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Articles

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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 her empirical study of ESL materials, Kyunghee Ma discovers how women and men are portrayed in a way that is more equitable than 20 years ago. However, she also finds that while women and girls are more likely to be primary, dominant or active characters, they play a very restricted set of roles. They play the roles of mother, teacher or activist. In comparison, men and boys who are primary characters play a wide range of roles. Ma outlines ways in which ESL teachers can deal with these materials in a classroom.

• In her article Vicki Bridges explores trends in teaching English in Japan, institutional support for English in Japan and demands placed on English learners in Japan with an eye toward determining the model of English being used there. She concludes that Japan teaches inner-circle English (such as that spoken in the US, UK, Canada and Australia) but that this model may inhibit the acquisition of English. She suggests that this emphasis on inner-circle English may be too limiting to the growing number of Japanese doing business in countries such as Singapore and India where other varieties of English are used. She concludes with suggestions for all ESL teachers.

• In her teaching notes on Applied Psychology in the ESL Classroom, Susan Koger describes how she uses a sheltered-course model to teach a six-week course on Skinnerian learning theory to ESL students. She reports that the course was successful in many ways and gives example assignments and exams.

• Gisela Ernst-Slavit reviews three books, each written about by classroom teachers in collaboration with university educators about elementary education classrooms and theory. She describes how each book integrates classroom description with a discussion of theory that results in important contributions to the education of linguistically and culturally diverse students.

• In her reviews of two books about grammar, Linda Greer describes two books about grammar—one a theoretical text by Rei R.

Noguchi and the other, a useful, accessible guide to grammar for adult writers based on the theoretical perspective offered by Noguchi. While neither book specifically addresses ESL writing or its teaching, Greer explains how ESL teachers will find them sueful when having to decide on what grammar should be taught in writing courses, and how.

The Representation of Gender in Current ESL Reading Materials

Kyunghee Ma
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The purpose of this study is to investigate whether or not gender bias exists in current ESL reading materials. For this study, eleven reading books used in ESL classes at Portland State University were examined through content analysis. Gender bias was found to be statistically significant in the following categories: the assignment of primary/secondary characters, the assignment of dominant/subservient roles, and the assignment of independent/dependent roles. However, the relatively weak Phi values in the assignment of primary/secondary characters and in the assignment of independent/dependent roles revealed that the gender bias was too small to be of concern. A significant degree of gender bias was observed in the assignment of dominant/subservient roles. However, the results indicate that gender bias needs to be explored beyond statistical significance by examining the contexts in which males and females are presented. The implications of gender bias are of some concern to classroom practices.

Kyunghee Ma received a BA in English Literature at Honam University, South Korea. In 1998 she graduated from Portland State University, Oregon, with her MA in TESOL and is currently teaching English at Clark College, Washington. Her interests are the roles of culture and gender in language learning and she hopes to pursue a higher degree in this area. She'd like to thank her parents and her professor, Marjorie Terdal, for their constant support and encouragement.

Introduction

Sexism arbitrarily designates certain roles, characteristics, and abilities to people solely on the basis of their gender, regardless of their talents and accomplishments (Britton, 1975; Homes, 1978). This narrows down the individual's potential as well as diminishes his or her self-esteem (Sunderland, 1992). Taken for granted by most people, sexism pervades social relations and institutions, constantly influencing an individual's thoughts, language, and behaviors (Cameron, 1994).

Most societies operate in terms of two genders, masculine and feminine, and this simple binary opposition is reinforced in the classroom (Coates, 1993). Although all social institutions are influenced by sexism, the educational system has been criticized in that it not only maintains sexist elements, but also intentionally or unintentionally reinforces the already-existing gender roles and stereotypes. Since the 1970s, feminist groups and individuals have focused their attention on revising some of the educational practices which *gave* male and female students a gender biased education. One of the areas on which they focused was classroom materials, especially reading materials and textbooks in school (Hildreth, 1979).

Previous investigators of reading materials have concluded that textbooks are indeed tainted by gender bias; school textbooks, from the elementary level to the college level, favored males by portraying females as the weaker sex. In the textbooks, females were vastly underrepresented and performed a restricted range of roles, mostly presented in domestic and passive situations. Furthermore, their identities were generally defined in relation to a male (Abraham, 1989; Arnold-Gerrity, 1978; Frasher & Walker, 1975: Fishman, 1976; Gaff, 1982; Graebner, 1972; Gupta & Lee, 1990; Hellinger, 1980; Howe, 1975; Nilsen, 1977; Porreca, 1984; Schenck, 1976; Wiik, 1973).

Gender roles and stereotypes are also reflected in language. Lakoff (1973) points out that women are denied equality through language use. She further claims that

the marginality of powerlessness of women is reflected in both the ways women are expected to speak, and the ways in which

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women are spoken of. In appropriate women's speech, strong
expression of feeling is avoided, expression of uncertainty is
favored, and means of expression in regard to subject-matter
deemed "trivial" to the "rear world are elaborated. Speech
about women implies an object, whose sexual nature requires
euphemism, and whose social roles are derivative and
dependent in relation to men. The personal identity of women
thus is linguistically submerged; the language works against
treatment of women as serious persons with individual views
(p. 45).

Language is a crucial tool in socialization because it facilitates the
individuals' learning of society's expected roles. Thoughts and ideas
are conceptualized and exchanged and, in return, language shapes our
identity and governs our behaviors. As language is liberated from
sexist usage and assumptions, individuals can free themselves from
sexism. As a result, males and females will share equal opportunities
(Cameron, 1994; Nilsen, 1977).

Language classrooms are "the primary sources of information for
students, not only of the language but also of the whole culture and
society whose language is learnt as well" (Jaworski, 1983, p. 113). In
a language classroom, a portion of the culture is presented to the
students and is examined cognitively (Hartman & Judd, 1978). The
images the students pick up, consciously or subconsciously, from
language textbooks mold their identity and roles and govern their
behaviors (Howe, 1975).

In English as a Second Language (ESL) classes, students who do
not possess strong knowledge of the new society, and yet who are eager
to develop their language proficiency, may tend to accept what they
read as "an absolute norm." In addition, textbooks play a major part in
formulating gender roles by suggesting how males and females should
act in the new culture. Sexist practices in textbooks result in sexist
ways of thinking about the target American culture. Thus, it is
important that teachers ensure that textbooks provide realistic and
accurate or equally projected images of males and females.
Furthermore, as Sunderland (1990) points out, ESL learners'
perceptions about gender bias are influenced not only by textbooks but
also by teachers through their language and behaviors. Therefore,

teachers as providers and representatives of the target culture need to constantly educate themselves and thoroughly mediate any effects of gender bias.

However, the problem of gender issues is often ignored in the classroom (Sunderland, 1992, 1994). It is so deeply interwoven within a society that people might be aware of the extent of gender bias, but they might not be aware of its effects. Therefore, awareness of gender bias is the first step in repairing the problem. Three decades have passed since feminist groups actively investigated issues in education. Since then, many suggestions have been given to provide students gender-bias-free materials (Britton, 1975; Cameron, 1994; Pugsley, 1992; Women on Words and Images, 1975). However, two major studies (Hartman & Judd, 1978; Porreca, 1984) conducted on ESL reading materials found rampant sexism. This study hopes to find a significant improvement in the textbooks in regard to portrayals of males and females and thus become a source of guidance for ESL teachers to achieve excellence and educational accuracy.

Methods

First of all, the reason for concentrating on reading materials is twofold: (1) veracity and (2) ease of analysis. As Nilsen (1977) notes, printed materials hold a special place in the culture. Not only are printed materials culturally sensitive, reflecting the current trends, but also readers emulate what they read and tend to place their trust in the materials. As a result, the impact of a simple statement and an illustration in print can be tremendous. The same situations can be found involving ESL students who do not possess a strong knowledge of the new culture associated with the language, yet who are eager to learn it. In this sense, they are more apt to put their trust in reading materials. Therefore, it is important for teachers to scrutinize these materials.

The second reason is for the benefit of the researcher. As Nilsen (1977) points out, textual materials are the most visible kind of sexism and the easiest to document because sexism is presented in solid black and white. The permanence of the materials increases accuracy of the

analysis and enables the researcher to detect sexism by analyzing and reanalyzing them.

For this study, eleven ESL reading textbooks (see Appendix A) were randomly selected from the textbook lists of Winter, Spring, Summer, and Fall Terms of 1997, which were used in ESL classes at Portland State University; three books from each of the levels (one, two, and three) and two books from level four were selected. Due to the nature of the study, the data were confined to those published in the 1990s. Content analysis was employed to investigate whether or not gender bias exists in current textbooks. Through analysis, the researcher examined behaviors and interactions, and compared the number of males to the number of females. The following specific questions were developed in order to examine gender bias in the texts and converted to countable categories:

1. How many males/females are there?
2a. How many male/female primary characters are there?
2b. How many male/female secondary characters are there?
3a. How many male/female adults are there?
3b. How many male/female children/adolescents are there?
4a. How often are males/females shown in an active role?
4b. How often are males/females shown in a passive role?
5a. How often are males/females shown in a dominant role?
5b. How often are males/females shown in a subservient role?
6a. How often are males/females shown to be independent?
6b. How often are males/females shown to be dependent?
(Hoomes, 1978)

Throughout the analysis, only passages with male or female references were examined. In other words, the passages which did not contain male or female references were exempt from review. When the passages contained generic terms such as he, man, and we, which refer to the entire class of human beings or races, they were omitted from counting. The decisions on whether males and females were presented as primary or secondary characters, active or passive, dominant or subservient, and independent or dependent, were made only when evidence was provided in the passages to support the decisions. In other words, if there was not sufficient evidence to support a valid decision, no decision was made.

The analysis was conducted according to the following procedures. In respect to the question of how many mates or females there were in the passages, males and females were tabulated whenever they referred to specific persons rather than to a whole race or human beings. In addition, when male or female proper nouns represented certain commodities, art works, or television shows, they were not counted. When the passages were written in the first person, decision on the narrator's gender was made only when this information was given either in the passage or in a biography. Animals were also included in this study, and the same rules were applied to judge their sex because they were often presented as if they possessed human traits such as courage, humor, and loyalty.

When it came to primary and secondary characters, the decision was made primarily based on who contributed most to the development of the story. Although not found in the beginning level reading materials, frame narration (which has more than one story embedded in the main story) was frequently observed as the level increased. When the passages were written in frame narration, they were treated as separate passages. The narrator of the main story was considered as a primary character, but the main character in the embedded story was counted as a primary character as well. When a group of people led the story by taking part equally as in a debate, all of them were treated as primary characters; it was possible to have multiple primary characters in a single passage. In addition, when males and females were referred to in the passages once but had nothing to do with the actual stories, they were assigned to a total number of males and females.

In terms of male and female characteristics, males and females were counted as active when they were assertive, physically or verbally aggressive, moving and doing and/or causing something to happen. Males and females were considered passive when they were inactive, receptive, nonassertive, submissive, and/or without resistance. Males and females were counted as dominant when they exercised the most power and influence and/or control over others, whereas males and females were counted as subservient when they were shown serving others, acting in favor of others, and/or putting themselves last. Males and females were considered independent when they were self-reliant, free, and/or uncontrolled by others. In contrast, males and females

were counted as dependent when they were reliant on others for financial support, emotional support, leadership, and/or protection (Hoomes, 1978).

Results

Due to the nature of the data, the chi-square *test* was employed to examine the distributions of males and females in the textbooks. The test was considered significant at the .05 level. The correlation between two categories was measured by Phi (0). The results are presented in Tables 1 through 6 with calculated percentages. Following each table are statistical findings.

Total Number of Males and Females: As Table 1 indicates, males were observed more frequently than females.

Table I

Total Number of Males and Females

	Males	Females	Total
Frequencies	6,738 (57%)	5,116 (43%)	11,854 (100%)

Gender vs. Character: As shown in Table 2, males were shown as secondary characters more often than females. This finding was statistically significant, but the Phi value indicated   a relatively weak correlation between the two compared variables.

Table 2

Gender vs. Character

Categories	Primary Character	Secondary Character	Total
Males	3,749 (56.4%)	2,900 (43.6%)	6,649 (100%)
Females	3,143 (61.9%)	1,937 (38.1%)	5,080 (100%)

et < .05) 0 - .

Gender vs. Age: Table 3 shows that more male adults were presented in the passages than female adults. However, the difference was not statistically significant.

Table 3

Gender vs. Age

Categories	Adults	Children/ Adolescents	Total
Males	5,276 (80.1%)	1,311 (19.9%)	6,587 (100%)
Females	3,936 (78.6%)	1,070 (21.4%)	5,006 (100%)

Gender vs. Active/Passive Roles: Males were portrayed in passive roles slightly more often than females, but this was not statistically significant. The results are shown below in Table 4.

Table 4

Gender vs. Active/Passive Roles

Percentage	Active Roles	Passive Roles	Total
Males	2,073 (98.4%)	34 (1.6%)	2,107 (100%)
Females	1,542 (98.8%)	18 (1.2%)	2,107 (100%)

$X^z = .244$ $> .05)$ $= .01$

Gender vs. Dominant/Subservient Roles: As can be seen below in Table 5, males were presented in dominant roles more frequently than females. This was statistically significant with a strong correlation.

Table 5

Gender vs. Dominant/Subservient Roles

Categories	Dominant Roles	Subservient Roles	Total
Males	45 (83.3%)	9 (16.7%)	54 (100%)
Females	15 (22.1%)	53 (77.9%)	54 (100%)

$e = .$ $< .05) 0 = .60$

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Gender vs. Independence/Dependence: As Table 6 indicates, males were shown as independent more often than females. This finding was statistically significant, but the correlation was relatively weak.

Table 6

Gender vs. Independence/Dependence

Categories	Independent	Dependent	Total
Males	52 (27.1%)	140 (72.9%)	192 (100%)
Females	24 (15.2%)	134 (84.8%)	158 (100%)

X = .   < .   •=.

Discussion

Of the textbooks evaluated for this study, evidence of gender bias was found to be statistically significant in the following categories: the assignment of primary/secondary characters, the assignment of dominant/subservient roles, and the assignment of independent/ dependent roles. However, the relatively weak Phi value in the assignment of primary/secondary characters and in the assignment of independent/dependent roles revealed that the gender bias was too small to be of concern. A greater degree of gender bias was observed in the assignment of dominant/subservient roles.

One of the most widely observed manifestations of gender bias in previous studies was the underrepresentation of female characters. This research confirmed the findings of previous studies (Coles, 1977; Frasher & Walker, 1975; Hartman & Judd, 1978; Porreca, 1984; Schulwitz, 1976). Although females comprise more than half of the

entire population in the United States, they were underrepresented in
the ESL reading materials evaluated for this study. In the passages,
males outnumbered females by a ratio of 1.3:1. More than a decade
ago, Porreca (1984), through the systematic examination of fifteen ESL
textbooks, found approximately two males for each female.
Considering this, the current textbooks seem to have made some
progress toward the equal distribution of males and females; however,
these results suggest that the textbooks still have need for improvement.

The gender bias which was, however small, statistically significant
existed in the assignment of primary/secondary characters. Despite
their less frequent appearance, females were presented as primary
characters more frequently than were males. Previous studies (Frasher
& Walker, 1975; Marten & Maltin, 1976; Schulwitz, 1976) showed
that textbooks repeatedly assigned female gender to secondary
characters whose identities were defined by the male characters. In this
respect, the current textbooks seem to have made great progress.
However, gender bias needs to be explained beyond statistical
significance.

From a non-statistical standpoint, careful examination of contexts
in which females were shown as primary characters reveals prevalent
gender bias; when females were presented as primary characters, they
were mostly either hardworking mothers, school teachers, or involved
in women's issues. In contrast, when males were displayed as primary
characters, they were shown in roles ranging from fathers who were
engaged in various activities in and outside their home to rulers of the
country who made decisions.

Although the chi-square test revealed no significant differences,
females were portrayed as being active slightly more often than males.
This finding is different from previous studies (Frasher & Walker,
1975; Hartman & Judd, 1978; Marten & Maltin, 1976; Weitzman &
Rizzo, 1975) which depicted females in passive situations requiring less
action, less initiative, and less creativity. However, the females in the
texts examined for this study were generally shown to be active in
domestic situations, doing housework and raising children, in teaching
settings, or involved in issues of their own gender. When they were
shown outside these three settings, few females were presented in an
active role.

A statistically significant degree of gender bias was found in the assignment of dominant/subservient roles. Males were overwhelmingly depicted in dominant roles and females in subservient roles. When males were shown as dominant, they were fathers, landlords, company owners, inventors, and national rulers. In contrast, when females were shown as dominant, they were dominant as mothers. The only case in which females were dominant outside their home was when they were school teachers.

There were statistically significant differences when gender was compared with independent/dependent roles, but a relatively weak correlation indicated that these differences were too small to be of concern. Textbooks seem to favor males by assigning independent roles to them more often than to females. However, it was observed that when males were depicted to be dependent, they generally depended on other males, whereas females were shown to be dependent on males, not on other females. Only children depended on females. The male adults in the current textbooks were rarely shown to be dependent on females. The only two incidents in which male adults were illustrated as dependent on females were as husbands and sons. Since this study did not divide the incidents into specific categories, further research is required to explore this in more depth.

While examining gender bias, the researcher observed significant cultural stereotypes intricately associated with gender stereotypes. More than half of the females (30 out of 53) who were subservient were Japanese. This number included an American wife who married a Japanese man and had lived in Japan. Furthermore, the Japanese or Japanese American women in these roles were depicted as devoting virtually all their time to their family, whereas American women in these roles combined outside jobs and housework, although they were occasionally presented as struggling to balance their jobs and housework. In addition, the American children were never shown as subservient, whereas frequently children from different nationalities were portrayed as subservient in order to depict exotic lifestyles or to contrast different cultural norms.

Among the dominant males, systematic differences based on their ethnicity were observed. When American males (ethnicity unspecified) were presented in dominant roles, they exercised their power as

company owners, inventors, supervisors, and rulers of the country. On
the other hand, the males of other nationalities were mostly depicted as
fathers who were trapped in tradition and struggling to preserve it.

These results suggest that ESL textbooks seem to neglect cultural
issues while concentrating on balancing gender. At least on the
surface, the current textbooks are more sensitive to gender issues than
those analyzed in previous studies, but the textbooks evaluated for this
study depicted gendered cultural groups in stereotypical ways. Because
ESL classes are composed of students with diverse cultural
backgrounds, the need for providing accurate images of different
cultural groups is important. Furthermore, while doing evaluation of
their materials and classroom practices, teachers need to be particularly
aware of the culture-gender connection. This connection allows for
hidden gender bias. Further research in this area is urgently needed.

Implications for Second Language Acquisition

Although, numerically, current textbooks seem to have made great
progress in their depiction of females' positions, textbooks still
demonstrate gender bias favoring males, especially in terms of power
distribution. As Porreca (1984) notes, ESL students have limited
linguistic and cultural experiences in the new culture. Thus, they are
less likely to question whether or not these representations of males and
females are accurate. ESL students might, consciously or
unconsciously, internalize images of male and female gender roles
based on what they have learned from textbooks. As a result, these
images tend to govern the students' perceptions of gender roles (Howe,
1975). Although they might not immediately influence language
acquisition, these unrealistic and inaccurate descriptions of females
could not only lead to sexist ways of thinking about the new culture but
could also ultimately diminish female students' self-esteem.

The results of this study also suggest that teachers need to be
careful when selecting textbooks and also to be aware of their own
attitude toward gender issues. Sunderland (1994) points out that "the
meaning of, say, a reading text in a textbook depends on how it is
interpreted and used. The most non-sexist textbook can become sexist
in the hands of a teacher with sexist attitudes - and, importantly, the

reverse is true" (p. 64). Although their primary concern might be the quality of the textbooks as teaching tools, teachers need to examine them by questioning whether or not the textbooks are fair to both genders (see Appendix B for guidelines).

Gender-biased textbooks might not be at all detrimental to students. They can be used as teaching tools if teachers discuss with students the manifestations of gender bias and encourage the students to talk about it in reference to their own experiences and perceptions. Teachers also need to be aware of the existence of the cultural stereotypes and need to repair the problems by illustrating the complexity of the issues through discussion. While discussing the problems, teachers can compare the students' cultures with the target culture, so that students notice the differences between the two cultures and gender roles expected in the new society. Culture is changing every day; therefore, teachers need to keep themselves updated.

A good teaching strategy is gender reversal role-play. Teachers can intentionally have the students play the reversed gender roles (Sunderland, 1994). This will help the students be aware of gender bias as well as broaden their understanding of opposite gender roles. Eradicating gender bias in the classroom might begin with mutual understanding between male and female students.

Material alteration can be another solution for the biased textbooks. When teachers encounter gender biased materials, they could either simply substitute the materials with gender unbiased materials if they are available or, if not, they can produce their own materials by modifying the stories and characters, or even borrow examples from reality. For example, guest speakers who are engaged in non-traditional occupations would have more impact on the students than textbooks by providing a better picture of reality. Due to the nature of a class where language learning is the priority, an exclusive assignment on gender issues might be difficult, but teachers continuously need to inform the students with accurate information, so that students can smoothly transition into the culture.

There is clearly a need for publishers, editors, and authors to be sensitive to gender bias. Despite numerous suggestions (Abraham, 1989; Britton, 1975; Florent, Fuller, Pugsley, Walter, & Young, 1994;

Haines, 1994; Jaworski, 1983; Pugsley, 1992), one of the reasons that textbooks have failed to be bias-free might be publishers', editors', and authors' lack of understanding of sexism or ignorance of its existence in their materials. This researcher believes that they need to be thoroughly informed about sexism (how it originated, how it is perpetuated, and what impact it has on the students) and to ensure that their materials have a fair and balanced representation of females.

Suggestions for Further Research

Serious cultural stereotypes accompanying gender bias were found in the textbooks. As mentioned previously, ESL classes are composed of students with various cultural backgrounds, and, thus, it is important to examine how ethnic groups are portrayed in the textbooks.

Each subquestion employed to answer the research question might have been more focused. Due to the statistical limitations, the researcher needed to eliminate questions on occupations and settings in which males and female were presented. However, while conducting this study, she realized that perhaps the best way to explain gender bias might be through analyzing occupations and settings in which males and females were shown. A further study could focus on this area.

The scope of the data was confined to ESL reading books at Portland State University. For this reason, it was not possible to make a generalization about the entire body of ESL texts. It seems more beneficial to draw samples from different language centers; however admittedly difficult this would be, and to interview the publishers, editors, and authors to measure their awareness of gender bias. Furthermore, it would be useful to investigate ESL students' perspectives on sexism in the learning materials by a process of interviewing.

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Appendix A

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Appendix B

Guidelines for ESL Teachers

1. **Identify gender stereotypes.**

2. **Actively integrate gender cultural sensitivity into your curriculum.**

3. **Encourage the students to talk about gender stereotypes from their own experiences.**

4. **Actively seek knowledge about other cultures and existence of gender stereotypes.**

5. **Revise texts and evaluate teaching materials annually.**

The Teaching of English in Japan: Models, Trends, and Implications

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English has become an increasingly important language in post-WW 11 Japan, and more people are being surrounded by it daily than ever before. Despite their efforts, many Japanese feel they are not particularly successful in acquiring communicative English, and there are no easy answers to recta the situation.

This paper examines the present state of English in Japan, the factors that may be hindering Japanese learners of all ages, and the effect of a recent trend toward English as an international language. Specifically, Japan's present pedagogical model of English, recent trends and influences on English study, and attitudes toward English will be discussed. A new pedagogical direction for Japan is examined, as well as implications for "native" English-speaking teachers in both ESL and EFL settings.

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English is a much sought after commodity in Japan today. It is estimated that approximately 15 million students in the education system, as well as another 2 million children, cram school students, business professionals and other adults are studying English (Koike & Tanaka, 1995). In addition, Japan spends the equivalent of about 30 billion US dollars annually in the English language teaching industry, making it one of the "most advanced markets of foreign language teaching and learning in the world" (Koike & Tanaka, 1995, p. 19). Now more than ever, English is available to the general public—in the media, advertising, signs, announcements in stores and subways, in movies and on TV. In spite of all these language input possibilities, many Japanese wonder at the lack of success in the acquisition of English. Tanaka (1995) finds that "it is still difficult for many Japanese to attain a reasonable proficiency in English, particularly spoken English" (p. 48). Kuse (cited in Baxter, 1980) is even more specific in his lament: "Why can't Japanese speak English well enough to communicate with native speakers after studying it for as long as 10 years or more beginning in junior high school?" (p. 3). Comments such as these have been and continue to be commonly heard by EFL teachers in Japan and ESL teachers of Japanese students in the US. What is the situation in Japan, then, that produces this type of outcome? This paper will take a closer look at the present state of English in Japan, and specifically the following points: Japan's present pedagogical model; recent trends and influences on English study; and attitudes toward English that linger in the general population. The picture that emerges from the examination of these points suggests a possible new pedagogical direction for English in Japan, with implications for "native" English teachers.

Japan's Pedagogical Model

In order to discuss models of English, some definitions of terms must first be established. Because some consider the so-called "native" and "non-native" terminology to be inherently biased (Baxter, 1980) or inaccurate (Kachru, 1992), terms from Kachru's world Englishes paradigm will be used. He states that there are "three concentric circles" which characterize English as it is used around the world: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle refers to "mother tongue" varieties of English, such as that spoken in the US, UK, Canada, etc. The Outer Circle varieties, also

called "institutionalized" varieties, are those used in post-colonial settings such as India, Singapore, Malaysia, and Kenya for intra-country purposes. The Expanding Circle refers to the English of countries where it is taught as a foreign language but is not the main language of the country, such as China, Egypt, and Japan. (For a full description of this paradigm, see Kachru, 1992.)

An important issue for any country using or teaching English is what variety to select as a model. In Japan's case, the choice was fairly simple. With the end of World War II in 1945, and the following American occupation, English became a symbol of happiness and affluence, and an Inner Circle model was adopted. "English, especially American English had virtually become the foreign language for every high school student to learn" (Tanaka & Tanaka, 1995, p. 123). Even now, English continues to retain its popularity because it is stylish and a part of things Western. In the school system, English is officially an elective; but in reality it is a necessary subject that virtually all students take. This is because English is one of the required subjects on university entrance exams (Koike & Tanaka, 1995), and is also included on a majority of high school entrance exams. At present, textbooks (and their accompanying tapes, CDs, and videos) used in the public school system, such as the widely used junior high school *text, New Horizon, teach* primarily American English. Tanaka and Tanaka characterize the type of English being taught at schools as "British or American 'standard' English" (p. 126).

The Japanese government further solidified its support of an Inner Circle model for the public school system in a major language policy decision. In 1987, the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET) was launched by the Ministries of Education, Foreign Affairs, and Home Affairs. Under this scheme, English speakers from a number of countries are employed to teach "living English" in the public schools and to "deepen mutual international understanding" by participating in local community activities (Koike & Tanaka, 1995, p. 20). In the first year of the program, a total of 848 people from four English-speaking countries (the US, UK, Australia, and New Zealand) participated. Each year, the number of countries and participants *has* increased, and the focus has broadened to include other languages, such as French and German, and jobs other than language teaching, such as translation or

international relations work in government offices, or as sports trainers. In fiscal year 1996, 5,030 people from 18 different countries were a part of the JET Programme *(see* Table 1). However, more than half of the participants were American, and about 95 % were from Inner Circle countries. Notably missing are any language teachers from countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, or India, where there are excellent speakers of English, but of an Outer Circle variety. Clearly, as a government-sponsored program, JET is strengthening Japan's pedagogical ties to an Inner Circle model.

It is important to note here that changes in the course of study and the implementation of the JET Programme in 1987 were undertaken in order to improve students' communicative abilities (Koike & Tanaka, 1995). However, with no corresponding changes in the university and high school entrance exam system, English continues to be taught emphasizing reading, translation, grammar, and composition, neglecting listening and speaking. This may be one reason why the Japanese school system is still producing students who study English "for 10 years . • . who could write beatifully but (have) great difficulty carrying on a simple conversation" (von Schon, 1987, p. 24).

In Japanese society overall, we can also see a preference for Inner Circle varieties of English. Griffith (1994) confirms that "the favored accent is certainly American and to a lesser extent Canadian" in the hiring of teachers for language schools and conversation lounges (p. 291). Major companies involved in international business often have language training for their employees. Morrow's (1995) study of electronics giant Toshiba reveals that Toshiba uses mostly American teachers and a mixture of American and British teaching materials. In addition, English is more accessible in Japan than ever before, especially Inner Circle varieties. BBC and CNN are available on TV (Ike, 1995). American movies can be seen in English on TV, and around half of all movies shown at theaters in major Japanese cities are in American English with Japanese subtitles (Tanaka, 1995). At present, an Inner Circle model of English seems to be Japan's choice.

Table 1

Number of JET Participants 1987-1996

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Nation	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Australia		143	146	145	142	181	221	244	276	
New Zealand		54	113	71	130	165	200	200	201	213 (2)
U.K.		248	370	[illegible]	[illegible]	595	696	733	[illegible]	918
U.S.A.		[illegible]	1,090	[illegible]	1,545	1,708	1,881	2,174	2,406	[illegible]
Canada		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	720	761 (1)
Ireland		20	36	41	45	45	60	59	69	72
France			7	10	10	20	24	29 (2)	30 (1)	33 (3)
Germany		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	20 (2)	26 (4)	30 (3)
China		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	17	26	37 (1)
Republic of Korea		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	14	21	33
Russia		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]		[illegible]	9 (2)	13 (3)	15 (3)
Brazil		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	(4)
Peru		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Austria		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	5	[illegible]
Spain		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Israel		[illegible]			[illegible]				[illegible]	[illegible]
Italy		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Mexico		[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Total	841	1,443	1,967		2,674	3,325	3315	4,165 (6)	4,626 (11)	5,030 (16)

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Numbers in parentheses indkoe Sports Exchange, participants (SEAs).
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Expected number as of August 31, 1996.

(Source: Japan Ministry of Education *at al* [1097, p. 355].)

Recent Trends and Influences

A factor that has influenced Japan tremendously is the huge economic growth it experienced during the mid-1980s and early 1990s. The result is the beginning of a shift in perspective on the uses and speakers of English in the world. Until the recent economic downturn of the late 1990s, the strength of the Japanese yen prompted more than 10% of the general Japanese population to travel abroad every year, more than ever before (Tanaka, 1995). While the present rate may have slowed, such trips are still providing many Japanese with a chance to use English for communication purposes with a variety of interlocutors. In the business arena, the huge economic growth of that period encouraged Japanese businesses to expand all over the world. Many large companies had to *decide* which variety of English to teach in their language training programs. Morrow (1995) found that Toshiba's American/British English is not meeting the needs of the businessmen. Since many international companies are doing business with Asian and other non-Western countries, exposure to various dialects is also beneficial. Morrow notes that Toshiba "feels it is desirable to use audio materials that will expose the students to some non-native dialects of English, for instance, Indian English or Singapore English" (pp. 94-95), as well as to offer cross-cultural communication training. Mitsubishi Corporation sends their workers to Malaysia to work on joint projects, and English is their mode of communication (Tanaka, 1995, p. 48). Despite the present economic slowdown in Asia, this trend toward including Outer Circle varieties of English is continuing in the business world.

Not surprisingly, the strength of the Japanese economy enticed a large number of non-Japanese-speaking foreign workers to Japan. Official estimates at the end of 1993 found their numbers to be 1.32 million foreigners, with more than 10,000 children (Foreign Press Center, 1995, pp. 42-43). Tanaka (1995) claims that the number of foreign residents is "the largest in the history of Japan" (p. 49), with many more non-native English speakers than native. Although some of these foreign residents speak only their native tongue, many speak English as a first or second language. The sluggish economy has slowed the influx of new workers into Japan somewhat, but the numbers remain. Their presence is continuing to affect the Japanese perception of who speaks English.

This shift in perception of the uses and speakers of English can also be seen in print. Tanaka and Tanaka (1995) cite a new dictionary that includes "expressions from varieties of English used in Canada, Australia, the Caribbean, Asia and Africa, etc." (p. 119). Other publishers of dictionaries are beginning to follow suit. The shift is also reflected in many textbooks used in the public schools. As recently as 9 or 10 years ago, junior high school students studied with characters such as Americans Mike and Jane, their Australian friend Lucy, and their Japanese friend Emi in their *New Horizon* textbooks. Besides Emi, all speakers were of the Inner Circle variety. However, in the 1992 revision of the textbook, students are introduced to Bin from Singapore, Raj from India, and Mei from China, all of whom are fluent speakers of English, but not Inner Circle varieties. Many more lessons deal with cultural differences and international themes (New Horizon, 1992). Whether in the business realm, the social realm, or the educational realm, change is occurring. Japan may have chosen an Inner Circle speaker model for the learning of English, and may still prefer such a model, but it is clear that many people are gradually gaining a broader world view about who uses English and for what purposes.

Lingering Attitudes

It seems logical that an increase in access to English and a widening in perception of the uses and speakers of English should gradually lead to better proficiency and a more positive attitude toward the English spoken by Japanese speakers—what Baxter (1980) calls speaking English Japanese-ly. But these results are yet to be seen. Some lingering attitudes commonly held by Japanese society as a whole, attitudes toward English and about themselves as speakers of English, may be working against the process of change. The first of these attitudes is a preference for Inner Circle varieties of English, especially American English (Griffith, 1994). On the surface, such an attitude seems relatively harmless, but a closer look reveals the opposite. A recent study by Chiba, Matsuura, and Yamamoto (1995) examining Japanese college students' attitudes toward English accents revealed an overwhelming preference for American and British accents over several other Asian accents. Subjects were most familiar with American/British English and tended to think of these varieties as the

ideal. One surprising finding was that the subjects were not very familiar with Japanese accents, with only half of them correctly identifying the Japanese speakers. Japanese accents were found to be somewhat "familiar but less than ideal" (Chiba et al., 1995, p. 81), and were rated only slightly more favorable than the other Asian accents in the study. There is nothing inherently wrong with preferring a particular accent over another. What is problematic is that such a mindset could be working against the process of language learning, especially if one's own variety is perceived as not measuring up (Baxter, 1980).

This brings us to the second attitude, a belief widely held by Japanese people of all ages that they cannot learn to speak English well. Baxter (1980) comments that the common adage, "We Japanese are poor speakers of English" (p. 3) often becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. From his own experience teaching in Japan, Cantor (1991) observes: "it seems that many Japanese students believe that no matter what they do (or what their teacher does) they will not be able to learn to speak English well" (p. 33). Linguistically, phonological differences make it difficult for Japanese people to pronounce English words, especially for those who begin their language study after childhood. But it's not impossible. One reason is the failure of schools to emphasize speaking and listening skills. But another reason this attitude persists may be the lack of role models: fluent, confident, intelligible English speakers who are Japanese. While there is an abundance of Inner Circle English-speaking role models all over Japan, skilled Japanese speakers of English are much less visible. Cantor (1991) also sees this lack of role models as a problem. He states:

Japanese students know very few other Japanese people who are excellent speakers of English. Indeed, even many Japanese teachers who teach English are insecure about their English conversation skills. Students, picking up on this, are obviously going to wonder about their own chances of learning to converse well in English. (p. 33)

A lack of English-speaking Japanese role models is indeed a legitimate concern; however, Baxter (1980) claims that it is merely a symptom of a deeper issue--the inability of many learners to see themselves as an English-speaking self. He sees Japan's pedagogical ties to Inner Circle

varieties of English as working against Japanese speakers of English because few can attain the ideal.

A Future Model

What model would better serve the needs of Japan as a country and as a member of the global community? From time to time a "Japanese English" model is proposed, but so far, the idea has never taken root. Those opposing it offer a number of arguments. One is that Japanese English is not a dialect, but an incomplete attempt to learn American or British English, and to accept it as a model would be "lowering our sights" (von Schon, 1980, p. 25); Baxter (1980) argues that Japanese English is "mainly identifiable by its phonology . . . [and] is not maximally intelligible" (p. 9) to non-Japanese. Others say, as mentioned previously, that American/British English is preferred and what many Japanese want to learn (Chiba et al., 1995). Yet the present Inner Circle model alone seems limiting.

It seems that a much more flexible model is necessary for the Japan of the 21st century, one that could encompass many varieties of English. In addition to the Inner Circle varieties, there should also be Baxter's (1980) fluent and intelligible "Japanese speaker of English who is secure in his or her identity as an English speaker" (p. 19). Expanding Circle varieties and international varieties could also play a role. Chiba et al. (1995) theorize that exposure to different varieties of English could lead to a more favorable view of non-native varieties, including the variety spoken in Japan. Such a model could produce, in time, role models for Japanese speakers of English and an ideal that is no longer out of reach. But this is an ideal.

In reality, the picture we see emerging of English in Japan is many-faceted and contradictory at times. While students in the school system are beginning to be taught more communicatively (Koike & Tanaka, 1995), the college entrance exams test for written competence. The government mandates American/British English as the model for teaching in the schools, and many Japanese personally prefer these varieties; in contrast, those involved in business and overseas travel are finding that speaking only Inner Circle varieties of English is not enough, that training in other varieties is also necessary. It will be

interesting to see how these contradictions are resolved in the future, especially in light of the recent downturn in the economy.

Implications for Teachers

This discussion of the present state of English in Japan suggests that the role of the Inner Circle English teacher has begun to shift. The status and use of English in the world is changing. Whether we are teaching EFL in Japan or ESL to Japanese (or other) students in the US, a need for an adjustment in our perspective may exist. The following are some suggestions for starting this process:

1. Stress fluency and intelligibility over accent. Students do not have to speak with accents like Americans or Canadians to be fluent and intelligible. On the other hand, Japanese students studying in the US may have chosen that particular location for the purpose of picking up an American accent. Being aware of students' personal goals for their pronunciation can be helpful, but emphasis should still be on "understandability."

2. Broaden our view of what is "correct" or "good" English. There are a number of ways of expressing an idea that are grammatically correct but would never be spoken by an LI English speaker. We should be accepting of phrases like "In my high school days" even though "when I was in high school" sounds much more natural to a speaker of American English. Nishiyama (1995) calls this speaking English with a Japanese mind.

3. Make sure that our own English is intelligible internationally. Native American English speakers shouldn't assume that wherever one goes in the world one will understand and be understood. D'Sousa (1988) claims that "the native speaker has to acquire a wider awareness about varieties of English and be able to adapt to the different environments in which English functions" (p. 168). As teachers of English, it is important for us to expose ourselves and our students to a variety of Engfishes.

In conclusion, some may feel that these suggestions are more applicable to the EFL setting. However, it is important for ESL teachers to think them through also. As the Japanese example has

shown, the status of English and the way it is being used is changing, both there and in many other countries around the world. The present trend toward using English as *the* international language is not slowing, but rather gaining speed. As professional teachers of English, we need to be aware of these changes, and also seriously consider their effect on our perspective and teaching of English.

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TEACHING NOTES

Applied Psychology in the ESL Classroom

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Teaching the principles of a specific academic discipline (for example, psychology) gives speakers of other languages an opportunity to practice their English speaking and writing skills while they gain familiarity with the vocabulary and protocol of the taught academic area. They also gain practical knowledge which can be applied to their daily lives. Twenty Japanese University students enrolled in a 6-week course entitled Practical Applications of Psychology   were introduced to basic principles of psychological research and learning theory. Group presentations, class discussion and writing assignments allowed students to practice previously learned English skills and to acquire some discipline-based terminology. A self-modification project included specification of a target behavior and implementation of Skinnerian techniques to alter the behavior. Students reported that the experience provided an opportunity for continued study of the English language and a basis for ongoing study in psychology, as well as enabling them to address behavioral difficulties in their own lives.

The learning of a new language is facilitated when a content-based approach, relative to the learners' interests, is utilized (e.g., Black & Kiehnhoff, 1992; Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Kasper, 1996), regardless of whether the goal is to mainstream the English as a Second Language (ESL) students or to increase their success in the English-speaking classroom (Kasper, 1994; Smoke, 1988; Snow & Brinton, 1988). Introductory Psychology has been paired with ESL classes (e.g., Kasper, 1994; Snow & Brinton, 1988), and is reported to improve the reading comprehension of ESL students relative to students in an unpaired curriculum (Kasper, 1994).

The present report outlines a similar discipline-based approach to ESL students; however, in *this* case one aspect of psychology, Skinnerian learning theory *(e.g.,* Skinner, 1953) and its application to behavior modification, was emphasized. Many students find Skinnerian learning theory intrinsically interesting because of the prevalence of operant learning and multitude of everyday examples, and because it provides a framework for individual self-modification projects that are practically applicable. Choosing one aspect of a discipline enables a greater depth of coverage than is typically *present* in an introductory level course, and emphasizes the cumulative nature of learning wherein initial topics serve as a foundation for later material. Thus, information must be remembered and integrated throughout the term, and "students are asked to become socialized into the culture of the discipline, to use its tools of analysis, and to think like a specialist" (Guyer & Peterson, 1988, p. 96). Such emphasis on meaningful content has been frequently cited as important to the success of ESL students (e.g., Smoke, 1988; Snow & Brinton, 1988). Particularly because many ESL students will require more time than a native speaker to read college-level texts, an instructor might experience difficulty presenting the breadth of a discipline using a traditional survey approach. Given only a six-week time frame, what was lost in breadth *seemed trivial relative* to the advantages of a more focused coverage.

Background

Willamette University's (Salem, Oregon) relationship with Tokyo International University (TIU; Kawagoe, Japan) provides a unique opportunity for Japanese students to live in the United States and to

take content-based and ESL courses from American faculty at TIU of America (TWA; Salem, Oregon). Further, Willamette faculty members are encouraged to bring American students to TIU as part of the Japanese Studies Program, or to participate in exchange programs with TIU faculty. The present report represents my experience as a member of Willamette's Psychology faculty who spent 6 weeks at TIU as part of this faculty exchange program. The course was essentially a *sheltered-course* (Brinton et al., 1989), as it was taught in English to a group of mostly Japanese students at TIU.' No other sheltered courses were offered concurrently.

Student Population

Of the 21 TIU students who enrolled in the course, 18 had spent 10 months at T1UA. Interested students were told that the course would *be* taught in English; thus, they apparently self-selected based on their level of proficiency. No minimum Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores were specified, and the students' TOEFL performance ranged from 447-570.

The Practical Applications of Psychology Course

In the vein of Communicative Language Teaching (Savignon, 1991), I focused on the *learner* and his/her individual communication abilities. My goal was to provide an atmosphere of support and tolerance of mistakes rather than criticism and correction. It seemed useful to maintain an emphasis on what was being expressed rather than how; as Sakamoto and Naotsuka (1982) suggest, Japanese and American styles of communication differ whereby most Americans are more concerned with language content than grammatical structure. Regardless of whether or not this is a valid generalization, it is consistent with my teaching style, where I encourage students to be active participants in class.

' Twenty students were Japanese and one was a student from Turkey.

Receptive learning was incorporated via brief lectures which I typically followed by *productive* activities (Savignon, 1991), such as periods of journal writing during class and homework assignments. In-class writing assignments enabled students to immediately apply lecture material and to formulate short verbal responses to questions. Homework assignments included reading the text and formulating and implementing self-modification plans. Journals and assignments were typically collected during the first meeting and returned during the second meeting of any given week. Consulting dictionaries was always allowed; however, I encouraged students to read the text for content and focus on the overall ideas rather than attempting to understand every word. This weaning process fosters more engagement with the reading (Benesch, 1988). Group presentations were required during two class meetings, and class discussion was always encouraged. To encourage participation by more students, smaller group discussions were facilitated by dividing the class in half, with one group led by me and the other by my teaching assistant (TA). [2] Thus, writing and speaking in English were continually required. Although students probably used Japanese while they worked on their group presentations and discussed their individual projects, I discouraged this behavior during our class meetings.

No prior exposure to psychology was assumed. The required text, *Practical Applications of Psychology* (Grasha, 1995), is a more thorough introduction to the field than was manageable during this 6-week course; thus, students were told that a few chapters would provide our focus and would hopefully inspire and enable them to study the text more completely on their own time.

The following represents an outline of the included topics and the resources from which lecture material and exercises were drawn.

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[2] A TIU student who had studied at TIUA and who then transferred to Willamette to obtain a BA in psychology was paid to assist me with the class, including structuring some activities, serving as liaison between the administrative staff and myself, and tutoring students as needed.

Student readings were primarily in the Grasha (1995) text. Sample assignments may be found in Appendix 1.

I.   *Potential cultural barriers*   (Sakamoto & Naotsuka, 1982, pp. 54-58).

II. *The science of psychology* (Grasha, 1995, Ch. 2).

III. *Using the science of psychology: An experiment on ourselves via behavior modOcadon*   (Grasha, 1995, Ch. 5).

IV. *Practical concerns including implementation problems*   (Grasha, 1995, Ch. 5 continued; Watson & Tharp, 1993, pp. 302-303).

V.   *The role of stress and its relevance to self-modification*   (Grasha, 1995, Ch. 8); *Contingency traps* (Baum, 1994); and *Stress-reducing techniques*   (see reviews in Bishop, 1994; Watson & Tharp, 1993).

Results and Conclusions

The situation was not conducive to an empirical analysis of language improvement. However, based on criteria that others have used to assess content-based ESL courses (Brinton et al., 1989), the Practical Applications of Psychology course was apparently a success. Specifically, *responses to questions [3] at* the end of the class were generally positive (see Appendix 2); there was very minimal *attrition* (only 1 of 21 students dropped out of the class, and he withdrew after the first class meeting, probably because of a perceived lack of English proficiency); *measures of student progress*   included self-reports of progress in individual projects, performance on the final exam[4] (mean = 86%), and overall points acquired on the in-class and homework assignments (mean = 88%). Further, 100% of the students who

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[3] In this section, italics denote program evaluation measures described by Brinton et al. (1989, pp. 53-54).

[4] See Appendix 3.

completed the course received passing grades. An obvious measure of *confidence,* or a *readiness to use English is* the subsequent enrollment of TIU students at Willamette University. In fact, two out of 20 (10%) of the students in my Practical Applications of Psychology course transferred to Willamette for the subsequent fall term, and one indicated that he planned to come the following year. As Brinton et al. (1989) suggest, this may reflect how *sheltered* courses provide a transition between "the second language classroom into the 'real world' of second language use" (p. 54).

Interestingly, a few of the students chose English language practice and improvement as their behavioral modification projects. The specific manifestation varied, with one student increasing the amount of time she studied English, another increasing the amount of American radio and television listening and viewing, and another focusing on frequency of English use in everyday conversation. Other projects tended to focus on habit modification (e.g., reduce or quit smoking, reduce junk food consumption, reduce time on the telephone or shopping and increase study time). Part of the assignment included record-keeping of the frequency of the behavior and any changes over the course of the project. It was frequently emphasized that the strategies being taught could not be expected to achieve the desired effect in such a short period of time. Students were reminded to view this as an ongoing monitoring and altering of their behavior, and that *any* behavior could be amenable to this approach. In that sense, I am hopeful that they learned to learn" about their own patterns and potentials.

This illustration of a strategy for incorporating principles of a specific discipline in an ESL classroom provides a foundation for future research which should quantify the extent to which language facility is enhanced by such an experience. It seems particularly valuable in its focus on the individual student and provision of strategies to address his/her behavioral challenges. While my focus was on the application of one theoretical framework within psychology, this approach could be adapted to other subdisciplines within psychology or any other academic discipline where clear theoretical models underlie the broader disciplinary orientation. One obvious application is evolutionary theory as a framework for the study of a specific aspect of biology (ecology

or physiology, for example), although evolutionary theory would be just as applicable to social or comparative psychology. Additionally, teams consisting of ESL and specialty instructors would enrich students' learning. For example, the "adjunct" approach advocated by Guyer and Peterson (1988) wherein an ESL teacher attends the content lecture and then meets with students for "work in listening comprehension, vocabulary development, critical reading, note-taking, library work, writing practice, and class discussion" (p. 97) is ideal when resources allow. The course herein described was clearly developed for use in higher education, but I believe it would be easily adaptable for advanced secondary students as well.

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Appendix 1

Assignment #2: Getting to know my expectations.

Please read about the Japanese student in America (Sakamoto & Naotsuka, 1982, pp. 54-58) and answer the following questions based on what you read. Record your answers in your journal. We will discuss your answers during our next class meeting.

1. What surprised the Japanese student in America? Why?

2. If you don't express an opinion, what does the author think that would mean to me or another American?

3. What would the author suggest that _you_ do in this class so that I'll think highly of you?

4. The purpose of this assignment was to think about the different expectations we might have of each other. Do you have any questions about my expectations of you?

5. What are your expectations of me or of this course?

Assignment #5: Chapter 5. Modifying our behaviors.

The purpose of this assignment is to identify a specific behavior that you would like to change. The behavior may be something that's unhealthy (for example, smoking or eating too much junk food), or that is interfering with your life in some way (for example, not being able to study effectively because of specific distractions). The next few weeks of this course will focus on techniques for correcting such behaviors.

First, read pages 165-170 (Grasha, 1995). Don't worry too much about unfamiliar words. Just try to get the general idea.

Second, think of a specific behavior that you want to increase or decrease.

Assignment #6: Chapter 5. continued.

First, read pages 170-175 (Grasha, 1995).

Second, list short- and long- term benefits and disadvantages to changing the behavior.

Third, identify the situations in which the behavior occurs *(antecedent stimuli),* and the situations that may "tempt" you to engage in that behavior.

Fourth, decide how you're going to *measure* the behavior, and how you'll monitor its change.

Fifth, begin recording the *frequency* of the behavior to determine your baseline. You may want to get a small notebook that's handy to keep with you. Thus, you can record the behavior immediately.

Appendix 2

Student comments	Number of students mentioning this aspect
Utility of self-modification project; application to daily life	14
Liked class structure, specifically	
group project and discussion	2
emphasis on communication	1
lecture	3
Practice, progress of English skills	3
Altered perception of psychology	2
Provision of basis or interest in further study	3
Atmosphere of class (difference from Japanese classes)	2
Textbook	
helped understanding	I
theoretical and difficult or too much to read	2
Amount of material covered (I appreciated, 1 disliked)	2
"Thank you" for various aspects of the course	12

Appendix 3

Final Exam: Practical Applications of Psychology

Read each question carefully and answer specifically and in detail. However, do not write more than oneyaraaraph for each question! It might help to write a brief outline of the main points you want to make, and then fill in the details. Pay attention to the number of points that each question is worth, and *plan your time accordingly.*

1.   "This *English as a Second Language* review course is guaranteed to raise your total scores an average of 50 points higher than your last ESL scores." If you heard this assertion on TV, would you believe it? Explain why or why not and provide at least 3 reasons. (3 points)

2.   Imagine that when your friend enters his living room, he turns on the TV and then walks into the kitchen to get a snack. Then, he sits down, lights *a* cigarette, and eats. This behavior pattern continues late into the evening, and eventually he discovers that there is little time left in the day to study. What advice would you *give* your friend for changing this behavior? List at *least 7 specific things* that he should do to increase his chances of being successful.   *(7* points)

3.   Describe the *positive and negative* consequences of stress. Do you think your experience of stress is *mostly* positive or negative? Why? Using what you've learned about self-modification, how could you change your negative experience of stress to make it mostly positive? (4 points)

BOOK REVIEWS

Teachers as Authors and Researchers in Linguistically Diverse Classrooms

Gisela Ernst-Slavit
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The Inner World of the Immigrant Child. **Cristina Igoa. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1995. Pp. 218. $19.50. ISBN 0-8058-8013-5.**

Inventing a Classroom: Life in a Bilingual-Whole Language Learning Community. **Kathryn Whitmore and Caryl G. Crowell. York, MI: Stenhouse Publishers, 1994. Pp. 274. $18.50. ISBN 1-57110-002-4.**

Crossroads: Literature and Language in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Classrooms. **Carole Cox and Paul Boyd-Batstone. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1997. Pp. 201. $34.00. ISBN 0-13-191578-9.**

Gisela Ernst-Slavit, a past president of WAESOL, is an Associate Professor at Washington State University where she heads the Bilingual/ESL Program. Her areas of interest include teacher education and sociolinguistic and ethnographic research in linguistically diverse settings.

Three recent books illustrate the benefits of having teachers systematically describe and research their philosophical assumptions and pedagogy in linguistically diverse classrooms—whether they are bilingual, ESL or mainstream. All three books bring together the *voices* of teachers and students as they struggle to adjust to radically new classroom settings. They are all authored or coauthored by classroom teachers working with English as a second language (ESL) students; all invite readers to take a front row seat as the authors present longitudinal portraits of students, teachers, events, and settings; all make strong connections between pedagogical practices and guiding theoretical perspectives; and all suggest that teachers need to become researchers if they are going to meet the needs of linguistically diverse students. *The Inner World of the Immigrant Child* by Cristina Igoa, *Crossroads: Literature and Language in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Classrooms* by Carole Cox and Paul Boyd-Batstone, and *Inventing a Classroom: Life in a Bilingual-Whole Language Learning Community* by Kathryn Whitmore and Caryl G. Crowell all present a hopeful picture of what can be accomplished when elementary and middle school teachers become learners of their students and researchers of their own praxis able to move back and forth between theoretical and practical dimensions. It is my hope, by juxtaposing these three texts, to bring each into a sharper focus, resulting in a vivid picture of exemplary and inspiring classroom practices, a truthful illustration of the power of dialogue and reflection and a clear image of the central role played by the caring relationships between teachers and students in fostering academic achievement and student success.

Understanding Immigrant Children

Cristina Igoa's *The Inner World of the Immigrant Child* paints the story of one teacher's challenges as she attempts to understand the inner world of the immigrant children in her classroom and to create a learning environment responsive to her students' feelings and needs. Igoa presents the voices and artwork of her students to portray the immigrant experiences of uprooting, culture shock, and adjustment to a new culture and language. She vividly describes the kinds of cultural, academic, and psychological interventions that facilitate learning as immigrant students make the transition to a new environment.

The first of two sections of this book, entitled "Understanding the Needs and Feelings of Immigrant Students," discuss the experiences of her recently arrived immigrant students at the Center, an ESL program developed by Igoa. The Center is a comfortable and safe learning environment for students where they can express some of the feelings of frustration, confusion, anxiety, and isolation that accompany the experiences of immigrant students. In chapter 1, Igoa does an outstanding job of describing the inner world of ESL students as they journey through the silent period—a period she calls an "incubation period." Chapter 2 discusses the phenomenon of uprooting and the mixed emotions that characterize the trajectory of those who leave their families and homes in search of new opportunities in distant lands. The intense feelings of exhaustion and loneliness that accompany the immigrant experience are vividly depicted in the filmstrips developed by her students. Chapter 3 presents the voices of Igoa and her students as they look back at their experiences in and out of school. As part of her doctoral dissertation research at the University of San Francisco, Igoa interviewed five of her students four years after they had left her classroom. Later she interviewed them again, when they were in their mid twenties. This brief but powerful update allows readers to follow the trajectory of five immigrant students from their early years in Igoa's Center until they are young adults.

In the second section of the book, "Teaching Immigrant Students," lgoa, now armed with her doctoral degree, takes readers on a one-year journey in her sheltered English program. Since Igoa has the children all day, every day, in her classroom, readers are able to follow how she establishes trust with her students and how she assesses what students already have and what they will need to learn in order to succeed in their new schools and communities. More specifically, chapter 4 explains in detail how lgoa applies her "dialogic intervention." Through this intervention Igoa is able to address the feelings of the immigrant child through the development of close relationships and continuous dialogue between the child and the teacher. Igoa explains how this role as mediator allows her to "respond to individual students' cultural, academic, and psychological needs and concerns" (p. 117). The following two chapters, "Schoolwork" and "Cultural Continuity" display Igoa's outstanding work as teacher-researcher as she engages in inspiring dialogic interviews with her fifth and sixth graders, in creative instructional practices, and in holistic

assessment procedures in order to address the needs of her immigrant students. This process is, as expected, long and not without pain, and requires major efforts from Igoa and her ESL students.

While this book is packed with vivid descriptions, inspiring narratives and painful journeys, it is occasionally repetitive and bogged down in minutiae unnecessary for making an argument. Despite this minor concern, *The Inner World of the Immigrant Student* is excellent reading for both new and veteran teachers who are faced with increasingly diverse classrooms. It offers valuable information about the psychology of the immigrant child, about how to bridge the gap with their families, and about powerful and relevant teaching methodologies.

Becoming a Community of Learners

inventing a Classroom: Life in a Bilingual-Whole Language Learning Community by Kathryn Whitmore and Caryl G. Crowell reveals Dewey's "essence of educational theory" through the events and relationships in a third-grade bilingual whole language classroom. The authors suggest that "during the process of becoming a community of learners, a whole language classroom invents itself" (p. 5).

The book is based on research carried out by Whitmore in Crowell's third-grade class at Horton Primary Magnet School while Whitmore was a doctoral candidate at the University of Arizona. Together, Whitmore and Crowell record and analyze "critical events" that illustrate the nature and successes of Crowell's whole-language third-grade classroom. Their collaboration is also evident in the way this volume was written: in two voices. Perhaps it is more accurate to say in three voices since Whitmore uses two voices (her outsider voice narrates the events and her second voice analyzes events in relation to theoretical perspectives) and Crowell's insider's voice extends the analysis by adding her interpretation.

The book is divided into eight chapters. Chapter 1 functions as an introduction and presents an overview of authors, research context and book content; chapter 2 transports readers directly to the Sunshine Room (named by its original class), where readers can meet the

teachers, school staff members and the children. Chapter 3 opens with a detailed description of the events that transpire during the morning of the first day of school in the Sunshine Room. This chapter also illustrates how Crowell negotiates the curriculum with her students during the first week of each new year. Some of Dewey's philosophical tenets (e.g., symmetric power, trust, authenticity, additive bilingualism), which are apparent in Crowell's practice, are discussed at the end of this chapter. Chapter 4 provides rich description of the Sunshine Room and how literacy instruction is organized. It reviews typical routines during the literacy block, a daily period of time during which children and adults focus on oral and written language events. Vivid narratives describe the DEAR (Drop Everything and Read) program, written language events, and literature events. Chapter 5 depicts vignettes and narratives about children talking, reading and writing about Cinderella and other fairy tales and, by doing so, illustrates how the children and their teacher in the Sunshine Room develop a meaningful curriculum during a theme study about the Middle Ages. Chapter 6 includes a dramatic talk between children and teacher, triggered by the military confrontations in the Middle East, about the world, war, peace, and literature. The richness of the dialogue illustrates the power of children's owns questions and the need to provide spaces for talk and interaction in the school setting. Chapter 7 depicts a fascinating bilingual and bicultural relationship between two of Crowell's students: Seaaira, a monolingual English-speaking middle-class girl, and Lolita, a Spanish-English bilingual girl who lives in the barrio in which Norton school is located. The last chapter of the book summarizes the authors' collaborative journey and suggests possible avenues for other teachers/researchers to consider.

Throughout the book it is easy for a reader to observe that a bilingual whole-language classroom is not different from most whole-language classrooms or programs designed for monolingual classrooms. This similarity between monolingual and bilingual whole-language classrooms is perhaps the most powerful message in the book. Unfortunately, on some occasions the overemphasis on details and explanations detracts from the substance of the event or the depth of the analysis.

In sum, Whitmore's and Crowell's book offers rich descriptions of a collaborative endeavor between a teacher and a researcher as they

carefully analyze what transpires in Crowell's third-grade bilingual classroom. It also allows readers to comfortably witness, rather than just imagine, the myriad of possibilities for enhancing students' learning that emerge when whole-language pedagogy is carefully and systematically implemented in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms.

Literature and Language Learning

Crossroads: Literature and Language in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Classrooms is an exploration of the crossroads of reader-response and second language acquisition theories and research as a foundation for practice. The authors, Carole Cox and Paul Boyd-Batstone, a college professor and a third-grade bilingual classroom teacher, have managed to provide richly detailed descriptions of how the blend of theoretical perspectives enhances pedagogical practice.

The book is neatly partitioned into three sections, with Part 1 presenting a literature-based, response-centered approach to language development; Part 2 describing theories of language and literacy development, progress in school, and responses to literature of three children from kindergarten through fifth grade; and Part 3, mostly written by Boyd-Batstone, presenting his reflections and analyses of his own practice in a bilingual third-grade classroom.

Chapter 1 covers Cox's first observation of Boyd-Batstone's classroom at a time when he was having trouble helping his students participate during literature analysis. The problem was that Boyd-Batstone's lesson plans--although written with sensitivity to students' needs as he worked to extend their understanding of literature through songs, art projects, or poems—were forcing children to analyze literature from a rigid, linear path of "setting," "problem," and "characters." After exchanging books such as Louise Rosenblatt's first book, *Literature as Personal Exploration* (1983), Ken Goodman's *What's Whole in Whole Language* (1986) and *Schooling and Language Minority Children: A Theoretical Framework* (1981) by the California State Department of Education, they began to apply Rosenblatt's

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transactional theories in Boyd-Batstone's third-grade bilingual Spanish-English classroom.

Chapter 2 outlines the important points in reader-response theory (e.g., how reading is a transaction between the reader and the text, how an aesthetic stance taken by the reader can engender intrinsic motivation) and second language acquisition theory (e.g., teaching methodologies, Cummin's notions of context-embedded versus context-reduced communication). Chapter 3 uses the intersection of the theories explored in the previous chapter to illustrate how a transactional approach to literature will work with children who are learning English as their second language. For that purpose, the authors compare and contrast two ways of teaching with literature: one is a text-centered lesson from a basal reader using the story "Anna Banana," and the other is a response-centered literature group using the book *Encounter* by Jane Yolden. The chapter ends with an example of Cox's content-integration with literature based-instruction and a discussion of literature and second language literacy.

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 each consist of a case study of a child engaged in literature response. The three students, all part of Cox's longitudinal study, are at different levels of English proficiency. One child is a native English speaker, one a bilingual student fluent in English and Spanish, and one a native Spanish speaker. Together, these three chapters present children as unique individuals who come to school with differing backgrounds and home influences, languages and literacies, and patterns of response to literature. Sadly, however, not all children will have the same opportunities to engage in literacy activities that will nurture and allow them to grow as literacy beings.

Chapters 7 and 8, in Section 3, authored by Boyd-Batstone, depict how reader-response looks in action in a bilingual third-grade classroom. Chapter 7 illustrates how reader-response requires a shift in the role of the teacher from that of the primary transmitter of knowledge to that of co-learner in a student-centered setting; Chapter 8 discusses the various components of response-centered instruction, including preparation and planning for the literature cycle. Section 3 ends with a brief discussion about word processing and authoring tools software for young children.

As in Whitmore and Crowell's book, *Crossroads* also offers rich and insightful dialogues between Cox and Boyd-Batstone in relation to classroom events or educational theory and practice. This strength, however, is also a weakness, since the two voice text and the dialogical nature of the book do not allow for the fluidity that characterizes single-voice texts. Furthermore, in a text of this nature, it seems unavoidable to have some repetition and reiteration of points and issues. In spite of these caveats, *Crossroads* provides innovative ideas about teaching with literature in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms. By discussing everyday events in a third-grade bilingual classroom, the authors make readers familiar with both reader-response theory and practice, and basic aspects of second language acquisition.

A Major Contribution

These three books contribute to the literature on the education of linguistically and culturally diverse students in several significant ways. Among an increasing number of volumes describing classroom practices in an intimate and systematic way, these three books stand out. They forcefully address teachers' issues and concerns in today's diverse classrooms; they are authored or coauthored by classroom teachers; they are scholarly in terms of guiding premises but miraculously low in educational jargon, and highly readable, engaging, truthful, and inspirational. Collectively, these three books allow readers to witness real, engaging classrooms, where diversity is not viewed as a problem but as an asset.

A Place for Grammar Instruction in the ESL Writing Classroom

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Under the Grammar Hammer: The 25 Most Important Grammar Mistakes and How to Avoid Them. **Douglas Cazort. Los Angeles: Lowell House, 1997. Pp. 124. $14.00. ISBN 1-56565-647-4 paperback.**

Grammar and the Teaching of Writing: Limits and Possibilities. **Rei R. Noguchi. National Council of Teachers of English, 1991. Pp. 127. $12.95. ISBN 0-8141-1874-7 paperback.**

Linda Greer is a faculty member in the Developmental Studies Department at Linn-Benton Community College, Albany, Oregon. She is also a past faculty member of Tarsus American School, Tarsus, Turkey, and of Big Bend Community College, Overseas in Baumholder, Germany. She now teaches often during summer at Oregon State University's English Language Institute.

No, *Under the Grammar Hammer* and *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing* do not mark a return to grammar-based instruction. However, I would like to tell you what these books, predicated on teaching writing to native English speakers, mean to TESL professionals. Let me begin by saying that Cazort's mild-mannered, tongue-in-cheek romp through the bare essentials of English grammar in his handbook *Under the Grammar Hammer* mirrors many of the concepts of Rei R. Noguchi, an associate professor of English at California State University at Northridge, as expressed in *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing,* a book written to prompt writing teachers to evaluate the place of grammar in the writing classroom, the extent to which grammar should be taught, and which aspects of grammar should be taught.

Under the Grammar Hammer has been marketed as a general purpose handbook for adults who wish to write well, and writing teachers who enjoy *Under the Grammar Hammer* have adopted it as a handbook for some composition classes at Pepperdine University, the University of Southern California, the University of California at Irvine, and Lane Community College and Linn-Benton Community College in Oregon. *Under the Grammar Hammer* has also been adopted as a handbook for a business supervision course at Linn-Benton Community College.

Grammar and the Teaching of Writing, on the other hand, is not a handbook. It is a book about grammar as grammar applies to the teaching of writing, and, as a scholarly text, *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing* directs itself to writing teachers. *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing* uses error analysis as a part of its method of determining the errors college students make and couples this with an attitude survey to assess which of these errors is truly important to the people most likely to evaluate writing in the working world after these students graduate from college. Neither book is written for TESL teachers, but many TESL writing teachers will find the least grammar approach of both books very appealing.

Grammar and the Teaching of Writing is a slim 127 page book organized in six chapters covering

The Limits of Grammar in Writing Improvement; The Basics
of a Writer's Grammar, Teaching the Basics of a Writer's
Grammar; Run-ons, Comma Splices, and Native Speaker
Abilities; Fragments and Beyond; and The Paradoxes of
Grammar Instruction. (p. v)

Noguchi discusses the historical background of punctuation, relating
that earlier conventions relied on "the necessity of breathing, and, later,
more on meaning and rhetorical effect" (p. 71). Perhaps, then, errors
that writers make based on infusing their speaking style into their
writing style are closer to earlier grammatical traditions, where these
errors might not have been seen as errors at all. Our present view of
what makes a written sentence a sentence relies not on converting
speaking style into written style, but on learning that, in writing,
sentence boundaries are based on clause units. Native speakers
learning to write are indeed learning a new language: language in its
written form.

In addition to his discussion of native speakers acquiring writing
sensibilities, Noguchi analyzes two studies, one by Hairston (1981)
and another by Connors and Lunsford (1988), to approach the topic:
what is a serious grammatical error? The Hairston study is a survey
of attitudes toward writing that included as respondents

business executives, attorney, state legislator, computer
program designer, architect, travel agency owner, county
commissioner, bank president, newspaper columnist, realtor,
oil company president, stock broker, federal judge, state
educational commissioner ... (p. 24)

in short, likely future employers of college graduates. Noguchi perused
the Conners-Lunsford study, which tabulated the markings made by
teachers on graded college essays. Errors teachers frequently marked
indicated to Noguchi the "most frequently occurring formal and
mechanical errors" (p. 21) made by college students. By comparing
the two studies, Noguchi is able to speculate about which errors are
both frequently occurring and significant to the marketplace that college
graduates are entering. In the writing classroom, Noguchi suggests
emphasizing a minimal set of categories of grammatical structures that
he uses these studies to help determine.

Under the Grammar Hammer also offers a view of grammar in the final chapter that asks writers and teachers to look again at the existing system of grammar rules and to simplify them. It is this attitude in *Under the Grammar Hammer,* this thumbing the nose at grammar, that makes it possible for the average reader, turned off by school years filled with red marks on his or her writing, to accept Cazort's grammar advice. He places himself rhetorically outside of the teacher's role and presents himself as just another one of us average writers perplexed by all the terminology of grammar. This 124-page book, written for the trade market, appeals to the average reader.

Douglas Cazort's *Under the Grammar Hammer* is a very interesting little, as opposed to big and scary, handbook, and the slimness of *Under the Grammar Hammer* is one of its appealing aspects. A book of grammar never looked less intimidating. This latest edition retains the breezy style and the Cazort wit of the first edition, while including more grammar than the first edition (but not too much!). Cazort provides fledgling writers with *Rules of Thumb,* complete with a picture of a thumbs-up thumb. One of my favorite *Rules of Thumb* from Cazort's book is "Write first; edit later" (p. 80). This maxim suits me as both a writer and a composition teacher. I follow this advice myself and share it with students who have difficulty putting words on a page and who need to just write before getting it right.

Under the Grammar Hammer has a distinctly American flavor international students will appreciate. For example, readers will note that *Cazort* obviously enjoys baseball as he refers to grammar errors as "bad swings" and titles correct examples "direct hits." *Under the Grammar Hammer, with* its cartoons and light-heartedness, offers erudite insights into the social value of grammar, such as grammar's role as a marker for social class inclusion. Cazort writes, "When we hear people say 'we was' or 'he don't,' we consider them uneducated, `lower class,' or even criminal" (p. 30). We are advised to watch our language to keep out of the "grammar slammer" (p. 30).

The use of colloquialisms like "slammer" makes *Under the Grammar Hammer* a useful tool for learning how Americans use language. *Under the Grammar Hammer* advises us to "shout it out" on a couple of occasions. When you aren't sure how to pronounce a

word, you should "shout it out," or as Cazort says, "When in doubt, shout it out!" (p. 108). We are advised also, when children ask us how to spell a word, "Don't say, 'Look it up.' If you know the correct spelling, shout it out! Writing is hard enough for most kids, and anything that makes it harder will make them hate it" (p. 104). The language in *Under the Grammar Hammer* is informal, which should create a teachable moment for discussing style, and the style in this book is low-key and breezy.

Further evidence of the slap-happy styling of *Under the Grammar Hammer* is found in the goofy cartoons Cazort peppers his book with, such as the one of a cat, labeled verb, who is creeping up on a bird, while a dog is preparing to bite off the tail of the verb-cat (p. 82). This cartoon illustrates Cazort's view that verbs may lose their tails when writers drop -ed or -s endings. Another cartoon shows a contraction-o-matic machine with a workman pouring in whole words on one side as contractions pour out the other side of the machine so that "it is" is converted to "it's" (p. 64). Cartoons are one of the best aspects of this amusing little book, where cartoons abound, appearing on about one page in three throughout the first 10 chapters of this 11-chapter book. In one cartoon, Cazort pictures a stinking, fly-covered cow next to a sweet-looking, butterfly-attracting flower to make a point about dangling modifiers. The words "Fragrant and beautiful," hover above the cartoon cow. A cartoon cowboy has roped "Fragrant and beautiful," and is pulling the words away from the reeking, odorous cow toward the lovely, fresh flower, making the point pictorially that adjectives need to be nearest to the words they modify. Cazort's cartoons would make excellent overheads to enliven class discussion of many usually dry aspects of grammar (p. 66).

Meanwhile, Cazort blissfully ignores composition theory by choosing as his audience a native-English-speaking Everyman, a writing layman who only seeks to appear educated with the least exposure to formal grammar possible. He does ask us in his final chapter to "admit that certain aspects of our 'program' of grammar, punctuation, and usage don't work very well for many of our writers" (p. 115). Again, what has that to do with TESL? TESL professionals and the authors of the books reviewed here have a shared goal because both TESL

professionals and these two authors envision composition teaching techniques that are grounded as minimally as possible in grammar.

Fundamental to both *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing* and *Under the Grammar Hammer is a view* that student writers already know something about grammar. As TESL teachers, we must consider whether what students know about their native grammar generalizes to English grammar, an issue neither Cazort nor Noguchi addresses. Neither Noguchi nor Cazort concerns himself with language acquisition so much as with the relationship between grammar and writing. Noguchi, the theorist, posits that there is an overlap between grammar and composition teaching. In TESL, the swing away from grammar-translation sometimes overlooks such an overlap. Both of these books, Noguchi's *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing* and Cazort's *Under the Grammar Hammer,* recoil from grammar-based composition instruction. At the same time, they allow for the necessity of teaching students to appear intelligent and articulate through their writing, even if that means teaching some essential grammar.

It is Noguchi who provides insights about which elements of grammar are essential to composition teaching while Cazort, in chapter four of *Under the Grammar Hammer:* "More Adventures in Terminology: How to Operate and Read the Grammometer," presents a method for approaching sentence fragments and run-ons that is straight out of Noguchi's theories as expressed in *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing: Limits and Possibilities.* Chapter four's Grammometer is Cazort's device for determining the presence of a sentence. Cazort suggests, based on Noguchi's model, that tag questions help identify good sentences. For example, is this a sentence: "For some people, grammar is a four letter word" (p. 14). To find out, try adding a tag question: "For some people, grammar is a four-letter word, isn't it" (p. 14)? The idea behind the tag is to tap into our language sense to locate the subject and verb through our feel for language, our innate sense of structure. Thus, Noguchi provides the theoretical basis, while Cazort translates this scholarly view into a layman's handbook.

Cazort generated his writing from the same two studies that fueled Noguchi's writing in *Grammar and the Teaching of Writing: Limits and*

Possibilities. One of these studies is the 1988 study by Robert J. Connors and Andrea A. Lunsford, "Frequency of Formal Errors in Current College Writing," or "Ma and Pa Kettle Do Research" presented in *College Composition and Communication.* Noguchi uses this study to identify the errors that writing teachers find significant. Noguchi determined that the errors that Connors and Lunsford identified in their study fell into categories. Noguchi reports that "All told, sentence or clause boundary errors constitute seven out of the top twenty stylistic errors and four out of the top ten stylistic errors in the Connors-Lunsford study" (Noguchi, 1991, p. 21). Noguchi concludes from this that students can avoid most stylistic errors by having "a solid working knowledge of what constitutes a sentence or main clause" (p. 22).

The other study forming Noguchi's view that the least grammar should be used to teach composition is the 1981 study by Maxine Hairston that surveyed which errors do or do not bother professional people. Hairston concluded that students should be taught that surface features of language do matter to the very important audience of potential future employers. Noguchi does not, in his least grammar approach, propose that grammar not be taught at all.

However, like other language theorists, Noguchi feels that students already possess a sense of language. As an EFL/ESL teacher I found his ideas tweaked my curiosity as I sought to extrapolate from Noguchi's theory to second language acquisition, where this innate sense of language structure can be both a hindrance (through second language interference) and a blessing (through the second language learner's acceptance of syntactic structure).

Linguists, composition teachers, and ESL teachers will enjoy both of the books reviewed here: one highly scholarly and documented *(Grammar and the Teaching of Writing: Limits and Possibilities* by Rei R. Noguchi) and the other a light-hearted romp through grammar that often mirrors the scholarly work of Rei R. Noguchi *(Under the Grammar Hammer* by Douglas Cazort). Rei R. Noguchi is an associate professor of English at California State University at Northridge. Douglas Cazort has taught composition at the University of Southern California, San Diego State, California State at Northridge, and at

Linn-Benton Community College in Albany, Oregon, where he is now a counselor and a colleague of mine. I encourage composition faculty to read both books and find fresh new approaches to grammar and composition.

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