [the] second languages is formally more closely related to the target language, borrowing is preferred from that language rather than from the mother tongue" (p. 113).

Ringbom (1987) provides examples of what he refers to as "complete shifts," as in, "She has had difficulty in finding good stories, *men* I believe that . . .," (from Swedish *men =* but). Such lexical shifts can also contain bound morphemes as in, "the industrial revolution has done horses *unpralaisk,"* (Swedish *praktisk =* practical, with English *un-),* or less commonly, "We have the same *clothers,** (clothes with Swedish ending, *-er).* Another example is what Ringbom

calls "false friends," words which have surface similarity but different semantic functions, as in, "the child is *locked to* bed by telling him some stories" (from Swedish *locka = tempt).*

While Ringbom (1987) states that grammatical interference is infrequent and phonological interference negligible, the opposite is indicated in Martinez-Dauden and Llisterri's (1990) study of lateral consonant production in Spanish/Basque bilingual? production of French. Selinker's (in press) diary study of an English/French/Hebrew multilingual's production of German also shows numerous cases of grammatical and phonological interference. Selinker also provides an example of such lexical borrowing from the German output of a native speaker of English whose second language is Italian. When writing his dissertation (in German), he regularly substituted the word *Karte* for the appropriate *Papier.* Although both words exist in German, only *Papier* refers to paper, while *Kane* refers to maps and cards. Selinker thus attributes the source of interference to the Italian, *carla* (paper).

In that English and German, as fellow Germanic languages, which are more closely related than the Romance Italian to German, Selinker's (in press) example seems to stand at odds with Ringbom's (1987) and Khalid's (cited in Ringbom) findings that the proximity of languages dictates the source of interference. A better explanation in this case might be found in what Selinker refers to as a "talk foreign" mode, which is a cognitive mode in multiple language acquisition in which all languages other than LI are cast together. Thus, Italian and German, although from different families, are both cast together in the role of foreign languages. Meisel (1983) suggests the existence of such a mode in arguing that L2 to L3 interference could be due to the possibility that the brain stores foreign language information in a different way than it does Li information.

The second group addressed in the literature, as mentioned previously, is that which addresses instances of interference where the L2 and 1.3 are European Languages, but the Ll is a non-European language. Nebabar (cited in Sikogukira, 1993) noted that native speakers of Indonesian exhibited lexical and grammatical transfer from Dutch in their production of English. Tenjoh-Okwen (cited in Sikogukira) in his study of the English of Cameroonian speakers of

French found that 44 % of all "deviant" forms could be attributed to French rather than the native language. In terms of phonology as well, Sing and Carroll (cited in Ringbom, 1987) found that the production of French by native speakers of various Indian dialects was more strongly influenced by English than their native Lis.

A study by Ahukanna, Lund, and Gentile (1981), of the production of French by Nigerian native speakers of Igbo with English as a second language, shows a strong influence from English on lexis and grammar. In addition, this study addresses several other concerns as well. These include the relative proficiency of the speaker in the L3, intralinguistic sources of interference in the L3, the increasing likelihood of interference as the number of languages learned increases, the fact that certain components of language are more susceptible to influence than others, and that greater similarity between languages increases the likelihood of interference.

What emerges then as a recurring theme in a majority of the literature is what has been termed here as a "proximity principle." Ringbom (1987), Khaldi (cited in Ringbom), Ahukanna et al. (1981), Sing and Carroll (cited in Ringbom), and Tenjoh-Okwen (cited in Sikogukira, 1993) all state or imply that the proximity of languages (i.e., relatedness) is a determining factor as to the source of interference. Even Selinker, in his listing of phonetic similarity, similar functional class, native language analogy, and lexical similarity to a term in the target language as principles at work in L2 to L3 transfer, also implies proximity influence.

Methodology

Phonemic comparisons with a listener's mother tongue, according to Scovel (1995), are one of the ways in which listeners are able to recognize foreign accents. In that this study was undertaken in reaction to an accent perceived to have its source in L2, phonological features were chosen as the primary focus for this initial study. Lexical and grammatical transfer, because of their dominance in the literature, are also briefly examined within the limitations of the elicited data.

The Subject

The subject of this study is a 25-year-old native Japanese female who had lived in Dfisseldorf, Germany, between the ages of 10 and 14. During that time, she studied first at a German elementary school and then later at a *Gymnasium.* She received no formal English instruction prior to that time, but while in Germany followed the same English instructional curriculum as that of German students. She had English teachers from both Germany and England, and in addition received two hours a week of English instruction at the local Japanese school at weekends from Japanese and British English teachers. Upon returning to Japan she followed the standard English language instructional curriculum at Japanese senior high schools. While at university in Tokyo she majored in German while continuing her studies in English, and after receiving her BA, worked part-time for a year as a simultaneous interpreter (German/Japanese).

The data were elicited during a 20-minute interview, which was conducted at the subject's home in Tokyo and which centered around the topic of the subject's life in Germany. The interlocutor was a childhood friend of the subject, as well as a Japanese native, and due to the familiarity of the two interlocutors, the interview was somewhat informal.

A *Priori* Analysis

Despite the stated weakness of such an approach, a contrastive a *priori* analysis of the sound systems of the three languages in question, namely English, German, and Japanese was undertaken in order to provide some basis as to what features to look for during this initial phase of analyzing the data. This analysis focused on two parts: vowels and consonants.

The vowel inventories were first graphically represented (Figure 1) by language and then the German and Japanese inventories were individually compared with that of English so as to determine which sounds present in English were absent or substantially different in Japanese and German. Thus, cases where either language had sounds similar enough to English to be essentially indiscernible to the average

listener, and thus be unlikely sources of transfer, were omitted from consideration. Such was the case for the Japanese /a/, 1 m /, and 10/, as well as the German /a/, /0/, and le/.
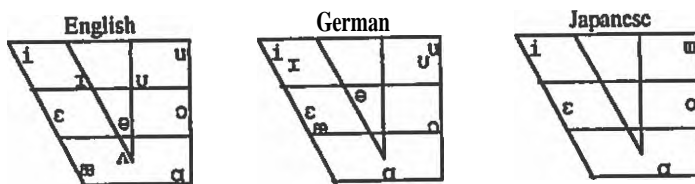
Figure 1. Cardinal vowel inventories for English (RP), German, and Japanese. Based upon Crystal (1997) and MacCarthy (1975).

Those sounds found to be missing from the vowel inventory of Japanese were the /x / as in *sit*, the /u/ of *pus*, he/ of *cat*, and the /e/ of *banang*, and, from the inventories of both German and Japanese, the / A / as in *but*.   Transfer in such cases would be realized in the substitution of sounds articulated in the closest position of the German or Japanese inventories. Thus, transfer from Japanese would be anticipated in the substitutions of the /I / in *meet* for /x/, the in / of *sue* for lul, and the /a/ in *hot* for /z/, *lel*, and /A/ (Dale & Poms, 1994). For German, also lacking the phoneme /A/, substitution with la/ would also be anticipated (Wade, 1986).

As with Japanese, /I /, lul, and he/ were also anticipated points of interference from German, albeit for a different reason. Although these phonemes exist in both German and English, they are produced in such close physical proximity to /i /, /u/, and ICI (as in *bed)* in German as to be largely indistinguishable to a native English speaker and are, in fact, problematic distinctions for English speaking students of German (MacCarthy, 1975). Thus the anticipated perceived substitutions would be /i/ for /I /, /u/ for lul, and /e / for he/.

These substitutions, which were anticipated for either German or Japanese or both were then indicated in Table 1. Anticipated

substitutions were indicated in the gray cells, while a " ± " was used to show the existence of a relatively similar unit or indistinguishable approximation.

Table I

Anticipated Phonological Interference and Substitutions: Vowels

English	i	x	c	ra	a	A	8	a	u	u
German	t	i	±	c	±	a	±	±	±	u
Japanese	t	i	±	a	±	a	a	±	±	a

The process of dealing with consonants was similar to that of vowels. First an inventory of consonant phonemes in English, German and Japanese was created and charted (Table 2) with " + " indicating the presence of a particular English phoneme in one of the other two languages, "-" indicating the absence of such a phoneme, and " ± " indicating a relatively similar unit.

It should be noted here that in the case of Japanese syllable-final consonants, a bit of liberty was taken in assigning a " + " to those phonemes so marked. This stems from the fact that other than / n I, Japanese has no true consonant finals; all other syllables end with a vowel. Japanese does, however, have numerous words of foreign origin *(gairaigo),* which feature medial palatalization resulting in a noticeable decrease in the auditory strength of the vowel final. Thus, Japanese speakers of English, beyond the most basic levels, are quite adept at producing most consonant finals. Exceptions are indicated in Table 2.

For the purpose of this study, a condensed table (Table 3) was created to include only those English phonemes absent in one or both of the other languages. Likely substitutions from Japanese (Dale & Poms, 1994) and German (MacCarthy, 1975) were then listed for each in the gray cells.

Table 2

**Consonant Phoneme Inventory English (RP)
and Distribution in German
and Japanese**

	p	k	t	d	3	g	tʃ	dʒ	m	n	ŋ	f	v	θ	s	r	ʃ	j	h				
English Initial	+	+																					
English Medial		+	+	+					+														
English Final	+	+		+																			
German Initial	+	+	+																				
German Medial	+		+	+	+	+		+															
German Final			+																				
Japanese Initial		+					+	+															
Japanese Medial			+		+			+		+		+		+									
Japanese Final	+	+		+			+							+		+							

It should be noted that in the cue of Iwl, the Japanese substitution is listed as either Iwl or /w /, the Japanese variant of /u/. This is due to the fact that although Japanese lacks the phoneme 1w!, its sound is frequently approximated in the production of many of the foreign loan words present in Japanese by use of /w/ plus another, reduced, vowel. For example, the word "weather" would be produced in Japanese as /w3za :1. This approximation is often produced closely enough as to be indiscernible to the listener.

Table 3

Anticipated Phonological Interference and Substitutions: Consonants

English Phoneme	b	ɹ	nᵒv	ʌ	Kiln	
Initial Subisthuiton		ɹ		enrirmrsorm		
German Medial Substitution	b	ɹ	!	v	t/n	d/z	v
German Final Substitution	!	n		f		
Japanese Initial Substitution	b	ɹ	ɾ	h	lin.	///	wits
Japantse Medial Substitution	b	ɹ	n	b	MiliElliKrig		wic
Japanese Final Substitution			NM	b	mom	z	NM	wlut

Upon examination of the results of Tables 1 and 3, it was determined that the targeted phonemes for this study would be the vowels he/, /A/, /9 /, Jul, and the consonants /b/, /d/, /g/, /v/ (final), 1w! (initial and medial), the 1e1 of *think*, /a/ of *that* (*initial, medial, final*), and the medial 131 of *measure*.

Handling of the Data

Approximately 15 minutes of the original recording was transcribed and then marked for locational presence of the targeted phonemes indicated in the previous section. The tape was then listened to again in order to determine the actual phonemes produced for each of the marked items on the transcription. Finally, the tape and transcripts were examined yet again for other non-phonological features.

A Posteriori **Analysis**

The most noticeable point in analyzing the data was the fact that substitutions of the targeted phonemes were limited to only /Eel, 111, and word final /d/. The subject had no apparent difficulty with any of the other phonemes, even with /9/ and /8/, neither of which is present in the consonant inventories of either LI or L2.

There was substitution of 11 / with the subject, as predicted, producing /V in its place. Instances of correct production, however, outnumbered those showing the substitution by 64% to 36% (Table 4). There is a pattern to the instances of substitution and no-substitution; this is tied to the speed at which the subject is speaking. The substitution of 111 for / I1, in all cases, occurs when the subject becomes somewhat excited and begins to speak quickly. It, thus, seems that production of /I/ remains problematic for the subject in that it is only produced in more monitored situations. This phenomenon is inconclusive in determining L2 influence in that it could be attributed to interference from either Ll or L2.

The subject's production of he/ was more important in regard to this study in that the number of cases in which the subject produced the anticipated substitution, /e/, outnumbered those of correct production by a ratio inverse to that of /id for /i/ substitutions, with /c / making up 64% of all such utterances (Table 4). Although there was no discernible pattern as to the cases of substitution, this particular substitution itself is significant to this study in that it suggests interference from the L2 rather than the Ll where a shift to iai would be expected.

The subject's production of /d/ in final position also followed the pattern predicted for German speakers with the subject substituting /t / in almost one third of the cases (Table 4). What was unanticipated, however, was that the subject also employed yet another strategy in her dropping the final consonant. This particular strategy also occurred in almost a third of all cases.

Table 4

Phonological Substitutions (By Percentage of Occurrence)

	Substitution	No Substitution	Drop
/r/-3/i/	35%	65%	
1831—Vc/	65%	35%	
(final) /d/_>/t/	36%	30%	34%
/er/—)./c r/	70%	30%	

Closer analysis of the cases of omission revealed that all cases involved utterances of the word "and,* the reduction of which through omission of the final consonant also occurs frequently in English. This could explain the phenomenon unless a similar situation can also be found in the Germans' production of *"und."*

There was one case of phonemic substitution which was not included in the a *priori* analysis and yet occurred so often during the interview as to have been conspicuous and thus merit mention here. This was the shift from / er I to / Er 1. While Japanese speakers, lacking the /en/ (as in *mother)* in their phonemic repertoire, would be anticipated to produce the elongated /a:/ as a substitute (Dale & Porn, 1994), the 1 er / to / er / shift, according to Wode (1986), is the anticipated shift a German speaker of English would be expected to make. True to this assertion, the subject produced this shift in 68% of all cases (Table 4).

Lexical Transfer

As for lexical transfer from L2, although there were several instances of German lexical units being produced by the subject, these were all cases of items specific to German culture where no equivalent English word exists or cases where the subject simply did not know how to say a particular word in English (in such cases, she would ask,

whispering in Japanese, how to say the word in English). Thus it did not seem appropriate to consider these as examples of transfer.

The only exception might be considered grammatical as well as lexical and will, thus, referred to as a case of lexi-grammatical transfer from L2. The subject used the word "as" seven times when answering "when" questions, as in:

"How old were you when you went there?"
"I went there as I was ten years old."

This situation is very similar to the example given from Selinker earlier in this paper. In this case, L2 and L3 have words that are similar in form with meanings that are sometimes similar and sometimes not. The German *male* and English "as" are such a pair. *"Ais" can* mean "as" when coupled with *mob,"* in which case it is equivalent to the English "as if." However, when introducing subordinate clauses, it has the meaning of "when" (Jespersen & Peters, 1980).

Conclusion

It is difficult to arrive at any firm conclusions on the basis of the results of this study alone, for although examples of both phonological and lexical transfer were found, they were limited in number and variety. Nonetheless, the occurrence of these examples at variance with the expectations for a Japanese speaker are worthy of consideration and further study. While it could be argued that the phonological differences could be due to the effects of modeling while the subject was in Germany rather than to transfer, the fact that the subject studied under British as well as German teachers and studied English again upon returning to Japan seems to suggest differently. Comparison with data from other similar subjects should provide more conclusive results.

The results of this case study also seem to lend credence to the "proximity principle" discussed in the review of the literature which suggests that the more similar a language is to a subsequently learned one, the more likely it is to act as a source of interference. Thus

German, being much more closely related to English than Japanese, is the apparent source in this study.

Interestingly, despite much of the literature's focus on cases of transfer between multiple European languages, it is cases such as this one, in which the LI is clearly not related to either the L2 or L3, that proximity's role seems to be best supported. This cannot be considered conclusive, however, without comparison, for example, to cases in which Ll and L3 are related while L2 is clearly not. Such cases could also suggest temporal rather than linguistic proximity or *even* the existence of what Selinker (in press) terms a "talk foreign" mode.

Limitations of *the Data*

In addition to the limitations for the study stated above, there were also problems in regard to the actual data collection. Primary among these was that the interviewer was inexperienced in terms of data collection and, thus, set up the interview as an "English only" exercise. There was, therefore, a conscientious effort to avoid the use of any Japanese (both subject and interviewer whispered when using Japanese) and an almost guilty behavior exhibited when the subject produced German words during the interview. This could have had the effect of increasing self-monitoring by the subject thus resulting in fewer instances of interference from the L2 or even LI. Ironically, the interviewer's focusing almost exclusively on topics related to the German language or Germany could have had the effect of increasing German interference.

Another major problem was that the interviewer simply spoke too much. At the beginning of the interview she gave the subject sufficient time to speak and consequently elicited quite lengthy responses. Gradually, however, despite the fact that the subject had been answering both readily and at length, the interviewer began to over-facilitate by constantly interrupting. By the second half of the interview, the interviewer was speaking more than seventy percent of the time.

It could also be argued that the subject herself was problematic in that she had too much of a learned command of English to be a truly ideal subject for a study of this type. Ahukanna et al. (1981) suggest

as much in stating that "Interference may be strongest at the beginning of second language acquisition, and be less important as proficiency increases" (p. 65). A study by Bohn and Flege (1992), focusing specifically on phonological features, suggests that increased L2 experience can possibly enable a speaker to produce sounds which have no counterparts in the Ll.

This rather extensive exposure to L3 and the resultant language proficiency and knowledge, made the subject more aware of the features of English grammar and pronunciation and, thus, well equipped to monitor and correct her own production. As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) state, "greater accuracy will be observed in more 'careful,' more formal, speech styles, when learners are "attending to" language" (p. 84). The fact, as already mentioned, that the subject produced more irregular forms when excited suggests the point. It would have been preferable, therefore, to have also elicited data through reading aloud and imitation devices so as to better check the effects of self-monitoring as well as the *degree* to which it was employed.

Implications for the Field

In that the concept of transfer from Ll is widely accepted in the world of second language acquisition research, it seems only logical, based on this study and others like it, that a second language can have an effect on the production of a third. Although in the traditional American context, this may well seem a less common phenomenon than in Europe, for those involved with language, either in terms of teaching or linguistic research, it is a situation that seems likely to become more prevalent as nations and cultures grow closer together through technology, travel, business and education.

In countries, such as the United States and Canada, with large newly arrived immigrant populations and significant numbers of foreign university and college students, the implications are especially great for teachers. Teachers must become more aware of the possibilities of L2 to L3 transfer when trying to cope with the problems and needs of the ever increasing number of students with multilingual backgrounds. The strategies teachers take in order to socialize students and address their

individual cultural perspectives and sensibilities must address the self-identification that the students themselves have with any given language. As was pointed out earlier, a student may actually identify more closely with his or her I.2 rather than Ll. Thus teachers might better understand certain students culturally if they are aware of the students' linguistic orientations.

In terms of classroom teaching, while a contrastive analysis approach to syllabus design has fallen into the realm of the pass6, there are remnants of the approach with us still today. This is especially true in terms of teaching or dealing with problems in pronunciation. Many pronunciation textbooks are designed for a particular language background group or include notes on language background groups which might have problems with the production of a particular English phoneme.

For researchers investigating sources of linguistic interference, the points touch upon in this study are of particular significance. A realisation that languages other the LI can exert considerable influence on subsequent language acquisition is sure to have some bearing on data collection and analysis.

Suggestions for Further Study

There are a variety of ways in which this topic could be further examined starting with a more in depth continuation of this study. This could consist of the natural and elicited output of a greater number of subjects with similar language backgrounds to that of the subject in this study. It should be relatively easy to find such subjects through some of the schools in Japan which specialize in dealing with "returnees," namely those students who have recently returned to Japan after having lived for several years abroad. In addition, prosodic and phonetic features could also be examined

As was noted in the review of the literature, most studies focus on L1-L2-L3 cases in which all three languages or only L2 and L3 are European languages. Another interesting study would be, therefore, a study in which either all three languages were unrelated (i.e., Swahili-French-Japanese) or in which LI and L2 are related, but L3 is not (i.e., Swedish-English-Japanese).

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BOOK REVIEWS

Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-Cultural Aspects of Second-Language Writing. **Ulla Connor, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996. Pp. 201. $47.95 hardbound/$18.95 softbound. ISBN 0-521-44145-5 hardbound; ISBN 0-521-44688-4 softbound.**

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When the American applied linguist Robert Kaplan (1966) published his essay entitled "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education," later known as his "doodles" article, he sparked what has become a 313-year inquiry into contrastive rhetoric. **Kaplan's** assumptions are that writing is a product of culture and that writing patterns learned in a first language will transfer into second language writing. Despite criticisms of his methodology, definition of rhetoric, and neo-Whorfian conclusions, or perhaps spurred on by these criticisms, scholars have continued to explore contrastive rhetoric, producing several books (Connor & Kaplan, 1987; Kaplan, 1972; Purves, 1988) and many dissertations, which remain largely unpublished (Silva, 1993). One of the most recent additions to this collection of studies in contrastive rhetoric is Ulla Connor's (1996) *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-Cultural Aspects of Second-Language Writing,* which provides an intellectual map of this 30-year endeavor. A recent addition to the Cambridge Applied Linguistics Series edited by Michael H. Long and Jack C. Richards, *Contrastive Rhetoric* traces the development of this field of study, its cross-fertilization with other fields, and the resulting "new" contrastive rhetoric. As such, it will be an essential resource for TESOL graduate students, professionals, and researchers.

Connor's book is divided into three *parts.* After an introduction to *Contrastive Rhetoric* in Chapter One she reviews the historical background of contrastive rhetoric research (Chapter Two) and then evaluates studies of contrastive rhetoric, noting that they include examinations of first-language writing and writing in various genres (Chapter Three).

Part II addresses the impact developments in other disciplines have made on the multifaceted, multi-disciplinary studies of writing across languages. For example, shifting paradigms of first-language composition, especially college-level writing in the United States, have influenced contrastive rhetoric studies, as they have influenced second-language composition ideas in general. Both process and sociocultural theories of writing have contributed to a modification of Kaplan's original idea that the structure of a paragraph can reveal the logic of a culture (Chapter Four). The study of contrastive rhetoric has also benefitted from the development of text linguistics, which has provided

new and better tools for analyzing texts, including an examination of whole texts (Chapter Five). Another significant addition to contrastive studies has come from psychological, anthropological, and applied linguistic studies of culture and literacy. Although Kaplan (1987) speaks of writing as "post-biological" activity, because it does not unfold without instruction like talking, his efforts have not focused on reasons for cultural differences in writing. More recently, however, writing has been investigated as an activity embedded in a culture (Chapter Six). Translation studies, a relatively new discipline, offers important insights for contrastive rhetoric research. Questions about the adequacy of texts for target audiences are common concerns for both translators and for those composing in a second language (Chapter Seven). The last chapter in this section examines the expansion of contrastive studies from expository student writing to genre-specific studies, so that contrastive rhetoric is no longer mainly an examination of undergraduate student writing but now encompasses studies of writing in graduate programs, in the workplace, for grant writing, and so forth (Chapter Eight).

Part III is a discussion of the "implications of contrastive rhetoric." Not surprisingly, as contrastive rhetoricians have been influenced by ideas from other disciplines, so have their research methodologies, which are summarized in Chapter Nine. In the concluding chapter, Connor (1996) examines the impact of past research on the teaching of second-language composition (Chapter Ten). Although contrastive rhetoric research has focused on texts rather than pedagogy, the impetus for the studies has been largely pragmatic. Because contrastive rhetoricians believe that writing practices vary from culture to culture (even within the same language) and that ESL writers may use written forms that surprise, confuse, or annoy their target audiences, the assumption is that contrastive rhetoric will have a bearing on classroom teaching of rhetoric and on composition classroom activities, such as peer reviews, student-teacher conferences, and collaborative group work. The book ends with suggestions for research using the "framework of `new contrastive rhetoric'" (p. 172), which now defines writing as both a process and a product of a complex interaction of culture, genre, and discourse communities.

Indeed, further developments in contrastive rhetorical studies will be worth watching. Although Connor's (1996) book does not predict

the future of the field, TESOL students and professionals will want to *see* whether second-language composition theorists develop models that embrace differences or models that dismiss differences as outside the norm. If first- and second-language composition teachers in multiethnic classrooms perceive cultural variations in students' writing as resources, they could invite dialogues about differences and, thereby, enhance the self-esteem of students from various backgrounds. Not just composition teachers, but all teachers across the curriculum could benefit from having a more cosmopolitan view of writing. On the other hand, there is always a danger that studies of differences can promote stereotyping and intolerance. Teachers and researchers have found it too easy to view nonnative writers as having language deficits that need to be remedied. Even if it is understood that Western rhetoric does not represent the only model of writing, contrastive rhetoric can be used to compel conformity to narrow definitions of discourse schemata.

However studies in contrastive rhetoric develop in the future, it would be safe to predict that the assumptions and focus of the studies will continue to shift. What we should already know, thanks to contrastive rhetoric, is that

> writing elegantly, or communicating clearly and convincingly has no reality outside a particular cultural and rhetorical context and that our discourse community is only one of many. (Leki, 1991, p. 139)

Thanks to Ulla Connor, we have a primary source for discovering how contrastive rhetoric studies have evolved in the past three decades to help us arrive at this understanding.

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Let's Talk: Speaking and Listening Activities for Intermediate Students. Leo Jones. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996. Pp. 91. $15.95. ISBN 0-521-46753-5.

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Among ESL/EFL publishers, Cambridge University Press has earned a laudable reputation for well-conceived and designed teaching materials. With its high-quality paper, sharp graphics, crisp color photography and attractive, uncluttered layout, Leo Jones' *Let's Talk, an* intermediate speaking and listening text (accompanied by cassettes and a teacher's manual), is no exception. The teacher in search of something snappy and provocative to get students engaged in lively discussion will not be disappointed with this text.

The ingenuity of *Let's Talk* comes not so much in topical format (one will find the usual range here from "Getting to Know You" to "Travel and Transportation"), but rather the content of each lesson and the many possibilities (further elaborated in the teacher's manual) for class activities and explorations. For example, Unit Three, "Getting to Know You," opens with a listening-doze dictation of a short article concerning first impressions when meeting someone new. Pair work follows with students discussing the cultural appropriateness of various types of body language, gestures, facial expressions in their own countries. Students are encouraged to change partners several more times, sharing their knowledge and opinions with others.

Then, in the listening section of "Getting to Know You," students hear interviews with college students about career plans, their favorite subjects in school etc., and answer comprehension questions. These are by no means *canned* conversations, but really do sound like spur-of-the moment interchanges with a rich overlay of conversation fillers, the words and utterances English speakers employ to maintain and move a conversation along: "Well," "Really?" "I see," "Interesting," "So," etc. Students can listen to the conversations several times, not only to master content but also to get a good sense of the conversational *glue* that marks true fluency in the language.

More pair work follows as students ask each other questions about the interviews and try to write their own conversations with fillers. A *grammar balloon* highlights some of the syntactic structures found in the conversations and students can incorporate some of these structures into their own dialog writing. The unit ends with a "Work Alone" session where students think of five or more questions they could ask

when meeting someone new, then ask those questions of someone they have not yet met in the class.

The novice instructor will find the teacher's manual a good and necessary resource of further expansion: important vocabulary, more suggestions for pair and small group work, transcripts of all recorded activities, and opportunities for writing. In the case of the unit discussed above, students can write a short description of the person they met and interviewed for the first time, or a report on taboo questions in their culture when meeting strangers.

The seasoned instructor, on the other hand, will want to use his/her own variations of these suggestions or create entirely new ones. The *seeds* of lesson expansion are available in abundance. And, unlike some teachers' manuals that seem to be written by anyone *but* teachers, the *Let's Talk* manual is very user friendly with a clearly laid out format and rationale. One is spared reading through densely packed columns of overly-detailed, dry notes to get the gist of activities suggested.

An additional feature of *Let's Talk is* an appendix of communicative activities based on the book's units, allowing students to turn to alternative pages in their texts for guided interviews, information gap fill-ins, map and chart readings, information grids used to make up mini-talks or student and teacher-generated dictations. Again, the presentation of these activities is clear and well thought out and the content rich enough to engage and stimulate. Finally, at the end of every seven lessons there is a fairly challenging crossword puzzle which tests previously introduced vocabulary.

Let's Talk is the fruit of good background research and is pedagogically predicated on a communicative/learner-focused model. A key premise throughout is that successful communication happens first in conversation pairs, builds in small groups and culminates in whole class activities. The various activities are designed to build confidence, provide lots of language practice, motivate students to grapple with new vocabulary and structure (but not overwhelm them), and generate student presentations and panels using real language contexts.

A major weakness of a text like this—indicative of much of the genre of current ESL/EFL books—is the fact that it moves from topic to topic without any common thread: today the environment; tomorrow news and entertainment; next week, food and eating out. The intent seems to be to expose students to as much variety as possible *(channel surfing* and *web browsing* come to mind), lest they grow bored with too much depth.

Furthermore, many texts published by large, (sometimes) multinational corporations are aiming for as wide (and profitable) an audience as possible. Topics on so-called *controversial* issues such as causes and mitigation of poverty and poor working conditions, racism/ethnocentrism, religion/spirituality, sexuality (understandably, perhaps, for cultures not used to discussing it), feminism, *white collar* crime, and *anything* having to do with government/political institutions are omitted or, at best, only briefly mentioned. In the end, a superficial world is presented through shopping, hobbies, entertainment, travel and sports, past times belonging to consumption-conscious, predominantly middle class people in Western cultures.

The only unit in *Let's Talk* that does address an issue of global consequence is one on the environment. In "Saving the Environment" an activity called "How Green Are You?" (where students rate themselves on a list of "green friendly" activities) implies that environmental problems can be solved by just changing personal habits. While the author should be lauded for raising students' awareness in this fashion, students might do well to consider the reality that isolated individual decisions may be grossly insufficient to deal with situations better dealt with in community reflection and action, including an active role for governments. Even the environment has become a safe, non-threatening topic to include in many texts. Here too, the teacher would have to probe deeper to help students make less obvious (but perhaps more significant), connections between economic inequalities and political authority, race, gender and environmental degradation.

Despite the limitations mentioned here, *Let's Talk* is, on balance, worth considering. The resourceful teacher will find the book a good place to start in getting students to express themselves and develop personal points of view on a variety of topics. However, if a teacher

really wants to challenge students on the great issues of our time (and not merely reinforce Western ideology and values), he or she should definitely consider additional sources.

From Reader to Reading Teacher: Issues and Strategies for Second Language Classrooms. Jo Ann Aebersold & Mary Lee Field. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997. Pp. 263. $18.00. ISBN 0-521-49785-X.

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From Reader to Reading Teacher (FRTRT) is a teacher education text to be used with preservice or inservice teachers of ESL/EFL who will be working with adult students in community or university programs. A basic assumption of the book is that reading teachers should be good readers themselves; being a good reader involves employing strategies effectively to analyze the text and the purpose for reading it. Awareness of one's own reading processes is a useful point of departure as one helps one's students to "catch the reading habit.* In modeling reading behavior for the students, the goal is to move from the role of reader to that of reading teacher.

In ESL/EFL teacher preparation programs, preservice and inservice teachers have a variety of educational backgrounds and reading abilities. Some of the teachers are already critical readers, but some are not; *even* the most effective readers may not be conscious of their own reading strategies. *FRTRT* provides a number of opportunities for teacher reflection so that teachers can become conscious of their own beliefs, feelings, and strategies for LI and L2 reading. The book gives assignments in introspection, journal writing, and discussion with other teachers. In this way, the authors help the users of their book to be grounded in their own experience as well as in reading theory.

This text also reflects the authors' concern about demonstrating theory in practice by offering a wealth of sample readings, lesson plans, course descriptions, and lists of curricular goals. Indeed, the methods class instructor will find *FRTRT* a rich resource book of examples to draw on when setting up classroom experiences and hands-on assignments.

The chapters of the book fall roughly into three sections. Chapters One and Two outline basic reading theory, explain interactive processing, and give an overview of issues that influence success in second language reading. These chapters briefly address cognitive style, proficiency level, and the influence of the first language and culture. An instructor who wants students to understand these issues deeply may choose to assign supplementary readings in professional journals or may use an anthology for that purpose.

Chapter Three is a bridge from theory to practice. It outlines important issues in course design, offering a menu of various goals for reading classes. The authors stress the difference between intensive and extensive reading programs; they introduce models for content-based instruction, assessment, and the choice of authentic versus modified materials. Teachers are asked to reflect on their own experience, to read statements from other teachers and from ESL students about course design, or to conduct interviews to gather information about reading. Other activities in Chapter Three refer to resources located in chapter appendices (e.g., two tables of content from widely used ESL reading texts, samples of authentic and modified literary text, and a classification of types of L2 reading books for different purposes). All activities require the teachers to use these materials as they apply the ideas in the chapter to their own course design.

After the general overview of activities and resources provided in Chapter Three, the next three chapters address more specific issues in instructional planning, namely what should be used whets and for what purpose. This section presents behavior-oriented objectives called SWBATs ("students will be able to . . .") and offer a variety of strategies to accomplish those objectives in the pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading phases (Chapters Four, Five, and Six, respectively.)

Typically each stage contains several scenarios; teachers are invited to discover how each classroom scenario accomplishes the target objectives in its own way. The authors bring in anecdotes about learners and narratives written by the learners themselves to give reality and meaning to the steps they suggest in the reading lesson. When necessary, text material is appended to each chapter to give teachers added opportunity to work out the steps that they are practicing in the lesson. Extensive sample readings appear at the end of the book to aid in planning the activities. In this lesson planning section, special consideration is given to the needs of beginning level students, who do not possess the language proficiency necessary to participate in oral work for some phases of the lesson (particularly in the pre-reading phase); therefore, each chapter offers appropriate techniques for use with beginners.

The remaining chapters are organized around single issues; vocabulary (Chapter Seven), literature (Chapter Eight), assessment (Chapter Nine), and lesson planning (Chapter Ten). Chapters Nine and Ten each have an appendix (Keeping a reading journal; A sample L2/FL reading curriculum). These chapters are comparatively short and do not go into the level of detail with the material that is given in the middle section.

Some obvious strengths of the book are its implicit message that there are many effective ways to accomplish lesson objectives, and that the choice of plan depends on student factors. If the teacher education program includes a practicum experience, it would be very effective to use the text in conjunction with in-class practicum work. The highly practical and versatile nature of the resources suggests real time use with real learners, so that both teaching failures and successes can serve as the basis for reflection in the teaching journal.

If the book has a weakness, it seems that it might be difficult to use the first time through, due to the necessary level of cross-referencing in Chapters Four, Five, and Six, which contain many exercises, sample texts, and appendices. On the other hand, other instructors may perceive this richness of material as an advantage, since it frees the instructors from having to find their own illustrative samples.

Users of the book may also appreciate the variety of lesson types which are included; each section of the book lends itself to a different type of class activity. Chapters One and Two are more theoretical and lend themselves to introspection, reflection, interviews, observation, and journaling. Chapter Three provides opportunities to integrate various text resources for the description of a course design. Chapters Four, Five, and Six require students to analyze lessons and match specific class activities to learning goals. With Chapters Seven through Ten, the learning task varies but generally revolves around a single issue. In sum, the text will be most effective as a resource book in the hands of a well-organized and creative instructor who is able to elicit interaction and reflection from her students. Preservice and inservice teachers may also find the book especially valuable if they use it during a practicum experience.

The Self-Directed Teacher: Managing the Learning Process. **David Nunan and Clarice Lamb. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1996. Pp. 296. $17.96. ISBN 0-521-49716-7 hardback; ISBN 0-521-49773-6 paperback.**

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   The study of ESL methods is dead! For more than 20 years now, practically every ESL teacher-training course has included a strong focus on methodology. ESL practitioners and linguists have carefully delineated the differences among various contemporary methods (Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Richards & Rogers, 1986; Stevick, 1980). Whereas some have bemoaned the lack of a university accepted method for language teaching (Prator, 1976), others have celebrated the opportunity to select an *eclectic* approach (Bower, Madsen, & Hilferty, 1985), thereby choosing liberally from the plethora of methods that are available. Now Nunan and Lamb want teachers to know that such rigorous attention to ESL teaching methods is counterproductive.

   The main concern for today's teachers, say Nunan and Lamb, is creating "a positivepedagogical environment which facilitates learning" (p. 1). Because the role of the ESL teacher has changed in the past 20 years (from grammarian using the grammar-translation method, to drill instructor using the audiolingual method, to facilitator using the communicative method), teachers today face a range of decisions that go well beyond that of selecting an appropriate methodology. With more and more focus on learner-centeredness, collaborative learning, and school-based curriculum development, teachers today must be effective managers of the teaching/learning process "in ways which differ from the challenges posted by systems in which the teacher is the servant of someone else's curriculum" (p. 4). Therefore, Nunan and Lamb examine the *processes* of teaching, especially the decision making used to create effective contexts and conditions for learning in second language classrooms.

   Their book begins with a consideration of the contextual factors which shape the environments in which teachers work, including the curriculum frameworks, texts, and resources that serve as a backdrop to teaching. In doing so, they present an array of tables, charts, and questionnaires that enable teachers and teachers-in-training to cement their ideas concerning such issues as learner-centeredness, the nature of language and language learning, and collaborating with other teachers. From there the authors go on to an examination of a rich range of issues that are central to the life and success of every language classroom, such as classroom dynamics, grouping, resources, monitoring, and evaluation. Each issue is presented through the use of

authentic classroom extracts and is followed by tasks which enable readers to explore further the points raised and apply them to their own teaching or future teaching.

This book is very well organized. Adopting the suggestions of reading specialists, Nunan and Lamb begin each chapter with a clear set of pre-reading guidelines and end each chapter with an equally clear summary of main points and a list of projects that will involve the reader in activities related to each chapter. For preservice teachers, the authors include in the appendix a transcript of an entire class which readers can use in carrying out the suggested projects involving classroom observation and reaction.

The authors are not afraid to tackle some of the problematical issues in second language teaching—issues that many other books gloss over such as teaching large classes and mixed-ability groups, and dealing with behavior problems. Their suggestions are practical and unforgettable.

This is an excellent book, filled with clear instructions and sound advice for both preservice and inservice teachers. The only drawback is Nunan's frequent habit of quoting himself. Of the more than 100 references at the end of the book, 13 of them are references to books, articles, and series by Nunan. One is tempted to call this book "Nunan and Nunan." Nonetheless, it is an excellent textbook for a teacher training course; certainly it is a book that *every* language teacher should have on the reference shelf, putting it closer at hand than all those books on language teaching methodologies.

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Film Communication Theory and Practice in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. David John Wood. Lewiston, NY: Edwin Mellen Press, 1996. Pp. 179. $79.95. ISBN 0-7734-8997-5.

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Film Communication Theory and Practice in Teaching English as a Foreign Language by David John Wood is a welcome addition to the small library of books on using films in second language teaching. Many articles and conference presentations have dealt with specific aspects of film use (listening comprehension, grammar, culture) in the second language classroom. In addition, several books have been written about the general uses of video in language teaching, with information applicable to films. Despite the popular use of films in ESL and EFL classes, only three books have been published that deal exclusively with the use of films in ESUEFL classrooms. In his preface, Wood explains that he has combined "the most motivating audiovisual resource, the movie, and one of the most effective language-teaching methodologies, the communicative approach" (p. vii).

Wood's book summarizes published material to date and offers numerous examples of how various teaching techniques can be applied to film scenes. While there is abundant material to support the practice part of the title, it is disappointing to find that there is no film communication theory as suggested in the title. What Wood offers in Chapter One are his 10 principles of film conununication, explained over a scant three and one half pages. There is, however, no overarching theory that unifies those principles.

Some of the principles, such as "Curricular Integration," "Flexible Materials and Techniques Development," and "Student/Teacher Interaction" are advocated, self-evident, and need no further explanation here. Others, such as "Cultural Transparency," are not self-explanatory. "Cultural Transparency" means that a film can be understood by those outside the culture. On the other hand, films that are "opaquely inward-looking, and thus lacking in sufficient relevance to anyone outside of a fixed cultural or sociological group" lack cultural transparency and should be avoided. Unfortunately, some of the other principles are themselves opaque. For example, the principle of "Enjoyment of Understanding to Deepen the Viewing Experience," is explained as:

> Entertainment is not something to avoid, but the enjoyment that students derive from becoming able to understand

something no matter how small (a word, a line, a feeling)
from a film should be a high goal as it will lead to the deeper
satisfaction of understanding a film better. In order not to
frustrate the normal sense of expectation that anyone, student
or otherwise, will come to a film with, the instructor should
clarify this aim from the outset, and assess as often as possible
en route how in fact students feel they are or are not deriving
pleasure from their attempts to learn both language and
emotions that they may not have known before starting the
course. (pp. 23-24)

Chapter Two, Some Logistical Concerns,'' discusses issues such
as copyright laws, selection criteria, video technology, and video
captions. Because video movies are shown in classrooms, perhaps
breaking some copyright laws, Wood offers suggestions to producers
about how to capitalize on this potential marketing area. This is one
of several points in the book where Wood seems to be addressing the
film/video industry rather than ESL/EFL professionals. The section on
selection criteria summarizes different points of view on issues, such
as the value of films as a language learning resource, optimum length
of viewing time, and evaluation of the language of the film. The
section on video technology has helpful hints for novices, and the
section on captioning addresses both its benefits and drawbacks.

Chapter Three deals with teaching techniques, some of which are
general, such as role play and predicting, while others, such as split
viewing, are unique to video. Each technique is summarized in three
parts: 1) rationale, 2) methods for three levels of proficiency, and 3)
descriptions of the methods as applied to selected scenes from movies.

The techniques and selected scenes in this chapter are very useful
for instructors just starting to use films and it may spark variations and
new ideas among instructors who have previously worked with films.
An example is how the doze exercise, which is often used in language
teaching, works when applied to a film scene for advanced students.
The students watch a scene without sound, create the dialogue, then
compare their version with the movie's. The technique is illustrated
with a scene from the *Karate Kid.* Following a misunderstanding,
Daniel apologizes to his girlfriend but an argument ensues. Students

have to write dialogue that takes the couple from the argument to the end of the scene where they are happily together again.

Chapter Four, "Case Studies," lists 12 video techniques which also apply to films. What is not clear is exactly how these video techniques interface with the teaching techniques in Chapter Three. There are several instances where the same technique is listed in both categories. For example, under Video Technique, there is "Character Study--facilitates identification of individuality, appearance and personality." Under Teaching Techniques, there is a technique called "Describing Character and Appearance." They look to be the same technique by two different names. In other instances, the *video* techniques have no connection to video or are too general. Among them, "Follow-Ups-conclude a course of study with suitable post viewing activities."

The better part of this chapter offers case studies of the video techniques as applied to three films in their entirety: *Back to the Future, Kramer vs. Kramer,* and *Stand by Me. With each* film, a running commentary of the plot and characters is given, along with appropriate techniques for using the films. An instructor may use these as guidelines for teaching those three films. More important, these case studies present a model of how the principle of "Whole Movie Approach" works. This principle advocates showing an entire movie, as opposed to selected scenes, since a movie is itself a communicative process. These case studies also model the principle of "Target-mode Balance." That is, many kinds of activities can be generated by a film, and focusing on one activity, such as listening comprehension, does not take advantage of the multi-modal potential of video movies.

The absence of a theory, as promised in the title, made the first chapter disappointing. However, Wood has done a credible job of summarizing published material to date. The confusing distinction between teaching and video techniques aside, the descriptions and numerous examples of techniques as applied to scenes are valuable as models to use with other films. These techniques demonstrate how versatile and rich film is as a resource for language learning and cultural awareness. Although Wood writes from an EFL perspective, the techniques for teaching with film are essentially the same whether

applied to an EFL or ESL setting. This book is recommended with one reservation. At $79.95 it is overpriced.

Multilingualism. **John Edwards. London: Routledge, 1994. Pp. 256. $22.50. ISBN 0-415-12011-X.**

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A succinct title belies the wealth of information, concepts, and historical data contained in this book. In a nutshell, this is a study of the interactions of language with nationalism, self-identity, ethnicity, prescriptionism, politics, and educational policies. The book presents a refreshing interdisciplinary approach to the study of the social aspects of languages and language differences. Its reader-friendly style makes the academic discussions comprehensible to a wide range of readers with either very little or vast theoretical background in linguistics. Edwards also addresses a general audience of readers concerned with issues of language in society, politics, ethnicity and how multilingualism affects the individual. The author cautions the reader that his focus is not informed exclusively by either sociolinguistics or psycholinguistics, but rather by a historical perspective. As an interdisciplinary researcher and sociolinguist myself, I find that both camps of sociolinguists and psycholinguists would greatly benefit from Edwards' interdisciplinary perspective to the study of language differences and how languages have been used for communication, domination, and self-identity throughout the history of humankind.

Multilingualisrn is comprised of eight chapters: introductory overview; languages in the world; bilingualism; languages in conflict; languages and identities, the prescriptive urge; languages, cultures, and education; and conclusions. The final chapter includes extensive end notes and bibliographical references to additional studies on the topics of each of the chapters. In addition, the concluding chapter includes separate indexes of names, subjects, and languages by language families. The subject index could be further developed or perhaps a glossary of terms and concepts could be added to a future edition. Students in preservice teacher preparation programs or other readers might not feel inclined to seek out additional references on the topics of the book; thus, the addition of a glossary or definitions of terms would greatly complement Edwards' study of multilingualism.

Beginning with the introduction, Edwards traces the presence and use of multilingualism throughout most of human history. He also makes it evident that whatever is said or prescribed about languages is linguistically relative and arbitrarily constructed by our beliefs about our own native languages and those of others. In the first two chapters we find brief references to the theories on the origins of multiple

languages, the arbitrary classifications (genealogical, historical and typological) of language families, and language status (dialect, pidgin, creole, dominant, and lingua franca). References to historical events and personalities illustrate the rise of multilingualism and linguistic domination. From the tower of Babel story of multilingualism as divine punishment, through early studies of language acquisition by Egyptian monarchs around 600 BC, leading up to the Darwinian survival value, Edwards traces the development of linguistic relativism. He also makes amusing references to the problems of translations, historically perceived as either treason, blasphemy, or personal judgment and interpretation. The art and the dangers of translation are discussed through the voices of dozens of sources on the use of paraphrasing, semantic value of phrases, or literal versions of ancient Greek and Shakespeare. Semantic and syntactic transfers are a challenge for modern translators (for example, Agatha Christie's Poirot and his Frenchifted English).

The chapter on bilingualism seems specifically designed to dispel misconceptions and confusion about the psychological, social, and political implications of being bilingual, multilingual, or trying to become competent in a second language. In this chapter, Edwards accomplishes the difficult task of addressing basic principles of second language acquisition in lay terms while entertaining the readers with delightful illustrations of interference, transference, and code switching, claiming that they are sometimes pejoratively dismissed by monolinguals as "gibberish" (for example Franglais, hpfish, or Tex-Mex). Examples of lexical, syntactical, phonological, and prosodic transfers among many languages illustrate some historical variations of loanwords (for example, 'alcohol' from Arabic, 'sine qua non' from Latin, or the English 'pullover' transferred to French as 'poolovaire').

The chapter on languages in conflict addresses linguistic hierarchies, spread, decline, murder, suicide, and revival of languages, and attitudes toward languages. This section contains a powerful historical account of the ways power, prestige, and status are significant to the concepts of nationalism and sociopolitical conflicts. Edwards points out that ultimately those concepts are manifested through attitudes toward languages. Ethnicity, individuality, collectivity, nationalism, language ecology, and the concept of linguistic minorities

are addressed with vigor in the chapter on languages and personal identities.

In the chapter on prescriptive urge, Edwards does not mince words to lambast the language *shamans,* the self-prescribed mavens or guardians of *correct* usage of the *standard* language, and the prescriptivism of academies and dictionaries. By tracking the historical origins of linguistic prescriptivism, Edwards lets the historical facts speak for themselves regarding intellectual arrogance and overzealous concerns for the decline or decay of a language within arbitrary geographic boundaries. He takes to task the U.S. English movement to make English the official language of the U.S. in one of the most lucid approaches to the subject I have encountered recently. The brief segment on literary canons of Western civilization within school settings (Loose Canons) is a pledge to expansion and inclusiveness of sociocultural canons.

The final chapter on languages, cultures, and education revisits the use of languages in different contexts: multilingualism and multicultural education, languages at school, and the features of male/female speech as viewed from different perspectives across time and geographic boundaries. Edwards takes a strong stand against what he terms futile efforts at legislation over pluralism or assimilation. He provides a backdrop of historical evidence of what constitutes true multilingualism, pluralism, and assimilation to support his claim. He is also critical of the new wave of post-modern, politically-correct efforts toward multicultural education, which, albeit progressive, represent mostly an "ethnic show and tell in which cultural manifestations are paraded in a self-conscious and trivial fashion" (p. 188). In addition, he claims, schools perpetuate a language deficit perspective toward linguistic minorities. Surprisingly, Edwards discounts the role of schools for social change since, in his view, they lack the power for true socioeconomic empowerment. Despite a negative view of the status quo, he asserts that "all education worthy of the name is multicultural" (p. 189).

In the concluding chapter, Edwards makes a dramatic plea for social action and political activism on the part of linguists and other professionals involved in language studies. He urges them to speak to

nonprofessionals and ordinary people about language issues, to intervene in support of endangered languages, to dispel myths and misperceptions. **He calls for scholars to report back to the** constituencies from which they collect data and step down from their ivory towers to talk to ordinary people about beliefs, attitudes, and necessities of multilingualism in the face of the often forgotten historical evidence. He also laments the fragmentation of social studies which have removed a historical perspective from linguistic studies. His plea for a revival of interdisciplinary studies of the social life of languages echoes the sentiments of many language practitioners.

My recommendation is that this book be made available to every educator who is in contact with linguistic minority students, or is involved with preservice teacher preparation programs and graduate programs in which language is a direct or indirect subject of study. It would also make a great addition to the library of school boards, superintendents of public instruction, and editorial rooms of the media. Needless to say, it is hoped that *Multilingualisrn* does not become merely a bookend on a book shelf, but a source of insight and inclusiveness in any educational setting.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Editorial Policy

The ORTESOL Journal, a professional, refereed publication, encourages submission of previously unpublished articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, especially in elementary and secondary schools, and in higher education, adult education, and bilingual education. As a publication which represents a variety of cross-disciplinary interests, both theoretical and practical, the *Journal* invites manuscripts on a wide range of topics, especially in the following areas:

1. psychology and sociology of language learning and teaching; issues in research and research methodology;

2. curriculum design and development; instructional methods, materials, and techniques;

3. testing and evaluation;

4. professional preparation.

The *Journal* particularly welcomes submissions which draw on relevant research in such areas as applied and theoretical linguistics, communications, education, English education (including reading and writing theory), anthropology, psycholinguistics, psychology, first and second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, and sociology, and which then address implications and applications of that research to issues in our profession. It also especially welcomes articles which focus mainly on direct application in the classroom (methods, materials, techniques, and activities, at all levels of instruction).

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2. Review Articles. The *Journal* invites articles which are critical reviews of recently published scholarly texts related to the profession. In addition to summarizing the contents of the book, reviewers should include evaluative comments regarding the strengths as well as any perceived limitations in the book. The review article manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages, but may be considerably shorter (no minimum length). Submit three copies to the Editors, *The ORTESOL Journal,* c/o Department of Applied Linguistics, Portland State University, PO Box 751, Portland, OR 97207.

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