

Japanese Language Education Toward the 21st Century

Proceedings of
Eleventh Annual Conference of the
Central Association of Teachers of
Japanese (CATJ)

April 16-17, 1999
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan

Edited by:
Motoko Tabuse

Sponsored by:
AAS Northeast Asia Council (NEAC)
The Japan Foundation & Language Center in Los Angeles (JFLCLA)
The Japan Business Society of Detroit (JBSD)

21
世紀
の
日
本
語
教
育
展
望

All Rights Reserved

Copyright © 1999

Eleventh Annual Central Association of Teachers of Japanese Conference

CONTENTS

Program

Introduction

Motoko Tabuse	1
---------------------	---

I. Paper Presentations

Implications of Brain-Based Language Acquisition

Bridget Dean	7
--------------------	---

Do Motivations and Aptitude Influence the Japanese Proficiency of American Students?

Takayuki Nishimata	13
--------------------------	----

Efficacy of Attention to Form: Explicit Grammar Teaching vs. Input Enhancement

Mariko Moroishi	21
-----------------------	----

The VICTORY System: Interacting with Video in Language Learning

Atsushi Fukada	41
----------------------	----

Development of Kanji Character Frequency List and Its Application on WWW: Java Kanji Flashcard 500

Nobuko Chikamatsu	54
-------------------------	----

A Study of the Speech Act Sets of Learners of Japanese as a Second Languages: Expression of Gratitude

Miki Motohashi	62
----------------------	----

The Effectiveness of Study Abroad to Japan

Hamako Furuhata	92
-----------------------	----

Communicative Environments for Japanese Learners in a Japanese Community: Are Our Students Prepared for the "Real World"?

Tomoko Watanabe Traphagan	106
---------------------------------	-----

Japanese as a Heritage Language: Towards Additive Bilinguals as Human Resources

Hitomi Oketani-Lobbezoo	128
-------------------------------	-----

II. Joint Keynote Speeches

Past, Present, and Future of the Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ) Laurel Rasplica Rodd	140
Past, Present, and Future of the National Council of the Japanese Language Teachers (NCJLT) Jessica Lee Thorrott	

III State/Regional Reports

Janet Akaike-Toste, Missouri/Kansas Association of Teachers of Japanese	176
Takuo Kinoshita, Illinois Association of Teachers of Japanese	180
Melisia Taylor, Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan	184
Sadatoshi Tomizawa, Association of Indiana Teachers of Japanese	186
Kazuo Tsuda, Northeast Association of Secondary Teachers of Japanese	190

IV. Appendix

List of Participants	198
----------------------------	-----

THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)

Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan (JTAM)
Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan
April 16-17, 1999

FRIDAY, APRIL 16th (Conference Room A)

5:30 p.m. Registration and coffee

5:45 p.m. Opening remarks
Motoko Tabuse, Eastern Michigan University, CATJ
Conference Organizer

Midori Savage, Farmington Elementary School, Vice
President, Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan

Paper Presentations--I

- 6:00-6:25 p.m. "Brain-Based Foreign Language Learning: The Multiple Intelligences"
Bridget Dean, Farmington Public Schools, Farmington, MI
- 6:25-6:50 p.m. "Explicit vs. Implicit Learning: The Case of Acquisition of the Japanese
Conjectural Auxiliaries"
Mariko Moroishi, Purdue University, IN
- 6:50-7:15 p.m. "Do Motivations and Aptitude Influence the Japanese Proficiency of American
Students?"
Takayuki Nishimata, Salem-Teikyo University, WV
- 7:15-7:30 p.m. Break

Paper Presentations --II

- 7:30-7:55 p.m. "The VICTORY System: Interacting with Video in Language Learning"
Atsushi Fukada, Purdue University, IN
- 7:55-8:20 p.m. "Development of Kanji Character Frequency List and Its Application on
WWW: Java Kanji Flashcard 500"
Nobuko Chikamatsu, DePaul University, IL
Steve Ryner, DePaul University, IL

SATURDAY, APRIL 17th (Conference Room A)

- 8:00 a.m. Registration and light breakfast
- 8:25 a.m. Welcoming remarks
John Hubbard, Chair, Eastern Michigan University, Department
of Foreign Languages & Bilingual Studies

Paper Presentations--III

- 8:30-8:55 a.m. "A Study of the Speech Act Sets of Learners of Japanese as a Second Language: Expression of Gratitude"
Miki Motohashi, University of Wisconsin, WI
- 8:55-9:20 a.m. "The Effect of Study Abroad to Japan"
Hamako Furuhashi, Mount Union College, OH
- 9:20-9:45 a.m. "Communicative Environment for Japanese Learners in a Japanese Community: Are Our Students Prepared for the 'Real World'?"
Tomoko Traphagan, University of Pittsburgh, PA
- 9:45-10:10 a.m. "Japanese as a Heritage Language: Towards Additive Bilinguals for Human Resources"
Hitomi Oketani-Lobbezoo, Eastern Michigan University, MI
- 10:10-10:25 a.m. Break
- 10:25-11:25 a.m. Joint Keynote Speech I: Past and Present of ATJ & NCJLT
Laurel Rasplica Rodd, President of the Association of Teachers of Japanese
Jessica Thurrott, President of the National Council of Japanese Language Teachers (NCJLT), formerly known as the National Council of the Secondary Teachers of Japanese (NCSTJ)
- 11:25-12:45 p.m. Lunch (Golf Dining Room 1 & 2)
- 12:45-1:45 p.m. Joint Keynote Speech II: Future of ATJ & NCJLT
Laurel Rasplica Rodd, President, Association of Teachers of Japanese
Jessica Thurrott, President, National Council of the Japanese Language Teachers
- 1:45-3:45 p.m. Regional Reports of the Japanese language associations:
Janet Akaike-Toste, Missouri Association of Teachers of Japanese
Takuo Kinoshita, Illinois Association of Teachers of Japanese
Melisia Taylor, Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
Sadatoshi Tomizawa, Association of Indiana Teachers of Japanese
Kazuo Tsuda, Northeast Association of Secondary Teachers of Japanese
- 3:45-3:55 p.m. Break
- 3:55-4:45 p.m. Small Group discussion and report
"Future of Japanese Language Education"
- 4:45 p.m. Business meeting

This conference is sponsored by the grants from the Japan Business Society of Detroit, Association for Asian Studies Northeast Association Council (NEAC), and the Japan Foundation & Language Center at Los Angeles.

Introduction

The Eleventh Annual Central Association of Teachers of Japanese Conference was held at the Eastern Michigan Corporate Education Center in Ypsilanti, Michigan on April 16 and 17, 1999. Seventy-five people participated in the conference: three teachers came from elementary schools, two teachers from middle schools and eleven from high schools. A couple of people taught at adult education programs, and the rest (fifty seven people) were college-level instructors, students, and administrators.

This year for the first time, the conference was jointly hosted by the Japanese section of the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies at Eastern Michigan University and the Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan (JTAM). JTAM is an organization consisting mainly of K-12 teachers of Japanese. The collaborative work between EMU and JTAM is hoped to help articulate Japanese language and culture teaching issues across levels.

The theme of this year's conference was "Japanese Language Education Toward the 21st Century." Although the title is vast, it was thought to be appropriate because this was the last conference to be held in the 20th century. It is useful for us to be informed of historical elements of our profession in the United States and how we developed what we have at present. Thus, we did not focus on one issue intentionally. As a result, we had received presentation proposals that covered a variety of topics.

The conference began on Friday evening, April 16, 1999 with "Opening Remarks," by Motoko Tabuse, the CATJ Organizer, and Midori Savage from Farmington Elementary School in Garden City, Vice President of the Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan. The first presenter was Mariko Moroishi of Purdue University who presented, "Efficacy of attention to form: Explicit grammar teaching vs. input enhancement." She was followed by two technology-related presentations by Atsushi Fukada of Purdue University, "The VICTORY System: Interacting with Video in Language Learning," and Nobuko Chikamatsu of DePaul University, "Development of Kanji Character Frequency List and its Application on WWW: Java Kanji FlashCard 500." The fourth presentation was "Do Motivations and Aptitude Influence the Japanese Proficiency of American Students?" by Takayuki Nishimata of the Salem-Teikyo University.

On Saturday, before the paper presentations began, John Hubbard, Head of the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies welcomed the participants to

the conference. The Saturday morning paper presentations included "A Study of the Speech Act of Learners of Japanese as a Second Language: Expression of Gratitude," by Miki Motohashi of the University of Wisconsin at Madison; "The Effectiveness of Study Abroad to Japan," by Hamako Fukuhata of Mount Union College; "Communicative Environment for Japanese Learners in a Japanese Community: Are Our Students Prepared for the 'Real World'?" by Tomoko Watanabe Traphagan of the University of Pittsburgh; and "Japanese as a Heritage Language: Towards Additive Bilinguals for Human Resources" by Hitomi Oketani-Lobbezoo of Eastern Michigan University. Due to an unfortunate automobile accident, Bridget Dean of Farmington Schools could not present her paper on Friday evening, so she gave a 10-minute short presentation on "Brain-Based Foreign Language Learning: The Multiple Intelligences" on Saturday morning.

This is the first year when keynote speakers jointly gave their speeches. Both Laurel Rasplica Rodd of the University of Colorado, President of the Association of Teachers of Japanese, and Jessica Lee Thurrott of Maloney Magnet School in Connecticut, President of the National Council of Japanese Language Teachers, spoke about the past, present and future of their organizations in the morning and afternoon sessions.

After the joint keynote speeches, regional reports took place. There were five participants: Sadatoshi Tomizawa of the Indiana Association of Teachers of Japanese; Takuo Kinoshita of the Illinois Association of Teachers of Japanese; Melisia Taylor of the Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan; Janet Akaike-Toste of the Missouri Association of Japanese Teachers; and Kazuo Tsuda of the Northeast Association of Secondary Teachers of Japanese. Each participant represented a state or region and gave us the overview of their organization as well as the most recent activities and projects they are engaged in. The last part of the conference was group discussion. Our keynote speakers, Laurel Rodd and Jessica Thurrott gave us the topic to discuss "What can national organizations do for individual teachers?"

Even before the conference, we had received many requests for the publication of the 1999 CATJ Proceedings. I would like to take this opportunity to thank all of the individuals who participated in the conference and in particular, all who were able to submit their contributions for publication. Although the format of presentation have been changed slightly to create a uniform appearance, the content of the contributions in this volume represents the author's final copy and has not been altered in any substantial way by the editor.

The conference was supported by a number of organizations: the Northeast Asia Council of the Association for Asian Studies, the Japan Business Society of Detroit, and the Japan Foundation Language Center. Without the support from these organizations, we could not have hosted the conference. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to them. I would also like to express my thanks to Dr. Hitomi Oketani-Lobbezoo the 1999 CATJ Finance Minister; Margaret Tsilis, the CATJ travel coordinator; JTAM officers--Melisia Taylor, Midori Savage, Bridget Dean, and Susie Shaw for their assistance; and Etsuko Ofuka, Yukari Fujiwara, Naomi Ogasawara, and Masahide Arai for assisting us with the videotaping of the sessions and at the registration.

June , 1999

Motoko Tabuse
Eastern Michigan University

I: Paper Presentations

Implications of Brain Based Research to Language Acquisition

Bridget Dean

Farmington Public School, Michigan

The topic of brain based learning has recently become a focal point of much discussion and debate. This debate causes us to rethink some of the fundamental assumptions we hold about teaching, learning, and ultimately assessment. Second Language Acquisition frequently is not involved in the discussions of the various forms of brain-based techniques, since it is such a specialized skill, and often a mystery to 'non-linguist' researchers in the field. However, it lends itself quite naturally to the subject, and poses some unique considerations for all learners. As teachers, or facilitators of learning, we must understand the brain's major operating principles, and collectively integrate them into our lessons over time in order to have an impact on our teaching style, and the success of learners.

The term 'brain-based learning' alone is often questioned, and thought of as redundant. After all, where does all learning take place? Researchers would suggest that not all learning takes place in the brain, but the chemical process of memory and learning can take place in any number of physical locations, with the process being facilitated, coordinated, and solidified in the brain. The cognitive side of learning receives the greater focus in most research, but language teachers for years have known that the affective side of learning is equally important. Neuroscientists are just now defining this important component of learning (Jensen, 1998)

We know that blood flows to various parts of the brain, depending on the mental activities taking place at any given time. For instance, when we feel anxious, angry, threatened or fearful, the blood flows from the neocortical area of the brain, to the amygdala in the limbic system, the most basic of all brain components, often called the reptilian brain. It is referred to as this since it is the area known for the 'fight or flight response,' not for rational thought and decision making. When this downshifting occurs, the neocortex does not get sufficient glucose to function properly, causing the amygdala to take over, inhibiting rational thought and decision making.

Much research has been done into the localization of brain activity. You are no doubt familiar with the right/left brain theory, which cleanly divides functions of the brain into their own hemispheres. However, we now know this to be a drastic

simplification, and that the brain is in fact bilateral, with each side working interdependently with the other. Only highly isolated and distinct activities can be traced, by CAT scan, to one or the other hemisphere. This theory holds true more so for the Japanese language, which is highly dependent upon the visual, the non-verbal, and the socio-linguistic aspects of language acquisition. Think, for example, of Kanji. Although they represent a linguistic symbol, the visual component is involved, as well as the mathematical, in counting stroke order, and the logical, when compounds are formed.

An additional principle to be considered in curriculum and instructional design is the act that the brain is meant to learn; it is constructed to record stimuli and make sense of them. It constantly seeks meaning, and makes meaning out of what it encounters. Therefore, language learning should be understandable, and personally relevant to the learner to engage the student fully. Learning great lists of vocabulary, with no context within which to place those words, is fruitless. Situational and functional activities assist the learner in enjoying, using, and recalling the language he has acquired. Likewise, optimal brain growth also occurs when the learner is challenged, to the best of his potential but not to frustration. Feedback encourages the learner to persevere, and reach for more. Just as children are encouraged and praised as they acquire their first language, so should we engage the second language learner in a challenging, enriched environment. The vast amount of language necessary to attain proficiency in the Japanese language requires a sensitivity to the needs, and an ability to balance what is possible and what is practical. In curriculum development, one should be aware of the need to make the context relevant, as well as flexible, in order to provide opportunities for growth and enrichment. Success is preceded by a feeling of accomplishment, and these must be purposefully and systematically provided to our learners.

In an undertaking as tremendous as that of learning one of the less commonly taught languages, such as Japanese, stress is always a factor. Stress affects each of us in different ways, but in whatever measure, stress changes the chemical processes in the brain, and inhibits learning to various degrees. While risk can often be threatening, it can also be a welcome challenge, if practiced in the appropriate arena; a non-judgmental, supportive environment, this type of risk empowers our students to reach and challenge themselves. This principle can clearly be correlated to the assessment process. Authentic Assessments, and those in

which the student assesses his own learning, provide a safe path for the learner to self-correct, and move on. Traditional forms of assessment, while they may be efficient, seldom allow for individual input and feedback. These types of assessment are curriculum centered. Those who are attempting to become more 'brain-friendly' in their teaching style will soon note that the fallout from a disastrous testing experience can have long-lasting affects on the language learner.

Attention to the 8 Multiple Intelligences (Gardner, 1997) can lead to a number of brain based activities in the classroom. While a majority of instruction today is centered around the linguistic and mathematical learning, a great deal can be said for activities and assessments which include opportunities for all students to 'connect' to a language topic, through their dominant intelligence, or strength. The remaining intelligences, musical, spatial, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturistic, can all be directly linked to our lessons. The ability to 'stretch' in this area is often integrated during cultural enrichment, but there are direct applications in the language portion of a curriculum. The list below highlights only a few of these. (Further reading is provided at the end of this paper for your use.)

Cultural Activities which employ the Theory of Multiple Intelligences

- Listening and Reading about cultural events
- Graphs, Maps, Charts and Data
- Dances, Movement
- Props, Costumes, or Visuals
- Music
- Interviews or Small Groups Work
- Reactions, Emotional Involvement
- Smells, Sounds, and Resources

Language Activities which employ the Theory of Multiple Intelligences

- Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing
- Patterns, calculations, logical conclusions, puzzles
- TPR, Movement, Appropriate Gestures
- Simulations and Imagery
- Rhythmic Mnemonics, Chants
- Dialogues, paired work
- Learning Reflections, Individual Strategies

Most certainly we can recognize a few of our own favorite activities and lessons in the above lists. This reinforces the notion that shifting toward more

brain compatible learning merely requires us to examine that which we already do, and see where and how brain based learning is effected.

Linkages are the next principle that may be used to enhance instruction. Think of the brain as a road map. Memories are not stored neatly in files to be retrieved, but rather in pathways for specific types of learning, all being retrievable in varying degrees of difficulty. This implies that the brain is not conditioned to easily retrieve rote, memorized semantic learning. However, most would agree that this is the basis for a great deal of second language teaching. The brain instead prefers to create episodic, event oriented learning scenarios, placing them on a map that is marked by road signs representing kinesthetic, rhythmic, visual events. While on the path to new knowledge, it is important, too, to allow yourself the appropriate time to process and internalize the events along the way. This suggests that shorter increments of direct learning, coupled with structured passive experiences, allow the brain to 'digest' the new language linked to such episodes. While linking the information to new pathways in our brain, it is also important to respect the fact that humans are all complex integrated systems. These systems are adapted to and controlled by the brain.

Therefore, all learning which involves more than one aspect of the system, provides greater opportunity for retention and easy retrieval of that which has been learned. Neuroscientists now report that only 2 percent of the body's information is true neuron to neuron synaptic connections. The remainder is communicated by peptide molecules throughout the body, which lock into receptor sites in individual cell bodies.

The concept of language acquisition versus language learning often leads to conflict between mastery and proficiency based philosophies, even at times to inner conflict when reflecting or refining one's own philosophical base. Less formal approaches to language instruction need not be at the expense of error correction and grammar instruction. Rather, brain compatible learning would suggest that once the student has developed the ability to speak the target language, the next natural progression is to that of correct grammatical usage. If we apply what has been discussed here, it would hold that conscious instruction of grammatical concepts in isolation would lead to short term retention and retrieval difficulties. According to Krashen, a focus on the goal of communication provides comprehensible, meaningful input and encourages increased language acquisition.

Providing opportunities to interact on a variety of topics while pursuing a communicative goal exposes the learner to the necessary grammatical structures automatically, with multiple chances for learning to occur.

In conclusion, this brief introduction has merely touched the tip of the ice-berg in the discussion of Brain Compatible Learning Strategies. Topics such as Mind/Body Connection, Multiple Intelligence Theory, Emotional Intelligence, and brain compatible materials have just begun to take prominence in the field of education, although to many of us as language educators, this is nothing new. It is simply harnessing the knowledge and instinct we rely upon on a daily basis, and articulating it as a concept related to General Education and Learning as a whole. In this way, we will no longer be a fringe element of instructional programs, but leaders among our colleagues who are indeed seeing things from a new perspective.

Suggested Reading

Whitaker, H. 1988. Brain and Language: A Journal of Clinical, Experimental and Theoretical Research. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Jensen, Eric. 1996. Completing the Puzzle: The Brain Compatible Approach to Learning. San Diego: Brain Store, Inc.

Blair, Robert W. (Ed.) (Out of Print) Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Pinker, Steven. 1995. The Language Instinct. New York: Harper Perennial.

**Do Motivations and Aptitude influence
the Japanese Proficiency of American Students?**

Takayuki Nishimata

Salem-Teikyo University

Introduction

What are the characteristics of a good language learner? Researchers have been investigating the relationship between learners' foreign language proficiency and their individual differences. Among these individual differences, motivation and aptitude have been known to influence language proficiency (Gardner and MacIntyre 1992, Ellis 1994). Gardner and Lambert (1972) have identified two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. Although the relationships were found to be both positive and negative, researchers have found correlations between these types of motivation and proficiency (Lukmani 1972, Chihara and Oller 1978, Strong 1984, Svanes 1987, Gardner and MacIntyre 1991, 1992). Other researchers have discovered that the strength of motivation positively affected proficiency (Gardner, Lalonde, and Pierson, 1982; Samimy and Tabuse, 1992). In addition, language aptitude has been found to have a significant correlation with proficiency (Skehan 1990). Many of these researches were conducted in English/French as a second/foreign language context. However, few studies have empirically examined these relationships in the case of Japanese as a foreign language.

The main purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between a learner's motivation and his/her Japanese proficiency. In order to look more closely at this, the following research questions were posed: 1) Do types of motivation influence proficiency?; 2) Does seriousness affect proficiency?; and 3) Is aptitude related to proficiency?

Methodology

Instruments for Data Collection

Four instruments were used to measure the participants' proficiency and as well as their individual differences. First, to analyze the students' proficiency, a departmental proficiency test (of the Department of Japanese Studies at Salem-Teikyo) which measures listening and writing was given. Second, to investigate the participants' integrated and instrumental motivation, self-administered

questionnaires were used. Third, to measure the degree of the participants' seriousness of studying Japanese, self-administered questionnaires were used. Finally, to assess the aptitude, the SAT score was used.

The departmental proficiency test consists of 88 contextually independent sentences. Each sentence has one pair of parenthesis, and participants were asked to fill one hiragana into the parenthesis as they listened to the tape say each sentence. This test was employed as an equivalent to the Japanese Language Proficiency Test Level 3 because: 1) there was a high correlation between the scores of the JLPT level 3 and the departmental proficiency test ($r=.887$, $p=.0001$, $n=37$), and 2) it takes only 5 minutes to complete the test (JLPT Level 3 requires 140 minutes). To judge the validity of the departmental proficiency test, the JLPT Level 3 was used. This was because: 1) it is one of the standard tests of Japanese language, and 2) it generally requires 300 hours of study, according to the Japan Foundation.

The self-administered questionnaire for the motivations contained eight items that expressed reasons for learning Japanese. Four items indicated integrative motivation and the other four indicated instrumental motivation. Integrative motivation was characterized by the following four items: 2) To learn Japanese culture; 4) To know Japanese people; 6) To find out how Japanese society works and 8) To have a new experience with Japan. Simultaneously, instrumental motivation was described by these following four items: 1) To get a good job; 3) To get training in international business with Japan; 5) To get ahead in the job market and 7) To get a degree useful for my future career. These eight items were adapted from the Svane's (1987) 20 motivation variables. The participants were told to indicate the degree on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.

The self-administered questionnaire for the seriousness was completed by indicating 'The degree to which I (they) truly want to learn the Japanese language' on a single scale from 0 to 100. A 7-point Likert scale was not employed because there is no negative range for seriousness.

The SAT score used was the verbal and mathematical total.

Participants

98 students (43 males and 55 females) in seven American Universities participated in this study (Table 1). All participants were American and they had learned Japanese for at least 200 class hours. 61 participants in 1998 were students of

Duke University, North Carolina State University, Ohio University, University of Cincinnati, and University of Texas at Austin. 37 participants between 1995 to 1998 were students of Salem-Teikyo University. 65 of the data were usable for the analysis.

Results

Do motivations and aptitude influence Japanese proficiency?

To investigate the relationship between participants' proficiency and their independent differences, a multiple regression analysis was employed. Table 1 presents the result of the analysis. The result showed that neither integrative nor instrumental motivations facilitate proficiency, whereas seriousness had significantly positive effects. In addition, the result showed that aptitude positively affected Japanese proficiency.

Table 1

Multiple regression analysis of independent differences (integrative and instrumental motivations, seriousness, and aptitude) and proficiency (n=64)

Variables	β Value	$p > T $
Integrative motivation	.0218	.8408
Instrumental motivation	-.2158	.0575
Seriousness	<u>.3170</u>	.0044
Aptitude	<u>.3302</u>	.0040

1) Do types of motivation influence proficiency? — No.

The result showed that neither integrative nor instrumental motivations facilitate proficiency.

2) Does seriousness affect proficiency? — Yes.

The result showed that seriousness had significantly positive effects.

3) Is aptitude related to proficiency? — Yes.

The result showed that aptitude positively affected proficiency.

Additionally, a partial correlation (partial variable: proficiency) was used to discover the relationship between seriousness and aptitude.

Table 2**Pearson Partial Correlation Coefficients between aptitude and motivations (n=64)**

	Integrative motivation	Instrumental motivation	Seriousness
Aptitude	-.0299 r=.8144	-.1309 r=.3024	.0298 r=.8154

- 4) Does a serious student also have high aptitude? (or vice-versa) – Not always.
The result showed that there was no relation between seriousness and aptitude.

DISCUSSION

This study showed that the Japanese proficiency of American students was influenced by their seriousness to study Japanese and aptitude. However, the types of motivation did not influence the proficiency. This result contradicts Gardner and MacIntyre's (1991, 1992), who stated that both integrative and instrumental motivations facilitated the acquisition of vocabulary. The difference should be attributed to the difference in social status of the language. Social status of a second language may influence what type of motivations would be significant for proficiency (Gardner and Lambert 1972, Lukmani 1972, Svane 1987, Ellis 1994, Brown 1994). For example, practical value of learning French is more significant for Canadian students than that of Japanese for American students. Practical (instrumental) value of learning Japanese is almost none for American students, unless they are strongly motivated toward business with Japan and the Japanese. Although Japanese products are abundant in US market, influence of Japanese cultures to US society is very small. Concurrently, this lack provides few chances for students to assimilate themselves into Japanese culture. Thus, it is not surprising that none of motivation types did not influence proficiency in this study, in contrast to the results of Gardner and MacIntyre (1991, 1992) that studied the acquisition of French for Canadian students. Therefore, it is concluded that the types of motivation are not directly related to proficiency, in the case of studying Japanese as a foreign language.

Regardless of the motivation types, language acquisition should be influenced by students' dedication (seriousness) to learn the language. Results of this study showed that serious students did achieve a high Japanese proficiency. This finding is similar to that of Gardner, Lalonde, and Pierson (1982) and Samimy

and Tabuse (1992), although the measurements are different each other. Nevertheless, few studies have operationalized the seriousness. Gardner, Lalonde and Pierson (1982) found that the motivational intensity could be measured by grades, a professor's rating, and the students' self-rating. However, it may be less reliable to use them as the measurement, because grading policies and professors' rating may depend on the policies of different teachers and different schools. More research is needed to demystify this issue.

Simultaneously, students' language aptitude does play a major role in their language acquisition (Gardner and MacIntyre 1992). However, it should be noted that the aptitude may not be limited to language. In this study, the total SAT score was a significant predictor for proficiency. This suggests that it is general aptitude (Carroll, 1981) that is related to the proficiency, rather than language aptitude.

Regarding the relationship between seriousness and aptitude, many teachers are often tempted to say that a student with a high aptitude is also serious in studying. However, this study showed that this assumption may not always be appropriate. As is shown by the lack of positive correlation between a student's seriousness and his/her SAT score, a student with a high aptitude may not always be serious in studying Japanese, or vice-versa. This implies that students with high aptitude may acquire Japanese to a certain level, but they may not achieve further without being serious to study it.

In conclusion, this study clearly showed that seriousness is significant for students' success in learning Japanese. This suggests that teachers should improve students' seriousness by providing quality teaching, giving students realistic and concrete goals, and increasing the teachers' time spent with students. What makes students intrinsically motivated in studying a subject? Further research should investigate this issue.

REFERENCES

- Carroll, J. 1981. 'Twenty-five years of research on foreign language aptitude' in Diller, K. (Ed). 1981. Individual Differences and Universals in Language Learning Aptitude. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

- Chihara, T. and J. Oller. 1978. "Attitudes and attained proficiency in EFL: a sociolinguistic study of adult Japanese speakers." Language Learning 28: 55-68.
- Clement, R., R. Gardner, and P. Smythe. 1977. "Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of francophones learning English." Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science 9: 123-133.
- Clement, R., R. Gardner, and P. Smythe. 1980. "Social and individual factors in second language acquisition." Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science 12: 293-302.
- Ellis, R. 1994. The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ely, C. 1986. "An analysis of discomfort, risktaking, sociability, and motivation in the L2 classroom." Language Learning 36: 1-25.
- Gardner, R., J. Day, and P. MacIntyre. 1992. "Integrative motivation, induced anxiety, and language learning in a controlled environment." Studies in Second Language Acquisition 14: 197-214.
- Gardner, R., R. Lalonde. 1982. "Language Attitudes in a University Context: A Causal Analysis." Research Bulletin No 573, Department of Psychology, University of Western Ontario.
- Gardner, R., and R. Lalonde, and R. Moorcroft. 1985. "The role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning: correlational and experimental considerations." Language Learning 35: 207-227.
- Gardner, R. and W. Lambert. 1972. Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

- Gardner, R. and P. MacIntyre. 1991. "An instrumental motivation in language study: who says it isn't effective?" Studies in Second Language Acquisition 13: A57-72.
- Gardner, R. and P. MacIntyre. 1992. "A student's contributions to second language learning. Part 1: Cognitive variables." Language Teaching 25: 211-20.
- Lukmani, Y. 1972. "Motivation to learn and language proficiency." Language Learning 22: 261-273.
- Samimy, K. and M. Tabuse. 1992. "Affective variables and a less commonly taught language: A study in beginning Japanese classes." Language Learning 42: 377-398.
- Skehan, P. 1990. "The relationship between native and foreign language learning ability: educational and linguistic factors" in Dechart, H. (Ed). Current Trends in European Second Language Acquisition Research. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.
- Skehan, P. 1991. "Individual differences in second language learning." Studies in Second Language Acquisition 13: 275-298.
- Svanes, B. 1987. "Motivation and cultural distance in second-language acquisition." Language Learning 37: 341-359.
- Strong, M. 1984. "Integrative motivation: cause or result of successful second language acquisition?" Language Learning 34: 1-14.

Efficacy of attention to form: explicit grammar teaching vs. input enhancement

**Mariko Moroishi
Purdue University**

INTRODUCTION

The issue of whether second language grammars can be learned and should be taught explicitly has been hotly debated in the current applied linguistic literature, and opinions on merits of grammar instruction vary among different linguistic theories and language teaching methodologies. Although Krashen has claimed that explicit grammar instruction does not contribute directly to "acquisition" and explicit knowledge of grammatical rules are never responsible for spontaneous communication (Krashen, 1981b, 1982, 1985), many studies have presented results showing that some forms and some students seem to receive benefits from certain kinds of formal instruction over mere exposure to target language input (DeKeyser, 1995, 1998; N. Ellis, 1993; Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994; Skehan, 1989; Spada and Lightbown, 1993; and Van Patten and Cadierno, 1993a, 1993b).

The question of how second language rules are best learned, either in explicit or implicit ways, generated many variables that account for successful second language acquisition process, such as input enhancement (VanPatten and Cadierno, 1993a, 1993b), implicit vs. explicit learning (DeKeyser, 1995, 1998; N. Ellis, 1994; Reber, 1989, 1993; Robinson, 1995, 1996a, 1996b; Scott, 1989; Winitz, 1996), and focus on form (Doughty, 1991, 1998; Long, 1991; Spada & Lightbown, 1993). Because the majority of the recent empirical studies supported the claim that benefits of some kind of second language instruction that attempts to make students attend to form, the further questions needed to be discussed are what kind of instruction is more effective for what forms, and for what kind of learners.

Input Enhancement

One proposed way to make learners attend to problematic features of the target language is input enhancement. Examples include negative feedback (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Shook, 1995; White, Spada, Lightbown, and Ranta, 1991), input flooding (White, 1991), and textual manipulation (Doughty, 1991; Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, & Doughty, 1995; Shook, 1995). These studies reported that language learners can acquire linguistic forms successfully by receiving recasts or clarification requests from teacher upon making mistakes, being exposed to abundant exemplars, or reading color-coded or boldfaced target forms. Teachers need not explain rules using technical jargon, but rather help learners with little intervention and encourage them to discover underlying rules by themselves. Doughty (1991), for example, utilized the successful textual manipulation techniques in teaching English relative clauses. The meaning-oriented group was exposed to the target structures highlighted and printed in capital letters, which was visually salient. The results of her study showed that the visually salient input along with redundancy and frequency produced a significant effect on learning relative clauses.

However, the effects of input enhancement techniques may depend on what kind of rules learners are dealing with, and certainly more research is needed to investigate if the input enhancement positively affects language learning, regardless of the nature of the rules, whether they are morphosyntactic, phonological, or semantic/pragmatic rules. The proposed study compared the three learning conditions: explicit learning condition in which grammar rules were explained by a teacher explicitly, implicit group in which learners were exposed to example sentences with target forms visually highlighted in written materials, and control group which did not receive any instruction at all. Furthermore, this study focused on the learning of semantic/pragmatic rules in the Japanese language, which have not been explored fully yet in the current Japanese second language acquisition literature. Whether input enhancement techniques work on acquiring Japanese conjectural auxiliaries, whose distinction depends heavily on abstract characteristics of contexts rather than concrete surface elements, was investigated in this study.

Explicit learning and implicit learning

Based on theoretical SLA models, a number of empirical studies have reported the significant role that explicit knowledge seems to play in the SLA process (DeKeyser, 1995, 1998; Green and Hecht, 1992; Hulstijn and De Graaff, 1994; N. Ellis, 1993, 1994; Reber, 1989, 1993; Robinson, 1996a, 1996b; Scott, 1989). Dekeyser (1995), for example, conducted a computerized experiment on American college students' acquisition of a miniature linguistic system, consisting of five morphological rules and a lexicon of artificial language. His results indicated that an explicit-deductive group, being presented grammar rules followed by thousands of picture/sentence combinations with English translations, outperformed an implicit-inductive group, in which learners were merely exposed to combinations of pictures and target language sentences, in acquiring simple morphosyntactic rules. But the hypothesis that implicit-inductive learning would be better than explicit-deductive learning for abstract, linguistic prototypical rules was not supported statistically. His findings were significantly important in verifying the effects of explicit instruction in learning simple rules, and more importantly, he casted doubts on Reber's and Krashen's claim that subjects learned complex rules better under implicit learning conditions than explicit learning conditions (Krashen, 1982; Reber, 1989, 1993). Conducting an experiment with a large number of ESL learners in a real classroom setting, Robinson (1996) did not find the statistically significant effects of implicit learning in acquiring in complex English word order rules. Similarly, N. Ellis (1993) found that the structural group which received explicit grammar rule explanation followed by structured presentation of examples acquired the rule of soft mutation of initial consonant in Welsh best.

These studies have indicated that explicit learning has positive effects on L2 learning. More studies must be conducted in order to see whether effects of explicit and implicit learning are generalizable to different types of forms, languages, and proficiency levels, and what kind of explicit instruction (instead of traditional grammar teaching) is desirable depending on these variables.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were generated based upon the research studies on explicit learning and implicit learning.

A consideration of previous research on the role of consciousness which reported the beneficial effects of metalinguistic discussion of target forms motivated the first hypothesis. Because explaining structural properties of grammar rules has been proved to be effective in directing learners' attention to forms, the first hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 1: The explicit learning group, in which learners receive explicit grammar explanation first, receive exemplars with pictures that indicate contents of sentences in a systematic way, and engage in meaning-focused activities, will learn the Japanese conjectural auxiliaries better than the control group in which learners receive no instruction at all.

It has been proved that form-focused instruction which attempts to indirectly draw learners' attention to forms while focusing on meaning positively affect SLA. Thus, the second hypothesis is generated.

Hypothesis 2: The implicit learning group, in which learners are exposed to exemplars with target forms underlined along with pictures that indicate contents of sentences and engage in meaning-focused activities, will outperform the control group in learning the Japanese conjectural auxiliaries.

Finally, the current empirical studies (DeKeyser, 1995; Robinson, 1996) have been arguing the validity of Reber's (1989) and Krashen's (1982) claims that implicit learning has an advantage over explicit learning in learning complex rules. The third hypothesis is generated:

Hypothesis 3: The explicit learning group will outperform the implicit learning group in learning the Japanese conjectural auxiliaries.

METHODS

Subjects

The subjects were forty-two undergraduate students learning Japanese as a foreign Language in the Intensive Japanese Level III and IV courses at Georgetown University. They were paid seven dollars per hour for their participation. The mean length of the subjects' Japanese study at American junior high schools, high schools, and colleges was 3.4 years, and the mean length of living or studying abroad in Japan was 9.3 months. There were thirty-eight native speakers of English, one native speaker of Korean, one native speaker of Russian, and two native speakers of Mandarin Chinese.

The target form

The target forms selected for the study were four types of Japanese conjectural auxiliaries, 'yoo da', 'soo da', 'rashii', and 'daroo', which express the likelihood of something happening (the English equivalents are 'seem', 'appear', and 'look like'). Whether or not the subjects are able to distinguish the usage of the four conjectural auxiliaries and to utilize the appropriate auxiliary in a given context after the instruction was the focus of the analysis. The four conjectural auxiliaries which express perspectives vary in terms of the degree of certainty or reliability of information, and on what kind of information source that speakers' conjecture relies (Makino & Tsutsui, 1986). For example,

- a) Kono hon wa takai yoo da.
this book *prt(S)expensive appear
“(Considering the price of similar books), this book seems expensive.”

*prt(S): subject/topic marker particle

- b) Kono hon wa takai **rashii**.
this book prt(S) expensive seem
“(From what I heard or read), this book seems expensive.”
- c) Kono hon wa taka **soo da**.
this book prt(S) expensive look
“This book looks expensive.”
- d) Kono hon wa takai **daroo**.
this book prt(S) expensive probably
“This book is probably expensive.”

In (1a), “S + yoo da” expresses the speakers’ conjectures which are usually based on visual information sources: what the speaker sees or saw. However, this expression involves the speaker’s reasoning process based on firsthand, reliable information and his/her knowledge. Thus, the degree of certainty of ‘yoo da’ is the highest among the four conjectural auxiliaries. In (1b), the speakers’ conjectures are based on what they have heard or read. That is, the information their conjecture is based on second-hand information and the reliability is not as high as with ‘yoo da’. In (1c), ‘S + soo da’ is the speakers’ conjectures based on the visual information, what speakers see or saw. However, the degree of certainty of ‘soo da’ is fairly low, because speakers make a guess on what they see without really experiencing it. Finally, in (1d), ‘S + daroo’ expresses the speakers’ conjecture which is not necessarily based on any information. In other words, this expression is used when the speaker is merely guessing, and the degree of certainty is the lowest among the four.

Procedure

The study followed an experimental design which included the use of a pretest and immediate and delayed posttests. The researcher recruited volunteers in the Intensive Japanese Level III class (that she was teaching) and Level IV class. The subjects were told that they would participate in “an experimental study on Japanese language learning.” They signed the consent form, filled out the demographic questionnaire, and took the pretest.

After the pretest, the subjects were assigned to the three groups by stratified randomization based on the information in the demographic questionnaires, such as their language backgrounds, lengths of living and studying abroad in Japan, length of studying Japanese at junior high schools, high schools, and colleges in the U.S., and the average score of the tests (midterm/quizzes/oral interviews) in the current semester. There were fifteen subjects in both experimental groups, but twelve subjects in control group.

Ten days after the pretest, the subjects in the explicit and implicit learning groups participated in four instruction sessions, each lasting seventy-five minutes (for a total of five hours). The control group did not receive any instruction but simply took the tests. Each session focused on one conjectural auxiliary respectively.

The immediate posttest and the debriefing questionnaire were administered immediately after the last instructional session, and the delayed posttest was given nine weeks after the immediate posttest .

Assessment Tasks

For assessment tasks, there were five different tasks: a written production test, an oral production test, a written story formation test, an oral story formation test, and a grammatical judgment test. Written and oral production tests and a grammatical judgment test were form-focused tasks, which attempted to measure the subjects explicit knowledge of the distinctive usage of the four conjectural auxiliaries. Oral and written story formation tests were communicative, spontaneous tasks that asked the subjects describe a story based on comic strips using the target forms.

Instructional Treatment

Both the explicit and the implicit groups took part in different types of instruction for a total of five hours. In the explicit learning group, the subjects received a handout that explained straightforwardly how to distinguish the four conjectural expressions' usage using the example

sentences and the diagram that showed the characteristics of the four conjecture expressions. Then they were presented with another handout that contained exemplars with pictures describing the contents of the sentences, and performed various listening/reading comprehension exercises. All the listening/reading exercises were meaning-focused. The implicit learning group did not receive any metalinguistic explanation at all, but were presented with the same handout with exemplars with pictures and completed the same listening and reading exercises. On the written materials that the implicit group received (i.e., the example sentences and reading passages in the reading exercises), however, all the conjectural auxiliaries were underlined in order to direct the subjects' attention to the target forms.

RESULTS

After the administration of the pretest, a one-way ANOVA was performed to compare pretest scores of the three groups on each test (grammatical judgment, written production, oral production, written story formation, oral story formation, and written story formation), respectively. The results revealed that there was no significant difference among the performance of the three groups on the five tests (the grammatical judgment: $F(2/39)=3.4819$, n.s.; the written production: $F(2/39)=3.2928$, n.s.; the oral production: $F(2/39)=0.4118$, n.s.; the written story: $F(2/39)=2.8469$, n.s.; the oral story: $F(2/39)=0.557$, n.s.). Thus, the three groups were at the same developmental state regarding their performance with the Japanese conjectural auxiliaries.

Figures 1 through 5 graphically display the mean scores of each group. The descriptive statistics show that both the explicit and the implicit groups improved after the instruction, while the explicit group outperformed the implicit group and the control group in every test.

In order to analyze the effects of instruction, the repeated-measure ANOVA was run for the oral production, the written production, the grammatical judgment, the oral story formation, and the written story formation tests, respectively. The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for Instruction, a significant main effect for Test, and a significant two-way interaction effect for

Instruction x Test in the grammatical judgment test, written production test, and the written story formation test, and trends towards significant main effects were found in the oral production and the oral story formation tests (see table 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, and 1.5 for the results of the ANOVA for each test).

Figure 1 Mean scores from the pre- and post-tests for the grammatical judgement test

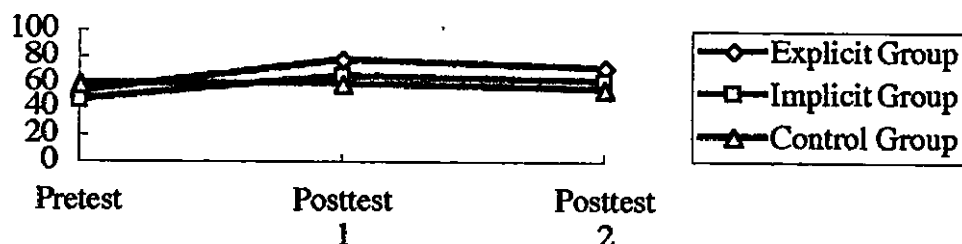


Figure 2 Mean scores from the pre- and post-tests for the written production test

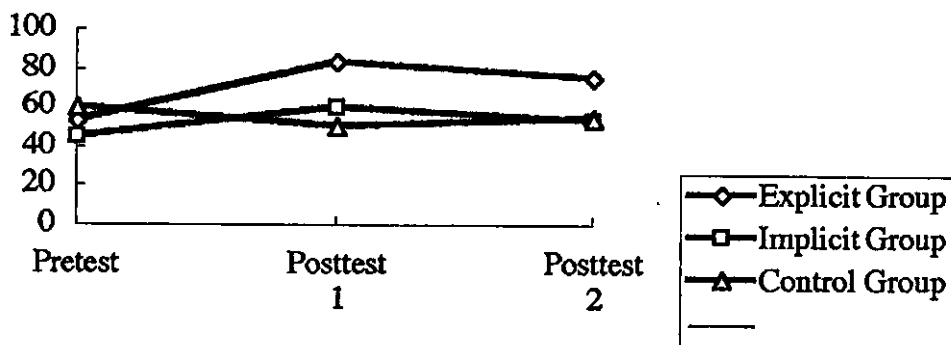


Figure 3 Mean scores from the pre- and post-tests for the oral production test

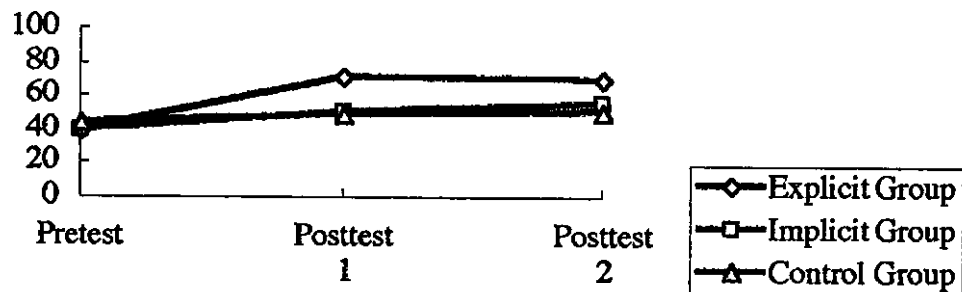


Figure 4 Mean scores from the pre- and post-tests for the written story formation test

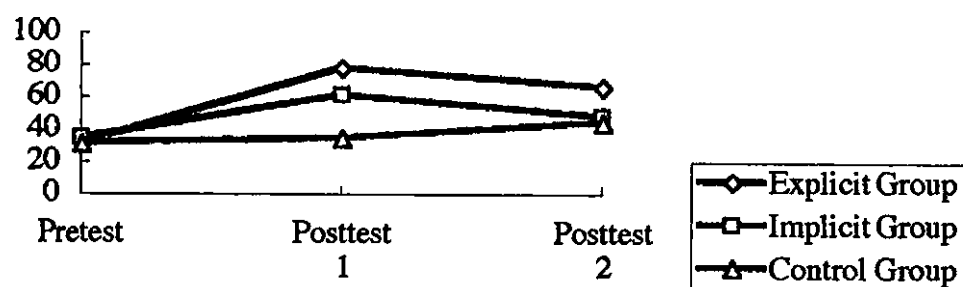


Figure 5 Mean scores from the pre- and post-tests for the oral story formation test

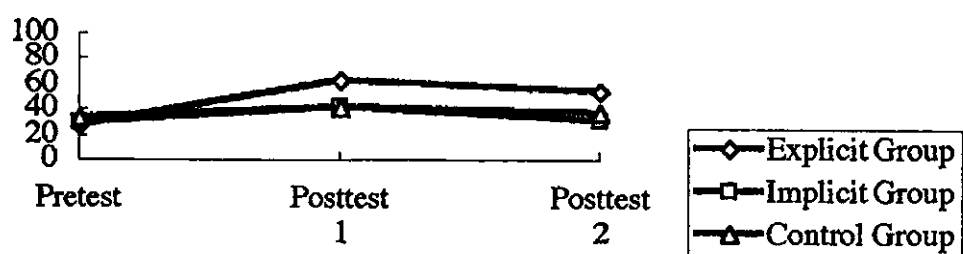


Table 1.1 Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for the grammatical judgment test

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects				
Instruction (I)	2389.76	2	1194.88	3.59*
Sub	12994.08	39	333.18	
Within Subjects				
Test (T)	4367.03	2	2183.51	31.57**
I X T	2757.23	4	689.31	9.97**
S X T	5394.76	78	69.16	
Total	27902.86	125		

Table 1.2 Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for the written production test

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects				
Instruction (I)	7272.20	2	3636.10	6.35**
Sub	22345.70	39	572.97	
Within Subjects				
Test (T)	3078.29	2	1539.15	9.93**
I X T	5775.81	4	1443.95	9.31**
S X T	12095.56	78	155.07	
Total	50567.55	125		

Table 1.3 Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for the oral production test

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects				
Instruction (I)	3823.66	2	1911.83	2.90 †
Sub	25695.80	39	658.87	
Within Subjects				
Test (T)	8163.82	2	4081.91	35.099
I X T	3000.84	4	750.21	6.45
S X T	9071.18	78	116.30	
Total	49755.31	125		

Table 1.4 Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for the written story formation test

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects				
Instruction (I)	9674.32	2	4837.16	5.52**
Sub	34201.21	39	876.95	
Within Subjects				
Test (T)	15149.56	2	7574.78	33.48**
I X T	7804.91	4	1951.23	8.62**
S X T	17646.28	78	226.23	
Total	84476.28	125		

Table 1.5 Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for the oral story formation test

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects				
Instruction (I)	3951.57	2	1975.79	2.673 †
Sub	28827.89	39	739.18	
Within Subjects				
Test (T)	7678.14	2	3839.07	19.34
I X T	4077.99	4	1019.50	5.14
S X T	15483.02	78	198.50	
Total	60018.62	125		

The ANOVAs revealed a significant main effect for Instruction, a significant main effect for Test, and a significant two-way interaction effect for Instruction x Test in three of the five measures: the written production test, the grammaticality judgment test, and the written story description test. Moreover, there were trends towards similar main effects in the oral production and the oral story description tests.

As for further analysis to tease apart instructional effect, multiple comparisons between groups and tests were carried out for all the tests. To provide an overview of the major findings on the effects of explicit and implicit instructional treatment, Tables 2.1 and 2.2 display summaries of the findings of the between-group comparisons. Table 2.3 - 2.7 are provided with summaries of the between-test comparisons. In short, the explicit group significantly outperformed the implicit and control groups in all the tasks, both the controlled and the spontaneous tasks. The implicit group significantly outperformed the control group in the written story description task in the immediate posttest, but there was no significant differences between them in other four tasks. Both the explicit and implicit groups significantly improved after the instruction in all the tasks. Furthermore, the explicit group retained their knowledge on the target forms over nine week period after the instruction on every task, while the implicit group did so on four tasks, except for the oral story description task.

Table 2.1
Between-Group Comparisons for Posttest 1

Controlled Tasks

Oral Production	Written Production	Grammaticality Judgment
Explicit > Implicit *	Explicit > Implicit *	Explicit > Implicit *
Explicit > Control *	Explicit > Control *	Explicit > Control *
Implicit = Control n.s.	Implicit = Control n.s.	Implicit = Control n.s.

Spontaneous Tasks

Oral Story	Written Story
Explicit > Implicit *	Explicit > Implicit *
Explicit > Control *	Explicit > Control *
Implicit = Control n.s.	Implicit > Control *

* $p < .05$

Table 2.2
Between-Group Comparisons for Posttest 2

Controlled Tasks

Oral Production	Written Production	Grammaticality Judgment
Explicit > Implicit *	Explicit > Implicit *	Explicit > Implicit *
Explicit > Control *	Explicit > Control *	Explicit > Control *
Implicit = Control n.s.	Implicit = Control n.s.	Implicit = Control n.s.

Spontaneous Tasks

Oral Story	Written Story
Explicit > Implicit *	Explicit > Implicit *
Explicit > Control *	Explicit > Control *
Implicit = Control n.s.	Implicit = Control n.s.

* $p < .05$

Table 2.3
Between-Test Comparisons for the Oral Production Test

Explicit Group	Implicit Group	Control Group
Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest = Posttest 1 n.s.
Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest = Posttest 2 n.s.
Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.

* $p < .05$

Table 2.4
Between-Test Comparisons for the Written Production Test

Explicit Group	Implicit Group	Control Group
Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest = Posttest 1 n.s.
Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest = Posttest 2 n.s.
Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.

Table 2.5
Between-Test Comparisons for the Grammaticality Judgment Test

Explicit Group	Implicit Group	Control Group
Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest = Posttest 1 n.s.
Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest = Posttest 2 n.s.
Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.

Table 2.6
Between-Test Comparisons for the Oral Story Description Test

Explicit Group	Implicit Group	Control Group
Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest = Posttest 1 n.s.
Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest = Posttest 2 n.s.	Pretest = Posttest 2 n.s.
Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.

* $p < .05$

Table 2.7
Between-Test Comparisons for the Written Story Description Test

Explicit Group	Implicit Group	Control Group
Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest < Posttest 1 *	Pretest = Posttest 1 n.s.
Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest < Posttest 2 *	Pretest < Posttest 2 *
Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.	Posttest 1 = Posttest 2 n.s.

* $p < .05$

CONCLUSIONS

The results seem to support Schmidt's claim that being consciously aware of a form in the input at the level of "noticing" is necessary for language development to occur (Schmidt, 1990). Instruction is beneficial to second language development, and attention to form is causal to successful language learning (Doughty and Williams, 1998a; Long, 1988; Long and Robinson, 1998; Schmidt, 1990, 1994b). How this noticing can be achieved has been a widely-discussed topic in the current applied linguistics literature, and the present study suggests that both explicit rule presentation and textural manipulation were effective in triggering learners' noticing of forms. Explicit presentation of the rules is overt and obtrusive in classroom activities according to the focus-on-form continuum (Doughty and Williams, 1998c), but as Doughty and Williams suggest, it is unproductive to emphasize "all-or-nothing choices between the implicit and the explicit....which result in inflexible approaches to language teaching" (1998c, p. 231). DeKeyser (1998) recommends a "FormS-then-FonF instructional sequence," namely providing a brief explicit teaching of forms, waiting for students to develop declarative knowledge fully before getting into practice, as an effective, yet not-fully-implemented approach in the classroom. Results of this study are consistent with that recommendation.

The present study also examined the unconfirmed hypothesis concerning whether complex grammar could be learned better under explicit or implicit instructional treatments. The previous research on rule complexity suggests that an explicit learning condition facilitated learning simple rules better than an implicit learning condition, while Reber's claim (1989) that an implicit learning condition might work better for complex rules learning was unproven (DeKeyser, 1995; Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994; Robinson, 1996a). The results of the present study indicated, however, that advantages of explicit instructional treatment surpass the implicit instructional treatment in learning complex rules. The results counter to Reber's proposal (1989) that advocated the advantage of implicit instructional treatment is more beneficial than explicit instructional treatment in learning complex rules.

The present study has significance because it provided current applied linguistics research with a new perspective on the relationship between rule complexity and explicit versus implicit instructional treatments. First, it is one of the few empirical studies that has investigated acquisition of the complex rules targeting a real language (in the present study, Japanese) in a classroom setting. DeKeyser's work (1995) has been on artificial languages. Investigating the learning of an artificial language at the laboratory setting lacks external validity, because the assessment measure used in the laboratory setting does not resemble everyday language classrooms, and learning a non-existent language may result in subjects' lack of motivation.

Second, the study suggested that an explicit instructional treatment is more effective on a hard rule than is learning under implicit instructional treatment. The results counter DeKeyser (1995) and Robinson (1996a) who found no significant superiority of an explicit learning condition over an implicit learning condition in learning complex rules. The results may be due to the following factors. First, the target rules in the present study were complex because they involve subtle semantic/pragmatic distinctions, and they were not governed by the immediate linguistic contexts. The triggers to distinguish the four forms cannot be found on the surface structures of the sentence, while DeKeyser's and Robinson's target forms were morphological and syntactic rules so that there was a key to understanding on the sentence level. Concerning the

Japanese conjectural auxiliaries, there were too many discorsal/semantic concerns for arriving at a correct rule. Second, the conjectural auxiliaries have less saliency and little communicative value, and being a non-obligatory form, the frequency of appearance in oral or written discourse is less.

Third, while most of the empirical studies used grammaticality judgment tests to test subjects' language development, the present study utilized a variety of tasks--both spontaneous and controlled--to measure learners' understanding of Japanese conjectural auxiliaries. Lastly, the present study used several criteria to classify Japanese conjectural auxiliaries as "complex" rules to acquire. The present study utilized the notion of formal-functional complexity, expert judgment, and semantic complexity (Hulstijn & De Graaff, 1994; Robinson, 1996a, 1996b).

The explicit learning condition, in which subjects received brief and focused explicit explanations of target forms provided in a complimentary manner to meaning-oriented activities, has a significant positive effect on learning how to distinguish the usage of the four Japanese conjectural auxiliary forms and use them correctly in appropriate contexts. The implicit learning condition, in which the researcher attempted to help the subjects notice the target forms by highlighting them by input enhancement techniques, also facilitated the acquisition of the conjectural auxiliaries, but the explicit learning condition proved more effective.

The results of the present study seems to provide a support for the beneficial role of explicit knowledge for SLA. However, the superiority of the explicit learning condition over the implicit learning condition can be attributed to what types of rules that were targeted in the study. As Hulstijn and Schmidt claimed, "explicit instruction is more likely to facilitate L2 acquisition in the case of some features of language than in other" (Hulstijn and Schmidt, 1994: p.9). In order to acquire the distinctive usage of the four conjectural auxiliaries, learners have to understand the semantic/pragmatic components of the sentences. Thus, triggers for detecting the underlying rule cannot be found on the surface structure of a sentence as with morphosyntactic rules, so the implicit learning group may have found it difficult to discover the underlying rules by themselves. Because explicit instruction of the forms might have worked as an "advance organizer" and aided the comprehension of the input, the explicit learners received more

comprehensible input that became available as intake than the implicit group (Terrell, 1991; VanPatten, 1994).

Finally, in interpreting the results of the study, it is important to note that there was a relatively small number of subjects; that the nine weeks of intervals between the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest is too short to claim that there was truly a long-term effect; and that the study was conducted in a real-classroom setting where other intervening variable may affect learners' learning outcomes rather than instructional treatments. No generalization of the findings can be made without further research on explicit and implicit learning.

REFERENCES

- Bialystok, E. (1978). An analytical view of second language competence: A model and some evidence. *The Modern Language Journal* , 63, 257-262.
- Bialystok, E. (1994). Analysis and control in the development of second language proficiency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* , 16(2), 157-168.
- Carroll, S. & M. Swain. (1993). Explicit and implicit negative feedback. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 357-386.
- DeKeyser, R. (1995). Learning second language grammar rules: An experiment with a miniature linguistic system. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* ,17, 379-410.
- DeKeyser, R. (1998). Beyond focus on form: Cognitive perspectives on learning and practicing second language grammar. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (PP.42-63). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge UP.
- Doughty, C. (1991). Second language instruction does make a difference: Evidence from an empirical study of relativization. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* , 13 (4), 431-470.
- Doughty, C. & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (PP.114-138). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge UP.
- Doughty, C. & Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (PP.197-261). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge UP.
- Ellis, N. (1993). Rules and instances in foreign language learning: interactions of explicit and implicit knowledge. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology* , 5,
- Ellis, N. (1994). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. London: Academic Press.
- Green, P., & Hecht, K. (1992). Implicit and explicit grammar: an empirical study. *Applied Linguistics* , 13, 168-184.
- Hulstijn, J. & de Graaff, R. (1994). Under what conditions does explicit knowledge of a second language facilitate the acquisition of implicit knowledge? A research proposal. *AILA Review* , 11, 97-112.
- Jarvis, G. (1983). The psychology of language learning: A declaration of independence. *The Modern Language Journal* , 67, 393-402.

- Jourdenais, R., Ota, M., Stauffer, S., Boyson, B., & Doughty, C. (1995). Does textual enhancement promote noticing? A think-aloud protocol analysis. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning and teaching*. Honolulu: National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Krashen, S. (1981a). Aptitude and attitude in relation to second language acquisition and learning. In K.C. Diller (Ed.), *Individual differences and universals in language learning aptitude* (PP. 155-175). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Krashen, S. (1981b). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *Input hypothesis*. New York: Longman.
- Long, M. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. De Bot, R. Ginsberg & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (PP. 39-52). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Makino, S. and Tsutsui, M. (1986). *A dictionary of basic Japanese grammar*. Tokyo: The Japan Times.
- Reber, A. (1989). Implicit learning and tacit knowledge. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 118, 219-235.
- Reber, A. (1993). *Implicit learning and tacit knowledge: An essay on the cognitive unconscious*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Robinson, P. (1995). Attention, memory and the "noticing" hypothesis. *Language Learning*, 45: 283-331.
- Robinson, P. (1996a). Learning simple and complex second language rules under implicit, incidental, rule-search, and instructed conditions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18(1), 27-67.
- Robinson, P. (1996b). *Consciousness, rules and instructed second language acquisition*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Scott, V. (1989). An empirical study of explicit and implicit teaching strategies in French. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73: 14-22.
- Shook, D. (1995). FL/L2 reading, grammatical information, and the input-to-intake phenomenon. *Applied Language Learning*, 5, 57-93.
- Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual differences in second-language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Spada, N. & Lightbown, P. (1993). Instruction and the development of questions in L2 classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15 (2), 205-224.
- Tomlin, R. & Villa, V. (1994). Attention in cognitive science and second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16(2), 183-204.
- VanPatten, B. & Cadierno, T. (1993a). Explicit instruction and input processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15 (2), 225-244.
- VanPatten, B. & Cadierno, T. (1993b). Input processing and second language acquisition: A role for instruction. *A Modern Language Journal*, 77 (i), 45-56.
- Westney, P. (1994). Rules and pedagogical grammar. In T. Odlin (Ed.), *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar* (PP. 72-96). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- White, L. (1991). Adverb placement in second language acquisition: Some effects of positive and negative evidence in the classroom. *Second Language Research*, 7, 133-161.
- White, L., Spada, N., Lightbown, P. & Ranta, L. (1991). Input enhancement and L2 question formation. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(4), 416-432.
- Winitz, H. (1996). Grammaticality judgment as a function of explicit and implicit instruction in Spanish. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(1), 32-46.
- Yip, V. (1994). Grammatical consciousness-raising and learnability. In T. Odlin (Ed.), *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar* (PP. 123-138). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

**The VICTORY System:
Interacting with Video in Language Learning**

Atsushi Fukada

**Center for Technology-Enhanced Language Learning and Instruction
Purdue University**

Video in the classroom

Since this article is about video, let me first define what I mean by video. Video in language teaching comes in two varieties; video for cultural introduction and video that contains dramatization of dialogs in the textbook. The latter type is usually an ancillary to the textbook. This article is concerned primarily with this type.

How is this type of video typically used in the classroom? The typical use, I believe, is to show a dialog on the VCR in the front of the classroom anywhere from once to a few times when that dialog is introduced in the textbook. Considering the fact that it costs tens of thousands of dollars to professionally produce such video, are we getting enough out of it using it this way? Some problems with this type of use are pointed out below.

Limited viewing time

One usually cannot afford to spend a lot of precious class time on viewing video. The viewing time, therefore, is quite limited. Also, if the purpose is just to present the model without specific tasks, viewing becomes rapidly meaningless if it is repeated.

Not an ideal viewing environment

The classroom is usually not an ideal environment for viewing video. A TV monitor would be hard to see from the back, and the audio quality is usually less than adequate. A video projector with a large screen would help, but then, the lighting would have to be dimmed making it difficult for the students to engage in any kind of tasks while viewing. In terms of audio, typical speakers in a TV set do not produce high quality sound. External speakers with an amplifier would

improve the quality, but there is not much one can do about noises students make or noise from outside.

Teacher-controlled

Video viewing in the classroom is teacher-controlled. It is, therefore, impossible to respond to each student's request like "Can I listen to that sentence again?"

Passive viewing only

Because viewing is controlled by the teacher, students generally have to sit and passively view the video. There is no way for them to interact with the video in any way.

The VICTORY System

It is in response to these problems that the VICTORY System (Video Interactions in the Computer laboraTORY) was designed and developed in our Center by Maria Cooks and myself. Through digital video technology, it allows the students to:

- control video viewing themselves
- view video on an individual basis
- interact with video through five activities

The system itself is multilingual, meaning that it can work with any language provided that appropriate fonts and input methods are installed at the system level.

What follows is a brief description of the system.

(1) Browse

Figure 1 shows the first screen the student will come to. On this screen, the student can select a movie from the **Select a movie** pull-down menu and view it with the video controls provided. The browse screen doubles as a menu screen. Once the students finish browsing, they can choose an activity from the **Select an activity** pull-down menu. There are five interactive activities; subtitle,

comprehension, role-play, cloze dictation, and reconstruction. An orthography can also be selected here. Currently, Roman alphabet, Japanese, and Chinese are the available choices. Once selections have been made, the students can click the **GO** button to start the selected activity.

(2) Subtitle

This is intended to be a warm-up activity. There are four segments of the movie clip displayed on the screen as shown in **Figure 2**. (One segment is typically a line in the script.)

The student can play each segment as many times as he wishes. At the bottom half of the screen are script panels that contain script text. The student's task is to figure out which panel goes with which segment and answer by moving the right panel to the subtitle area underneath each segment.

When authoring lessons for the **VICTORY** System, the instructor or material developer can set two parameters for this exercise; the number of tries allowed and the try on which student responses are scored. For example, if the former is 2 and the latter is 1, the student will have two tries, but the score on the first try will be the one to be kept.

When the four subtitle areas have been filled with script panels, the student can click the **Check** button to see how he did. When there are mistakes, a red square box with a cross appears to indicate which one is incorrect, as shown in **Figure 3**. The student is also encouraged to fix the mistakes as long as there are more tries allowed.

When scoring is finished, the answer keys become available. The student can click a red square to have the correct panel blink in red. When all tries have been used up, the system reports the score on this activity and prompts the user to return to the menu (browse) screen.

In this and all the other activities, it is possible to have multiple exercises. In this case, if the dialogue is too long to fit into the four-frame format, one can create Exercise 1 with the first four frames, Exercise 2 with the next four, etc.

(3) Comprehension

This activity presents a series of comprehension questions in a familiar multiple-choice format (See **Figure 4**).

The movie clip is available for the student to play at any time. Referring to the movie as needed, the student is to answer comprehension questions as they are presented to him. As in the subtitle activity, multiple exercises can be created for this activity as well. If the movie clip has clear divisions, it is possible to author a set of questions for each division and call it Exercise 1, Exercise 2, etc.

In this activity, the answer key is automatically displayed when the tries have been exhausted.

Since visual images are available from the video clip, it may be useful to create questions addressing non-linguistic behaviors. An example of this is:

Question: When the man greets her, he

- (1) kneels down
- (2) raises his hand
- (3) bows to her
- (4) hugs her

(4) Role-play

This implements a classic language laboratory type exercise with many enhancements. This is intended to be an activity for pronunciation practice and fluency building. Figure 5 shows the role-play screen. As can be seen, the whole script is displayed here. He can click the **play** button and have the entire dialogue replayed with each line highlighted as it progresses.

Also, the student can select each line of the script by clicking it. Once a line is selected, he can then click the **play model** button to have it played on the TV screen. In this way, he can practice saying each line in preparation for a role-play.

In the role-play mode, the student can choose timing and a role. If the dialogue is fast-paced, he may wish to choose twice the original timing (or longer) for his part. The student can choose to have his performance recorded if he wishes by checking the **record** radio button. In the record mode, only the other speaker's parts are replayed on the TV screen, and the student is to perform the chosen role as his turn comes. When the role-play is over, the **Hear yours** button becomes available. When it is clicked, the captured role-play between the learner and the other speaker(s) is replayed. One can also click on any line that he performed and compare his performance with the model by clicking the **play model** and the **play**

yours buttons.

If the non-record mode, the speaker that one has chosen to replace becomes silent, so that you can play the part. This mode can be used as a rehearsal before recording.

Multiple exercises can be prepared for this activity as well. For example, if the dialogue is very long, it may be useful to divide it into several pieces as different exercises.

(5) Cloze dictation

Figure 6 illustrates how cloze dictation is implemented.

The whole script is displayed with strategically placed blanks. The student's task is to listen to the dialogue and fill in the blanks with appropriate words or phrases. At this stage of learning, the student is expected to be able to produce important words and phrases.

When there are mistakes, a red box with a cross appears to flag them. After the scoring try the student can click the red box(es) to look at the correct answer, as in the other activities.

(6) Reconstruction

Reconstruction is the final activity intended to draw the learner's attention to the function of each utterance (the function it plays in the whole discourse) as well as the discourse structure of the dialogue. The object of this activity is to resequence jumbled pieces of the movie clip to reconstruct the original. Figure 7 shows how this activity is implemented.

The screen represents a special-purpose VCR that is capable of playing four video tapes. Four tapes with variously colored labels are currently in place ready to play using the play and stop buttons for each. To reorder the tapes, one grabs a tape and drags it into a tape sleeve down below (marked "VIDEO") and move another tape into its place. Two empty sleeves are provided as temporary storage places for the purpose of reordering. Tapes in the sleeves cannot be played.

There is also a memo function which allows the learner to write a quick note on the label of each tape. This note can be a number (indicating the order), Japanese text like *ohayou* (in Japanese or in romaji), or English text like *post office*. Since this is not a dictation task, the learner can use whatever words or phrases that will help

him remember the content. These memos, of course, are not scored.

The **play in current sequence** button plays the tapes from left to right showing how the segments play as they are currently ordered. Like the other activities, the **check** button evaluates the placement of each tape and gives error feedback with a red square with a cross.

Through this activity the learner is expected to develop discourse organization and production skills. As is perhaps obvious, the five activities are strategically ordered from easy and receptive to more difficult and productive.

Concluding remarks

The primary task of this article has been to briefly describe the VICTORY System. The point is not to present just another piece of CALL software, but to propose the VICTORY System or something like it as a vehicle for video delivery in foreign language teaching in the future. Evaluating the system for its effectiveness is an important next step, but is clearly beyond the scope of this article.

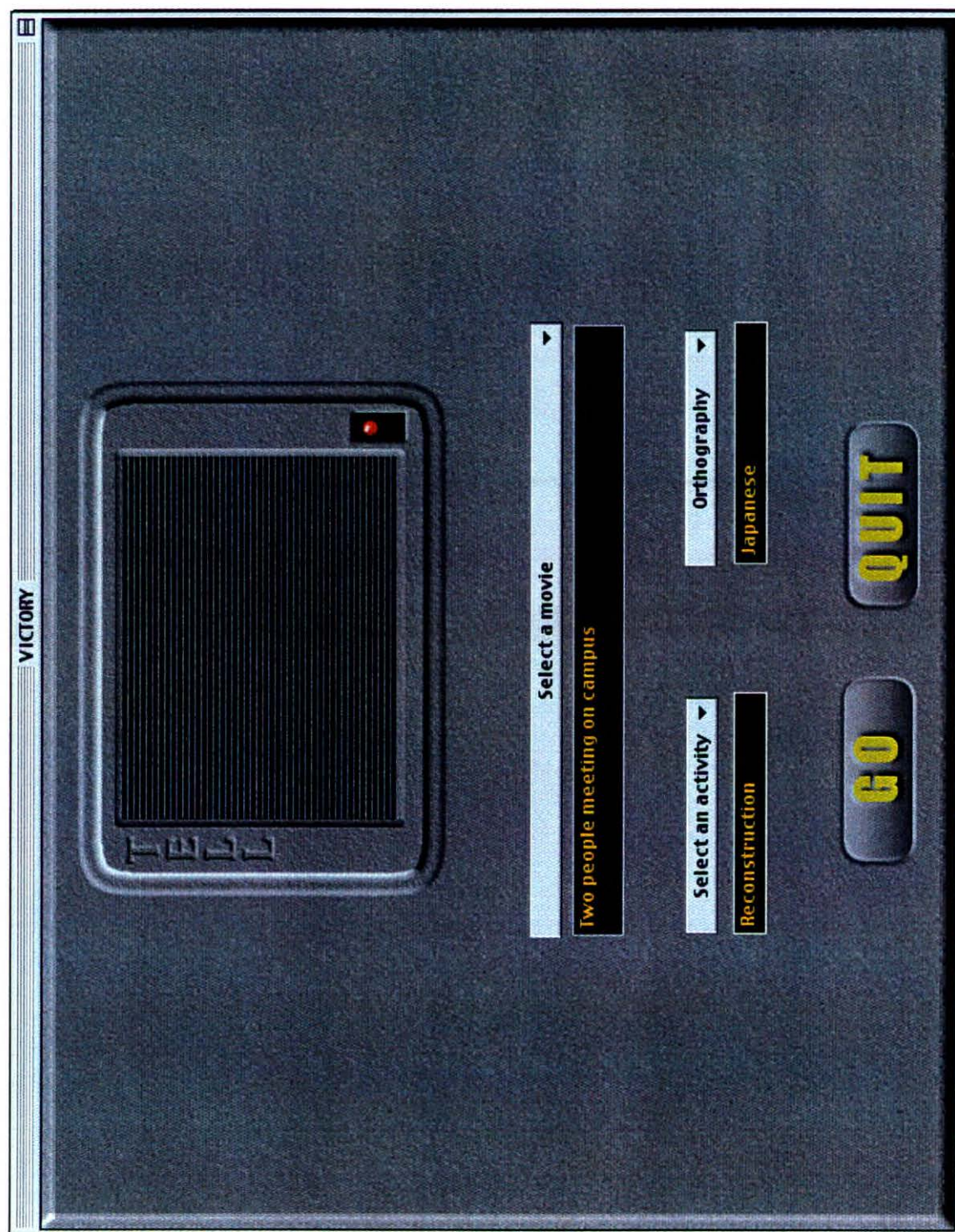


Figure 1. Browse mode

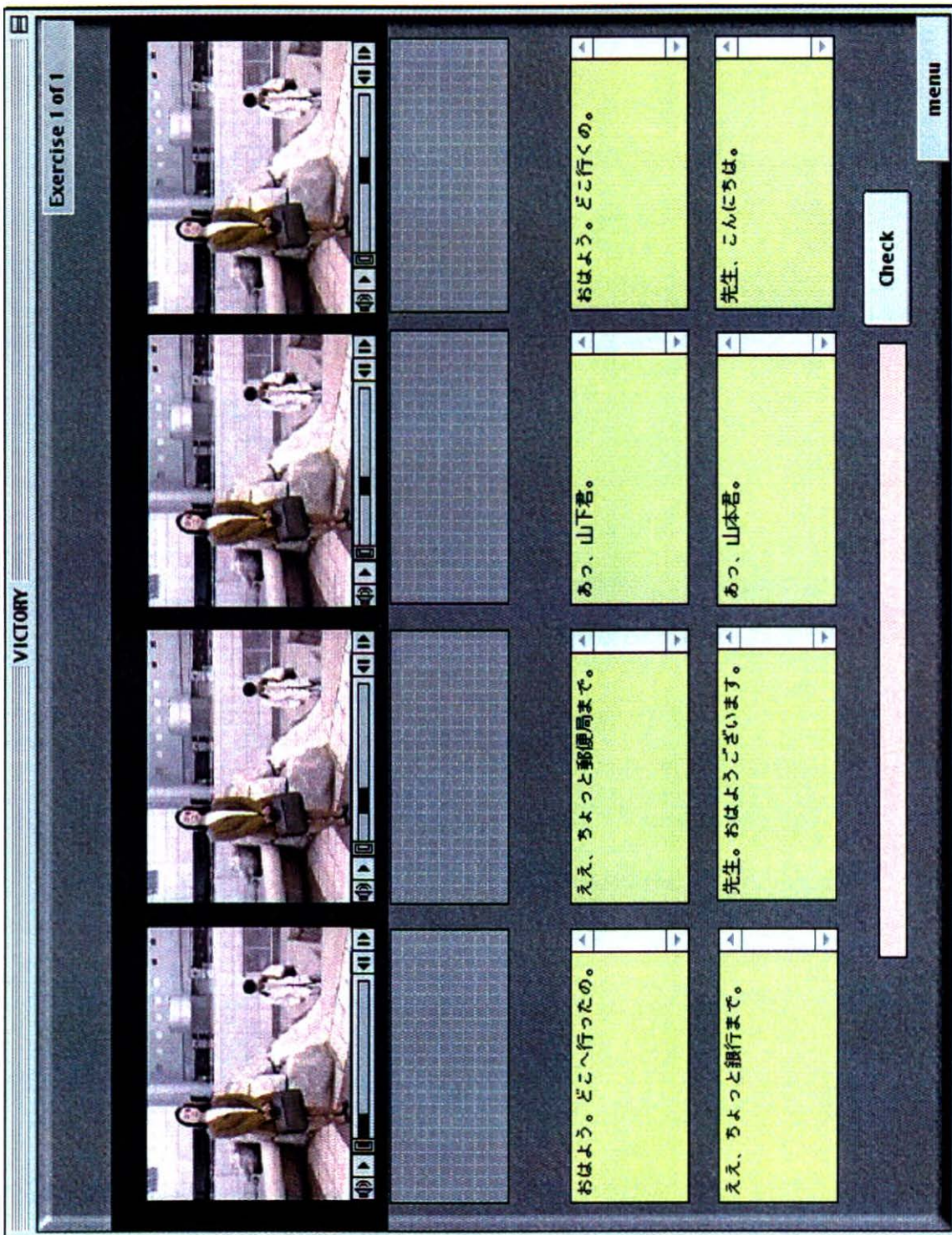


Figure 2. Subtitle activity screen

VICTORY

Exercise 1 of 1

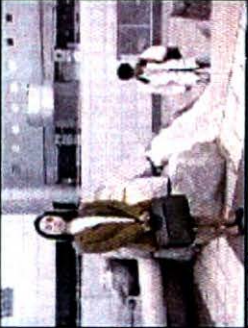
 <p>あっ、山下君。</p>	 <p>先生、こんにちは。</p>	 <p>おはよう。どこ行くの。</p>	 <p>ええ、ちょっと郵便局まで。</p>
<p>おはよう。どこへ行ったの。</p>	<p>先生。おはようございます。</p>	<p>あっ、山本君。</p>	
<p>ええ、ちょっと銀行まで。</p>	<p>There are mistakes. Can you fix them? Answer keys available. Click X.</p>		
<p>Check</p>			
<p>menu</p>			

Figure 3. Feedback in the Subtitle activity

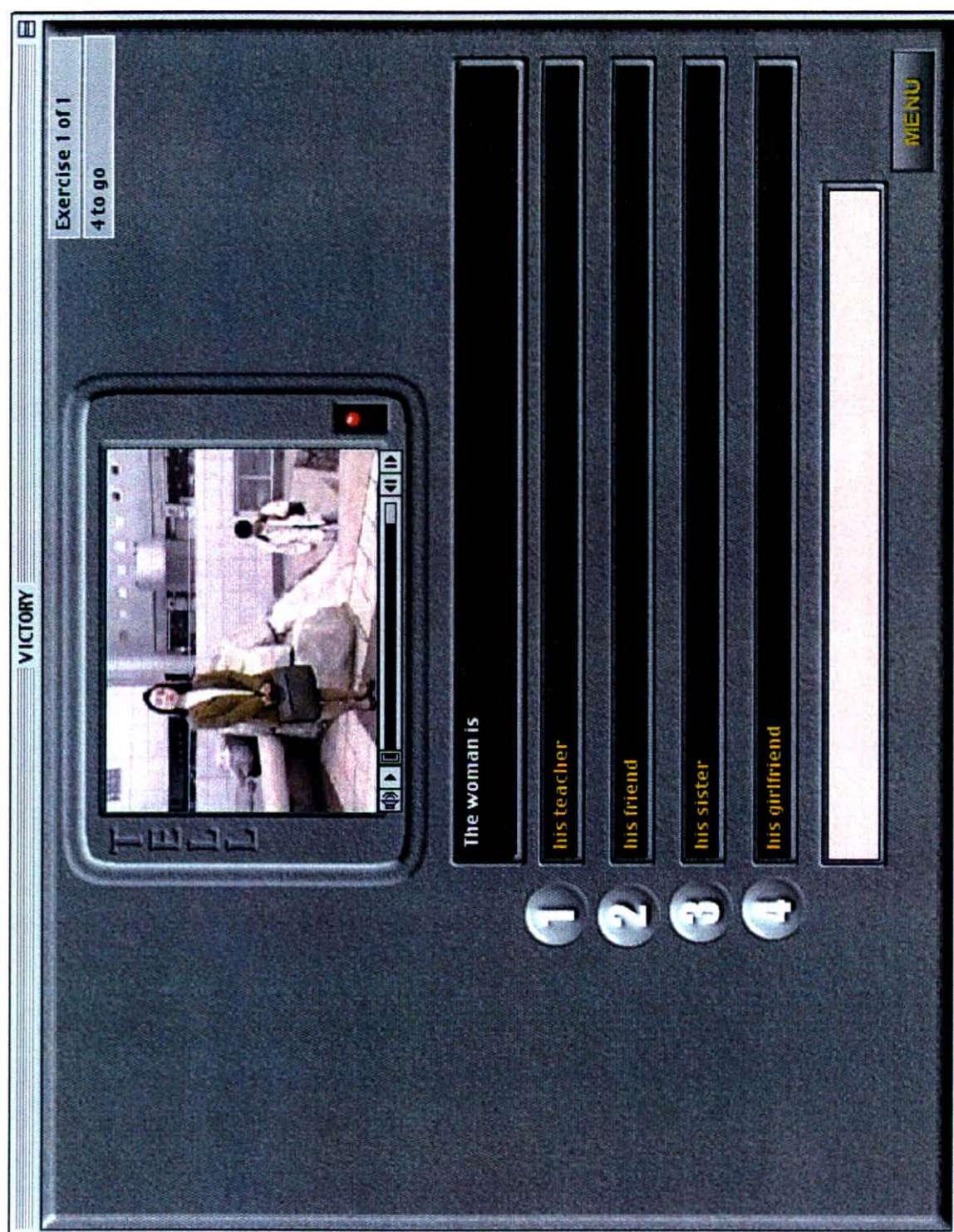


Figure 4. Comprehension activity

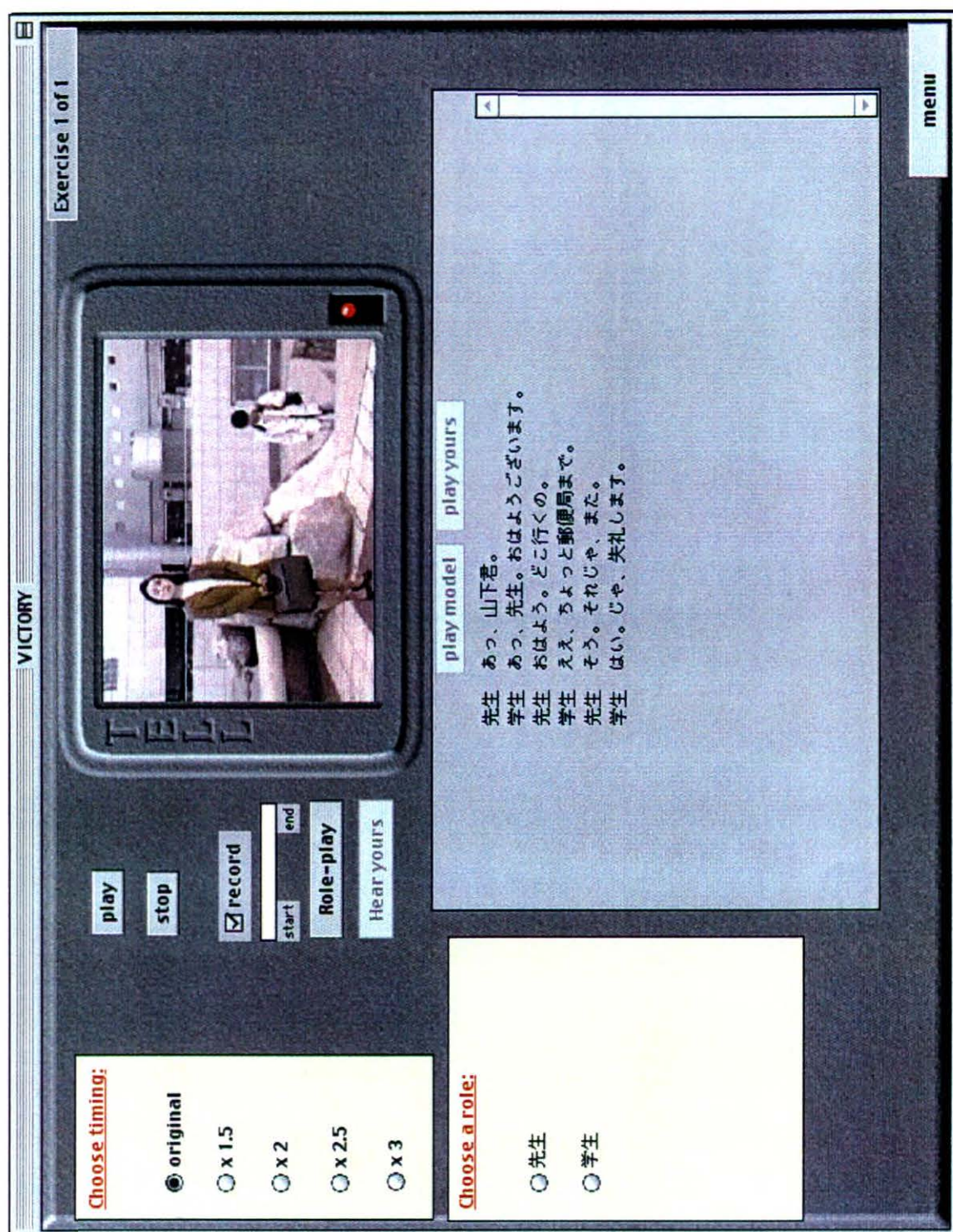


Figure 5. Role-play activity

VICTORY

Exercise 1 of 1

TELL



先生：あつ、(1)君。
 学生：あつ、先生。おはようございます。
 先生：(2)。どこ行くの。
 学生：ええ、ちよつと(3)まで。
 先生：そう。それじゃ、(4)。
 学生：はい。じゃ、(5)します。

(1) 山下
 (2) X おはよ
 (3) 郵便局
 (4) また
 (5) 失礼

Check

menu

There are mistakes. Can you fix them?
 Answer keys available. Click X.

Figure 6. Cloze dictation activity

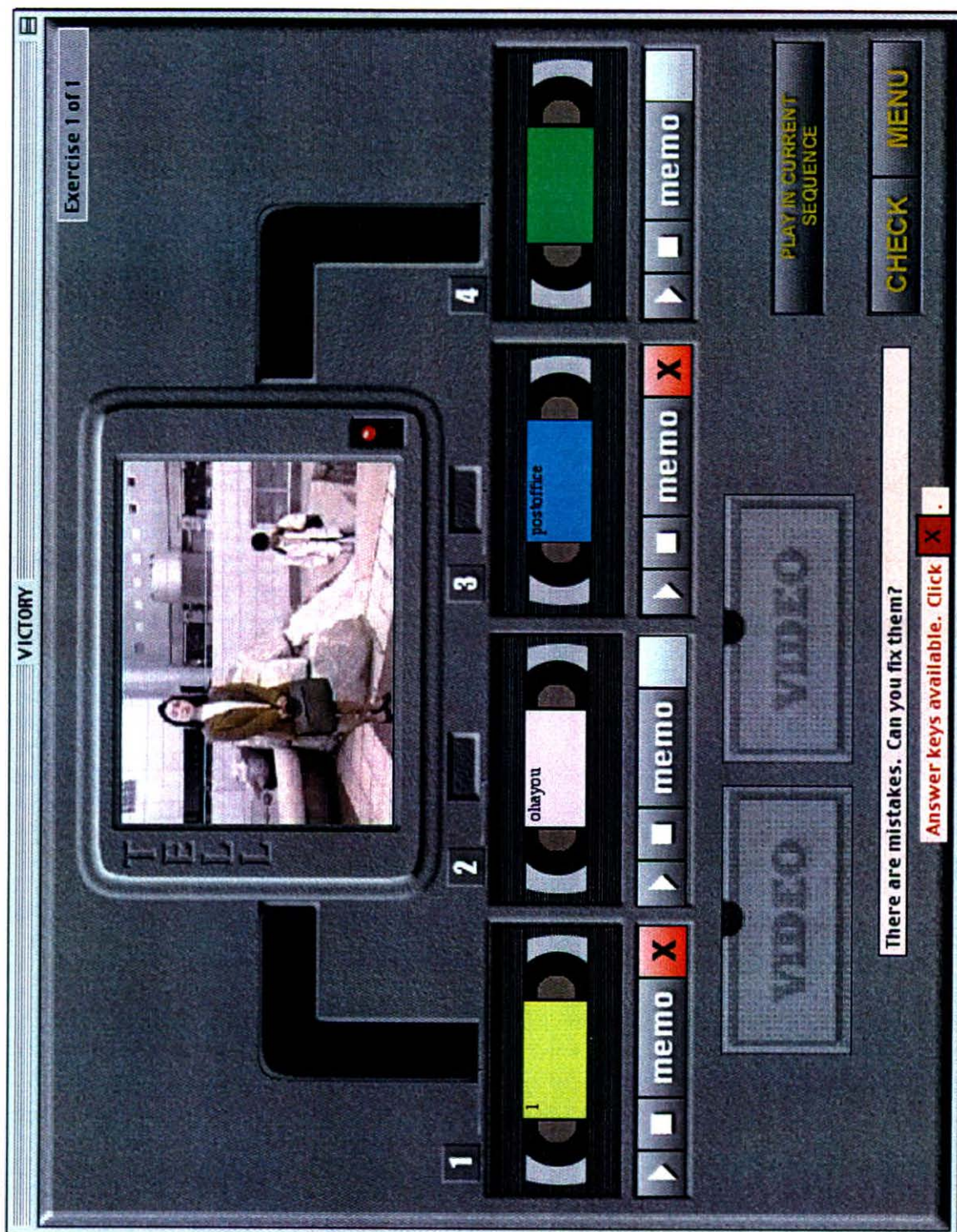


Figure 7. Reconstruction activity

Development of Kanji Character Frequency List and Its Application on WWW: *Java Kanji Flashcard 500*

Nobuko Chikamatsu, DePaul University*

Steve W. Ryner, DePaul University

Hironari Nozaki, Aichi University of Education

Shoichi Yokoyama, National Language Research Institute of Japan

This paper discusses (i) the development of a reliable Japanese kanji character frequency list, and (ii) its application to Japanese pedagogy, i.e., the development of a kanji reference and practice World Wide Web computer application, *Java Kanji Flashcard 500*. The present kanji character frequency list is based on the largest available electronic corpus of a full-year editions of a major Japanese newspaper (containing more than 23 million kanji characters and more than 4,000 different kanji characters). An analysis of kanji usage and correlation between the present list and the previous list is presented to examine trends and changes in modern Japanese kanji usage. Furthermore, the development of *Java Kanji Flashcard 500* is discussed. This application uses data derived from the kanji frequency list analysis and focuses on the 500 highest-frequency kanji characters. The application is available over the World Wide Web wherever Java is accessible and does not require Japanese-enabled browsers or operating systems.

I. Development of Kanji Character Frequency List

a. Backgrounds:

When kanji is taught in Japanese class, how should the characters be selected? In what order should the characters be presented? Many teachers deal with these questions by simply following the selection and ordering of characters found in a textbook. Others use kanji reference or practice books. It seems that the kanji characters in such textbooks or reference books are carefully selected and ordered according to the complexity of the characters and the relevance of the topics presented. However, even learners at advanced levels often encounter great obstacles when attempting to read authentic materials, such as newspapers, journals and magazines. Are Japanese teachers really introducing the proper characters at beginning and intermediate levels? Are enough characters being taught to satisfy the goals of learners wishing to read newspapers?

To answer these questions, it is necessary to understand the manner in which kanji

characters are used in modern Japanese. For this purpose, the authors have developed a new kanji character frequency list.

Word or character frequency lists provide information on how often a word or a character appears or is used in published mass media, such as newspapers or magazines. These lists are often crucial for research in numerous academic disciplines, such as linguistics, lexicography, cognitive science and language pedagogy. Many linguistic corpora and frequency lists are available in English in a computer database or through the Internet, such as the *Brown Corpus* (Kucera & Francis, 1967) and the *American Heritage Word Frequency Book* (Carroll, Davies, & Richman, 1972). In contrast, linguistic corpora for Japanese are very limited in number (Leech & Fligelstone, 1992; Edwards, 1993).

b. Previous Lists of National Language Research Institute

In 1962, the National Language Research Institute (NLRI) in Japan published a word frequency list, adopting a corpus derived from

* This research was supported by the *Japan Foundation Assistance Program for the Development of Japanese-Language Teaching Resources* and *DePaul University QIC Grant*. Address correspondence to Nobuko Chikamatsu, Department of Modern Languages, DePaul University, 802 West Belden Ave., Chicago, IL 60614; e-mail: nchikama@condor.depaul.edu.

90 journals and magazines over five genres (all published in 1956). A total of 140 million tokens, consisting of 40,000 different words, were analyzed to develop a word frequency list. In 1976, NLRI also published a kanji (character) frequency list using a corpus published in 1966 derived from three major newspapers, *Asahi*, *Yomiuri* and *Mainichi*. This corpus provided a total of almost 1 million kanji-character tokens and a frequency list of approximately 3,000 different characters. These lists have been used as an informative resource for many language-related research projects over the past three decades.

However, almost four decades have passed since the 1962 corpora and 1976 lists were collected, respectively. As a result, their reliability is now in question since the use of words or kanji in mass media and education may have changed. Furthermore, the existing lists are not easily accessed since, until recently, both were available only in hard copy form.¹ In the present study, a new kanji character frequency list was developed and was made available and accessible through the World Wide Web. As discussed below, this new frequency list is compared with the previous list to reveal changes in the usage of kanji characters in printed mass media.

c. New Kanji Frequency List i. Source of Data and Corpus

The present character frequency list is based on analysis of the corpus available on a CD-ROM published by a major national newspaper, *Asahi Shinbun*, (CD-HIASK'93: Asahi Newspaper, Kinokuniya & Nichigai Associate, 1994) covering one year of morning and evening editions published in 1993. Approximately 110,000 articles were analyzed², excluding headlines³. The corpus provided a total of 54,606,769 printable characters and was, therefore, the largest corpus thus far used for the compilation of a Japanese word and character frequency list. These 54,606,769 printable characters⁴ (excluding space characters) break down into the general categories shown in Table 1. A total of 23,402,604 kanji characters (i.e., tokens) were found, consisting of 4,471 different kanji characters (i.e., types). As shown in Table 1, kanji characters comprised nearly 43% of all the printed characters in the corpus analyzed.

Table 1: Character Type Totals

Type	83JIS range	raw frequency	frequency ratio(%)
Punctuation/ Symbols	0102-0214	5,462,497	10.00
Arabic Numerals	0316-0325	1,169,792	2.14
Latin Alphabet	0333-0390	259,513	0.48
Hiragana	0401-0483	20,707,315	37.92
Katakana	0501-0586	3,605,048	6.60
Kanji	1601-8404	23,402,604	42.88

Table 2: Kanji Character Frequency List

kanji	83JIS	rank ing	raw frequency	frequency ratio (%)	cumulative ratio (%)
日	3892	1	336,213	1.4366	
一	1676	2	285,020	1.2179	2.6545
十	2929	3	254,446	1.0873	3.7418
二	3883	4	223,021	0.9530	4.6948
人	3145	5	218,901	0.9354	5.6302
大	3471	6	218,648	0.9343	6.5645
年	3915	7	216,935	0.9270	7.4915
会	1881	8	214,972	0.9188	8.4101
国	2581	9	199,909	0.8517	9.2618
三	2716	10	173,470	0.7412	10.0030

This analysis resulted in a list of the kanji found sorted according to frequency. Table 2 is a sample of the frequency list, covering the first 10 characters. For each character, the list gives the 83 JIS code, the ranking, raw frequency, frequency ratio and cumulative frequency ratio. A portion of this kanji character list is available over the World Wide Web at URL:www.nozaki-lab.ics.aichi-edu.ac.jp.

The cumulative frequency ratio of kanji character usage is indicated in Table 3. Although many Japanese teachers and learners believe that 2,000 to 3,000 kanji characters must be learned in order to read Japanese newspapers, this conventional wisdom was not supported by the present data. According to the results of this analysis, the 500 highest-frequency characters covered approximately 80% of total kanji character use. Furthermore, the 1,600 highest-frequency characters covered 99% of total kanji character use. The remaining kanji characters (i.e., the next 3,000 characters), make up only 1% of the total use.

The cumulative frequency ratio obtained from the 1966 NLRI corpus (i.e., the 1976 NLRI list) is also indicated in Table 3. The results from the two corpora, which are 30 years apart, indicate almost identical ratios for each frequency level. Furthermore, according to the present frequency list, among the 500 highest-frequency characters ranked in 1966, 445 characters are also part of the 500 highest-frequency characters in the 1993 corpus. All of

those 55 characters lower than the first 500 are ranked within the first 1,000 high frequency characters in the 1993 corpus. Thus, the usage of high frequency characters (which cover 80% of the total kanji usage) has not changed much over the last 30 years. Indeed, the result of a correlation analysis⁵ of the 3,000 highest-frequency rankings between 1966 and 1993 indicates a significant high correlation, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Kanji usage scattogram of correlation between 1966 and 1993

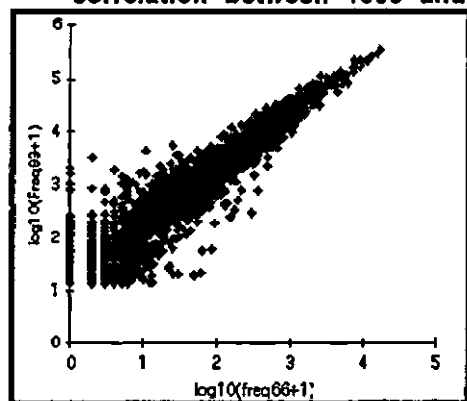


Table 3: Cumulative Frequency Ratio of Kanji Character Use

frequency rank*	cumulative frequency ratio (%)	
	1993	1966
10	10.00	10.61
50	27.41	27.64
100	40.71	40.15
200	57.02	56.05
500	80.68	79.42
1,000	94.56	93.88
1,500	98.63	98.40
2,000	99.72	99.63
2,500	99.92	99.90
3,000	99.97	99.98

* Each number indicates a highest rank ranging from 1

In summary, it is concluded: (i) kanji characters comprise for 43% of the printable characters in newspapers; (ii) the 500 highest-frequency characters account for 80% of kanji character usage in newspapers; (iii) the 1,600 highest-frequency characters account for 99% of kanji character usage in newspapers; and (iv) there appears to have been no significant change in kanji usage over the past 30 years.

II. Java Kanji Flashcard 500

This section discusses a World Wide Web kanji reference/practice application which was developed based on the 500 highest-frequency kanji characters identified above.

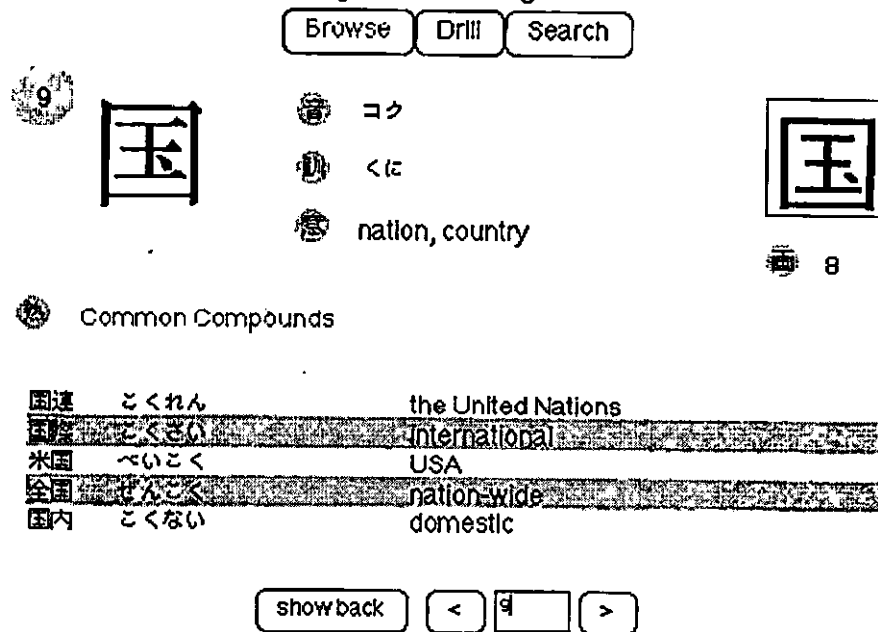
a. Program Description

The *Java Kanji Flashcard 500* is available over the World Wide Web at URL: www.nuthatch.com/java/kanjicards. This computer application was designed to help students learn the 500 most-commonly occurring kanji characters in mass media. This application is written as a Java applet and displays Japanese in Internet browsers that support Java 1.0 or higher. This application does not require a Japanese-enabled browser or operating system (e.g., JLK, Kanji Kit 97 etc.). The only requirement is a browser, such as Netscape 4.06 or Internet Explore 4.0, in the computer⁶.

Once the application is downloaded and starts running on the browser, individual kanji "cards" are presented to the user. Each card contains the following information.

- **Kanji character**
- **Rank:** The number in the upper left indicates the ranking of the characters, 1 through 500. The kanji characters are ranked in order from most common to least common, so the most common kanji can be studied first.
- **On/Kun reading:** The On-reading is given in katakana. The Kun-reading is given in hiragana.
- **Meaning:** The meaning of the character is indicated in English. A kanji may have multiple meanings. Only the most common meanings are shown.
- **Stroke Number & Stroke Animation:** A stroke-order animation is activated when the red box in the upper right is clicked on.
- **Common Compounds:** Five most common two-character compounds with the target character are listed with the reading and the meaning. The selection of the five words was made based on the same corpus used for the kanji frequency list. The compounds contain only other characters within this set of 500 highest-frequency characters.

Figure 2: Browsing cards



b. Three modes:

The program has three modes listed on the top of the card: (i) *Browse*: which lets the user look at all of the cards; (ii) *Search*: which lets the user search for a card using English meanings or on/kun-readings; (iii) *Drill*: which allows the user to review a subset of the cards.

i. Browsing the Cards: (see Figure 2.)

- **Flip Button:** Each card has two sides, a "Front" and "Back", and can be flipped over by clicking the Flip button. The label of the Flip button may say "show front" or "show back." The button will say "show back" when the user is looking at the front. The button will say "show front" when the user is looking at the back. The user can change what appears on the "front" and "back" of the card by clicking on any part of a card to show or hide it.
- **Forward and Back Buttons:** Movement buttons, < (back) and > (forward), moves the "stack" of cards forward and back to see different kanji.
- **Ranking Jump Box:** In order to "jump" to any card, a ranking number is typed in the text box between < and > .

ii. Searching for a Card:

Search can be conducted based on English meaning, or On/Kun-reading.

• Search by English Meaning (see Figure 3 with the example, "person".)

1. Click *Search* at the top to select the Search panel.
2. Choose *English* after *Search for* at the bottom of the Search panel.
3. Type a meaning in English in the "word box" at the right bottom. The search function locates any cards containing the focused information of the reading or the meaning.
4. Click *Find*.
5. A list of the cards will be shown with the focused information.
6. Scroll down the list if necessary.
7. Click on an entry to jump to that card in the Browse panel, or click *Browse* at the top to return to the card previously browsed.

• Search by Kun/ON-Reading: (see Figure 4 with the example of the Kun-reading, "naka", and Figure 5 with the example of On-reading, "KYU")

1. Click *Search* at the top to select the Search panel.
2. Choose *romaji* after "Search for the" at the bottom of the Search panel.
3. Type a Kun-reading in the lower case in the "word box" at the right bottom. Lower case romaji are translated into hiragana when searching, which will find the hiragana Kun

readings as well as the readings of all the compounds written in hiragana. Type an On-reading in the UPPER CASE in the "word box" to locate On-readings.

4. The rest is the same as search by English meaning.

Figure 3: Searching a card by Meaning

Browse Drill Search

2	一	イチ ひと (つ)	one one person
5	人	ジン ニン ひと man 本人 ほんにん the person himself	
11	本	ホン もと book, main, origin 本人 ほんにん the person himself	
19	者	シャ もの person	

Search for the english word: person Find

Figure 4: Searching a card by Kun-reading (Hiragana)

Browse Drill Search

13	中	チュウ なか center, middle, inside	
64	田	デン た rice field 田中 たなか Tanaka (personal name)	
241	半	ハン なか (ば) half, semi, middle	
283	州	シュウ ス province, state 中州 なかす sandbank in stream, bar	

Search for the romaji word: naka Find

Figure 5: Searching a card by On-reading (Katakana)

The screenshot shows a search interface with three buttons at the top: 'Browse', 'Drill', and 'Search'. Below the buttons is a list of search results. Each result consists of a card number, a Kanji character, its on-reading in Katakana, and its English meaning. The results are as follows:

Card Number	Kanji	On-reading (Katakana)	English Meaning
22	九	キュー	nine
240	求	キュー	もと (める) to request, to search, desire
298	宮	キュー	みや shrine, prince (of the blood)
360	球	キュー	sphere, globe

At the bottom of the interface, there is a search bar with the text 'Search for the' followed by a dropdown menu set to 'romaji', a text field containing 'kvu', and a 'Find' button.

Figure 6: Drilling

The screenshot shows a drilling control panel. It contains the following elements:

- A 'From' text field with the value '301'.
- A 'to' text field with the value '350'.
- A 'start' button.
- A 'show back' button.
- A 'Know this one?' label followed by two buttons: 'yes' and 'no'.

iii. Drilling Away:

The Drill mode lets the user study the cards (see Figure 6). After selecting a range of cards to study, the program will present them to the user. By clicking the "yes" and "no" buttons, the cards can be separated into two groups: (i) the cards that the user knows and does not need to see again, and (ii) the cards that the user does not know yet. The Drill control panel contains the following functions.

- **Start and End Textfields:** These fields are used to select a range of cards to study. Figure 6 shows a range of 50 cards from 301 to 350.
- **Start Button:** This button can be pressed to begin studying. Valid card numbers must be entered in the "Start" and "End" fields for this button to work.

- **Flip Button:** The Flip button behaves the same as in browse mode. Any part of the card can be clicked on to show or hide items on the "front" or the "back" of the card.
- **Yes and No Textfields:** These buttons are used to give feedback to the program. When "Yes" is clicked, the current character will not appear again. When "No" is clicked, the character will be seen later again.

The Drill mode keeps track of a user's progress by keeping a small number of flashcards in a "ring" that he cycles through. Each time the user presses the Yes button, a new card is added to the ring. If it is said No to a card, the card will be seen again when it comes back around in the current ring.

c. Printing cards

There is an HTML listing of all 500 kanji characters in the program along with their readings and compounds. However, to display and print them in Japanese, Japanese operating systems (e.g., *JLK* for Macintosh or *Kanji Kit 97* for PC) are required.

d. Sample Lesson Plans:

The program has been used in *Japanese* 201-203 (i.e., third-year Japanese courses) at DePaul University. Twenty-five characters are assigned every two to three weeks based on their rankings and are studied in a kanji session scheduled every two to three weeks. In the kanji session, a quiz is given, focusing on character and compounds. Reading materials have also been developed, including the focused characters and compounds as well as the grammar and expressions introduced in class. The topics of the reading materials vary from Japanese economy, politics, religions, society, to leisure, i.e., the current issues in Japan.

III. Conclusion:

In this paper, the development of most recent kanji character frequency list and its application; *Java Kanji Flashcard*, have been discussed. The current character frequency list is a variable tool to understand the modern Japanese kanji usage, and can help Japanese teachers think of and develop a new way to teach kanji in the future.

----- REFERENCES -----

Asahi Newspaper, Kinokuniya & Nichigai Associates. (1994). *CD-HIASK'93*. Tokyo: Kinokuniya Bookstore.

Carroll, J. B., Davies, P., & Richman, B. (1971). *Word frequency book*. New York: American Heritage.

Coulmas, F. (1989). *The writing systems of the world*, Oxford: Blackwell.

Kucera, H., & Francis, W.N. (1967). *Computational analysis of present-day American English*. Providence: Brown Univ. Press.

Leech, G., & Fligelstone, S. (1992). Computers and corpus analysis. In C. S. Butler (Ed.), *Computers and written texts* (pp. 115-140). Oxford: Blackwell.

Lunde, K. (1993). *Understanding Japanese Information Processing*. Sebastopol: O'Reilly & Associates.

National Language Research Institute of Japan (1997). *Gendai zasshi 90shu no yoogo yooji* (*The total vocabulary and their written forms in ninety magazines of today*), FD format. Tokyo: Shanseido.

National Language Research Institute of Japan (1976). *A study of the use of Chinese characters in modern newspapers: The National Language Research Institute Report 56*. Tokyo: Shuei shuppan.

National Language Research Institute of Japan (1962). *Gendai zasshi 90shu no yoogo yooji* (*The total vocabulary and their written forms in ninety magazines of today*). Tokyo: Shuei-shuppan.

----- Footnotes -----

¹ The 1962 list has been recently published in FD format (NLRI, 1997).

² Headlines were excluded from the current analysis because the inconsistency was observed in the printed form between the hard copies and the texts downloaded from CD ROM.

³ In addition to the articles downloaded from CD ROM, 114 articles were input manually in the database since they were not included in the CD ROM database.

⁴ All characters in the texts of the articles appear on the CD-ROM in full-width form, regardless of their form in the original articles.

⁵ Pearson Correlation Coefficient was conducted. The first 3,000 ranks included 3,031 characters in the 1993 list. Logarithmic transformation was used since the data were positively skewed, i.e., there were more low frequent characters and less high frequent characters.

⁶ To run the program, a computer should have at least 32MB in RAM. Downloading the data may take a few minutes depending on the speed of the connection to the Internet in individual computers.

A Study of the Speech Act Sets of Learners of Japanese as a Second Languages: Expression of gratitude

Miki Motohashi
Department of East Asian Languages and Literature
University of Wisconsin-Madison

1. Introduction

Recent research into authentic discourse has helped us understand that learners must acquire not only the structure of a second language, but they must also acquire the language's social rules so that they can use it in appropriate ways to fulfill language functions (Thomas 1982). Expressing gratitude is a speech act that has universally an important social value. Since children, we have been all taught that thanking is a very important matter of politeness. If you fail to thank in the right way and in the right situation, you are immediately judged to be rude. As with other cultural conventions and customs, however, there seems to be a wide variety of cross-cultural differences in use and conduct of thanking, so that saying 'thank you' in a proper way is a problem not only for native speakers but also for second language learners, who may lack such knowledge of culture-specific conventional way of thanking. Considering these factors, research on intracultural and cross-cultural variation in the use and realization of particular speech acts has generally focused on situational parameters such as power, social distance, and degree of imposition (Brown and Levinson 1987, Takahashi 1996). One of such studies was conducted by Eisenstein and Bodman (1986). According to them, the expression of gratitude could appropriately be thought of as a speech act set, rather than a solitary speech act. In addition to expressing the simple function of thanking ('thank you so much'), native-English speaking participants regularly expressed other functions such as complementing ('you're wonderful'), reassuring ('just what I wanted. And blue's my favorite color'), promising to repay ('I'll pay you back as soon as I can'), expressing surprise and delight ('Oh, wow!'), expressing a lack of necessity or obligation ('you didn't have to'), and so on. These groups of functions combined to

form a higher-level speech act set of expressing gratitude. Native speakers usually do not use only a simple expression consisting of only one sentence, but rather, a combination of a few expressions. Native speakers have conventional tendency of choosing fixed expressions in the proper situations. Therefore, if the learners' expressions are closer to the native speakers' combination, they can be considered higher level of speech act sets. Eisenstein and Bodman's study of expressing gratitude by native English speakers and non-native speakers with five different nationality groups, including Japanese, revealed that there was a significant difference of the levels of speech act set among nationality groups. Through a Discourse-completion test, they judged to what degree the subjects' speech act sets were close to the native-speaker subjects, taking into considerations their choice of words, expressions, and length of speech act sets, including combination of functions. Therefore, native-like, extensive uses of speech act sets were judged to be 'high level'. Japanese was ranked the lowest and Russian showed the highest; the most native-like speech act. However, they did not reach a definite conclusion what caused the difference among the learner groups.

More specifically, there is a significant characteristics in Japanese thanking; conventional use of alternation of 'thank you' and 'I'm sorry', for expressing gratitude (Richards and Sukwiwat 1982). Even for the same routine between different cultures, it is likely that the expressions that would be typically used have different functions. In English, 'thank you' may be used to express gratitude, but in Japanese the equivalent routine may not sound sincere enough, leaving the speaker with the urge to add 'I'm sorry'. Ogawa (1995) conducted a survey on this matter. Through multiple-choice questionnaires, she had the native Japanese informants choose one of the different kinds of expressions of gratitude and apology, which they are most likely to use in the given situations and in reality. She concluded that the native Japanese informants alternated the use of expressions of gratitude and apology depending on the situations, their feeling of indebtedness and the relationship with the interlocutors. Following these conditions, in some situations, both gratitude and apology could occur, but in the other situations, only either of them

would occur. As one of the reasons for this phenomenon, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), politeness as a communication strategy plays an important role. Following their concepts of politeness, it can be said that Japanese tend to use more 'negative politeness' than 'positive politeness' while 'positive politeness' is more important for Americans. Positive politeness is used to express solidarity, such as using in-group markers, noticing, attending to hearer's interests, indicating common ground, and so on. On the other hand, negative politeness functions to minimize the imposition, such as, being conventionally indirect, hedging, giving deference and apologizing.

2. Design of Study

2. 1. Purpose of Study

This study is based on the two previous studies mentioned above; Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) and Ogawa (1995).

First, since Eisenstein and Bodman went no further than stating the fact that their learners have a different routine of thanking from the native speakers, I am interested in what caused this difference. Even in cases where two languages possess a similar range of conventional, standard forms for the performance of a certain act, the conventions of use that govern the choice of a specific form in context might differ from one to another. I would like to convey the same kind of research on expression of gratitude by native and non-native Japanese speakers. Following Eisenstein and Bodman's result, it is highly likely that non-native speakers would show some different speech act sets from native speakers, so I hope to find the cause of the difference and, furthermore, consider how learners can acquire high level, native-like speech act sets from a pedagogical perspective.

Second, since Japanese may tend to use negative politeness to express gratitude characteristically, as discussed in Brown and Levinson (1978), it is highly likely that non-native speakers would show different strategies of thanking and different politeness, especially in use of

apology, '*Sumimasen*' (lit. I'm sorry). Since Ogawa's survey was conducted only for native Japanese speakers, I would like to examine that cases with non-native speakers.

Lastly, following a number of studies done so far, these potential differences could cause 'negative transfer', which in intercultural miscommunication cause by learners' falling back on their L1 sociocultural norms and conventions in realizing speech acts in a target language. (e.g., Beebe, Uliss-Weltz and Takahashi 1990). However, none of the studies has successfully shown a definite or clear evidence that the differences were due to 'transfer'; it is highly difficult to refer to such difference of tendencies of learners at pragmatic level to only one cause. Therefore, I would like to see whether the learners in this study show any errors, which can be called 'transfer'.

The research questions of this study can be summarized as follows: (1) what kind of difference native Japanese speakers and the learners of Japanese have in the ways of expressing gratitude; (2) what factors cause such differences, and (3) whether they are due to 'transfer'.

2. 2. Participants

The participants for this research consist of two groups: native Japanese speakers and English-speaking learners of Japanese. The learner's group was divided of two groups; eight learners enrolled in an intermediate level Japanese course at the University of Wisconsin – Madison in the spring semester of 1998, who had studied Japanese for 2 to 3 years in school. Three of them had studied in Japan, for ten months on average. In addition, four learners who all passed the first grade of Japanese Proficiency Examination, so that their proficiency levels can be considered as, at least, advanced. They had been living in Japan for more than 5 years and used Japanese on daily basis, at work and at home – with their Japanese spouses. All of the learners were native speakers of English between ages 20 and 27. The other group consists of twelve native Japanese speakers, who had been in the United States for less than one year, aged between 20 and 25, and all of them were students of the University of Wisconsin –Madison.

2. 3. Instrument

1) Part I: Discourse-completion test (DCT)¹, which included thirteen items², describing the situations in which expressions of gratitude occur. The situations represented a range of formality, the roles and the relationships of the interlocutors, the setting, and the events that require either a short expression of gratitude, or an elaborate extended expression of gratitude. The questionnaire are open-ended so that the participants could respond in any way that they wished. The learners were given the questionnaire written in English and could respond either in Japanese or in Romanized alphabets. The Japanese participants were given a Japanese version.

2) Part II: Questionnaire³, which is an English translated version of the questionnaire adopted in Ogawa's (1995) previous study. The questionnaire consists of the nineteen descriptions of the situations where one usually would feel like expressing gratitude. In multiple choice questions, the participants were asked to judge whether *either Arigatoo (gozaimashu/mashita)* 'Thank you (very much),' or *Sumimasen* 'I'm sorry,' or both of them are appropriate in given situations.

3) Interviews, which are to compensate for the drawbacks of the above tests. Writing tests such as DCT impose data limitations of their own (Robinson, 1993) since it is possible that it may not realize that the learners' actual response in the real situation, or, even for the same person, they may change response time to time depending on, say, their or the interlocutor's mood. It is also likely that a written instrument causes writing fatigue, allows participants to edit their answers, eliminates traces of interlocutor influence, and elicits less complex responses than would occur in natural speech. However, at the same time, this approach had definite advantages; given

¹ See Appendix 1 for the original.

² Some of the situations are adopted from Eisenstein and Bodman (1985).

³ See Appendix 2 for the original.

as much time as they needed to complete the questionnaire, the participants had enough time to plan and write down their best possible answer, and could get rid of their anxiety, which they might have had if tested orally. Beside, since the data gathered from our native speakers showed a unity of tendency of employing speech act sets, it can be said that it reflected their natural responses. However, as verbal reports by interviews may help to access the mental activities associated with language behavior, follow-up interviews were conducted with the five American participants after the tests.

3. Results

3. 1. Part I: DCT

In general, our native-Japanese speaking participants' expressions of gratitude could appropriately be described of as a speech act set. In addition to expressing the simple function of thanking '*Arigatoo*,' they regularly expressed a fixed set of other functions as well. These groups of functions combined to form a higher-level speech act set – expressing gratitude. On the other hand, the non-native participants sometimes do not show such regularity of forming a speech act set and show different formulation of a speech act set, depending on the situations. Below are the given situations in the questionnaires.

Table 1. Situational description of DCT

-
- 1) It's Friday. You look at your wallet and notice that you only have 500 yen. Your good friend at school notices this and hears you say, "Darn, I'll have to go to the bank." Your friend asks if you need money, and you say that you forgot to go to the bank. Your friend says, "I have plenty. How much do you need?" You say, "Could you lend me 2000 yen?" Your friend gives you the 2000 yen.
 - 2) It's your birthday, and you're having a few people over for dinner. A friend brings you a present. You unwrap it and find a white sweater.
 - 3) You have been working for McDonald's part time. One day, the manager called you into the office and said, "Since you have been doing such a good job, I have given you a 100 yen per hour rise."

- 4) You find yourself in sudden need of money – 50,000 yen. You mention this to a friend. Your friend immediately offers to lend it to you. At first you say, "Oh no, I didn't mean for you to lend it to me. I couldn't take it." Your friend says, "Really. It's all right. What are friends for?" After your friend insists again, you take the money.
 - 5) Your friend suggests going out for lunch. You say that you'd like to go, but you only have 500 yen. Your friend says, "Ah, don't worry. I'll take you today." Your friend takes s you to a very nice restaurant – a much more expensive one than the ones you usually go to. You have a wonderful meal. Your friend pays, and you get up to leave.
 - 6) You are going to quit your current job next week. Your superiors tell you that they have organized a farewell party.
 - 7) You have just gotten your haircut in a new style, and you like it better than the old way. Your friend sees you and says, "Hey, you've got a new haircut. It really looks nice."
 - 8) You have been invited to the home of a rather new friend. You have dinner with him and his wife and a few other friends of theirs. The food was great, and you really enjoyed the evening. As you leave, your hosts accompany you to the door.
 - 9) You are a college student. You were told to give a presentation by the professor in the next class. However, since you are worried, you say to the professor, "I'm not sure whether I can do a good job or not." He says, "Don't worry. I find you very capable. Your last paper was also well done."
 - 10) You have just gotten a new suit and you really like it. A superior at the office says, "It's a nice suit. It looks good on you."
 - 11) You are now writing a term paper. You have been doing your utmost to write this paper by staying up late every night. But you cannot proceed with this paper as you expected because you also must prepare for the final exams in your other courses. The paper is due tomorrow, but it seems that you need a few more days to complete this paper, so you ask the professor to extend the deadline. At first, he said that he could not extend the deadline, but as you explained and asked eagerly again and again, he finally gives in and says, "OK, I'll give you just two more days."
 - 12) You are now working at the office. You have an appointment to meet your friend at 7:00 tonight, but you can not make it on time for the appointment. You mention this to your superior at the same section as you and she says, "I can do it for you, so you can go." You feel bad, but you really need to meet the friend, so you decide to ask her to finish it for you.
-

The issue of social appropriateness in realizing speech acts in a second language involves problems as to when to realize the acts, problems of sequencing and appropriacy, the degree of politeness allowed in each situation and interlocutors, and the conventions of use that govern the acceptability of specific forms in context. The nature of the test used in this study allows for an analysis of the degree of adaptability of the speech act produced by the learners. By taking this into account, the results are summarized as follows.

3. 1. 1. Length of speech act sets

As for NS, the higher the imposition becomes, the longer, the more complicated the speech act sets become. This also holds true for the interlocutor in the higher social status. However, as for INNS, there seems no such tendency, which is consistent with Eisenstein and Bodman's result. Furthermore, we found that INNS used morphological means instead, such as polite forms to compensate for the higher impositions.

3. 1. 2. Violation of social appropriateness norms in the target language

Such drawing on the morphological mean as mentioned above, led INNS to misuse idiomatic expressions through lacking the enough knowledge. Thus, the distribution of INNS's responses differed significantly from situation to situation while all NS showed the similar strategies for the same situation. As Eisenstein and Bodman says, "although a wide variety of responses was theoretically possible, the native speakers were remarkably consistent in their choice of language - almost as if there was a finite number of options from which one selected - in other words, a mutually-shared script (p.172)".

3. 2. Part II: Questionnaires regarding alternation of *Arigatoo* and *Sumimasen*

The results revealed in what kind of situation *arigatoo* and *sumimasen* could be alternated and how different the strategies of these alternations are between native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS). The results of the percentage of the number of the participants, NS and NNS, who selected *sumimasen* are as follows.

Table 2: Situational description and results of questionnaire Part II

(NS=native speaker, INNS=intermediate non-native speaker, ANNS=advanced non-native speaker)

	% of NS who chose <i>sumimasen</i>	% of INNS who chose <i>sumimasen</i>	% of ANNS who chose <i>sumimasen</i>
1) You are walking on the street and a young woman tells you that you drop your wallet;	57%	0%	60%
2) You are walking on the street and a middle-aged man tells you that you drop your wallet;	57%	30%	57%
3) You are walking on the street and a high-school girl tells you that you drop your wallet;	0%	0%	0%
4) Your superior/teacher pours a beer for you at a party;	64%	40%	75%
5) Your friend pours a beer for you at a party;	0%	0%	0%
19) You are going to leave your adviser's office after having a talk;	0%	45%	0%
19) Your leg is wounded and a middle-aged man gives his seat to you on the bus;	85%	63%	75%
19) Your leg is wounded and a high-school girl gives her seat to you on the bus;	42%	50%	50%
19) Your leg is wounded and a 70-year-old lady gives her seat to you on the bus;	93%	40%	90%
10) You return a notebook to your friend;	0%	0%	0%
19) You are in the hospital and your friend calls you to see if you are OK;	0%	0%	0%
19) You are in the hospital and your superior/teacher calls you to see if you are OK;	53%	53%	57%
13) Your friend gives you a souvenir;	0%	0%	0%
19) Your acquaintance, who is older than you, gives you a souvenir;	57%	0%	50%
19) You return your professor's video camera to him after having borrowed it for a long time;	57%	45%	65%
19) You return your friend's video camera to him after having borrowed it for a long time;	0%	30%	0%
17) Your friend pushes the elevator button for you;	0%	0%	0%

18) Your professor pushes the elevator button for you;	79%	30%	85%
19) A stranger pushes the elevator button for you;	57%	50%	60%

4. Discussion

The results are discussed in light of the research questions presented above (Section 2.1.); the difference of speech act sets between native speakers and non-native speakers, the cause of this difference, and the possible existence of transfer.

4.1. Part I: DCT

4.1.1. Imposition and formality

Above are the situations given in DCT. Let us first examine some examples that the degree of imposition and formality of the situations influenced all of our participants' speech acts.

Situation 1): Borrowing 2,000 yen from a friend (low imposition + no formality)

It's Friday. You look at your wallet and notice that you only have 500 yen. Your good friend at school notices this and hears you say, "Darn, I'll have to go to the bank." Your friend asks if you need money, and you say that you forgot to go to the bank. Your friend says, "I have plenty. How much do you need?" You say, "Could you lend me 2000 yen?" Your friend gives you the 2,000 yen.

Example by Native Speakers (NS):

- 1) *Arigatoo. Tasukaru yo.* 'Thank you. It's a great help.'⁴

(Thanking + complementing the action)

- 2) *Arigatoo. Sugu kaesu kara. / Getsuyoo ni kaesun.e*

'Thank you. I'll pay you back soon. / I'll pay you back on Monday.'

(Thanking + Promise/Reassurance)

All the NS participants were consistent in their choice of set of speech acts as above; a combination of thanking and complementing, or promise/reassurance to repay.

Examples by Intermediate-level Non-native Speakers (INNS):

⁴ The translations are rough English equivalents given to be as close to the original as possible, so some translations may sound awkward.

- 3) *Arigatoo gozaimashita* . "Thank you very much."

(Thanking)

- 4) *Tasukete kureta kara, arigatoo. / Tasuketa Doomo arigatoo.*
'Because you helped me, I thank you. / You helped me. Thanks.'

(Complementing the action + Thanking)

As in 3), three NNSs showed only thanking, forming no speech act set, and wrong use of polite form, which is not appropriate to use to a friend in this situation. On the other hand, as in 4), other participants showed a native-like speech act set, not only thanking but also complementing, although they had slight grammatical mistakes or inappropriate expressions. Now, compare with the advanced-level non native speakers (ANNS);

- 5) *Arigatoo. Atode kaesu yo.* 'Thank you. I'll pay you back later.'

(Thanking + Promise/Reassurance)

- 6) *Sankyuu. Hayameni kaesu ne.* 'Thank you. I'll pay you back as soon as possible.'

(Thanking + Promise/Reassurance)

It is clearly observed that all of the ANNSs also formed speech act sets, but they are more natural and closer to NSs' than INNSs in terms of choice of expressions and grammaticality. Overall, however, without high imposition and formality, the learners do not seem to have difficulty in acquiring strategies of forming speech act sets, which is, comparatively easy for even INNSs.

Let us compare this situation with the one involving a higher imposition, but still the relationship to the interlocutor is close; between friends.

Situation 4): Borrowing 50,000 yen from a friend (high imposition + no formality)

You find yourself in sudden need of money – 50,000 yen. You mention this to a friend. Your friend immediately offers to lend it to you. At first you say, "Oh no, I didn't mean for you to lend it to me. I couldn't take it." Your friend says, "Really, it's all right. What are friends for?" After your friend insists again, you take the money.

Example by NS:

- 7) *Arigatoo Narubeku hayaku kaesune. Hontoo ni doomo arigartoo.*

'Thank you. I'll pay you back as soon as possible. I really thank you.'

(Thanking + Promise/Reassurance + Thanking)

- 8) *Arigatoo Meiwaku kakechatte gomen. Dekirudake hayaku kaesuyoo ni suru ne.*
'Thank you. Sorry for causing you trouble. I'll pay you back as soon as possible.'

(Thanking + Apologizing + Promise/Reassurance)

As above, all the NSs showed a united speech act set. However, this time, the speech act sets tended to be longer and more complicated, it is assumed that it can be compensated for the higher imposition. This point is also observed through the examples of ANNS;

- 9) *Arigatoo. Hontoo ni tasukatta yo. Hayameni kaesu yo.*
'Thank you. You helped me a lot. I'll pay you back as soon as possible.'

(Thanking + Complementing the action + Promise/Reassurance)

- 10) *Hontoo ni doomo arigatoo. Kanarazu dekirudake hayaku kaesukara ne.*
'I really thank you. I promise I'll pay you back as soon as possible.'

(Thanking + Complementing the action + Promise/Reassurance)

The combinations of their choice of expressions can be said native-like, forming longer speech act sets. Not only thanking, but also reassurance and complementing are necessarily followed. Compare the NS data with the INSS data to see if they have the similar choice;

Examples by INSS:

- 11) *Mooshiwake nai n desu ga, arigatoo gozaimashita.*
'Excuse me, but thank you very much.'

(Apologizing + Thanking)

- 12) *Doomo arigatoo gozaimasu. Osewa ni nari mashita.*
'Thank you very much. I was helped.'

(Apologizing + Complementing the interlocutor?)

- 13) *Arigatoo gazaimasu. Yaku ni tachi mashita.*
'Thank you very much. It was helpful.'

(Thanking + Complementing the action)

As shown above, misuses of polite forms stand out. In the interview, some of our NSS participants indicated that they felt that polite forms were needed for the higher imposition; saying "... 50,000 yen is a big money and the friend is so nice to lend me willingly. So, I would feel bad and thought I should use a polite form..." However, in reality, they are still inappropriate to be used to friends no matter how high the imposition will be. Also, as in 8) and 9), we can observe their use of idiomatic expressions, but in this case, the situation is not appropriate. In terms of speech act sets, their expressions were not as close to NS' as in Situation 1. It is assumed that these idiomatic expressions would try to compensate for the difficulty of forming such speech act sets in this situation.

Finally, we will examine the situations with high formality and high imposition.

Situation 11): A professor to extend a deadline (high imposition + formality)

You are now writing a term paper. You have been doing your utmost to write this paper by staying up late every night. But you cannot proceed with this paper as you expected because you also must prepare for the final exams in your other courses. The paper is due tomorrow, but it seems that you need a few more days to complete this paper, so you ask the professor to extend the due date. At first, he said that he could not extend the due, but as you explained and asked eagerly again and again, he finally gives in and says, "OK, I'll give you just two more days."

Examples by NS:

- 14) *Arigatoo gozaimasu. Yoi peepaa ni naru yoo ni doryoku shimasu.*
'Thank you very much. I'll do my best to write a good paper.'

(Thanking + Promise/Reassurance)

- 15) *Mooshiwake arimasen. Kanarzu maniawaseru yoo ni shimasu.*
'I'm sorry. I promise I'll do it in time.'

(Apologizing + Promise/Reassurance)

In this case, polite forms are used for the interlocutor in a higher social status. All the NS answers showed a pattern of a speech act set with Promise/Reassurance, which seems to be necessary to this highly demanded and formal situation.

Examples by INSS:

16) *Doomo arigatoo gozaimasu.* 'Thank you very much.'

(Thanking)

17) *Hai, osoreirimasu.* '(lit.) Excuse me/thank you.'

(Thanking?)

18) *Totemo isogashii kedo, doomo sumimasen.*

'Though you're very busy, I'm sorry.'

(Complementing the interlocutor + Apologizing)

19) *Shimekiri o nobashite itadaite, makotoni doomo arigatoo gozaimashita. Taihen shitsureii itashimashita.*

'Thank very much for extending the deadline. I awfully feel sorry.'

(Thanking + Apologizing)

Apparently, all the answers lack a native-like speech set, for instance, 'Thanking or Apologizing + Promise/Reassurance', instead, almost all of their answers, seven answers consisted of only one sentence, forming no speech act set. Also, in 17), five participants showed the inappropriate use of idiomatic expressions. 18) is a grammatical mistake of conjunction. According to the interview, the participant's intention was *noni* instead of *kedo*; 'Although you are so busy, I appreciate that you give me assistance'. This kind of misuses of conjunction can be observed throughout the questionnaires of most of the participants. Since the participant in 15) had studied in Japan for one year and her proficiency is approximately advanced, her answer was a little more complicated use of polite form and idiomatic expressions than the other INNS, but still found difficulty to reach the native-like regular use of 'Promise/Reassurance'. All the INNS participants in the interview said that this situation was the most difficult since they had to pay attention to polite forms, and had no idea what to say. The difficult situations made the participants form only a simple, one sentence.

Let us then examine the cases of ANNS:

20) *Arigatoo gozaimasu. Ii mono o dashimasu.*

'Thank you very much. I'll submit a good one.'

(Thanking + Promise/Reassurance)

- 21) *Mooshiwake nai desu. Zettai kondo maniau yoo ni shimasu.*
'I'm sorry. I promise I'll submit it in time next time.'

(Apologizing + Promise/Reassurance)

As clearly shown, their answers are just like the NS's speech act set; all of them successfully produced 'Promise/Reassurance'. It can be said that their speech act sets are much closer to that of the NS' than the intermediate NNS' as shown above.

So far, we have seen the interactions between the difficulty to form a native-like speech act set and the kind of situations, especially, the relation of the amount of imposition and the social status of the interlocutor. We observe that the higher the interlocutor's social state is and the higher the imposition of the interlocutor is, the more difficult it is for NNS to produce a speech act set.

4. 1. 2. Response to compliment

In the view of difficulty, let us now examine another situation that NNS found difficult: a response to a compliment.

Situation 7): Friend's compliment to a new hair style (Compliment + no formality)

You have just gotten your hair cut in a new style, and you like it better than the old way. Your friend sees you and says, "Hey, you've got a new haircut. It really looks nice."

Examples by NS:

- 22) *Arigatoo. Jibun demo kiniitteru n da.* 'Thank you. I also like it.'

(Thanking + expressing agreement)

- 23) *E, honto. Ureshii. Arigatoo.*

'Really? (lit.) That make me happy. Thank you.'

(Expressing surprise + thanking + expressing pleasure)

The speech act sets that they showed, just as above, a regularity of formulation; consisting of not only thanking but also expressing surprise, agreement, pleasure and so on.

Examples by INNS:

Examples by INNS:

24) *Arigatoo. /Doomo.* 'Thank you.' (Thanking)

25) *Iya... , chigaimasu.* 'No... It's not true.' (Rejecting)

26) *Hontooni soo omoimasuka.* 'Do you really think so?' (Rejecting/expressing doubt)

The first case is the lack of a speech act set, which seems, as observed above, that the difficulty of the situation made the NNS participants hesitate to produce a more complex expression. According to the interviews, that they had no idea how NS would respond to a compliment. This is closely related to another tendency, 'rejecting', denying the speaker's compliment immediately without thinking. This seems to be, partly, due to what they learned in the classroom. One participant said in the interview, "...I learned in Japanese society, you mustn't accept a compliment and it is arrogant to say 'thank you' to it..." All the INNS in this research were taught that in Japanese culture, people would not accept a compliment straightforwardly and they would be moderate, for example, saying "*sonna koto arimasen*" ('lit. No, it's not such that.') Some of the participants overgeneralized this tendency to the extent that all compliments should be denied. Compare INNS's responses with those of the ANNS's responses:

Examples by ANNS:

27) *Hontoo ni? Yokatta. Arigatoo.*
'Really? Good. Thank you.'

(Expressing surprise + expressing pleasure + thanking)

28) *Jitsu wa ore mo kiniitteru n da. Arigatoo*
'Actually, I also like it. Thank you.'

(Expressing agreement + thanking)

They showed a solid set of speech act just like NS's; consisting of expressing pleasure, agreement and so on, and thanking was also followed in all the examples, which is the same tendency as in the NS's responses.

Let us see another situation of the response to a compliment, but this time, with formality.

Situation 9): Professor's compliment to your work (Compliment + formality)

You are a college student. You were told to give a presentation by the professor in the next class. However, since you are worried, you say to the professor, "I am not sure whether I can do a good job or not." and he says "Don't worry. I find you very capable. Your last paper was also well done."

Examples by NS:

- 29) *Arigatoo gozaimasu. Umaku ikuka dooka fuan desuga, ganbatte mimasu. / Shinpai desu ga, nantoka yatte mimasu.*

'Thank you very much. I don't have much confidence whether or not I can do it well, but I'll do my best.'

(Thanking + Promise/Reassurance)

- 30) *Soodesuka. Arigatoo gozaimasu. Mata nani ka attara yoroshiku onegaishimasu.*

'I see. Thank you very much. I'm worried but I'll try to do it.'

(Confirmation + thanking + expressing a desire to maintain the relationship)

High level of speech act sets can be observed, which need syntactically and morphologically complicated sentences and knowledge of customary and convention. As seen Situation 11, the social distance to the interlocutor determined the NS's choices of such high level of speech act sets.

Examples by INNS:

- 31) *Hon too desuka. Jaa yarimashoo.*

'Really? Then, I'll do it.'

(Confirmation + Promise/Reassurance)

- 32) *Maa, isogashi n desukara, doomo sumimasen.*

'(lit.) Well, since you're busy, I'm sorry.'

(Expressing care to the interlocutor (?) + Apologizing)

These responses are unacceptable both pragma-linguistically and socio-linguistically. For example, 27) *Jaa yarimashoo.* (lit. 'Well/OK, I'll do it.') lacks a proper polite form, and 28) has a grammatical mistake in choice of conjunction; which should have been say, *isogashii noni/tokoro...* and apologizing is not appropriate in this situation. The learners knew that only

thanking was not enough and tried to form a speech act set to some extent, but did not know what other expressions were appropriate in this situation. Observe other examples:

33) *(Ni) bai ganbari masu.* '(lit.) I'll do twice as much as my best.'

(Promise/Reassurance)

34) *Sensee ga omoi ni natta node, tamehite omiseshimasu.*
'Since you (teacher) thinks so, I'll try and demonstrate it.'

(Promise/Reassurance)

35) *Amari jishin o motte orimasen ga, watashi ni dekiru koto nara, yorokon de sasete itadaki masu.*
'I don't have much confidence in my ability but if it is within my ability, I'm willing to do it.'

(Promise/Reassurance)

These examples can be said to be close to NS's speech act sets, in terms of a proper polite form and a solid expression of promise/reassurance, though there are some grammatical mistakes. However, they are not appropriate pragma-linguistically, which would sound unnatural as a convention and customary expression. On the contrary, our ANNS successfully formed appropriate speech act sets in terms of both appropriate polite forms and conventionally accepted expressions:

Examples by advanced NNS:

36) *Hagemashite itadaite, arigatoo gozaimasu. Omoikitte ganbarimasu.*
'Thank you for encouraging me. I'll do my very best.'

(Complementing the action + thanking + promise/reassurance)

37) *Aragatoo gozaimasu. Ja, nantoka ganbatte mimasu.*
'Thank you very much. I'll try y best anyway.'

(Thanking + Promise/reassurance)

Notice all the responses by intermediate NNS lack thanking. Some of them said, in the interviews, they felt that thanking was not appropriate, because of the same reason as situation 7.

4. 2. Part II: Questionnaires regarding alternation of *arigatoo* and *sumimasen*

First, let us look at the items where only INNS chose *sumimasen*. In situation 6) (leaving advisor's room), no NS chose *sumimasen*, while 30% of INNS chose it. In the interview, three of them said that they would say *sumimasen* whenever the interlocutor is a professor or someone at higher social status. They consistently chose *sumimasen* for all the situations where the interlocutor was a professor or a superior. On the other hand, the other said that they chose *sumimasen* when they disturbed someone; in this case, they disturbed the professor. Therefore, they would not say *sumimasen*, in situations 1) - 3) (dropping a wallet) since they did not feel they disturbed those who just told him having dropped his wallet, while they would say so in such situations as 7) - 9) (given a seat in a bus) since they 'disturbed' the interlocutor by taking over his/her seat. In the interview, one INNS participant said, "... I would use *sumimasen* when I disturbed someone by doing something and feel 'I'm sorry' to him..."

Similarly, in 16) (returning a video to a friend), no NS chose *sumimasen*, since it is not appropriate and is too formal to thank a friend. On the contrary, 30% of INNS chose it because they felt they 'disturbed' the friend by borrowing a video camera for a long time.

According to Ogawa's previous study, conducted to only native Japanese speakers, Japanese would feel 'sorry' to unexpected kindness, too. Even if the imposition is not big, such as in 14) (given a souvenir) and 19)-20) (someone's pushing an elevator button), or 'disturbance' does not necessarily occur, owing the person his kindness may lead Japanese to choose *sumimasen*. This point is consistent with 9) (an aged woman's giving in her seat), where the NS would feel a great owing to an aged woman who may also need a seat. Thus, NS chose *sumimasen* considering both the relationships to the interlocutor and the situation at the same time. For example, they never chose *sumimasen* to their friend in any situation, while they would choose *sumimasen* to their professor in some situations, but prefer *arigatoo gozaimasu* in other situations, depending on which feeling is stronger, appreciating or apologizing.

On the other hand, observing the INNS's tendency of *sumimasen* choice, it seems that they have their own rule of choosing; whenever the interlocutor is a superior, regardless of what the situation is like, or whenever they disturbed someone, regardless of who the interlocutor is, *sumimasen* would be appropriate. For NS, however, there seems to be no such rule as NNS have.

It can be said that INNSs tend to be only form-focused, without considering other factors, when choosing *sumimasen*. Some INNS also said, *sumimasen* means only "I'm sorry." So they would not choose *sumimasen* at all since they did nothing wrong. Also, overall, the rate of INNS's choosing *sumimasen* was much lower than that of the NS's. Since they simply did not know how to use it, they did not choose it at all. According to the post-test interview, most of them were not sure about the use of *sumimasen* since they claimed that they had not been taught in school. One INNS participant even says, "... I would never choose '*sumimasen*' because I don't know how to use it. I've never learned in the class..." Although some of them tried to use it by forming their own rules as mentioned above, especially those who had a previous experience of studying in Japan, their performance was still not adequate. However, by observing the result of ANNS, it can be said they acquired successfully the appropriate use of *sumimasen* by experiencing at first hand. As mentioned above, the factors to choose *sumimasen* involve not only form-focused rules, but also the factors at more abstract level, such as subjective feeling. In addition, in reality, the use of *sumimasen* is indispensable in daily conversation. Therefore, there should be paid more attention to teaching *sumimasen*.

5. Conclusion

We have seen that native data showed consistent use of expressions of gratitude within specifically defined contexts, often in the form of speech act sets. The extent of thanks was meaningful with longer speech act sets produced under conditions of social disequilibrium when the perceived need for thanking was great. As the previous study of Eisenstein and Bodman also

showed, NNS had considerable difficulty adequately expressing gratitude in the target language. Some problems were pragma-linguistic in nature, exhibiting differences from native use on lexical and syntactic levels. In addition, learners were often unable to approximate native idioms and routines. Eisenstain and Bodman also says "the surprisingly poor performance of learners who exhibited high proficiency in English... (p. 171)". However, in our study, by comparing INNS and ANNS, we found that as the learners' proficiency would become higher, the speech act sets also become more native-like. Also, we found that INNS tended to avoid forming extensive use of expressions in the difficult situations and ended up with very simplified expressions and only one sentence lacking speech act sets. This also holds true for the use of *sumimasen*. Although NS use this expression highly frequently on a daily basis, many INNS claimed that they did not know the proper usage partly due to the lack of classroom instruction. In Ogawa's previous study, as mentioned above, while NS differentiate the uses of *arigatoo gozaimashita* and *sumimasen*. However, since such differentiation is not based on the fixed set of rules, it may be difficult to be taught in class.

Thus, as we have discussed, there are some possible causes to make the above difference arise.

5. 1. The difficulty of the situation

Their speech act sets become close to NS's with low imposition and close social distance; with high imposition and high formality make it difficult for them to form a native-like speech act set. Thus difficult situations are such as; 1) high imposition and high formality, which induce simplification of speech acts. 2) Response to compliment. In such situations, speech act sets with fixed idiomatic expressions including polite forms may be needed.

5. 2. Overgeneralization of classroom instruction

As we have seen in the situation of responses to compliment, INNS tended to reject, rather than accept it by thanking, which might be the influence of the school instruction. Without in-depth knowledge and experience of application to actual situations, this kind of conventional routine might be sometimes misunderstood by the learners.

5. 3. Unfamiliarity of the expression

As we have seen in the questionnaire regarding the use of *sumimasen*, NNS may lack the knowledge how to use the expression because they are not taught in school so that they tended to avoid using it where it may be more appropriate. Further study is needed, but this may hold true for other functions and fixed idiomatic expressions of thanking, such as, *osoreirimasu*, *wazawaza doomo*, and so on.

5. 4. Transfer

Although Eisenstein and Bodman argued that interlanguage of speech act realization is clearly influenced by transfer of social norms from the first language and culture (p. 175), our data did not show any evidence of transfer. In some situations, as we have seen, INNS tend to make up their own rules, however, it cannot be said due to influence by their L1 culture, but rather, other factors, such as overgeneralization of classroom instructions as we have seen above.

Finally, to translate this study into the classroom, if simulations and role plays are used in teaching, it is essential to provide information describing the situation, the relationships of the speakers, and the setting which is sufficiently detailed that the students will be able to respond adequately. For example, the teacher may provide with the students the examples of the native speakers' speech act sets, such as in this study. In addition, by showing the learners' examples as well, which contain wrong uses of idiomatic expressions, grammatical mistakes and so on, the teacher should explain why those examples are considered to be 'unacceptable'. Furthermore, introduction of not only the expressions, (e.g. *Arigatoo. Tasukattayo*) but also their functions

(e.g. Thanking + complimenting) the action would be helpful for the students to learn the immediate application of what they are taught in the classroom into real situations. Also, the student should learn the difference and similarities between native and target cultures. Realistic settings and situations for practice should be needed. We also need to learn the language-specific and the language-universal aspects of expressing gratitude by paying much more attention to functional use of language.

Reference

- Aston, Guy (1995). Say 'Thank you': Some Pragmatic Constraints in Conversational Closings. Applied Linguistics, 16 (1), pp.57-85.
- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1978). Universals in language usage: Politeness Phenomena. In E. N. Goody (ed.), Questions and Politeness. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Eisenstein, M. & Bodman, J.W. (1986). 'I very Appreciate': Expressions of Gratitude by Native and Non-native Speakers of American English. Applied Linguistics, 7 (2), pp.167-185.
- Ogawa, H. (1995). Kansha to wabi no teishiki hyogen. Nihongo Kyoiku, 85.
- Richards, J.C. & Sukwiat, M. (1982). Language Transfer and Conversational Competence. Applied Linguistics, 4 (2), pp. 113-125.
- Robinson, M. (1993). Introspective Methodology. In Kasper, G (ed.), Pragmatics of Japanese as native and target language. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Takahashi, S. (1996). Pragmatic Transferability. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18, pp. 189-223.
- Thomas, Jenny. (1982). Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Failure. Applied Linguistics, 4 (2), pp. 91-112.

PART I

Please read the following short descriptions of situations in which you might find yourself. Think of what you might say in response to this situation. Write your response in the space provided. Say as much or as little you wish. You may write your answers either in Japanese letters or in romanized alphabets.

For example:

You have borrowed a very helpful book from your superior. You are returning that book to her right now.

(or) ありがとうございました。大変助かりました。・・・
 Arigatoo gozaimashita. Taihen tasukari mashita.

1) It's Friday. You look in your wallet and notice that you only have 500 yen. Your good friend at school notices this and hears you say, "Darn. I'll have to go to the bank." Your friend asks if you need money, and you say that you forgot to go to the bank. Your friend says, "I have plenty. How much do you need?" You say, "Could you lend me 2000 yen?" Your friend give you the 2000 yen.

2) It's your birthday, and you're having a few people over for dinner. A friend brings you a present. You unwrap it and find a white sweater.

3) You have been working for McDonald's part time. One day, the manager called you into the office and said, "Since you have been doing such a good job, I have given you a 300 yen per hour raise."

4) You find yourself in sudden need of money -- 50000 yen. You mention this to a friend. Your friend immediately offers to lend it to you. At first you say, "Oh no, I didn't mean for you to lend it to me. I couldn't take it." Your friend says, "Really, it's all right. What are friends for?" After your friend insists again, you take the money.

5) Your friend suggests going out to lunch. You say that you'd like to go, but you only have 500 yen. Your friend say, "Ah, don't worry. I'll take you today." Your friend takes you to a very nice restaurant -- a much more expensive one than the ones you usually go to. You have a wonderful meal. Your friend pays, and you get up to leave.

6) You are going to quit your current job next week. Your superiors tell you that they have organized a farewell party.

7) You have just gotten your hair cut in a new style, and you like it better than the old way. Your friend sees you and says, "Hey, you've got a new haircut. It really looks nice."

8) You have been invited to the home of a rather new friend. You have dinner with him and his wife and a few other friends of theirs. The food was great, and you really enjoyed the evening. As you leave, your hosts accompany you to the door.

9) You are a college student. You were told to give a presentation by the professor in the next class. However, since you are worried, you say to the professor "I am not sure whether I can do a good job or not," and he says "Don't worry. I find you very capable. Your last paper was also well done."

10) You have just gotten a new suit and you really like it. A superior at the office says "It's a nice suit. It looks good on you."

11) You are now writing a term paper. You have been doing your utmost to write this paper by staying up late every night. But you cannot proceed with this paper as you expected because you also must prepare for the final exams in your other courses. The paper is due tomorrow, but it seems that you need a few more days to complete this paper, so you ask the professor to extend the due date. At first, he said that he could not extend the due, but as you explained and asked eagerly again and again, he finally gives in and says, "OK, I'll give you just two more days."

12) You are now working at the office. You have an appointment to meet your friend at 7:00 tonight, but you cannot make it on time for the appointment. You mention this to your superior at the same section as you and she says, "I can do it for you, so you can go." You feel bad, but you really need to meet the friend, so you decide to ask her to finish it for you.

PART I

下の各文の状況に自分をあてはめみてください。もし、その状況が現実だったとしたら、あなたはどうか対応しますか？各文の下の空欄に、あなただったら何を言うかを続けてください。長さは自由です。何センテンスでも結構です。もし何も言わないとしたら、空欄のままにしておいてください。

Please read the following short descriptions of situations in which you might find yourself. Think of what you might say in response to this situation. Write your response (if any) in the space provided. Say as much or as little you wish--you may choose to say nothing in several circumstances.

For example:

あなたは先輩から本を借りていました。その本はとても良い本で、試験勉強にとっても役に立ちました。今その先輩にちょうど本を返すところです。

ありがとうございます。すごく助かりました。...

1) 金曜の夕方です。あなたが財布を見ると、500円しかありません。思わず「しまった、銀行へ行かなくちゃ。」とつぶやくと、クラスの仲のいい友達が、それに気づいて、「現金ならたくさん持っているから貸してあげるよ。いくら必要？」といってくれました。あなたが「じゃあ…、2000円ぐらい借りてもいいかな？月曜日に絶対返すから。」と頼んだところ、友達は「もちろん。それで足りる？」と言いました。あなたが足りる、と答えるとその友達は2000円渡してくれました。

2) 今日はあなたの誕生日です。あなたは友達を呼んでパーティーを開いています。友達がプレゼントをくれました。中を開けてみると白いセーターです。

3) あなたはマクドナルドでアルバイトしています。ある日、店長のオフィスに呼ばれました。店長はあなたに座るように言いました。まだ働いて2週間しかたっていないため、あなたは少し緊張しています。店長は「君はとてもよく働いているよ。」とほめてくれました。「がんばってくれているんで、君の時給を300円あげることにしたよ。」と言います。

4) あなたは突然ある事情で、今すぐ5万円がどうしても必要になりました。そのことを友達に言ったところ、すぐに、貸してあげようと言ってくれました。あなたは驚きましたが、とてもありがたくも思いました。それから、友達は財布から一万円札を五枚取り出して、渡してくれました。最初あなたは、「いや、そんなつもりじゃなかったのに…五万円も受け取れないよ。」と言いましたが、友達は「心配しないで。そういうときの友達じゃないか。」と何度も言うので、あなたは受け取ることになります。

5) あなたの友達が昼ご飯を食べに行こうと誘いました。あなたは、行きたいのだけれど500円しか持っていない、と答えました。友達は、「あー、いいよ、大丈夫。今日は、おごるよ。」と言ってくれました。それから、とてもすてきな、普段行かないようなとても高いレストランにつれて行ってくれ、とてもおいしいランチを食べました。今、食べ終わって、レジで友達が払っています。

6) あなたは転職しようとしています。来週、今の仕事を辞めることにしました。直属の上司が、あなたのお別れパーティーを開いてくれる、と言っています。

7) あなたはちょうど昨日、美容院に行って新しい髪型にしたばかりです。前の髪型よりも、気に入っています。友達が気づいて「あっ、髪型変えたんだ。すごく似合っていて素敵だよ。」と言ってます。

8) あなたは友達の家でのパーティーに招待されました。その友達は最近知り合ったばかりです。彼と彼の奥さん、何人かの友達ととてもおいしいディナーを食べ、楽しい夜を過ごしました。パーティーが終わり、友達が玄関で見送ってくれています。

9) あなたは大学生です。教授に次のクラスで、プレゼンテーションをするように言われました。あなたは不安なので教授に「うまくできるかどうか、自信がありません。」と相談しました。教授は「君は有能だから大丈夫だよ。前のペーパーも良くできていたよ。」と言ってくれました。

10) あなたは新しいスーツを買ったばかりです。高かったけれど、とても気に入っています。会社に着ていったところ、職場の先輩が「素敵なスーツだね。」とほめてくれました。「スタイルがいいから似合うんだね。」と言ってくれました。

11) あなたは試験があさってあり、また、タームペーパーのしめきりもあしたです。タームペーパーをなんとか終わらせようと、がんばってきましたが、試験勉強もしなければならぬので、ペーパーはできそうにありません。そこで、しかたがないので教授に相談に行きました。はじめ教授はしめきりをのぼすことはできない、といいましたが、あなたが何度も事情を話して頼むと、ついに「じゃあ2日だけのぼしてあげよう。」と言いました。

12) 今あなたは会社で働いています。あなたは7時半から友達と会う予定ですが、今やっている仕事が終わりそうもないので、このままだと、残業になってしまいそうです。そのことを同じ課の先輩に話すと、「かわりにその仕事をやってあげるから、早く帰っていいよ。」と言ってくれました。あなたは、その先輩はきびしくて有名な人だし、そのようなことは全然期待していなかったので少し驚きました。

PART II

それぞれの状況に対して、あなたならどうお礼を言いますか？

- 1) 「ありがとう」
- 2) 「(どうも) ありがとうございます」
- 3) 「(どうも) ありがとうございました」
- 4) 「(どうも) すみません」

以上4つのお礼の表現に対して、あなただったらどう思うか、次のように判断して()の中に印を入れてください。

How would you thank someone in such situations as described below?

- 1) "Arigatoo"
- 2) "(Doomo) arigatoo gozaimasu"
- 3) "(Doomo) arigatoo gozaimashita"
- 3) "(Doomo) sumimasen"

Think whether these expressions are appropriate and mark each situation as follows in parentheses according to your judgement.

- : 普通に使うもの (appropriate)
 △: よくわからないもの (not sure)
 ×: 普通は使わないもの (not appropriate)

For Example:

父親が、ごはんを食べているときに塩をとってくれたとき
 Your father passes you salt during dinner;

ありがとう	(どうも) ありがとうございます	(どうも) ありがとうございました	(どうも) すみません
(○)	(×)	(×)	(×)

※例えば、上の例の状況で、もし自分だったら「すみません」と言わないだろう、と思ったら×を書いてください。

For example, in the above situation, if you would not say "Sumimasen", put × in the parentheses under the corresponding column.

-
- | | ありがとう | (どうも)
ありがとうございます | (どうも)
ありがとうございました | (どうも)
すみません |
|---|-------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------|
| 1) 道を歩いていて、財布を落とし、若い女性が教えてくれたとき
You are walking on the street and a young woman tells you that you drop your wallet; | () | () | () | () |
| 2) 道を歩いていて、財布を落とし、中年の男性が教えてくれたとき
You are walking on the street and a middle-aged man tells you that you drop your wallet; | () | () | () | () |
| 3) 道を歩いていて、財布を落とし、女子中学生が教えてくれたとき
You are walking on the street and a high-school girl tells you that you drop your wallet; | () | () | () | () |
| 4) パーティーで、目上の人(上司、先生)がビールを注いでくれたとき
Your superior/teacher pours a beer for you at a party; | () | () | () | () |
| 5) パーティーで、友達がビールを注いでくれたとき
Your friend pours a beer for you at a party; | () | () | () | () |
| 6) 先生のオフィスで話し終わって、部屋を出るとき
You are going to leave your adviser's office after having a talk; | () | () | () | () |

- 7) 足にけがをして、バスに乗っていて中年の男性に席を譲られたとき () () () ()
Your leg is wounded and a middle-aged man gives his seat to you on the bus;
- 8) 足にけがをして、バスに乗っていて女子中学生に席を譲られたとき () () () ()
Your leg is wounded and a high-school girl gives her seat to you on the bus;
- 9) 足にけがをして、バスに乗っていて70才ぐらいの女性に席を譲られたとき () () () ()
Your leg is wounded and an about 70-year-old lady gives her seat to you on the bus;
- 10) 友達にノートを借りて、返すとき () () () ()
You return a notebook to your friend;
- 11) 入院していて、お見舞いの電話を友達からもらったとき () () () ()
You are in the hospital and your friend calls you to see if you are OK;
- 12) 入院していて、お見舞いの電話を先生(または上司)からもらったとき () () () ()
You are in the hospital and your superior/your teacher calls you to see if you are OK;
- 13) 友達から、おみやげをもらったとき () () () ()
Your friend gives you a souvenir;
- 14) 年上の知り合いから、おみやげをもらったとき () () () ()
Your acquaintance, who is older than you, gives you a souvenir;
- 15) 先生に貸してもらったビデオカメラを長い間借りた後、返すとき () () () ()
You return your professor's video camera to him after having borrowed it for a long time
- 16) 友達に貸してもらったビデオカメラを長い間借りた後 返すとき () () () ()
You return your professor's video camera to him after having borrowed it for a long time
- 17) お父さんに貸してもらったビデオカメラを長い間借りた後、返すとき () () () ()
You return your father's video camera to him after having borrowed it for a long time
- 18) エレベーターで友達があなたの行きたい階のボタンを押してくれたとき () () () ()
Your friend pushes the elevator button for you;
- 19) エレベーターで教授があなたの行きたい階のボタンを押してくれたとき () () () ()
Your friend pushes the elevator button for you;
- 20) エレベーターで知らない人があなたの行きたい階のボタンを押してくれたとき () () () ()
A stranger pushes the elevator button for you;

The Effectiveness of Study Abroad to Japan

Hamako Furuhashi
Mount Union College

The number of American students who study abroad has increased drastically since the 1980s. These students think that a study abroad experience will positively influence their job seeking opportunities and also their graduate study. In our college, the number of students studying abroad has also increased. It would be interesting to investigate the impact of study abroad. There are some studies about study abroad in European countries and others, little study has been done about of Japan. In this paper, I will investigate the role of study abroad regarding international education, and I will show the most updated data for study abroad in the US. I will also analyze the data from a survey questionnaire about the awareness of international understanding and the development of Japanese language proficiency from Mount Union College students who studied abroad in Japan during last three years.

The Role of Study Abroad

In an interdependent world, study abroad is considered to have an significant importance for creating international awareness. It may also develop the cross-cultural knowledge and information that are needed to enhance global awareness. Also, from the point of view of language acquisition, there is adequate data that indicate clearly that competence in a foreign language requires an extended stay in-country (Brecht and Walton, 1994). The primary reasons to study abroad include the desire for foreign cross-cultural experience and the improvement of foreign language ability. There is also desire to live with and make acquaintances from another country (Carlson, 1990).

The National Foreign Language Center of Russian in the United States clearly demonstrates that "a basic functional ability in Russian is unlikely to be acquired on the basis of four years of studying Russian in a domestic college "(Brecht and Walton, p215,

1994). Japanese is even more difficult for Americans than Russian. With three or four years of domestic college learning, most of the students can reach only intermediate level in the ACTFL proficiency assessment. It is a very rare case when the student can reach the level of advanced and superior in ACTFL proficiency. Therefore, domestic instruction is insufficient for the task of producing students with high level language skills.

Foreign language learning in the United States is basically limited to a classroom within the first language environment, while the second language learning takes place in the environment of the target language. It means that the quality and quantity of input available to the second language learner in Japan are much greater than what is available to the foreign language learner here. Oral practice is restricted to specific situations and structured around questions and answers in the classroom setting. Foreign language learners in a college are exposed to the language three or four hours a week in the classroom and one hour in a language lab. They really do not have enough opportunity outside the classroom for a meaningful language exchange with native speakers (Raphan and Gertner, 1990). Study abroad means that learners are switched from limited foreign language exposure to full-time the second language learning. Therefore, study abroad will be a significantly meaningful way for the students to achieve language proficiency.

The study of Carlson et al (1990) indicates that the post-test of study in "cultural interest and respect", in terms of the effect of cognitive aspects, shows great improvement. In Oppen, Teichler and Carlson (1990)' study, the students' higher percentage on the post-test in self-evaluation of their foreign language proficiency is very evident.

Data of Study Abroad

Study abroad programs for Americans enjoy a boom. The most updated data of study abroad from 1994 to 1995 in The Chronicle of Higher Education (1996) will be shown in this paper (See Appendix A). A total of 84,400 U.S. students went in 1994-95 and it was an increase of 10.6% over 1993-94, according to a survey by the Institute of International Education. The total was almost twice that of nine years ago (1980s). The

idea of study abroad is finally catching on in the United States. Ten years ago it was just an attractive extra to the college experience, but now people are increasingly seeing it as a central part.

In the gender category, men are 38% and women are 62% of study abroad students. In ethnic terms, 86% of the students are white which is quite high. Hispanic-American, Asian and African-American numbers are quite low. Throughout the US, 75.4% of college students are white, and 55.4% of college students are women.

Short-term programs are very popular. More than half of the US student who went overseas in 1994-95 did for a semester or less. Only 14% went to for an entire academic year.

The majority of those who studied abroad, 65.5%, went to Europe and Britain. Some went to Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe and Latin America. Asia attracted 5,440 US students, 1,257 of them studying in China. Latin America saw an increase of 13.5% and the majority studying in Mexico. 1,290 students went to Russia, but that was a 14.7% decrease. Rising crime in Russia may be the reason. 3,346 students went to Australia, which is an increase of 41.8%.

In terms of the field of study, 37% of the students studied the social science and humanities. 14% were in the business field and 10% were foreign language majors. 43% were college juniors and 16% were seniors.

The Effectiveness of Study Abroad on International Understanding

One of the often-stated goals of international exchange is to lead to increased levels of global understanding. The Educational Testing Service's 1981 survey, "College Students Knowledge and Beliefs: A Survey of Global Understanding" was used to measure the students change prior to and after the study abroad program (Barrows, Ager, Bennett, Brown, Clark, Hariis and Klein, 1981). The students who filled out the survey questionnaire were six students who went to the study program at Kansai Gaidai in Japan

from Mount Union College. The students were asked to respond to the questions over the phone. As only six students were involved in the survey, it can only be considered exploratory research. This instrument has been used in other investigations that have assessed global awareness (Carlson and Widaman, 1988). The scales are used to assess the cognitive aspects of international understanding. It asks the respondent to describe his or her position, ranging from "extensive (1)", "considerable (2 and 3)", "fair (4)", "slight (5 and 6), and "nonexistent (7)" on 17 items. There are three sections; peace and cooperation (7 items), cultural interest (4 items) and cultural respect (4 items) (See Appendix B).

Among three factors, "cultural interest and respect" had the highest percentage and "international activities" the lowest. This number means that the students were most influenced by the factor of cultural interest and respect.

In "cultural interest and respect" section, "negative feelings about foreigners" showed the highest percentage, 70%, which means that students' negative feelings about foreigners largely decreased compared to their feelings prior to their stay in Japan. The percent of "Respect for tradition, culture, way of life of other culture" was higher, which means the students' respect for tradition and culture largely increased. "Actual or desired travel to foreign nations (57%)" ranked the third, which means the students how wanted to travel to foreign nations more frequently.

In the second factor, the percentage of "need for closer cooperation among nations" was higher than the other items, which means that the students started feeling the significance of closer cooperation between nations after the students came back from study abroad.

In the third factor, the percentage for 'actual participation in activities aimed at effecting greater international understanding' was high. This data shows us that the students are more involved in activities related to international understanding after study abroad.

The Effectiveness of Study Abroad on Japanese Language Proficiency

One of the primary objectives of study abroad programs is the improvement of students' foreign language skills. The majority of students who study abroad, with the exception of those who study in English-speaking country of course, rank development and refinement of foreign language skills as their top-priority goal.

A self-appraisal method developed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) was used for the students who went to study abroad in Japan. There were six students who participated in this study. The mailing was used to answer the questionnaire. The ETS scale, developed by ETS for Education and the World View, a two-year project of the Council on Learning (1978-80), consists of "can do" statements assessing language ability in 4 areas: speaking proficiency, listening comprehension, reading ability, and writing ability. The items are arranged in Guttman-like scale, that is, in an ascending order of difficulty. The task of the individual completing the scale is to indicate those items that he or she can do quite easily in the foreign language that he or she knows best. Two same formats were used in prior to and after study abroad.

In speaking skills, there is a 30% increase in the prior and after Japan level (See Appendix C). Most students mastered the level of intermediate and some students ranked in advanced level or superior level in ACTFL proficiency. But compared to French and German, mean percentage in all skill areas in Japanese were lower. The percentage for post-Japan skill level is almost same percent as the French students pre-France skill. However, when comparing the prior and after Japan, there is a improvement in each item.

In the listening skill, there is also an increase from 24% to 52% between prior and after Japan in their self-appraisal. But the percent of improvement is still quite lower compared to French and German. However, there is some improvement in their learning Japanese.

In the self-appraisal of reading ability prior to and after study abroad, there is not so much increase as in speaking and listening skills. More than half the categories have zero increase. In writing skill, the percent of each category is quite low.

As a whole, we can see a large increase of percentage in speaking ability between prior to and after study abroad. The second largest increase is in listening skill. The third category is reading and the last one is writing skill. I can summarize that the speaking skill is easier to master than listening. Reading and writing skills of Japanese are more difficult than the first two skills for the students even though they went to study abroad. This is the same phenomenon for other languages such as French and German.

Conclusion and Implications

There is the significant change and increase in international understanding and Japanese language proficiency. In the awareness of international understanding, the first factor, cultural interest and respect indicate the largest increase prior to and after study abroad. In Japanese language proficiency, speaking skill shows the greatest change and listening skills is second. At the beginners level, according to second language acquisition, listening skill is better than speaking skill. But the students in this study are beyond that level, and some items ask the students more advanced skills. This data gives us the effectiveness of study abroad in Japanese.

Since the sample in this study is not adequate, a greater number of students is required for further study. I can compare Japanese with other languages such as Spanish, French, German etc. Further study could be done by using the students actual speech through the interview such as word order of the syntax, the analysis of postposition and verbal inflection, since the data is based on self-evaluation of the students.

References

Barrows, T., Ager, S. M., Bennett, M. F., Brown, H. I., Clark, J. L. D., Harris, L.G., & Klein, S.F. (1981). College Students' Knowledge and Beliefs: A Survey of Global Understanding. New Rochelle, NY: Change Magazine Press.

Brecht, R. & Walton, R. (1994). Policy Issues in Foreign Language and Study Abroad. The Annals of the American Academic of Political and Social Science, 532, 213-25.

Carlson, J. S. & Widaman, K.F. (1988). The Effects of Study Abroad During College on Attitudes Toward Other Cultures. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 12, 1-17.

Carlson, J. S., Burn, B. B., Useem, J. and Yachimowicz, D. (1990). Study Abroad: The Experience of American Undergraduates. New York: Greenwood Press.

Hess, J. D. (1997). Study Abroad/Learning Abroad. Yarmouth: Intercultural Press, Inc.

Oppper, S., Teichler, U. & Carlson, J., (1990). Impacts of Study Abroad Programmes on Students and Graduates. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Raphan D.& Gertner M. (1990). ESL and Foreign Language: A Teaching and Learning Perspective. Research & Teaching in Developmental Education, 6(2), 75-84.

Rubin, A.M. (1996). Study-Abroad Programs for American Enjoyed a Boom Year in 1994-95. Chronicle of Higher Education, 43, Dec 6, A64.

Appendix A

Data of Study Abroad in the United States (from Chronicle Higher Education, 1996).

Host Regions

<i>Host Regions</i>	
Europe	65.5%
Latin America	13.7%
Asian	6.4%
Oceania	4.3%
Multiple Regions	3.8%
Middle East	3.3%
Africa	2.2%
North America	0.7%

Program Profile

<i>Duration</i>	
One semester	39%
Summer Term	30%
Academic Year	14%
January Term	7%
One Quarter	5%
Fewer than 8 weeks	3%

Student Profile

<i>Sex</i>	
Men	38%
Women	62%

<i>Race/Ethnicity</i>	
White	86%
Hispanic-American	5%
Asian-American	5%
African-American	3%
Native American	0%

<i>Field of Study</i>	
Social Sciences and Humanities	37%
Business	14%
Foreign Languages	10%
Fine or Applied Arts	9%
Physical Sciences	7%
Education	4%
Engineering	2%
Health Science	2%
Math or Computer Science	1%
Agriculture	1%
Dual Major	4%
Undeclared	3%
Other	6%

<i>Academic Level</i>	
Freshman	3%
Sophomore	11%
Junior	43%
Senior	16%
Bachelor's unspecified	18%
Master's	4%
Doctoral	1%
Graduate unspecified	3%

Top Destinations

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>Students #</i>	<i>1 year change</i>
1	United Kingdom	19,410	+15.5%
2	France	7,872	- 0.6
3	Spain	7,473	+ 7.7
4	Italy	7,062	+ 10.2
5	Mexico	4,715	- 0.1
6	Germany	3,504	- 0.2
7	Australia	3,346	+41.8
8	Multiple Countries	3,180	+ 8.5
9	Israel	2,621	+27.9
10	Costa Rica	2,302	+30.4
11	Japan	2,212	- 0.8
12	Austria	1,489	-27.0
13	Russia	1,290	-14.7
14	China	1,257	+30.4
15	Ireland	1,191	+ 7.1

Appendix B

Summary in International Understanding in Study Abroad

Factor 1: Cultural Interest and Respect

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. Respect for Historical, Cultural Traditions
Achievements of Nations Other than Your Own | 50% |
| 2. Desire to Meet and Interact with Person Not
From Your Home Country | 37% |
| 3. Actual or Desired Travel to Foreign Nations | 57% |
| 4. Negative Feelings About Foreigners | 70% |
| 5. Critical Views of Your Own Country | 34% |
| 6. Views that Values of Your Own Society are Not
Universal and that Values of Other Societies
Are Just as Valid | 48% |
| 7. Respect for Traditions, Culture, Way of life
of Other Culture | 62% |
| 8. Interest in Learning More Languages | 39% (M 49%) |

Factor 2: Peace & Cooperation

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. Desire for International Peace | 34% |
| 2. Wish to Find Solution to Global Problems | 20% |
| 3. Need for Closer Cooperation among Nations | 46% |
| 4. Concern with Problems of Third World Countries | 37% (M 34%) |

Factor 3: International Activities

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. Awareness of Problems Common to Many Nations | 34% |
| 2. Actual Participation in Activities | 45% |
| 3. Membership in Organizations Concerned with International
Understanding | 37% (M 39%) |

Appendix C

Self-Appraisal of Speaking Proficiency Prior to and After Study Abroad

	French		German		Japanese	
	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>
Count to ten in the language	100	100	100	100	100	100
Say the days of the week	99	100	100	100	100	100
Give the current date (month, day, year)	99	100	100	100	100	100
Order a simple meal in a restaurant	96	100	93	100	83	100
Ask for directions on the street	95	100	95	100	83	100
Buy clothes in a department store	91	99	84	100	33	100
Introduce yourself in social situations and use appropriate greetings and leave-taking expressions	88	98	86	100	67	100
Give simple biological information about yourself (place of birth, composition of family, early schooling, etc.)	96	100	98	100	50	100
Talk about your favorite hobby at some length, using appropriate vocabulary	63	93	67	96	0	100
Describe your present job, studies, or other major life activities accurately and in detail	76	97	52	97	17	83
Tell what you plan to be doing five years from now, using appropriate vocabulary	56	95	46	93	17	50
Describe your country's educational system in some detail	49	87	46	86	0	50

Self-Appraisal of Listening Comprehension Prior to and After Study Abroad

	French		German		Japanese	
	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>
Understand very simple statement or questions in the language (Hello, How are you? What is your name? Where do you live? etc.).	100	100	100	100	100	100
In face-to-face conversation, understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully (deliberately, adapting his or her speech to suit you).	100	100	98	100	83	100
On the telephone, understand a native speaker who is speaking to you slowly and carefully (deliberately, adapting his or her speech to suit you).	96	100	97	100	33	100
In face-to-face conversation with a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully, tell whether the speaker is referring to past, present, or future events.	95	99	98	99	50	100
In face-to-face conversation understand a native speaker who is speaking as quickly and as colloquially as he or she would to another native speaker	35	89	38	75	0	100
Understand movies without subtitles	34	87	26	84	0	33
Understand new broadcasts on the radio	24	82	22	87	0	0
From the radio, understand the words of a popular song you have not heard before	10	38	18	45	0	17
Understand play-by-play descriptions of sports events (for example, a soccer match on the radio)	10	39	11	48	0	17
Understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly to one another	23	81	27	68	0	17
On the telephone, understand a native speaker who is talking as quickly and as colloquially as he or she would to another native speaker	11	74	15	57	0	17
Mean percent across skill categories	49	78	50	74	24	52

Self-Appraisal of Reading Ability Prior to and After Study Abroad

	French		German		Japanese	
	prior	after	prior	after	prior	after
Read personal letters or notes written to you in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions	99	99	98	99	67	83
Read on store fronts the type of store or the services provided (for example, "dry cleaning" "book store", or "butcher".	96	99	98	99	33	83
Understand newspaper headlines	99	99	91	99	0	17
Read personal letters and notes written as they would be to a native speaker	75	99	64	99	0	0
Read and understand magazine articles at a level similar to those found in <u>Time</u> or <u>Newsweek</u> , without using a dictionary	51	97	30	97	0	0
Read popular novels without using a dictionary	13	95	6	95	0	0
Read newspaper "want ads" with comprehension even when many abbreviations are used	31	91	23	91	0	0
Read highly technical material in a particular academic or professional field filed with no use or very infrequent use of a dictionary	15	80	16	80	0	0
Mean percent across skill categories	60	95	53	95	13	23

Self-Appraisal of Writing Ability Prior to and After Study Abroad

	French		German		Japanese	
	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>	<u>prior</u>	<u>after</u>
I cannot really communicate any information in the language of the SAP host country though writing	...	...	...	...	...	...
I can write a few sentences in the language of the SAP host country, using very basic vocabulary and structures	...	...	1	...	67	...
I can write relatively simple items (such as a short note to a friend) that communicate basic message but usually contain a considerable number of misspelling and/or grammatical errors	18	5	34	12	33	33
I can write fairly long personal letters as well as uncomplicated business letters, which convey meaning accurately and which contain relatively few errors, although they are not completely idiomatic in expression	55	80	62	76	0	67
I can write complex personal and business letters, as well as many other kind of documents (for example, a "letter to the editor" of the local newspaper) using in each case the particular vocabulary and style of expression. There is only an occasional hint that I am not a native writer of the language	6	15	3	11	0	0
My writing, in all situations, cannot be distinguished from that of an educated native speaker of the SAP host country	...	3	...	1	0	0

**Communicative Environments for Japanese Learners in a Japanese
Community: Are Our Students Prepared for the "Real World"?**

Tomoko Watanabe Traphagan
University of Pittsburgh

Occasionally, your student reports to you excitedly, "*sensei kondo ichinen nihon ni ikimasu* [Teacher, I will go to Japan for a year]." What would your response be? Mine used to be "*omedetou! kitto nihongo sugoku joozu ni naru yo* [Congratulations! Your Japanese will perhaps improve a lot]," half based on the naive notion that if you live in Japan you will be immersed in Japanese interactions, and half for the purpose of encouraging the student who may be apprehensive. Now I am trying to figure out a better answer that reflect the sociocultural reality in Japan.

The current paper describes communicative environments for Japanese learners from English speaking countries in a Japanese community, using part of the data from my 7 month-long ethnographic study. It attempts to illustrate how the communicative environments in a Japanese community facilitate or inhibit interactions in Japanese between Japanese learners and native Japanese speakers in natural contexts from an ecological perspective (van Lier, 1997), by addressing the following:

1. How are foreigners from English speaking countries socially perceived in a Japanese community?
2. Where, and with whom do Japanese learners find communicative opportunities in the community? To what degree do interactions with native Japanese speakers occur?
3. To what degree is Japanese used in interactions between Japanese learners and native Japanese speakers?

The Community and Its Residents from English Speaking Countries

The study was conducted in a county, here I call, Kitasawa, in Tohoku, Japan. Kitasawa consists of two cities and three towns, and is populated with

about 150,000 people. Kitasawa is typically described as "*inaka* [rural]." Some Japanese learners went to Kitasawa because they thought going to a rural area would give them a better chance of using Japanese.

As of the end of 1997, there were 27 foreigners from English speaking countries, such as the US, England, Canada, and Australia. They were predominantly English teachers, either ALTs (Assistant Language Teachers: native English speakers who team-taught with Japanese teachers as their assistants at public schools)¹ or teachers at private English conversation schools. However, most whom I encountered typically neither considered English instructor as their long term career nor desired to stay in Kitasawa longer than a few years. Another tendency seen with them was that they were mostly young, unmarried college graduates.

What are the actual communicative environments for non-native speakers from English speaking countries like in such an "*inaka*" community? First, I would like to share the case of Stephanie.

Illustration: Stephanie (an American ALT)

With a nervous look on her face, Stephanie, a young Caucasian American, was standing in front of the staff office of Netpia (a multi-purpose public building in Uwano,² with an office for the Uwano International

1 In Kitasawa, there were 10 ALTs with JET program and 1 ALT with Earlham program.

2 Uwano-city is the biggest municipal entity in Kitasawa, with a population of a little over 60,000. Uwano plays a politically central role and offers the most in terms of commercial and entertainment facilities in Kitasawa. More than half of foreigners from English speaking countries in Kitasawa reside in Uwano.

Association) in her first week in Uwano at the end of July, accompanied by her supervisor and his assistant from the Uwano-city Board of Education. She told me that she was so relieved that she could finally talk to somebody after 3 days of no conversation at her office, because people in her office did not speak English. The next day, her visit to the mayor of Uwano was reported in the local newspaper with a picture, from which I learned that she minored in Japanese in college. Stephanie came to Uwano as an ALT for a year with the JET program immediately after she graduated from college, for the purpose of "living in the different culture."

Until the fall semester started, she went to the Board of Education office in the city hall every day. During this initial period, she encountered various opportunities to meet people in Uwano. She and the other new ALTs were invited to the Uwano International Association team for dancing in the Uwano summer festival and the party afterward with several English speaking Netpia regulars. Also, Mika, a Netpia staff member, took her and Ashley, another new ALT, to a scenic place nearby one day, when she learned that Stephanie's birthday was coming up. Mika held a birthday party for Stephanie with four new ALTs and nine (seven Japanese and two Chinese) Netpia regulars and staffs, mostly English speakers. Sitting around the big low table at a Japanese style bar (*izakaya*), the party was naturally divided into several smaller groups, and the conversations including ALTs became predominantly in English, where the two Chinese communicated with Japanese people in Japanese, and with the ALTs in English. While a few new ALTs who had never studied Japanese formally tried their self-introductions in Japanese, Stephanie introduced herself in English and used only a few Japanese words ("*daijoobu* [o.k.]" and single digit numbers such as "*ichi, go, hachi, san* [1583]" to tell Karaoke numbers) through the course of night,

which went to the second and third parties until 2 a.m. Even Karaoke songs both ALTs and Japanese people choose to sing were English songs.

A few days later at Netpia, Stephanie was sitting with the other new ALTs in Kitasawa in front of the other guests. At this welcome party for them, new ALTs were each asked to get up and introduce themselves: they all, both with and without former Japanese study, uniformly said their names, schools they were teaching at, and where they were from in Japanese following a "JET cheat sheet" format, and added a sentence or two in English. When people started to mingle later, English again dominated conversations when involving ALTs, both old and new, and very little interaction involving non-English speaking Japanese and ALTs was observed.

At the end of August, Stephanie started going to junior high schools four days a week and to the Board of Education office on Fridays. She preferred the Board of Education to the schools, for there was less pressure to communicate:

I know they don't speak English and they know I don't speak Japanese. So to communicate, it's relaxed.... We communicate in the way we can. So initially, like "this is ridiculous, there is no way I could communicate with these people, because nobody speaks, you know, any type of English." And then little by little, I'm getting used to it.

Perhaps the fact that she had no specific duties at the office contributed to the reduced need to communicate. Her supervisor told me that the expectation he had developed from seeing her résumé that Stephanie would speak some Japanese was disappointed. Rather than pushing her to try to speak in Japanese, he was concerned that it must be difficult for Stephanie to be in an environment with no other English speakers around. Therefore, Qun, an English speaking Chinese woman, whose office was right next to Stephanie's,

was welcomed to visit to chat with or interpret for Stephanie. Qun also went to a grocery store with her once to help her identify things for her daily needs.

Stephanie found days at schools more difficult than days at the Board of Education office:

When I'm at schools, when I'm trying to communicate with teachers who don't speak English too well there, they are trying to communicate with me, but they are not saying anything. Then they kind of try to use Japanese with me. Then I get very frustrated because I came here and you knew I didn't have the language abilities.

The interactions at her workplaces were, at first, minimum. "I really don't talk to many people.... as far as expressing how I feel during the day, like having conversations, I don't." Nightly telephone talks with the other two new ALTs in Uwano to "check in with each other" helped her greatly.

Interactions at the workplaces, however, gradually increased and became less stressful. At the board of education office, where she had most occasions that required her to use Japanese, she now had to depend on herself, after Qun's contract expired. By December, she was saying, "little by little, I understand their Japanese now." She also grew to be more positive about talking with the teachers. "I like to talk to other teachers. ... they will speak to me in Japanese. I usually try to reply to that. "

Stephanie wished she had had stronger Japanese skills most when she talked to her students, because she was curious about what they had to say. Sometimes she found 15 students waiting for her coming out from teaching just to say "hello." She often told her students "*nihongo sukoshi* o.k. you know, a little bit of Japanese is o.k. So maybe they speak to me, and I try to use a little bit of Japanese." She also went to elementary schools on a demand basis. At the elementary schools, she found even fewer English speakers, and

thus her supervisor was looking for a volunteer interpreter to come to the elementary schools with her.

Stephanie's weekday nights were quickly filled with various activities. She reserved Monday nights to prepare the lessons for the week. Tuesdays, she first went to Japanese lessons at Netpia, but soon found that she did not fit into any levels of current courses, and started to join a doctor's family for dinner because they wanted to speak English. Wednesdays, she went to pottery lessons with Ashley, where all the other participants wanted to talk to them in English and she talked to them mainly in English. Thursday nights, she taught adult English conversation classes. She became very good friends with one of her students, Seiko. On weekends, Stephanie and Seiko went out for racket ball or shopping. They spoke English in these non-class gatherings too. In addition to these various regular activities, Stephanie could have participated in various international events to which ALTs were invited, but she was rarely seen in those events after the summer.

Starting to use Japanese was unexpectedly difficult for Stephanie. "I originally came here all gung ho about learning the language. But it's too difficult. I'm learning a little bit, but right now I'm not concerned about my grasp of the whole language, I'm just trying to get by." She took two years of Japanese and one year of other Japan related courses to complete her minor in Japanese. But at first, she kept saying, "I have no confidence in my Japanese."

What I learned in college is irrelevant, because what I learned in college was textbook Japanese. What I hear every day is spoken language.... I'm starting to remember all the things. So many times I hear something, and I know I know it, because I remember hearing it before. But I can't remember them. So after I hear a few times, all of

the sudden I recall what it was. And I'm recalling it from college, but when you learn it in college, ... no opportunities to use Japanese.

By December she was understanding more and speaking more at word level. "My Japanese has come a long way.... I understand much more than I can say. I can say nouns, many nouns, and describe what I am trying to tell you. But I can't make sentences out of them."

Stephanie also pointed out that she often did not speak in Japanese even when she could. When I asked her if she functioned as an interpreter for Ashley, who had come to Uwano with no knowledge of Japanese, she said "I don't know.... She [Ashley] is less afraid to use Japanese.... I know what I am saying is wrong.... It doesn't sound right in Japanese to me. So I don't say it." Moreover, she said,

We tend not to want to use Japanese, because we are not sure when to. Because people want to practice their English, and I feel sometimes if I start speaking any Japanese to someone, I'm insulting them.... I'm surrounded by Japanese. I can talk to anybody, you know. If they want to try their English, why can't I use my English on them.... But they don't realize that everybody else wants to practice their English, too.

She also sometimes felt embarrassed to use Japanese. For example, when she was leaving her principal's office, she said "good bye, happy new year, and merry Christmas." Then she said, "*shitsurei shimasu* [a greeting for entering/leaving somebody else's space]" very quietly, as she banged her bag against the door, so that it would make noise. She knew she was behaving appropriately, but she still felt embarrassed. "I'm a foreigner. I don't know I'm supposed to say this."

The above description illustrates how Stephanie's interactions in Japanese started from non-existence and developed to word level through a 4-5 month-long stay in Kitasawa, which may appear very crude given her previous Japanese learning. It should not be judged as an isolated unfortunate case too quickly, however, because I repeatedly encountered similar cases. To really understand Japanese learners' experiences, we need to consider communicative environments surrounding them. I will now point out factors constructing the communicative environments for Japanese learners from English speaking countries that emerged as recurring themes in my fieldwork in Kitasawa.

Foreigners' Social Perceptions and Communicative Opportunities Foreigners as Internationalization Resources

For most people in Kitasawa, foreigners are a distant existence towards whom they feel significant hesitation due to the assumed language barrier and different appearance. On the other hand, the ideology of preparing Japanese residents for the international era (*kokusaika jidai*) drives political and public entities and some individuals to create various international exchange (*kokusai koryu*) activities to expose Japanese residents to foreign people and cultures. There were many international events in Kitasawa, to which Stephanie and other ALTs were invited, such as bi-monthly English dinners, and various international parties. Moreover, they were often asked to play central roles as instructors or presenters in certain activities such as English lessons, ethnic food cooking lessons, and talks by or discussions with foreign residents on foreign cultures, Christmas party, Easter party, and Halloween party, etc.

The motivation for these numerous international activities was usually explained as "fostering the growth of international perspectives [*kokusai teki shiya wo hirogeru*]" in individuals, which is necessary to survive current times filled with demands to deal with foreign individuals and entities. The bottom line of the internationalization ideology was, however, to overcome the hesitation towards foreigners and/or English, as we will see in the next section.

Since the international activities required foreigners' participation, ALTs were seen as indispensable resources for these activities, and received frequent invitations and requests to attend those activities. It should be added that non-ALT foreigners from English speaking countries, such as English instructors at private English conversation schools, were welcomed but not automatically invited to the international exchange events.³

The ideology of internationalization of Japanese residents and expectations for ALTs to play active roles as resources for international activities together create abundant opportunities for ALTs and community people to come together. The degree to which these activities create social interactions and/or clues to lasting interpersonal relationships between ALTs and Japanese residents seems to vary significantly. As I will discuss in the following section, for foreigners to attend these activities does not necessarily lead them to social interactions with Japanese residents, or often ends in only one, short lived interaction with them. Yet, these events fill part of most

³ ALTs were officially introduced to international associations and other relevant public organizations while other foreigners were not. Unlike ALTs, other foreigners were invited to international events only through some personal connections to event organizers, which may or may not be established depending upon the foreigners' desire to do so.

ALTs' lives, and for some ALTs these events are one of the contexts where they start developing their social networks. Even Stephanie, who did not volunteer to participate in various events, found her best Japanese friend through the adult English course, conducted as a part of international activities.

Foreigners as Native English Resources

One day, Julian, an American researcher in Uwano, ran into his acquaintance Mr. Uchino, who was an official of the Board of Education of the neighboring town. "The town has been working for international exchanges, but it would not start without English," said Mr. Uchino and continued that the town started bringing foreigners to the kindergartens "to get children used to English and foreigners [*eigo ni najimaseru, gaikokujin ni najimaseru*]." Mr. Uchino asked if Julian could come to local kindergartens for 4,000 yen (about 30 dollars) an hour. This episode indicates the value placed on getting over the hesitation towards foreigners and English and how native English speakers are seen as resources for it. Intriguingly, the fact that most foreigners from English speaking countries in Kitasawa had some basis for interacting in Japanese, such as former Japanese study and/or previous stay in Japan, does not come into the picture of getting over the hesitation, where the major part of the hesitation originate in language barrier.

Native English resource was elicited from foreigners most vigorously by those Japanese individuals who were interested to learn English, not only in existing English speaking activities such as English lessons and English dinners, but also in other activities. Some created additional activities for English speaking purposes, as we observed that a doctor's family invited Stephanie weekly to practice their English. The scarce number of native

English speakers in the area often met with Japanese people's great enthusiasm to speak English with them.

Furthermore, even the gatherings not specifically intended for speaking English often became opportunities to practice English for Japanese people, when involving native English speakers. Jun, a young fire fighter, became friends with Steve, Erica, and Tania among others, through guitar lesson connections. Although the friendship was not for the purpose of speaking English, he soon tried to speak English as much as possible when he got together with his foreigner friends, because he wanted to travel. Conversely, the meetings for English speaking practice often yielded friendship such as the case of Stephanie and Seiko. The line between friendship and English practice often blurred.

Social Networks and Actual Occurrences of Interactions

The communicative opportunities are a function of the ways social networks are constructed. Although development of social networks takes a different shape for each individual, I encountered some tendencies in the way social networks developed around foreigners from English speaking countries. First, most foreigners had steady social networks around their jobs from the beginning. They are steady in the sense that regular gatherings are guaranteed. Stephanie started using Japanese in work-related contexts (schools, board of education office, and beginner students) because she could not avoid these contexts. Secondly, foreigners often extended the stable part of their social networks by attending certain existing regular activities, as Stephanie attended pottery lessons.

Third, foreigners developed networks of private friends and acquaintances, who might be also part of the above mentioned networks.

Typically, some in these networks were English speaking foreigners and Japanese. In particular, foreigner friends who were "in the same boat" became substantial support for each other at the beginning of their stay. Foreigners often saw comradely support as a positive factor to help them face unfamiliar situations (Wilkinson, 1998). Stephanie told me, for example, that neither she nor Ashley knew the language and culture, but when they were together they could somehow figure things out more easily, and thus they felt more willing to engage themselves in unfamiliar Japanese situations. Fourth, there were also random gatherings of foreigners and Japanese, such as various international events.

Although there were many contexts that offered opportunities for Japanese persons and foreigners to interact with each other, when they were not involved in the same activities, there was often awkwardness for both parties to initiate and/or maintain interactions. I repeatedly observed that participants naturally formed groups by their native languages in the international events, such as the ALT welcome party, English dinners, and the summer dancing festival. Moreover, some foreigners reported that meeting Japanese people was not difficult but developing it into further gatherings was. Alex, for example said, "they want to say hello to foreigners.... But real friends, it is very hard to find, because foreign people are here only for a short time. Why do you want to be friends with someone to be gone?" Similarly, Tania said, "most people ... would be interested to speak to us for a night, but not necessarily interested in making friendship, because it would be too difficult because of the language barrier." She further explained that the first conversations were usually easy and fun because they were often exchanges of basic information about each other, "but the second time I met them, they already knew who I was, where I came from, where I live, and

now it was the time to have conversation about something else" which she found very difficult.

Interactions between foreigners and Japanese people occurred and were maintained more naturally within frameworks of shared activities in general. For example, when Erica, an American ALT, first joined the traditional dancing group, Miyuki, a female Japanese member, thought, "well, how should I talk to her?" But the interaction came along naturally. "[Because] I joined the group only 3 months earlier than she did,... I can emphasize how beginners feel. So I go to her and ask what she does not understand. Then conversation starts." There were always conversations both related and unrelated to the dancing going on within the group. Although Erica's participation in the conversations as a speaker was not as much as or as fluid as Japanese members, she continued to be involved in the conversations, and as she developed shared experiences with the group members, her participation increased.

The Degree of Japanese Usage

The degree of Japanese usage in interactions between Japanese learners and native Japanese speakers in Kitasawa was perhaps strikingly small for someone who is involved in Japanese instruction with the hope that their students will be using Japanese as much as possible in the situations with native Japanese speakers. Several themes emerged related to this.

Construction of non-Japanese Speaking Environments

In Kitasawa, foreigners' inability to speak Japanese even with substantial Japanese learning background was easily accepted by Japanese people, and their environments were often constructed so that the necessity

to use Japanese was maximally reduced, as seen in Stephanie's case. Daily matters were often taken care of by the people around her and interpreters were brought in when possible. That is, there were abundant opportunities for her to interact in Japanese in her environments but the necessity to do so was minimum.

Similar stories were heard elsewhere. "I really think that you could function without Japanese here in Japan. Easy," said James. At work he could speak English, and in case of troubles, he was supposed to go to his English speaking supervisor, who would handle the problems. Similarly, Tania, reflecting upon the time when she did not speak any Japanese, said, "actually, we were really cushioned. Looked after. So [when] I really needed something.... I could go to ... my supervisor." Alex also told me, "you don't have too many things to worry about.... because they don't expect you to know anything." In the environments of minimum Japanese, Japanese learners often easily missed their participation opportunities as a speaker even if they thought of saying something in Japanese, when they were not sure if their Japanese was correct, when they felt awkward to say something in Japanese, or when they could not grab the right timing to enter into the ongoing Japanese interactions.

With little actual experiences of Japanese interactions, Stephanie perceived herself as a "non-Japanese speaking foreigner" and was perceived likewise by the people around her, despite the fact that she had learned Japanese before. With a few exceptions (e.g. a researcher and a Mormon missionary), I repeatedly heard a similar self- and/or other-perception of Japanese learners with previous formal Japanese learning as "non-Japanese speaking foreigners" at the beginning of their stay often as long as a year. Although Stephanie seemed to see this phenomenon neutrally, those who

were more conscious about their improvement in Japanese suffered from the gap between their goal and the reality. Alex, who came after one year of Japanese instruction, said, "I've been here 10 months now. And I feel like I should know a lot more than I do. I feel like I am a moron actually, because I don't know." Kate, who came after 5 years of Japanese study, also told me, "maybe it was, in fact, that I didn't know I knew Japanese. I studied it in university but it's a lot different..." She thought that her first year was spent to get used to the life in Japan, but she wanted to improve her Japanese more in the second year to come.

Language Choice between English and Japanese

The confusion over the language choice that Stephanie was referring to when she said, "we tend not to want to use Japanese, because we are not sure when to" gives us a glimpse of the complexity of language choice in interactions involving foreigners and Japanese. Intriguingly, the language choice between English and Japanese was usually not based on if the foreigners could speak Japanese, or even if their Japanese was more proficient than their Japanese interlocutors' English. Rather, it was based on negotiation involving both interlocutors' various assumptions and desires related to language choice.

For some native English instructors, the way they perceived their job responsibilities in terms of speaking English to Japanese people often became an important determinant: some saw the necessity of using English as limited to the classrooms but some thought that they should always talk to English teachers and their students in English, or even to anybody who wanted to practice their English as a part of their service to the community.

Additionally, Japanese people used English with foreigners for various reasons. The most frequently heard reason was to practice their English, in which case they usually justified their use of English on the grounds that the foreigner residents were using Japanese all the time and thus it was o.k. for them to use English occasionally, as Stephanie observed. Moreover, some used English as a safer choice because foreigners' Japanese skills were often unrecognizable to them. Mika, a Netpia staff who knew most foreigners from English speaking countries in the area told me that she could not tell who were Japanese speakers among foreigners because interactions involving them were usually in English. So she usually spoke to them in English unless they took initiatives in talking in Japanese. She had just recently discovered Erica could speak Japanese, where Erica had been living in Kitasawa for two years after minoring in Japanese in college. Alex said "they expect English to come out from my mouth. When I am speaking Japanese, they might say 'he is mumbling, he is speaking English.' They shut off.... Maybe [you should] tell them '*Nihongo de* [in Japanese].' Just warn them."

Furthermore, some Japanese people used English to help their foreigner interlocutors communicate with them. Jun, whose foreigner friends were more proficient Japanese speakers in the area, said, "when we talk only in Japanese, the more complicated the content becomes, the less we can understand.... So I tell them they can use English. But then, I don't understand. In those situations, I feel I want to be able to speak English more." It is interesting that Jun thought of English as the solution, even when negotiating meaning in Japanese seems not to be too difficult given his friends' Japanese level. As Jun's comment suggests, overall Japanese conversations often switch to English in times of communicative difficulties. Kate, for example said, "When the conversation gets to the stage where it's

too difficult to speak in Japanese, and I don't know what to say, I use English." She also told me that when people did not understand her Japanese, she used English which she saw as "a bit of escape."

In spite of the extreme vagueness in when to use which language between foreigner and Japanese interlocutors, it was rare to observe what Siegal (1994) called the "English/Japanese tag-of-war." My interview data from both foreigners and Japanese suggest that it was avoided mostly by the native English speakers who were willing to speak English with Japanese people, as they understood Japanese people's desire to practice their English and wanted to help them, and/or they could find plenty of Japanese opportunities elsewhere. Tania, for example, said, "it's quite nice that people are so interested, that they really want speak English. So in those situations, I speak English to them, even though maybe it would be easier to speak Japanese." But some occasionally felt it frustrating. James told me that for some people he was "a body who speaks English" and they did not care about him as a person at all. Also Jenny, a Canadian married to a Japanese, told me that so many people wanted her time to practice their English with her that she needed to rank them in terms of genuineness of friendship.

The foundation for language choice was often vague and slippery. In particular, the bases for choosing Japanese over English was frail when involving those foreigners with less Japanese skills. Nothing really guaranteed that the conversation with native Japanese speakers will be in Japanese: the foreigners' previous Japanese learning, their previous length of stay in Japan, and even Japanese people's acknowledgment that the foreigner could speak Japanese, could speak Japanese better than Japanese interlocutor's English and/or was trying to learn Japanese were indefinite. The only factors that gave more certain votes for Japanese over English was foreigners' clearly

exhibited desire to speak Japanese, which was rarely observed, and Japanese people's lack of both English skills and desire to learn English.

The vagueness in the language choice was reified in different degrees of Japanese usage for individual foreigners. For those who were in their first year in Kitasawa, their life seemed to be often conducted more in English than in Japanese. Many told me that they had plenty of opportunities for functioning mainly in Japanese. Yet the meaning of "mainly in Japanese" seems to refer to various realities, from not having many people to talk to but listening to Japanese a lot, to having conversation in Japanese with sporadic switching to English, to Japanese conversation mostly filled by Japanese persons with occasional short participation by foreigners, to both Japanese and foreigner interlocutors talking in telegraphic short Japanese utterances, to in depth interactions in Japanese on various topics.

Conclusion

The above description points to various elements of sociocultural reality in communicative environments in Kitasawa that are likely to surround Japanese learners from English speaking countries. In a way of concluding the current paper, I mention three implications that may help our learners have rich interactional experiences in Japanese with native speakers in Japan.

First, a widely held folk belief about the special values of language learning abroad (e.g. Ferguson, 1995) such as "if you go to Japan, you are immersed in Japanese interactions and naturally become a fluent Japanese speaker" should be critically reviewed in the light of substantiated data. A few other studies suggest that life as a student in Japan is not facilitative of interactions between Japanese learners and native Japanese speakers, either

(Huebner, 1995; Sasaki, 1983; Siegal, 1994). We need more information to understand what kind of environments our students are taking off to.

Secondly, we need to make more efforts to raise our students' awareness about communicative environments in Japan, in particular, that native English speakers may face problems in their functioning as Japanese speakers.

Third, we also need to encourage our students to develop their self-images as Japanese speakers and facilitate development of strategies to organize their environments in Japanese communities to function as Japanese speakers. Without these, their Japanese learning may be in vain, because they may not be able to use Japanese even at a very basic level. We have to seriously think about what transforms our learners' self image from "I have taken Japanese courses" to "I speak Japanese." As a potentially useful strategy, we may encourage our students to declare that they speak Japanese and they want to speak Japanese in non-confrontational ways. Furthermore, we may encourage them to participate in existing Japanese groups of certain activities, such as music or dancing groups. My data suggest that they are more promising contexts for immersing themselves in Japanese interaction than the other contexts prepared for them.

Now, what would you say to your students who are taking off for Japan? I am still trying to formulate my answer.

References

- Ferguson, C. A. (1995). Foreword. In B. F. Freed (Ed.), *Second language acquisition in a study abroad context* (pp. xi-xv). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Huebner, T. (1995). The effects of overseas language program. In B. F. Freed (Ed.), *Second language acquisition in a study abroad context* (pp. 171-193). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Sasaki, M. (1983). Nihongo jugyô to gengo kôdô chôsa (Course design and survey on linguistic behavior. *Nihongo kyôiku*, 49(2), 85-96.
- Siegal, M. S. (1994). *Looking east: learning Japanese as a second language in Japan and the interaction of race, gender and social context*. Unpublished Dissertation, University of California at Berkeley.
- van Lier, L. (1997). Observation from an ecological perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(4), 783-787.
- Wilkinson, S. (1998). Study abroad from the participants' perspective: a challenge to common beliefs. *Foreign Language Annals*, 31(1), 23-39.

Japanese as a Heritage Language

- Towards Additive Bilinguals as Human Resources

Hitomi Oketani-Lobbezoo
Eastern Michigan University

Introduction

World-wide, we are experiencing an ever more rapidly expanding integration and interaction among business, economic, educational and political activity. All the time we hear terms such as "internationalization," "globalization," "the global village," etc. To us, language educators, this clearly implies that we are not only faced with increased challenges, but also with new opportunities in this changing environment. In the United States, we not only have increasing numbers of American language learners, but we also have a growing demand for language education for those who have non-English language origins. Due to growing international business as well as socio-political factors, new immigrants and temporary residents come to the United States, complete with their culture, their heritage and their languages. As human resources, they can become important contributors to our role in the Global Village, precisely because of their knowledge and heritage.

Japanese as a Heritage Language (JHL)

What exactly is "Japanese as a Heritage Language (JHL)"? I cite the working definition written by Nakajima (1999:4):

"JHL as a research topic concerns itself with pedagogical, psychological, socio-psychological, and sociological issues related to the process of acquiring Japanese language and culture by children with direct parental, or ancestral, ties to Japan, in addition to the language and culture of the host society in which their family now resides. In the United States, English is the majority language which is used in schools and in the society at large, while Japanese is a minority language whose use is confined largely to the home and ethno-cultural activities. Common vehicles of transmission and instruction are: (1) the input of the

family members at home, (2) after-school or weekend Japanese language programs - such as nihongo-gakko or hosyu-ko, (3) Japanese language programs at regular schools - albeit they are mostly at the secondary level and only in some rare instances at the elementary level - or the university level, both of which are designed for Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) learners.

JHL learners can be classified into the following three categories: (1) students born and raised in Japan but migrated to the U.S. with their parents, and currently continuing with their education in L2 - English, (2) students born and raised in the U.S. in post-war Japanese immigrant households - many of which do not use Japanese as a means of communication because of ambivalent attitudes of the parents towards Japanese language maintenance, and (3) the Japanese American students who are the posterity of the pre-war Japanese immigrants to the U.S. and for whom Japanese is merely a symbol of their ethno-cultural identity with little daily functional use.

For students in categories (1) and (2), JHL has a vital role in their daily life as their first language - L1 (Japanese) - which lays the foundation for their L2 (English) development as well as their character formation."

Further, one other category of JHL learners can be added, namely that of children who were born of international marriage, with one of their parents of Japanese ancestry. Although these learners can be included in category (2), their ways of acquiring Japanese and English are not the same as that where both parents are Japanese.

The issue of heritage language teaching is currently starting to evoke a great deal of interest in the United States. The National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) at The Johns Hopkins University and the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) in Washington, D.C. announced a national "Heritage Language Initiative" last year, whose goals include information-sharing among groups working to promote and study Heritage Language Development, and promoting the study of Heritage Language Development as a research priority in Applied Linguistics (AAAL letter, 1998:15).

At the ATJ Conference in Boston last month, Dr. Igawa announced "the National Heritage Japanese Language Education Conference," which is to be held this May. He announced the conference's objective as: "to ascertain the status of heritage Japanese language education in the United States and thereby establish a common base for the formation of a national organization for the promotion of

heritage Japanese language and culture education in the United States" (Igawa, 1999:1).

In the Statement of Philosophy of "Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century," the authors state:

Language and communication are at the heart of the human experience. The United States must educate students who are equipped linguistically and culturally to communicate successfully in a pluralistic American society and abroad. This imperative envisions a future in which ALL students will develop and maintain proficiency in English and at least one other language, modern or classical. Children who come to school from non-English-speaking backgrounds should also have opportunities to develop further proficiencies in their first language. (1996:7)

According to the 1990 Census conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau, 427,657 people speak Japanese at home, of whom 21% indicated poor or no English speaking ability. In this statistic (which is included in your handout), interestingly, Japanese ranks as the eleventh language most spoken in homes in the U.S.

Quoting from "Standards and Heritage Language Learners:"

[Similar] modifications will need to be made when applying the standards to students who have a home background in the language studied. As stated previously, these students may come to class able to converse in the language in home and community situations, but may lack the abilities to interact comfortably in more formal settings. Further, they may be quite comfortable with oral language but possess limited skills in reading and writing. Again, the background of the learner is an important variable when developing implementation strategies for these standards. (1996: 25)

Regarding skills in reading and writing of heritage language learners, many researchers (Cummins, 1986, Nakajima, 1988, Collier, 1989, Ramirez, 1992) have emphasized the importance of first language development for minority students to achieve high levels of competence in their second language (the

majority language), especially in literacy-related academic abilities, which supports Cummins' *Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) Model*. Cummins (1996) proposed that the literacy-related aspects of a bilingual's proficiency in both languages are common or interdependent across languages in the *Linguistic Interdependence Principle*.

Toukomaa and Skutnabb-Kangas (1977) stated that students who have achieved a high level in both their languages, *additive bilinguals*, experience positive cognitive effects; compared to the students who have attained native-like proficiency in one language only, *bilinguals*. The latter show neither positive nor negative effects on cognition.

Landry defined the phenomena of complete *additive bilingualism* as (a) a high level of proficiency in both communicative and cognitive-academic aspects of L1 and L2; (b) maintenance of a strong ethnolinguistic identity and positive beliefs toward one's own language and culture while holding positive attitudes toward the second language; and (c) the opportunity to use one's first language without diglossia (1987:110).

The Lambert study (1977) supports the promotion of minority students' first language (mother tongue) development with high degrees of contextual support and active, cognitive, task involvement so as to achieve high levels of competence in bilinguality. The community, home and school environments can fulfill supportive, instrumental roles in the establishment of an educational environment with high contextual and high cognitive task involvement.

The relations among English and Japanese bilinguality, academic achievement, and socio-psychological factors

The relations among English and Japanese bilinguality, academic achievement, and socio-psychological factors such as ethnolinguistic identity and beliefs, first language (L1) educational support, and interpersonal contacts were examined (Oketani, 1997). The participants were 42 post-war second generation Japanese Canadian youths (average age: 20). Students' bilingual proficiencies

were assessed in both English and Japanese. Detailed questionnaires were administered to analyze socio-psychological factors.

The findings of the study showed that a significant portion of the sample had developed additive bilingualism, while holding balanced identities with positive attitudes towards both L1 and L2 cultures. The study indicated that this additive bilingualism is most likely achieved when the educational environment for students, in and outside of the school, is supportive and well-integrated in a balanced way. A strong relationship was found between Japanese oral and reading skills and both were related to a variety of ethnolinguistic identity, beliefs, and interpersonal contact variables. Japanese reading scores positively predicted both English reading and academic achievement (Ontario Academic Credit) performance. This suggests that L1 academic development enhances not only the development of L2 but also educational outcomes as a whole.

The results (Table 1) show the necessity of good-quality Japanese language use between peers. The educational environment such as communicating with peers at Japanese Language Programs can be expected to contribute to students' Japanese literacy development as well as to their Japanese oral proficiency. As Labrie and Clément stated, "The relationship between the affective and self-confidence processes is dependent on the frequency and quality of inter-ethnic contacts" (1986:270). In this study both Japanese oral and reading abilities depended on stability and quality of interpersonal contacts with the ethnic language and its speakers, especially with friends. This evidence indicates that first-language development requires not only a surface level of interpersonal communicative exploration but also a more cognitively demanding exploration which includes students' cognitive approach towards their "ethnic" language.

**Table 1. Stepwise Regression of Bilinguality, Academic Achievement
and Socio-Psychological Factors**
(Oketani, 1997: 33)

Variable(s)	r	R square	Rsquared change	Beta
Dependent Variable: ORL				
1. JR	0.74	0.55	0.55	0.74
Dependent Variable: ER				
1. B4C	-0.47	0.22	0.22	-0.52
2. B5B	-0.32	0.33	0.11	-0.42
3. JR	0.21	0.45	0.12	0.36
Dependent Variable: JR				
1. ORL	0.74	0.55	0.55	0.74
Dependent Variable: OAC				
1. JR	0.42	0.18	0.18	0.45
2. B4D	-0.19	0.36	0.18	-0.51
3. B3B	0.40	0.44	0.08	0.32

ORL: Japanese oral proficiency
 ER: English reading ability
 JR: Japanese reading ability
 B3B: quality of contacts with friends who speak Japanese
 B4C: stability of contacts with neighbours who speak Japanese
 B4D: stability of contacts with friends in their school who speak Japanese
 B5B: Japanese language use with friends who speak Japanese
 OAC: students' academic achievement

A most interesting finding of the study was the relationship between Japanese reading proficiency, English reading proficiency and frequency and stability of contacts with friends and neighbours who speak Japanese, as indicated in Table 1. Stability of contact with friends and neighbours related positively to Japanese reading proficiency. Japanese reading proficiency was found to predict English reading proficiency. However, these findings appeared to be contradicted by the results of English reading test scores which were negatively correlated to proportion of friends in their network who speak Japanese and frequency and stability of contacts with neighbours who speak Japanese. Stable use of the Japanese language, in particular with neighbours and friends who speak Japanese relates to negative development of English-reading abilities.

These results indicate that first-language maintenance/ development plays a very important role in students' bilingual development, although extremely frequent usage of the first language may have a negative impact on the second language/dominant language development and further academic achievement. These results may explain and fill the gap of the discussion between "maximum exposure" theorists and "L1 promotion and maintenance" theorists.

In other words, both quantitative and qualitative levels of interpersonal contacts are related to Japanese oral proficiency and Japanese reading abilities, but high quantitative levels of use, in particular, negatively related to the development of English-reading abilities. In order to develop balanced additive bilinguality in such circumstances, promoting literacy development in Japanese (the first language) is crucial. Literacy development in L1 is likely to be enhanced by a variety of factors related to identity and language use.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the main difference between foreign language teaching/learning and heritage language teaching/learning is that we have to look at the heritage language education from a bilingual point view. The findings of these studies strongly support efforts to encourage minority language students to maintain their L1 skills. In order to develop students' *additive* bilinguality, it is suggested that cooperation among parents, Japanese language teachers as well as ESL teachers, homeroom teachers and school administrators is essential since this developmental process will not only lead in a positive direction for heritage language per se, but also lead to their additive bilinguality and positive formation of human beings with balanced identities and perspectives towards a plural society. And, ultimately, these benefits will not

only provide advantages to individual students, but, as human resources, to American society at large.

References

- American Association for Applied Linguistics (1998 Fall/Winter). *AAALetter*. p.15.
- Clément, R. & Noels K. (1992). Towards a situated approach to ethnolinguistic identity: The effects of status on individuals and groups. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 203-232.
- Collier, V. P. (1989). How long? Synthesis of research on academic achievement in a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(3), 509-531.
- Cummins, J. & Danesi, M. (1990). *Heritage languages -The development and denial of Canada's linguistic resources-*. Montreal: Our Schools/Our Selves Education Foundation.
- Cummins, J. (1991). Conversational and academic language proficiency in bilingual contexts. *AILA Review*, 8, 75-89.
- Cummins, J. (1996). *Negotiating Identities: Education for Empowerment in a Diverse Society*. California Association for Bilingual Education.
- Cummins, J., Swain, M., Nakajima, K., Handscombe, J., Green, D., & Tran, C. (1984). Linguistic interdependence among Japanese and Vietnamese immigrant students. In C. Rivera (Ed.) *Communicative competence approaches to language proficiency assessment: Research and application*. (pp. 60-81). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Edwards, J. & Chisholm, J. Language, (1987). Multiculturalism and identity: A Canadian study. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 8(5), 391-408.
- Edwards, J. (1988). Bilingualism, education and identity. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 9 (1&2), 203-210.
- Feuerverger, G. (1991). University students' perceptions of heritage language learning and ethnic identity maintenance. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 47(4), 660-676.
- Hamers, J. & M. Blanc. (1989). *Bilinguality and bilingualism*. Cambridge University Press.
- Igawa, C. (1999) *The National Heritage Japanese Language Education Conference*. (p.1). Paper presented at ATJ 1999 Annual Conference in Boston.
- Imhoff, G. (1990). *Learning in two languages from conflict to consensus in the reorganization of school*. Transaction Publishers.
- Isajiw, W. (1985). Learning and use of ethnic language at home and school: Sociological findings and issues. In M. R. Lupul (Ed.). *OSVITA Ukrainian bilingual education*. (pp.225-230). Edmonton: University of Alberta.
- Labrie, N. & Clément, R. (1986). Ethnolinguistic vitality, self-confidence and second language proficiency: An investigation. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 7(4), 269-282.
- Lambert, W. E. (1977). The effects of bilingualism on the individual: Cognitive and sociocultural consequences. In P. Hornby (Ed.) *Bilingualism: Psychological, social and educational implications*, (pp. 15-37). New York: Academic Press.
- Lanca, M., Alksnis, C., Roesse, N. J., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). Effects of language choice on acculturation, a study of Portuguese immigrants in a multicultural setting. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 13(3), 315-330.
- Landry, R. & Allard, R. (1991). Can schools promote additive bilingualism in minority group children? In L. Malavé & G. Duquette (Eds.). *Language, culture and cognition, A collection of studies in first and second language acquisition*. (pp. 198-231). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Landry, R. (1987). Additive bilingualism, schooling and special education: A minority group perspective. *Canadian Journal for Exceptional Children*. 3(4), 109-114.
- Nakajima, K. (1988) Japanese proficiencies of second generation Japanese Canadian high school students (Nikkei koukousei no nihongoryoku). *Ijyukenyu*: Tokyo: Agency for International Cooperation. 25. 1-14.
- Nakajima (1999). *Working Definition of Japanese as a Heritage Language (JHL)*. In Igawa, C. (p. 4), *The National Heritage Japanese Language Education Conference*. Paper presented at ATJ 1999 Annual Conference in Boston.
- Paper presented at ATJ 1999 Annual Conference in Boston.

- The National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. (1996). *Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century*.
- Oketani, H. (1997). "Additive Bilinguals: The case of post-war second-generation Japanese Canadian youths," in *Bilingual Research Journal*. National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE). 15-35.
- Oketani, H. (1999). "Bilingual no susume," in *Nihongogaku*, February. 82-93.
- Oketani, H., Nakajima, K. and Suzuki, M. (in press). *The Oral Proficiency Assessment for Bilingual Children*. Welland: éditions SOLEIL publishing inc.
- Ramirez, C. M. (1991). *Report*. The U. S. Department of Education.
- The U.S. Bureau of the Census. (1990). *1990 Census. of Population*. Education and Social Stratification Branch, Population Division.
- Toukomaa, P. and Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1977). *The intensive teaching of the mother tongue to migrant children at pre-school age*. University of Tampere, Finland.

II: Joint Keynote Speeches

**Past, Present, & Future of the Association of Teachers and Japanese and
the National Council of the Japanese Language Teachers**

Joint Keynote Speeches (Transcript)

Laurel Rasplica Rodd,

President of the Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ)

&

Jessica Lee Thorrott,

President of the National Council of the Japanese Language Teachers (NCJLT)

Laurel Rasplica Rodd: Introduction

Whenever I meet someone and she or he finds that I teach Japanese literature, the first question I am asked is how I got into the field of Japanese studies, so I'm going to start my talk today by answering that question -- not because I want to forestall your inquiries but because I think perhaps it has at least peripheral relevance to the topic today.

When I think back over the experiences that led me to an interest in Japanese I can see that my own experiences parallel, in some ways, the history of Japanese language instruction in the United States during the past few decades. In addition, as President of ATJ, I frequently ask myself the questions that we are going to address today. What is the current status of Japanese language education in North America and how did it get that way? What challenges face the field today and in the near future and how can the field confront those challenges most successfully? I am going to try to interweave all of those questions in the few minutes here.

As I am sure you all know, Japanese language education in the US is overwhelmingly a post World War II phenomenon. A 1935 survey found that there were 8 American institutions of higher education that offered some Japanese language instruction.

This was--I quote from the Japan Foundation and AAS document, Japan Studies in the United States--"in all cases the work of native Japanese instructors, and almost without exception, the responsibility of one man per institution. There were no proper teaching materials."

Instruction was available only to advanced graduate students and only after they had persuasively demonstrated their need for it in order to do research. There were, according to that 1935 survey, only 13 Americans sufficiently trained to be able to use Japanese materials in their research. There were no Americans who taught Japanese. By the late 1960's, when I began studying Japanese, the numbers had increased somewhat, as these statistics show:

ENROLLMENT STATISTICS

	1968	1982	1990	1995
K-12	?	6,246	23,123	42,787*
UNIV.	4,324	11,506	45,717	44,723**

(*Data from JFLC surveys **Data from MLA surveys)

After World War II, scholars with wartime Japanese language training returned to the universities and began to expand academic offerings on Japan. A 1970 survey counted 500 Japan specialists in universities and about 20% of these were language and literature specialists; 135 colleges offered some sort of instruction on Japan. However, Japanese was still considered to be an exotic specialty based on the mastery of a very difficult and obscure language.

In the spring of 1966, I was a sophomore at Depauw University in Indiana, a small liberal arts college I am sure some of you here today are familiar with. Having always been interested in language and in travel, I had studied French, Russian and Spanish in high school. I chose to major in French with a minor in Russian in college. Because I loved to travel, I wanted to go abroad my junior year, but my family could not afford the additional expense of most programs and besides it seems to me that everybody was going to Europe, I wanted to go

someplace different. That was when I saw an announcement for a program that changed my direction.

The 1960's and early 1970's were the era of the National Defense Education Act, a US government program designed to support academic programs in language and area studies in order to build a national resource of people who could read and speak less commonly taught languages. Much of the NDEA funding went to graduate programs and graduate students in Russian, East Asian, Southeast Asian, and other less commonly taught languages. However, for three years in the late 1960's, the East West center at the University of Hawaii offered full scholarships for fifteen months of intensive study of Japanese or Chinese language and culture for college juniors. They hoped that at least a few of the 15 students selected from across the US to study each language each year would continue in the field and prove to be national resources. I applied for the East West center scholarship in Japanese and was selected.

In June after my sophomore year, I traveled to Hawaii to begin the study of Japanese. We studied the equivalent, they said, of one year of university Japanese intensively the first summer and continued language study during the fall and spring while also taking courses on Japanese history, religion, literature and art. In the summer of 1967, we traveled to Japan for additional intensive language study. I was placed in home stay with a family who lived in *danchi* in Musashi Sakai, west of Tokyo and I commuted on the *Chuo-sen* to classes at *Jochi-daigaku* for three months.

The textbooks that we used at the East West Center were the four volumes of *Learn Japanese* by John Young and Kimiko Nakajima in a prototype edition--stapled together and mimeographed. They were followed by *Modern Japanese* by Howard Hibbett and Gen Itasaka. Those were state of the art texts for that era. *Learn Japanese* had a basically audio-lingual orientation with some "structural cognitive" adjustments, according to the introduction. It was filled with substitution drills and transformation drills.

Our teachers would explain grammatical points, give us examples or patterns, and we'd work hard to parrot the drill instructors hour after hour and then practice some more with our audio tapes. By the end of the four volumes,

about eight months after we began studying, we had covered the basics of Japanese grammar, memorized pattern sentences illustrating that grammar, learned Kana and about 400 Kanji.

After a few more months focused on readings from Hibbett and Itasaka, we were off to Japan for three months of home stay and continued study. Although we had learned some *aisatsu* we needed for life with our Japanese home stay families and lots of pattern sentences, I immediately found that I didn't know most of the vocabulary that I needed for everyday living. The textbooks had not presented much, if any, vocabulary related to using the post office, cooking, shopping for food or medical emergencies, for example. One thing *Learn Japanese* did do, however, something that made a lasting impression on me, was to print a *haiku* both in Japanese & English on the inside front cover in each volume.

Yuku kumoya hotaka no mine no nokori yuki.

Urayama no yuuhi ni utsuru tsurara kana.

Although no one ever mentioned them in class, these *haiku* lured me to the Japanese literature section of the library where I began working my way through everything that was translated into English and looking forward to the time when I could read these works in Japanese.

Remembering that experience (and the pleasure I took in the readings in Hibbett and Itasaka) reminds me of the importance of giving our students "tastes" of the literature and intellectual life of the culture they are studying--in addition to helping them to communicate about things they already know and to function in their daily lives in Japanese culture. We need to think about the content of what we're teaching in language class and keep in mind the role that content will play in facilitating the intellectual, social, and personal growth of our students, as well as thinking about linguistic skills.

In Japan we struggled with practical language for everyday life outside of class, while in class we focused on continued academic reading. The Hibbett and Itasaka reader, the entire text of which was handwritten (by the wife of one of the authors, I believe) in those days before ready access to printers who could handle Japanese characters in the US, was a superbly organized collection of sixty

2 to 5 page readings all but the first few excerpted nearly unaltered from the best and most often cited writers of modern Japanese.

It included selections from Kawabata's *Yama no Oto* and *Watakushi no Sakuhin*; fiction by Tanizaki Junichiro, Shiga Naoya, and Akutagawa Ryunosuke; poetry of Hagiwara Sakutarō and Miyazawa Kenji; essays by ethnologist Yanagida Kunio, literary critics Kato Shuichi and Nakamura Mitsuo, economists Okochi Kazuo and Koizumi Shinzo, political scientist Maruyama Masao, and many other major voices in the academic and literary circles of the 1960's in Japan.

As we read those essays, we translated, memorized the 1333 Kanji introduced in the book, and learned countless vocabulary items relevant to the various academic fields we hoped to study. At the same time, we were introduced to these important intellectuals --to their "cutting-edge" theories about contemporary society and to their unique literary voices. We were challenged as much by the content and by the ideas we read about as we were by the language they were cloaked in.

When I returned to the US for my senior year, I was determined to continue to study about Japan, although I had first to complete my French undergraduate degree. Two years later, after completing my senior year and spending fifteen months in the Teacher Corps where I earned my MAT in Eastern Tennessee, I enrolled in graduate studies in linguistics at the University of Michigan and again fate intervened. When I went to enroll in a Japanese class my first semester, I was placed not in third or fourth year as I had expected, but in an introduction to classical Japanese taught by Robert Brower, scholar of Japanese court poetry.

Within two weeks we were reading *Taketori monogatari* followed by *Hojoki*. When, toward the end of the semester, Professor Brower asked me if I had ever thought of specializing in Japanese literature, I jumped at the opportunity and switched from the linguistics department to East Asian Languages and Literatures. I had become without any real planning on my part, a member of the generation of students and scholars who would move Japanese from the

sidelines, if not to the center of American universities, at least to a less peripheral position.

I completed my Ph.D. in classical Japanese literature and began teaching at the university level in 1974. My first job was typical of many first jobs for Japanese language and literature specialists. I was hired at the University of Virginia to build a language and literature program almost from scratch. I was their first full-time faculty member in Japanese. The next year I moved to Arizona State University where I was asked to develop a three year language sequence into an undergraduate major. Five years ago I moved to the University of Colorado where I was asked to add a graduate program to an undergraduate major.

Program building has become an accidental specialty, but I am quite sure I am not alone in this. A great majority of those who were hired in this field over the past decades have had to devote a lot of energy and time to programmatic development; to lobbying for support from administrators and the public; to increasing student numbers; to building library collections; to doing outreach to the community; to writing grant applications; to training other non-Japan area studies faculty to add information about Japan to general undergraduate liberal arts courses, etc.

The research which we were trained to do has often taken a back seat to service and administration, in which we received no formal training. Teaching, of course, has been an important part of our jobs, but there again, most of us of my generation received little or no training in teaching. So one may well ask what this group of amateur program developers who were trained in the decades of the 1960's and 1970's and 1980's have accomplished. What is the situation of Japanese language education in the US today? As a preliminary answer we can look at what my own children have been doing. My son enrolled in elementary Japanese in college, where he followed a curriculum based on a new communicatively organized textbook, which I believe is also the first Japanese textbook to be published by a major commercial textbook publisher in the US. For his second year of study, he traveled to Japan to participate in a year

long exchange program at a Japanese university, one of the many exchange and study abroad opportunities now available to students in the US.

My daughter just completed her junior year in high school, and she, too, was able to study Japanese using a textbook designed for high school students, something unheard of not too many years ago. She has opportunities to participate in summer exchanges with a high school in Japan, and she can continue through the fourth level of Japanese in high school. When she was 4, she attended a Japanese nursery school in Hiroshima while I was teaching there, and during elementary school she attended a Japanese Saturday school in Arizona.

None of these opportunities to learn were even within the realm of my imagination when I began to study Japanese 30 years ago. Despite the fumbling efforts of amateur program builders such as I, we have made some significant progress at the university level, and we have seen even more increase in precollegiate programs over the past decades.

Just 15 or 20 years ago, there were practically no elementary or high school programs in Japanese in the US. BY 1995 there were over 1000 such programs, up from 500 in 1990 and 200 in 1985. In 1995 the enrollment in these programs totaled over 40,000 students with about 600 instructors nation wide. During these same years the 100 university language and literature specialists of 1970 grew to 1552 university instructors of Japanese language and/or literature in the US, and the 135 institutions where they taught had increased to 440 institutions of higher education.

The Japan Foundation is going to be releasing the results of its most recent survey in the next month or so, and I have heard from preliminary reports that there have been continued increases in numbers of students and programs. So, it appears that we are still on an upward trajectory.

Japanese enrollment grew more rapidly than any other language in the post war period. It's up some 700% since the 1960's. Japanese instruction is reaching broader segments of American society; no longer are the majority of students advanced graduate students preparing for academic carriers. About

half of the students now are at the precollegiate level, and at the university level the majority of students are preparing for non-academic carriers.

A survey of university students of Japanese conducted about 4 years ago regarding their expectations of employment revealed that of those planning non-academic careers, almost 50% plan business careers, about 20% plan to enter government, 17% are interested in science and technology and 12% interested in law. Of those planning to teach, 15% intend to teach at university level, 9% at the secondary level, and 70% at elementary & middle school. When asked about their focus of interest in Japan, 32% of the students say that they are interested in business, 5% in technology, 12% in aesthetics including art and literature, 22% in culture and 21% expressed general interest in Japan.

This increasing diversity of student audience is one of the challenges that faces the profession today. Not only do we need to train teachers, develop materials, design appropriate curricula and methodologies as we always have, we have to do it for students of all ages and for students with a wide variety of interests. We also have to do it in the context of the localism of American education, where there is no national curriculum planning and often no state-wide curriculum planning, either. (In my state of Colorado, for example, the state constitution forbids statewide curriculum planning and gives all decisions about curricula to the local school districts. Methods, materials, and curricula have to compete in the market place.)

Given this lack of coordination among institutions, the role of professional organizations such as ATJ and our sister organization, NCJLT, is critical in bringing individual teachers together to address the challenges we face.

ATJ was established in 1963 as--I am quoting here from the mission statement in the by-laws--"an international, non-profit, non-political organization of scholars, teachers and students of Japanese language, literature, and linguistics, serving to promote academic work in the field and to broaden and deepen knowledge and appreciation of Japan and its culture." That's a rather dauntingly broad mission. The organization has interpreted it in various ways over its nearly four decades of existence.

Since its foundation, ATJ has engaged in three different activities which are still on-going. One of these is to organize an annual meeting in conjunction with the Association for Asian Studies. This year's annual meeting for the first time included two invited panels, one of which was an international panel with representatives from associations of teachers of Japanese in other countries. The second was a panel that focused on heritage language learning and heritage learners. We are hoping to continue both of those efforts in the future.

Two other ways that ATJ has worked to facilitate communications and sharing of information are publications. One is the Journal of the Association of Teachers of Japanese which comes out twice annually and carries results of research in linguistics, literature, and pedagogy, and any other aspects of Japanese culture that are relevant to teachers of Japanese. It also includes book reviews of books in those same areas. Secondly, we publish the ATJ Newsletter, which comes out four times annually and includes information all aspects of the field as well as job openings and candidate registry.

One other activity that I want to mention--because it leads into the kind of discussion that we are having today--is that in the early 1990's ATJ and NCSTJ put together a task force to do a preliminary survey about the problem of articulation-- from program to program or level to level of instruction--in this country. The survey that task force conducted identified some goals, one of which was the development of various standards and frameworks and benchmark documents so that we would be able to tell each other clearly what we were doing. The second was increasing efforts on the local and state level to define competency so as to facilitate articulation. The group also recognized that there was a shortage of information about students' success in moving from program to program, about how they are placed, about evaluation instruments, about various institutions' goals and actual competencies of students of various levels, and that communication is needed at the national level across the field to help address this problem. Lots of activities we have been engaging in over the last 4 or 5 years directly arose out of that initial attempt to have a broader field wide conversation about issues.

Laurel Rasplika Rodd: ATJ ACTIVITIES

I'll turn now to current ATJ activities, which I've divided into six different categories. The number of activities that ATJ has become involved in has really mushroomed enormously over the past few years from the newsletter, conference, and journal that I mentioned earlier to include a wide variety of other types of activities, including the collaborative activities we have been engaging in with other organizations such as NCJLT.

I've already mentioned some of the types of publications and communications that we have been distributing. I did want to say for those of you who presented your research today and who are engaged in research, please consider the Journal of the Association of Teachers of Japanese as an outlet for your scholarship.

In addition to research papers, the journal has published every few years a compilation of dissertation abstracts of recent Ph.D. dissertations in Japanese pedagogy, linguistics, and literature. The most recent dissertation issue just came out this last year, and it provides another way to keep up with current scholarship and developments in the field. The dissertation abstracts are compiled by Frank Shulman and the journal has been publishing them since 1975.

The ATJ Newsletter tries to publish regional news as well national news, and we rely on you to submit news of local conferences and regional conferences such as this one. We really appreciate your sending that information to the national office so that we can include such information in the newsletter.

In addition to the journal, a few years ago--1996 was the first of these--the editors of the journal decided to publish an occasional paper series as well. The occasional paper series is intended for materials that are perhaps more time sensitive, such as reports of conferences and other reports related to recent developments in the field. The first one was a report of a series of interviews conducted with several leaders in the field of Japanese studies about their opinions of Japanese studies. The second was a report of a conference focusing on research related to Japanese as a second language. If you have something

that doesn't seem as though it's suitable for the journal, please keep in mind that there is a possibility of doing an occasional paper. We welcome ideas and submissions for the occasional papers' series, as well.

The membership directory also comes out every year. We have attempted this year for the first time to provide not only names and addresses and contact information about the members of the Association but also to provide some information about particular interests of members in terms of scholarship and teaching. If you have a list of 1400 people, it's a little hard to know where to start if you want to hook up with other people who have your particular interests, so we hope the categorized list will help. You can look for people who specialize in a particular period of literature or in translation or in teaching language at a particular level or in a certain aspect of linguistics. I think we will try to break it down into even finer categories in the next issues of the membership directory.

We also have just this last year or so started publishing a series of fliers. We have a new membership flier that has membership information and also the application form in it. In addition to joining ATJ or NCJLT directly, it is possible to join NCJLT through ATJ, so you can get all the benefits of both organizations by sending \$35.00 membership to ATJ, plus an additional \$10.00 for NCJLT. That will also allow you to attend the annual ACTFL conferences at the ACTFL member price, as explained on the membership form.

In addition to the membership brochure, we have recently published some brochures for students encouraging study abroad. One of the projects that ATJ has been involved in recently--and I will say some more about this probably after lunch--is encouraging study abroad. These brochures are intended to get students thinking of doing study abroad in Japan and to guide them (and teachers) to the information and assistance that the Bridging Project can provide.

The Bridging Project, which is the study abroad facilitation project, has also been successful this last year in raising some scholarship funding for study abroad. At this point, the funds are available only for undergraduate university students because that was the focus of the foundations and companies from which we were able to raise money but we do have the hope to expand that in

the future. For the first time this fall the Bridging Project is able to provide up to \$4000.00 scholarships for students who are going to Japan in a recognized year- or semester-long university Japanese language program. Up to 30 scholarships will be awarded this fall, and there will be another competition in the fall for students who are going for spring semester.

Jessica Lee Thurrott: Introduction

First of all I'd like to thank Tabuse-sensei for inviting me here. It is very nice to travel somewhere and not go through a time change, since I am from Connecticut. I am happy to be here in Michigan and have the chance to meet with all of you.

We are going to step back for a moment, and I am speak in the same order that Laurel just did for you. First, I'd like to see how many teachers we have for each level just for my own purpose. Do we have any elementary school teachers here? Middle school? High School? and University? That seems to be a fair representation of the country right now. My name is Jessica Thurrott and recently became the president of NCJLT. That was back just before ACTFL in Chicago. First I am going to tell you about my personal history because people ask me, too, why I study Japanese. Some of my experiences and reasons for being in this field are much the same as Laurel's. I never wanted to be a teacher. I never wanted to speak Japanese, and I certainly never knew that I wanted to be a Japanese language teacher. Oh, and I never wanted to teach elementary, either. It has all been good "twists of fate" that brought me here.

When I was in college I went to Duke for undergrad and in my sophomore year, much like Laurel, I wanted to study abroad. At that time, I had been doing Comparative Area Studies - Latin America and I had been studying Spanish and I was really enjoying it. I went back and told my father that I wanted to study in Costa Rica for junior year, fall. It was 1988 and Nicaragua was in the news all the time with the war between the Sandinistas and the Contras. My father could not be convinced that there were safe spots in Central America and refused to pay for me to go to a "dangerous" area. He said "find a safe country or you're not going anywhere." Exactly like Laurel, all my friends

were going to Europe, Spain and Italy. I did not want to go someplace where everyone was going; I thought this was an opportunity to do something different. So, I went to the Duke Study Abroad Office and asked "What is a safe country that not too many people are traveling to?" They said "Japan" and I said, "Sign me up." That was the whole story. It is kind of embarrassing, when people ask, that I didn't have a long-time love of Japan or longing to go there beforehand. So, I went. I had no Japanese experience whatsoever. I went to Kansai Gaidai in Hirakata-shi, Osaka for the fall semester. The one thing that really changed me there were my experiences through my hobby: radio controlled model airplanes--*rajikon makei hikooki*. That was my father's hobby and I had flown planes since I was 12 years old. Coincidentally, most of the radio controlled model airplane companies are in Osaka. When I got there they sort of searched me out. I found out later that my American sponsor and dear friend (from racing in competitions nationally) who was a Japanese gentleman from California had called ahead and told the Japanese model airplane guys to "take care of Jessica." I didn't find that out until many years later. But these model airplane company employees and enthusiasts, almost entirely older men, took me to Japanese competitions flying model airplanes on almost every weekend when I was in Japan. At these competitions I was forced to practice Japanese because these men did not speak any English. I really wanted to talk to them because we shared a common hobby and they were so nice to me and they gave me airplanes and radios and T-shirts and we looked like a team. They became my motivation to learn. I wanted to have conversations with them. Each week at the model airplane competitions, I would try the new grammar patterns I had just learned. I remember the week I learned [___to ___ to *dochira no hoo ga suki desuka/ ii desuka?*] I sat there about 10 minutes in a car on the way to a competition and finally said, "*Osaka to Tokyo to dochirano hoo ga suki desuka?*" and the man driving said, "*Yappari Tokyo no hoo ga suki desu.*" I said "*soo desu ka*" and then sat for 30 more minutes looking through my dictionary and textbook for something else to ask.

In any case, I enjoyed Japan, my model airplane friends, and learning the language, and I wanted to go back. When I went back to Duke, I changed

everything. I took Japanese classes. I did East Asia as my major area of concentration instead of Latin America. Latin America became my minor area of concentration. At Duke, the name of the major was Comparative Area Studies, then you choose two areas: East Asia and Latin America.

After graduation, I went on a JET program for a year. I do not know if it was a coincidence or not but *Monbusho* sent me back to Hirakata-shi. So, I knew all the train systems and I knew all the model airplane fields. Thinking back on it now, I am not very happy about my performance as a JET assistant. Now that I have a JALEX assistant of my own and they have been so wonderful about speaking Japanese to me, I realize that I wasn't a big help to my mentor teachers in terms of improving their English ability. I was so motivated to learn Japanese that I didn't really force the teacher that I was working with to speak English. I think they were often happy to speak to me in Japanese, but I could have done better at encouraging their English practice. I wish I could do that part over again. In any case, I learned more Japanese there.

When I first went on the JET program, I was still thinking I was going to use Japanese for Business. Something very high paying and glamorous. The funny thing is that both of my parents were music teachers when I was little. So teaching was somewhat in my genes. I used to play school all the time when I was little. I don't know why I didn't consider teaching as profession before then. On the JET program, gradually, I started to feel that I liked teaching, in general. The smiles of the students; the satisfaction when they understood. When I got back from JET, I taught ESL in a special program for Japanese natives at a college in Connecticut. During the seven months I was there, the college asked me to teach a Japanese course for professors there, because they had a lot of Japanese natives on campus and interest in travel to Japan. When I tried to teach Japanese to those professors I suddenly realized "this is what I like to do!" The ESL classes had always been very challenging for me to teach. I found it very difficult to explain my native language and to answer questions like "What is the difference between big, enormous, huge and colossal?" English is hard and often complicated. I found Japanese to be much easier to teach, especially at the earlier

levels. I enjoyed that first class so much that I started looking what it would be like to become a Japanese teacher.

Almost immediately I found a job opening to teach high school and middle school Japanese in a very rural, *inaka*, town in Connecticut. I also taught on television there, to three other schools. I taught at middle school and high school for about a year and a half but it was a part-time, well, it was full time but they were only paying me a tutor salary. I couldn't have any insurance benefits, etc. One day my principal came to me and he said, "I found a job for you. It's an elementary school Japanese program they want to start in Waterbury. You should go apply for this job. We love you but you need insurance. You need full-time pay. Just apply." I thought "Elementary? ...They can't learn Japanese." With my doubts, I interviewed anyway and about a week later I said to myself "I cannot do this. I don't think I am capable. I don't know if I can teach elementary and especially Japanese to elementary kids." I called the principal at the school and said, "I don't think I can do it." He said, "that's too bad. We were going to offer you the job today." I was stunned. I said, "I'll take it."

Needless to say, five and half years ago I started teaching elementary school. Within a month I knew I loved it. It was totally different than what I expected. The kids can do more than you'd ever imagine. In fact, if you can teach it in a comprehensible, kid-oriented way, they can learn it. Ever since then gradually I've become, I guess for myself and hopefully around the country, more and more of an advocate for early language learning and early Japanese learning because I can really see the benefits and I believe that it is very important to start young.

During the early part of the conference we had discussed how difficult Japanese is as a language; however, a lot of the reasons that Japanese is perceived as so "difficult" is that students are starting to learn it when the "window of opportunity" for learning language is already beginning to close. We don't see a lot of those barriers in elementary school. Kindergartners don't know that Japanese is supposed to be difficult; we don't speak English to them practically at all in kindergarten Japanese classes.

In any case, it was about then I realized teaching as profession and as a career could be fulfilling and could be something that could use all of my skills, all the things I enjoy the best. I really do love my job. Five days a week I smile. I've also come to realize that teaching is somewhat of a marathon. You are always running; you are always sweating; it always seems like you are never done with what you have to do; there is always another hill. I have started to see professional development and meetings like this and even just something as simple as talking to Laurel on the phone when I've had a rough day as the water and the snacks the along the way that make me able to continue this marathon; this marathon that I've now chosen as a profession.

I think that is one of the reasons it is important to have organizations like ATJ and NCJLT and especially the local affiliate organizations because we need the friendships, and the ideas and the sharing that come out of these meetings. Even just seeing our friends that have the same challenges as us helps us to go to school more refreshed on Monday. People who don't have contact with local organizations, have it a lot harder. I know that I have benefited from these networks, on both a personal and a professional level.

Jessica Lee Thurrott: History of NCJLT

Let me tell you quickly about some of the history of the National Council of the Japanese Language Teachers, which was National Council of the Secondary Teachers of Japanese (NCSTJ) originally. I will use the term "NCSTJ" when discussing the history of the organization from the beginning and then I will change to "NCJLT" from the time when we changed the name and for the present.

NCSTJ was formed in 1991. Seventeen teachers met in Washington, D. C. and started NCSTJ; people like Norman Masuda, Hitomi Tamura, and Leslie Birkland. They also had support from Carol Bond, Hiroshi Miyaji-sensei, Dick Brecht and Ron Walton from National Foreign Language Center, and Yasuaki Kaneda from the Japan Foundation at that time. By 1992-1993 year, they already had 280 members. They immediately aligned with local affiliate organizations. NCSTJ worked a little different from ATJ from the beginning. They made

affiliations with local organizations because there already were local Japanese teacher organizations around the country. The first newsletter came out in 1992 and they had the first summer leadership conference in Santa Barbara in conjunction with, at that time, the California Language Project. They also made an official affiliation with ATJ back in 1992.

By 1993-1994 there were over 550 members. In two years, NCSTJ grew from 17 to 550. There were twelve affiliates and they were putting out two newsletters a year. By 1994-1995 there were over 550 members. They had more affiliates and the newsletters were coming out four times a year.

NCSTJ and ATJ had a first joint conference at MIT in 1993. They had another joint conference in Washington in 1994-1995. That is probably where articulation discussions were taking place that Laurel mentioned. In 1995-1996 was the first year we co-sponsored sessions with ACTFL for the national conference. I think that was a big turning point in terms of us becoming a nationally accepted organization. ACTFL is a very important relationship we have in terms of making us recognized among the other languages. NCSTJ also started the Japanese National Honor Society in 1995-1996 and they had a symposium called "Moving Japanese into the 21st Century" in 1996.

This year we have 22 affiliates and about 550 members. We've seen membership wane a little bit. I think there are a couple of reasons. One is that we've seen some programs be cut. Another reason is that we are finally getting to the point where we are cleaning up our membership data base to include only people who have really paid dues. Maybe we had extras in there we had kept for few years. At over 500 members, we are still a healthy organization.

As you may know, at the ACTFL conference in 1998 last fall, we changed the name of the organization to the National Council of Japanese Language Teachers. We felt this was a very important thing to do based on how we want our membership to look in the 21st century. Certainly there are number of elementary school teachers, myself being one of them, who feel that if we don't get representation in these organizations... we need something, so we were going to start our own. I think it is important for us (NCJLT and the Alliance) to

represent those teachers; allowing me to be in this position hopefully helps with that.

We had much discussion about what the new name should be, and in the end we decided on NCJLT. The only way that I remember the acronym is that my name is Jessica Lee Thurrott, so my initials are J.L.T.; we changed the name to NCJLT the month I became president. Really looks like I took over the place, doesn't it? But that was all coincidental.

Traditional activities that we are involved in are of course, first of all, our relationship with our local affiliates. It is little bit confusing. When I first started teaching I was a member of NEASTJ and I would get their newsletter and I would get OSHIRASE. I really did not know which was which. After a lot of learning, I am understanding the national-local organization relationship. Basically what it is is, and we redefined this recently, if you join in an affiliate and you choose to join our organization as well, you can pay an extra \$10.00 (or it is already included in your affiliate dues) and your affiliate sends us \$10.00 for you to become a NCJLT member. That also allows you to go to the ACTFL conference for the ACTFL member price. That is one area we can give our members big savings. If you want to become an individual member of us without going through an affiliate, it costs you more, it used to be \$25.00 but we reduced it to \$15.00 for the future. That is how the relationship works. Later, I'll tell you how we are streamlining our communications with local affiliates and trying to make that relationship more efficient and effective.

PM Session (Continuation of the Joint Keynote Speeches)

Jessica Lee Thurrott: NCJLT Activities

This has been an exciting lunch break for me. I've been able to visit with Hanabusa-sensei who was my *yonensei* teacher at EASLI (Indiana University's East Asian Summer Language Institute). Also, I was thrilled to meet Yonezawa-sensei, my teacher in the first semester at Kansai Gaidai where I first started Japanese, after all these years. These are two of the wonderful Japanese teachers who have kept me motivated and excited about this language and this field

along the way. I really believe that you are only as good a teacher as the teachers that you have had.

I'd like to talk a little bit about current NCJLT activities. I think that when you see me go down this comparatively short list, you will be reminded what a young organization we are in terms of how long NCJLT has been around. We don't have anywhere near the infrastructure or the number of projects as ATJ has in place. It is very beneficial for us to have ATJ as a model, especially for me being able to talk to Laurel about things like policy and practices. This is another reason that I am very excited about our Alliance.

One of the areas that the current board of NCJLT is trying to address is the streamlining of member and affiliate relations. As a group of public and private school K-12 teachers, our board members are a very busy bunch. I think that in the past there has been a period of time when we haven't been very diligent about updating our membership list for one reason or another. So, Yoko Kano, our current Membership Chair has worked very hard to "clean up" our membership list and be sure that everyone who joins receives their newsletters as soon as possible. As a board, we have begun to establish very specific membership policies and procedures. We reduced the Individual Membership fee to \$15 (from \$25) and are working on an "Affiliate Packet" to make reporting of memberships through our affiliates (\$10/person) a lot easier. The Affiliate Packets will be sent to a treasurer or president and will include forms to report everything we need to keep up-to-date, as well as information about what we can offer the affiliates (JNHS, ACTFL, etc.). If you know anyone who has just become president or treasurer of a local organization, please let us know. We will be sending those packets out this summer.

The need to establish policies and reporting-systems are the growing-pains of organizations. The decisions we are making now will hopefully make things run a lot smoother in the future. One other thing that we are committed to is communication. This includes between the board members and with our members. I exchange e-mails with the board almost everyday. As I mentioned, we are trying to update our affiliate presidents' list; I would love to have them all on e-mail. We are trying to expand our newsletter, *OSHIRASE*: the main form

of communication we have with our members. We'd like to be able to get more regional reports and we've already added an "elementary corner." In the upcoming issue, for example, I wrote about my experiences in teaching Hiragana and Katakana in our FLES program. I'd love for other teachers to write in about their experiences; that's probably one of our biggest issues in the elementary school.

Of course, we welcome all articles, lesson plans, or just "teaching tips" for Japanese language K-16. In the future, this is the area in which we'd like to see the most expansion. Please consider sending us any materials which you think might be useful for K-16 language teachers. We're also working hard to get more advertisers for the newsletter and hope to use any funds we can collect to improve the "look" of it. Just recently two of our new board members, Lynn Sessler-Schmaling and Mike Peterson have volunteered to become editors of the newsletter. We are thankful for their willingness and look forward to the perspectives they bring to this publication.

NCJLT continues to sponsor sessions at the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Conference. As I said before, this is one of our most valuable relationships. It is important for us to keep a seat at the table with the other language groups that sponsor this conference. In addition, we can learn so much from teachers of other languages. That is why it's really important if you go to ACTFL, please check the box on your registration sheet that says you are a member of NCJLT. We get credit for the attendees who are our members. This allows us to keep our current number of sessions and maintain our sponsorship role. I hope you can make it to ACTFL '99 in Dallas this November.

If you are considering attending the conference, you may want to apply for our "ACTFL Participation Grants" formerly called "travel grants." I know the selection process for these has been flawed in the past. We have tried to anticipate and alleviate any of the problems encountered in the past. The grant application process will be announced in the upcoming issue of *OSHIRASE*. This year, the grant is going to be for first time attendees to ACTFL only. If you have never been to ACTFL, I encourage you to apply. Each year, we will try to

have different categories. This year is first timers to ACTFL, next year might be elementary school teachers. Another year might be high school teachers only, etc. There is an essay application that will be judged on content, not English ability. We will give 10 grants for \$200 each. But there is a catch. You have to write an article for us for our newsletter about what you learned at ACTFL for our winter newsletter before we will give you your \$200.00 check. We hope that will encourage attendees to share their experiences.

NCJLT continues to have the yearly *Nengajo* Contest, which Michael Peterson has done a fantastic job of running this year, with help from Lynn Schmaline and Shawna Palmer. We are going to be sending prizes to all the winners from *Asia for Kids*. I don't know if you know that catalog but it's fantastic, especially for elementary materials; I hear they've picked some grade-level appropriate prizes for each division.

The Japanese National Honor Society continues to grow. Joy Kawamoto has been doing a great job chairing that for us. When you belong to the Japanese National Honor Society, the students receive gorgeous certificates, the large size ones with *hanko* and everything--very nicely done. Joy is currently working on getting the Japanese JNHS pin made for all the seniors. You have to be a member of NCJLT to have your school in the Japanese National Honor Society. The benefits can be seen in the pride of the students and the public relations for your program. It certainly helps to have Japanese up on the stage when your school is handing out awards at the end of senior year.

The National Working Group is an ATJ/NCJLT joint project. I came on after the first meeting. Kyle Ennis and Laurel had worked very hard to get that going so all I am is a participant. Essentially, we are working on putting together a publication that will assist teachers and local organizations in implementing the Japanese National Standards. NCJLT will continue to help out in any way we can with standards implementation, distribution, and education efforts.

Finally, we are very excited to be looking into the possibility of an NCJLT web page. This is something that we've talked about for awhile but the time and effort required to get one up and running has just been prohibitive. Susan

Schmidt, the Alliance Executive Director, has agreed to assist us with creating the NCJLT web site as she prepares the alliance web page, which will link our two organizations.

This brings us to our most far-reaching current "activity," the creation of the Alliance itself and the appointment of the Executive Director.

Laurel Rasplica Rodd: The Future of ATJ

Many of these current activities are continuing into the future, so I'm glad to see that part of the afternoon plans are talking about the future. It will be really helpful for Jessica and me to take back to our boards your ideas about what the national organizations can do to contribute to your individual and regional organization needs.

In addition to the various types of print publications, I also want to mention the ATJ web page, which is on the server at the University of Colorado. Our address is:

<http://www.Colorado.edu/ealld/atj>

You can go directly to the ATJ home page using this address, and we are hoping soon to add pages, expanding information that's there to include information about NCJLT and various other organizations, as well. If we don't have a link to your regional organization home page or department home page, please let us know, as we try to provide links to various university program home pages and those of other organizations. The announcement section of the home page is regularly updated. There is a contact corner, so if you are working on a particular research project and would like to try to get in touch with other people who are interested in doing research in that area, you can send an announcement to post to get in touch with other people. There is also information about the executive board and officers; a job line with both advertisements from institutions and space for individuals to post their availability. We are trying now to expand that section to include more information on K-12 teaching positions and availability of candidates at those levels. There is information about joining ATJ, with an application form, so if

you know someone who is interested in joining, they can get the copy of the application form on-line. The most recent newsletter is posted on the web page, as are other publications, including the Japanese standards document, which will soon be published by the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Collaborative Project in a volume along with the generic language standards. There is also information about occasional papers, reviews of technological and educational resources, and other material.

There is a separate section on the web page devoted to study abroad, part of the Bridging Project to encourage and facilitate study abroad in Japan. This section includes a frequently asked questions (FAQs) section; information on US-based study abroad programs such as the summer programs that are sponsored by American institutions, information on various Japanese university programs; and information on special stand-alone programs like the year long programs that are run by some American institutions in Japan.

There is also a section with reports of student experiences where your students can find out more about what it was like for other students who have been in Japan on different types of programs. There are also links to other site with resources on study abroad. Susan Schmidt, director of the project, has been working closely with the Association of International Education (AIEJ) in Japan, and they've been very cooperative with the Bridging project about helping us to link to their home page and to various web pages that are being developed in Japan, as well as providing information we can post on our web page to keep us up to date about Japanese programs.

We are also discussing with them right now a way to integrate the scholarships that AIEJ has offered with the scholarships that the Bridging Project is putting together to facilitate our common goal of increasing the numbers of American students studying in Japan.

Preliminary plans for the ATJ seminar for next year currently include two invited panels, one of which we're hoping will be a history of the field bringing together the various past presidents of ATJ on a panel to talk about the field during the period when they were presidents of ATJ and to look ahead toward the 21st century. ATJ is now also allocated one panel at AAS every year, a

guaranteed panel, and the board is discussing right now what would be a good topic for that. We've tried to do a panel that had some relevance to the whole field over the last couple of years and one that also might be of interest to other Asian language groups. This last year the panel was on the standards project; the year before that was on the advanced framework project. Among the panel topics being discussed for next year are study abroad and heritage learners.

Another area in which ATJ has been working is professional development opportunities. For four years ATJ was able to fund with support from the US-Japan Foundation summer language immersion fellowships for secondary teachers. The funding for that has come to an end from US-Japan Foundation, but we are looking for ways to continue such fellowships, perhaps on a reduced level, in the future, because the feedback has been so positive and so many teachers have said they appreciate that support to continue their language development in formal instructional settings.

We have established a professional development committee consisting of several members of the ATJ Board, chaired by Yashy Tohsaku, and they are engaged in a number of different activities. One of them is a survey of just what is available right now in terms of both teacher training and professional development opportunities. They are gathering information on university programs that offer certification programs or graduate level training in pedagogy, and they are also trying to gather information on various workshops and learning opportunities that are available from individuals and organizations. We hope we can put together a brochure that would be available to everybody, so if you are looking for a particular topic you will know who the people and institutions are who are ready to offer training in that particular area.

The National Standards in Foreign Language Education Collaborative Project (NSFLECP) I have mentioned already. ACTFL brought together in the early 1990's representatives of eight of the professional language organizations: Spanish and Portuguese, French, German, Classics, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, and Italian. This Collaborative led the project to develop language specific standards based on the generic foreign language standards that had been developed in the early 1990's.

That same Collaborative now is continuing to be involved at the national level in developments related to policy about foreign language education. I am sure that most of you know that the movement to develop student standards arose out of the "GOALS 2000" report that was very critical of American education in the 1980's. The movement toward developing standards for different curricular areas came from that. At first efforts were largely focused on English, mathematics, and social studies, but other disciplines such as foreign languages and the arts came to recognize that it was important for them to be part of this movement as well, so that they not be marginalized in the K-12 curriculum.

At the national level focus is now turning to other types of standards. There is an organization called, INTASC, Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium, which addresses issues of teacher preparation in all fields. The collaborative has been able to get a representative of foreign languages on that board. That group is looking at establishing standards nationwide for entry level teachers in variety of fields. There is also a group engaged in a national study of schools, NSSE, that is developing indicators of school quality.

There is yet another board, the National Board of Professional Teacher Standards (NBPTS), that is engaged in developing a list of standards for teachers who have been in the field and are experienced, like a master teacher certification. Leslie Birkland, a Japanese language teacher, is serving on that board. They are identifying indicators for five different areas in which a professional teacher should demonstrate mastery: a professional teacher is committed to student learning; a professional teacher knows the subject taught; a professional teacher is responsible for managing and monitoring students' learning; a professional teacher is a member of learning communities; and a professional teacher thinks systematically about practice. So they are encouraging experienced teachers to recognize that they must not only know the content--language and culture if you are language teacher--but also be familiar with methods of assessment, be reflective teachers, understand what it means to be engaged with professional communities--to be involved in

professional organizations and that sort of thing. They are developing assessments for professional teachers as well at the national level.

A fifth group, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), is developing standards for education schools and their preparation of teachers. The Collaborative has made recommendations for foreign language teachers to serve on that board as well.

I already mentioned that the ATJ professional development committee is working on trying to find out what sorts of workshops and professional development opportunities are available. Their plan is to then to review the list of opportunities against these various sets of standards to see where we may have holes in the offerings for Japanese language teachers, so that we can encourage to develop workshops on these various areas.

Jessica mentioned this morning that we hope to sponsor a leadership seminar for the summer of 2000. It would be for people who would like to learn more about what's been happening at the national level and to bring these developments to your region, and your institutions, and to help others to understand how they fit into the national picture.

I have already mentioned that a joint committee of ATJ and NCSTJ worked with the NSFLECP to develop the Japanese standards. Following up on that, we were able, with the support of the US-Japan Foundation, to put together the National Working Group on Japanese Competency Goals to discuss issues related to the Japanese Standards. The National Working Group brought together twenty teachers from all levels of instruction and a variety of geographical regions to talk about what the impact of standards might be. What do we do with them now we've got them? One of the things that they've been doing is assessing where we stand right now. What sorts of other documents are out there? How do the national standards tie in with state efforts and local efforts? This group is trying to gather together all the information together in one place; drafts of their reports are available on the ATJ web site, and they will be published later this year.

Another thing we asked the National Working Group to do is develop some recommendations for the field and for individual schools and individual

teachers about what steps would be useful for people to take as they implement the Japanese Standards. We were able to fund some model projects to do a variety of different activities related to the standards. Some projects focus on connecting local or state frameworks with the standards, some of them are developing curricula for specific levels, others are developing assessment models, others relate to teacher education and integrating standards competency into teacher education. We are going to publish information coming out of those model projects too so that other schools and other regions of the country can build on the work that has been happening in different regions.

The framework for post-basic Japanese language instruction has been in the works for quite a while. We are hoping to get that published this summer. A number of years ago the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages (NCOLCTL) was encouraging less commonly taught languages to develop introductory frameworks for instruction. Since a framework for elementary Japanese had already been published, we proposed that what Japanese needed to do was to put together a framework that built on that introductory framework. There has been a task force that's been at work on that for a good number of years, and what is coming out of it is basically a handbook of useful information for people who teach the level we're now calling the "post-basic" level. It will include information on resources, on content-based instruction, on the integration of study abroad into intermediate and advanced Japanese, and various other issues.

The JP-NET project, also, links us to the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages and the National Foreign Language Center. They are encouraging less commonly taught languages to develop LANGNET mechanisms for resource sharing. As part of their larger project, we have a task force engaged in an editorial project, as we're calling it, defining several types of learner profiles (for example, students who went to Japan on a Rotary scholarship as high school students and came back with a relatively fluent informal Japanese but who don't know formal Japanese or how to read and write). The National Foreign Language Center hopes to develop a computer site that will allow students or teachers to log on, provide the information about the

learner's characteristics, and receive suggestions of materials that would be appropriate for a student who has those needs. Right now what the editorial task force group is doing is defining some sample learner profiles and trying to survey everything that exists in Japanese language materials and pick out materials for those profiles to see whether it is possible to develop such an on-line data base. Ultimately, I think, what the National Foreign Language Center hopes to do is to make it possible to disseminate this instructional material via the web.

In the area of leadership and networking, in addition to the ATJ seminar, ATJ has sponsored occasional "stand alone" meetings. There have been a series of these on Saturdays in conjunction with AAS, and we're hoping to do another in the spring of 2000 in San Diego. This Saturday meeting would target pedagogy in particular. We have also been working on expanding links with other professional teacher organizations: for example, we have recently been talking with the Chinese language and Korean language teachers about doing some joint projects and conferences or research related to Asian languages.

International networking is another way in which we have been promoting the visibility of the Japanese language instruction. I was invited last year to talk at *Nihongo Kyoiku Gakkai* (The Society for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language) in Japan as part of the international forum that they held, and we reciprocated with an international panel at the AAS this year. We are hoping to continue that in the future by having representatives from organizations of Japanese language teachers in different parts of the world come to talk about what's happening in their particular region.

Special interest groups within ATJ have been developed recently as the ATJ has grown to almost 1500 members. Given our mission, which targets everything related to Japanese teaching, there are clearly groups within the organization that have particular interests, so we are trying to do a better job of bringing those people together to share their information and resources. We have established some special interest groups within the organization, and any group who would like to declare themselves as a special interest group is

welcome to do that. They can have a corner for communications on the web page and a column in the newsletter to share information.

The articulation project which began in the early 1990's and is continuing led into most of those other projects. Now that student standards have been developed and some of other activities have taken place, it seems that a close link between NCJLT and ATJ and other groups is critical in discussing what we need to do next in terms of articulation. This is a circular, reiterative process.

Another communications project is the Bridging Project Clearinghouse that disseminates information about study abroad. The director of the Bridging Project, Susan Schmidt, has been facilitating development of exchange partnerships, going to national meetings of study abroad advisors and other organizations, and working with small schools that don't have strong Japanese programs but who would be interested in sending students to Japan to help them connect up with programs in Japan and to help them select appropriate partners. She is also conducting information meetings for students. If you are interested in having her give a presentation for students, especially if there is a consortium of schools or a regional meeting, she welcomes invitations to meet with a group of teachers or group of students, and she is happy to do that. The project would also like to support and disseminate research on study abroad, so I was pleased to hear presentations this morning on that topic. There is an extensive body of literature about study abroad in the Soviet Union, and Russian language teachers have done a very good job for about the last 30 years, really documenting what the impact of study abroad is. But much less has been done in Japanese, and it will be very useful for us to have additional information and be able to share that information. The project is working with *Monbusho* and AIEJ, and also with AAC&U, American Association of Colleges and Universities, and with NAFSA: Association of International Educators.

We are also facilitating collaboration and communication by making connections with other organizations outside the field that address national issues and policy related to foreign language education, like the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Collaborative project, the Joint National Committee on Languages/National Council on Languages and

International Studies, a policy and lobbying organization, the National Council of Organizations of Less Commonly Taught Languages, and other East Asian language teacher organizations. ATJ has also been working very hard to build an alliance with NCJLT and other Japanese language teacher groups so that we can look at collective solutions to common problems within the field, working on articulation, communication, joint projects, fund-raising, and information sharing in a variety of ways.

Laurel Rasplika Rodd: ATJ and NCJLT Alliance

We've probably already mentioned most of the activities that our two organizations will be involved in as part of the Alliance, but I will give you a little bit of background of how we got to this point.

As Jessica said earlier, in the early 1990's NCJLT--then NCSTJ--was established and at that time my predecessor as president of ATJ, Hiroshi Miyaji, was one of those who helped the organization to form, recognizing that ATJ was not necessarily meeting all of the needs for precollegiate teachers. Since then we've come to recognize that there are many, many issues that really do affect all of us and that we really need to have a close mechanism of communications in working together.

In the past, we had an exchange of board members with the Presidents of the two organizations sitting ex-officio on the other board, but that wasn't really enough to allow for the kind of a close collaboration that we felt necessary. About three years ago conversations started at the national level with some strategic planning meetings organized with the assistance of the Japan Foundation Language Center, the National Foreign Language Center, and the Japan-US Friendship Commission to bring together various people in the field to talk about the future of the field. One of the things that did come out of those discussions was the conviction that it would be useful to have a central contact place in the field for people to go for information. In addition, we recognized that there are many concerns and projects on which we should collaborate. We have been working toward an alliance, which is formally an alliance of organizations. Right now it consists of ATJ and NCJLT. Probably the heritage

language teachers' group will also join the organization, and if there are other national interest groups that have formal organizations, we welcome them to join the alliance as well.

The purpose of the alliance will be to serve as the clearinghouse for information and mechanism to facilitate collaboration and a variety of field wide goals. Recently we have hired the first executive director of the alliance. Jessica, would you like to address the hiring of the executive director?

Jessica Lee Thurrott: About ATJ/NCJLT Alliance Executive Director

This is another process that Laurel had gotten well under way when I came in. There has been talk of the need for an executive director, I know at least among NCSTJ and I'm sure at ATJ, for many years. Most of us are volunteers and we really needed someone who could help us with the administrative work. With funding from the Japan-U.S. Friendship Commission this past fall, we began the search for an executive director and received about six applications. After a series of interviews of the most viable candidates, we chose Susan Schmidt. Coincidentally, Susan was already working on the Bridging Project for ATJ and she was able to realign her schedule so that we can have her time for half of the day and she can stay with the Bridging project the rest of the day. I am really thrilled with the selection. She is an excellent administrator and within the first hours of meeting with her as Executive Director she assisted us in many ways. One of the first things she did was put together a proposal for us to apply for funding from the Japan Foundation and Language Center this year. That's something that would have taken Laurel and me ten hours of E-mailing back and forth and sitting at the computer. It is clear that Susan is going to be able to take over some of the other administrative duties from us as well. We've spoken to her about eventually taking over the NCJLT membership list, for example, which is one of our most time-consuming jobs. We will now discuss some of the other projects and tasks that we hope can be accomplished in the near future with the help of Susan Schmidt as Executive Director.

Laurel Rasplica Rodd: Further Comments on the Alliance

Last September the ATJ and NCSTJ boards had a joint meeting for the first time, bringing the full boards of both organizations together to talk about what projects the two organizations had on the back burner or in process, and which ones were appropriate for the Alliance to work on. It turned out that almost all of them can be considered Alliance goals. NCSTJ/NCJLT, with its network of state and regional affiliates, will continue to serve to gather information for and about the affiliates. They will also continue to sponsor the National Honor Society, Secondary Teacher Awards and possibly future Elementary Teachers Awards, the *Nengajo* contest, and other specifically K-12 activities. Appropriate functions specific to ATJ are reporting and disseminating research, through the AAS and other ATJ meetings, publication of the journal, focus on advanced language instruction through development of advanced materials and materials for Japanese for specific purposes, and promoting study abroad and maximizing its impact (although now that I look at this last goal, I think it is probably an Alliance goal, as well).

We talked about all the different things that an Alliance could do, ranging from all sorts of information sharing, (we are looking now at consolidating some of our publications and providing Web support for the full Alliance), networking, addressing standards-related issues, fund raising to support the activities of the alliance, and administration of the central office. Other activities might include the facilitation of local partnerships; teacher training and professional development; promoting joint research, including action research in the classroom; advocacy; development and implementation of assessments; and materials development...

I see we've used up our time, but we hope to get feedback from you in small group discussion this afternoon, both about your vision for the field and about how the national organizations can support your individual activities.

Jessica Lee Thurrott: Experience with the Alliance

I think one of the most beneficial things about the Alliance thus far has been the opportunity to meet with the college teachers. The ATJ/NCJLT joint

board meeting last September was a really great experience. We had wonderful discussions and there was a lot of give and take and we exposed a lot of shared needs. One of the things we've discussed is the fact that we need a cyclical relationship between the need to find new Japanese teachers for public schools and the university programs graduating students who are able to teach Japanese. That is another one of the projects that we will work on together: creating a system for linking teachers and jobs so that when I have a school system call me and say "We like to offer Japanese, but where can I get a teacher?" I can say, "Well, here is the list of schools that are graduating possible Japanese teachers." Many more schools around the country might begin Japanese programs if they thought that Japanese teachers were easy to find.

Question and Answer session

Question:

Is the Alliance going be sort of an umbrella organization for the two organizations now?

Answer by Laurel Rasplica Rodd:

Yes. The structure of it is that the two organizations are the alliance right now, although it will be perfectly possible for other Japanese language teacher organizations to also join. We have established an executive board which consists with presidents of two organizations plus two additional members of each board to talk about collaborative kinds of projects and we jointly hired the executive director who will support member organizations and any other needs of the whole field. So the Alliance is not a formal organization but a collaborative arrangement, a collaborative networking between the organizations.

Follow-up question:

By-laws completely separate? Tax laws? Everything?

Answer by Laurel Rasplica Rodd:

No changes in the organization. It's just a collaborative working arrangement.

III: State/Regional Reports

Regional Report of the Missouri/Kansas Association of Teachers of Japanese

Janet Akaike-Toste, President

My report of our Missouri/Kansas Association of Teachers of Japanese can be summarized at this time with that famous quote by *Kamono Chomei*--

Yuku kawano nagare wa taezushite, shikamo, moto no mizu ni arazu.

Yodomi ni ukabu utakata wa katsu kie, katsu musubite hisashiku

todomaritaru tameshi nashi.

Since the time of inception, the organization has been taking a steady course yet full of "ups and downs" in terms of membership and activities.

Our organization, MATJ (Missouri Association of Teachers of Japanese) was started in 1993 by three Japanese language teachers (including myself) in Springfield with a generous grant by the Japan Foundation & Language Center in Los Angeles. We immediately became an affiliate organization with, then NCSTJ (national Council of Secondary Teachers of Japanese), now known as NCJLT (National Council of the Japanese Language Teachers). The first meeting was held in conjunction with the annual conference of the Foreign Language Association of Missouri (FLAM). It was held in October, 1993 in Springfield. Eighteen teachers and teaching assistants from Columbus, Kansas City, Springfield, St. Louis and Winona attended the meeting. It was a great start for MATJ. It was decided that MATJ will hold its annual meeting in conjunction with the annual FLAM conference so that the members will be able to attend other sessions for professional development.

In October, 1995, at the annual MATJ meeting in conjunction with the FLAM conference in Kansas City, it was decided by the majority of the members in attendance that we will accept teachers from Kansas as members, hence changing our organization from MATJ to MO/KS ATJ. Our last MO/KS ATJ meeting was

held at the Lake of the Ozark, Missouri in October, 1997 with two teachers from Springfield and one other teacher.

Some of the schools, including those in Springfield, have stopped offering Japanese language classes, causing a decrease in the number of teachers/members. Also, the weakening of leadership, mainly by the president (myself), has contributed to the "decline" (yodomini ukabu utakata wa katsu kie...) of the organization. Like everyone else in the Japanese field, our organization's as well as my personal goal or dream is to "mainstream" Japanese language/culture classes throughout the United States at the K-16 levels. We have not abandoned that vision, despite the "ups and downs" of Japanese programs, especially here in Springfield, Missouri. We would like to resume once again a vigorous campaign for reactivating our organization by leading a business meeting and a couple of workshops at this fall's annual FLAM conference in St. Louis.

I now would like to describe a little about our Springfield Japanese program. Its history, again like that of MO/KS ATJ, is full of "ups and downs." The program was started in 1989 by one teacher (myself) for the 5 public high schools and two private ones. Total of about 80 students took the very first Japanese classes. The program expanded up to 4 teachers (3 certified Japanese language teachers!) teaching at all 5 public high schools with a well over 400 students altogether. Last year, 2 of the 5 high schools eliminated the Japanese programs. We now only have two teachers teaching at 3 high schools. One teacher (myself) goes to two high schools every day and another teacher is struggling to stay at one school, trying her best to maintain the program. As everyone knows, it is not easy!

The good news is that we have recently rewritten our curriculum guide and have aligned our major instructional goals with those of the National as well as State Standards. We are very proud of our accomplishment. A sample is given below. If you have any questions, please contact me.

Course	Performance Indicators for JAPANESE I	Activities	Assessment	Max-Show-Me
Course Competency: COMMUNICATION: Students will communicate in Japanese.	Standard 1.1: Students engage in conversations, provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions. Students will: MIG: construct simple sentences in non-past using appropriate word order.	Oral interview, group/partner work, role play	Teacher rubric, proficiency grid	Goal 2, CA 6, SS 6, IIFE 7
	Standard 1.2: Students understand and interpret written and spoken language on a variety of topics. Students will: MIG: respond to simple directions. MIG: be understand the factual content of statements on a variety of every day topics such as greetings, introductions, weather, shopping, etc. MIG: discriminate between the non-past and past tense of verbs in affirmative and negative.	Oral/written response to prompts	Teacher check list	Goal 1, CA 5, M 3.5.8
	Standard 1.3: Students present information, concepts, and ideas to an audience of listeners or readers on a variety of topics. Students will: MIG: construct simple sentences in the non-past tense using appropriate word order. MIG: reproduce the kana syllabaries with appropriate stroke order. MIG: write simple sentences in kana demonstrating proper word order.	Student created videos, skits, dialogues	Teacher rubric	Goal 3, CA 6, SS 6, FA 3
	Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied. Students will: MIG: recognize such aspects in the daily life of Japanese as <i>otogi</i> , <i>metabi</i> , <i>emayo</i> , <i>gambaru</i> , <i>do</i> .	Student essays, pen pal letters, e-mail, journals	Teacher rubric	Goal 4, CA 7, SS 5, 6, FA 2, IIFE 2.3
	Standard 2.2: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied. MIG: create original twists.	Culture reports, virtual trips	Tests, quizzes	Goal 3, 5.8, SS 4
	Standard 3.1: Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language. Students will: MIG: locate major islands, cities, bodies of water, and neighboring countries on a map of Japan.	Create such things as original, <i>metabi</i> , etc., memory work, recitation	Compare with realia, check off	Goal 1, 2, 3, 4, all subject area goals
	Standard 3.2: Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive viewpoints that are only available through the foreign language and its cultures. Students will: MIG: identify national holidays and understand the concept of Japanese imperial year count.	Geography unit	Tests, quizzes	Goal 1, 2, 3, 4, CA 1, SS 3, 7, FA 5
	Standard 4.1: Students demonstrate understanding of the concepts of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own. MIG: write simple sentences in kana demonstrating proper word order.	Calendar activities, identify national holidays	Tests, quizzes	Goal 1, 2, 3, 4, CA 1, SS 3, 7, FA 5
	Standard 4.2: Students demonstrate understanding of the concepts of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own. Students will: MIG: compare vertical nature of Japanese society requiring adjustments in vocabulary and speech levels with American society based on horizontal relationships.	Calendar activities, identify national holidays	Tests, quizzes	Goal 1, 2, 3, 4, CA 1, SS 3, 7, FA 5
	Standard 4.3: Students demonstrate understanding of the concepts of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own. Students will: MIG: construct simple sentences in the non-past tense using appropriate word order. MIG: reproduce the kana syllabaries with appropriate stroke order. MIG: write simple sentences in kana demonstrating proper word order.	Calendar activities, identify national holidays	Tests, quizzes	Goal 1, 2, 3, 4, CA 1, SS 3, 7, FA 5
	Standard 4.4: Students demonstrate understanding of the concepts of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own. Students will: MIG: compare vertical nature of Japanese society requiring adjustments in vocabulary and speech levels with American society based on horizontal relationships.	Calendar activities, identify national holidays	Tests, quizzes	Goal 1, 2, 3, 4, CA 1, SS 3, 7, FA 5
	Standard 5.1: Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting. Students will: MIG: participate in at least one of the annual sister city activities and/or festivals.	Study tour, scholarship trips, annual Fall Festival & ArtFest on Walnut Street, Sister City activities, host family, JALEX participation, etc.	Logged hours of participation	Goal 2, CA 6, M IIFE 7
	Standard 5.2: Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment. Students will: MIG: participate in at least one of the annual sister city activities and/or festivals.	Study tour, scholarship trips, annual Fall Festival & ArtFest on Walnut Street, Sister City activities, host family, JALEX participation, etc.	Logged hours of participation	Goal 2, CA 6, M IIFE 7
	Standard 5.3: Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment. Students will: MIG: participate in at least one of the annual sister city activities and/or festivals.	Study tour, scholarship trips, annual Fall Festival & ArtFest on Walnut Street, Sister City activities, host family, JALEX participation, etc.	Logged hours of participation	Goal 2, CA 6, M IIFE 7
	Standard 5.4: Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment. Students will: MIG: participate in at least one of the annual sister city activities and/or festivals.	Study tour, scholarship trips, annual Fall Festival & ArtFest on Walnut Street, Sister City activities, host family, JALEX participation, etc.	Logged hours of participation	Goal 2, CA 6, M IIFE 7

Regional Report from the Illinois Association of Teachers of Japanese

**Takuo Kinoshita
King Elementary School**

The Illinois Association of Teachers of Japanese (IATJ) celebrated a decade of existence this past year. IATJ was started by five teachers meeting together in 1989 to discuss the need for collaboration and has now grown to about thirty paid members representing all grade levels, K-16, and to a mailing list of more than sixty.

IATJ offers a two-day workshop in the spring, a one-week Japanese teachers' summer institute and the annual general meeting which includes the business meeting in the fall. The fall conference is normally held in conjunction with the fall conference of the Illinois Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. IATJ, ICTFL, and NCJLT are at the conference so members have opportunities to receive national and state information about foreign language education as well as Japanese language education.

Description of Activities

The annual Spring Workshop is designed to be for the members and by the members, so basically the sessions are offered by the members instead of outside speakers. However, one guest speaker who can offer a session meaningful to the members is sometimes invited. For example, Professor Hiroshi Miyaji, then president of the Association of Teachers of Japanese (ATJ), spoke on the history of Japanese language pedagogy and ATJ at one of our workshops. Mrs. Masahiro Noto, an attorney in Chicago spoke of her experience in learning the language and how it is relevant to her law practice at one of the workshops. Many teachers have ideas and teaching practices that would be of interest and helpful to other teachers so we try to provide opportunity for that kind of sharing and presentation in the workshops. Also, some have not had the opportunity previously to do a formal presentation so these workshops provide experience in organizing and presenting on a specific topic before a live audience. This year's workshop was basically spent on the Illinois Japanese Curriculum Guide and included sessions relating to the Illinois Learning Standards by three members.

IATJ will have the sixth Japanese Language Teachers' Summer Institute this

year at Urbana, Illinois, from June 20th to 26th. Our main focus this year is curriculum writing based on the Illinois Curriculum Guide. Each participant will be learning how to develop curriculum correlated to the Illinois State Foreign Language goals. They are expected to write actual curriculum which they can use in their own program. We are expecting to have participants from other states as in the past as it is an advantage for all of us to be exposed to diverse opinions and ideas. IATJ's workshops and institutes are conducted basically in Japanese. The reason is that we as Japanese teachers have to be able to explain in Japanese instead of switching to English. Also, it is a good opportunity for non-native Japanese teachers in the institutes and workshops to use Japanese with Japanese teachers in an authentic situation. It is rather strange that we Japanese assume that we can speak English better than non-Japanese can speak Japanese as a second language.

This year IATJ has fortunately received a grant from the U.S.-Japan Foundation to write the Curriculum Guide for Japanese for the State of Illinois. We had already formed a writing committee and have been working on writing the Japanese State Standards but this grant has given us opportunity to concentrate more effectively on the writing of the guide.

The *Minitushin* is published four or five times a year. IATJ encourages the members to be involved in creating the newsletter and we receive articles or news from the members.

Some of Our Concerns

The Japanese program in Illinois has not taken a firm root yet in the school programs even though people say that is it important to have a Japanese program; how wonderful that students can speak Japanese; how beautiful the Japanese culture and art are; how much we can learn from the Japanese education, etc. I have heard that other states are in the same situation. It seems that a Japanese program is one of the first subjects to be eliminated when budgets are cut unless the program is supported by a grant, so when the money runs out the program disappears. A task for IATJ is to find a way to be a part of a working force to stabilize and make the Japanese program a solid part of the state and national education scene.

We often hear Japanese teachers talk about how difficult learning Japanese is, or how unique it is, but I think we have to stop thinking of Japanese as such a

difficult or unique language. English, Arabic, and other languages are difficult and unique, too. Of course, there are differences but I think we are putting much too much emphasis on that. Japanese can be and is being learned by millions of non-Japanese people and many of them are very fluent in their use of the language. We need to see Japanese as one of the whole body of languages to be taught and learned. Also, when we teach about the Japanese culture we sometimes think it is exotic but each culture is exotic in its own practices, mores, customs, etc.

I think one way to do this is for Japanese teachers to participate more in local, regional and national activities of foreign language professional organizations, not just in Japanese organizations. Also, we need to go beyond foreign language organizations and participate with colleagues in other fields, such as history, science, etc. We can learn much from them. Locally we need to become involved with our colleagues and participate in all school activities, decision making, etc. On the regional and national level we can attend sessions at conferences presented by teachers of other languages and learn ideas which can be adapted to our teaching. Too often we attend ACTFL and only attend the sessions on Japanese language teaching.

One of IATJ's goals is to help their members widen their horizons by becoming involved in activities such as participating on committees on the state and national level. Some of our members have served on the Illinois State Board of Education teams to write the foreign language learning standards, the state foreign language performance standards, the new certification policy, etc. Members also serve on committees of the Illinois Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, GlobalFest, etc., and on the team which wrote the national Japanese standards.

We also need to be aware of state and federal policies. We must read, listen and talk with colleagues to know what is going on in the field in public policy and need to become active advocates for foreign language and education in general. We have created a small committee to look at the program we now have and to look at education trends in general and then suggest what we need to be doing. This committee may suggest to members that they should write letters to their congressmen to urge passage of bills which provide additional support for foreign language education. Recently we presented an award to Senator Paul Simon for his many years of support for foreign language education on the federal level. Too many of us think we are just teachers and hesitate to become involved in policy

making and advocacy.

We, as teachers, must realize that what and how we teach will have a life long impact upon the students we teach. The immediate test, grade, or grammar point will probably be forgotten but our attitude towards our students, our way of respecting them, our grasp and appreciation for the language, people and culture will be remembered consciously or unconsciously by our students.

One of our visions for the future is not to just be content with becoming teachers and improving our teaching skills. We must work towards developing ourselves as humans and educators. One of the reasons IATJ brought Mr. Masahiro Nomoto to the ACTFL Conference '98 was so that we, as individuals, could expand our knowledge and understanding of a culture within Japan. Listening to his description of his life and feelings helps us to see him not only as a part of the Japanese experience but we see him as representing the feelings of humans across all cultures.

Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan Report
Melisia Taylor, Livonia Stevenson High School,
President of the Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan

JTAM(Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan) has had a very exciting year to date. Historically, JTAM has had meetings during the year to provide networking opportunities and problem solving sessions for Japanese language teachers. This year however, in addition to traditional activities, JTAM extended its involvement in Japanese language teaching. JTAM's one far-reaching event has been to host the Japan Bowl; a quiz bowl/talent expo. Its popularity has grown yearly and this year, its 4th year, approximately 165 k-12 students competed on 37 teams in 4 divisions. University level educators and students as well as local residents were involved in the areas of judging, facilitating, making questions, and demonstrating Japanese related talents.

JTAM began its year though, by expanding its role. The coming introduction of the Michigan Foreign Language Standards in October 1998 and the National Japanese Standards' Draft in early 1999 prompted JTAM to focus its attention on standards education. JTAM applied for and received a grant through ATJ and NCSTJ (at that time) funded by the U.S.- Japan Foundation. The grant project entitled "The Michigan Japanese Competency Project" has a primary and a secondary goal. The primary goal of the MJCP is to educate Japanese language teachers and to make them consciously aware of the standards. The secondary goal is to provide models of lessons implementing the standards by using selected project participants' lessons as examples. Implementation of the Michigan Japanese Competency Project began in the Fall of 1998. Ms. Jackie Moase-Burke of Oakland Public Schools offered an informative workshop on the Michigan Standards.

Project participants were selected after the first workshop. Another workshop, this time on the National Japanese Language Standards, was offered in January by Dr. Hiroko Kataoka of both CSU-Long Beach and the Japan Foundation. The emphasis during both workshops was on education of Japanese language teachers K-16. Dr. Kataoka's workshop also went further in that participants began looking at the lesson writing while analyzing and selecting standards to be implemented. As part of the MJCP process, Melisia Taylor participated in a National Working Group session where all grant recipients shared their projects' progress as well as ideas and concerns. Grant recipients also worked together with National Working Group members brainstorming ideas for the final draft package of the National Japanese Language Standards. A session concluding this phase is proposed for October of 1999. Currently, Dr. Motoko Tabuse of Eastern Michigan University is working closely with project participants. Dr. Tabuse has been visiting and observing the project participants' teaching styles and environments with the purpose of helping them design lessons that incorporate the standards. This activity will continue for the rest of the school year into the early part of the next school year.

JTAM has planned an additional workshop on May 1st. The intent of the workshop is to provide more information about the standards and to allow the participant teachers to share any lessons or activities that they have developed under the guidance of Dr. Tabuse.

Lastly, in addition to being co-sponsor of the 11th Annual CATJ Conference, JTAM will present its MJCP related information at the MFLA Conference in October of 1999.

Regional Report of the Association of Indiana Teachers of Japanese (AITJ)
Sadatoshi Tomizawa, Ex-President
Ball State University

History of the AITJ

In response to an increase in the 1980's in the number of companies in Indiana dealing with or being from Japan, many high schools and even junior high schools started Japanese language programs. Similarly, colleges increased their Japanese-related course offerings. As the number of Japanese teachers increased, the need for a Japanese teachers' association arose. In 1991, twelve teachers from both the pre-college and college levels formed the Association of Indiana Teachers of Japanese. In 1992, AITJ became part of the Indiana Foreign Language Teachers Association (IFLTA). Currently AITJ includes twenty-eight of the fifty-five public school teachers eligible to join and six college professors.

Activities of the AITJ

Members have participated in activities initiated and conducted solely by the association itself and activities in collaboration with other organizations and educational institutions within Indiana.

A. Activities conducted solely by AITJ

Activities that are conducted by AITJ members include participating in the annual IFLTA conference each November, holding occasional curriculum meetings and publishing a newsletter.

1. The AITJ activities at the three-day IFLTA Conference are fourfold: a three-hour workshop, six to eight paper presentations, a business meeting and networking among the teachers. The workshops have included Japanese Materials Sharing, Japanese Computer Programs and the Internet, Through the Year in Japan and will include Total Physical Response Storytelling at this year's conference. Paper presentations have included among others, "Thoughts on Japanese Adjectives," "Authentic Communicative Activities," "How to Read Japanese

Better," and "An Integrated Approach to Teaching Japanese Sentence Patterns and Parts of Speech." The networking is invaluable because many of the teachers are the only Japanese teachers in their schools.

2. Periodical, weekend-long curriculum meetings have been held to work on the following standards or guides:
 - a. Standards for Japanese Language Learning
 - b. Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century
 - c. Japanese for Communication
 - d. Japanese Benchmarks in the State of Oregon
 - e. Curricula in Washington State High Schools.
 - f. Indiana Foreign Language Proficiency Guide
3. The AITJ Newsletter is published twice yearly in spring and fall and is funded by the Indiana Department of Education. All Japanese teachers in Indiana receive a copy of it and other Japanese teachers and Japanese teaching organizations receive copies as well.

B. Activities with other Institutions and Organizations

Some AITJ members participate in conferences and workshops conducted by other universities. Earlham College (Richmond, IN) offers a Japanese curriculum conference for K-8 teachers a few times each year with a specific theme for each. Indiana University at Bloomington offers various workshops on timely issues as well. Additionally, members regularly participate in a credit-based Japanese teacher training summer workshop, funded by Indiana University - Bloomington have offered these workshops since the late 80's.

The most recent activities of the association was the Indiana Japan Bowl, which was organized by the Japan-America Society of Indiana. Thirty teams from twelve high schools participated in this event in February and the winning team for each of the three levels traveled to Washington D. C. for their national Japan Bowl.

Final Thoughts

With the publication of "Standards for Japanese Language Learning" (1998), Japanese education will become more mainstream and in order for Japanese education in Indiana to be maintained at a high level and expand, the AITJ must be vibrant, active, group. Also, collaboration with organizations in other states will be of help for further development of Japanese education. Hopefully these collaborative efforts can be shared at conferences such as CATJ and ACTFL.

The Reflections on Japanese Teachers Organization as Non -Profit

Organization and Education in the America :

Kazuo Tsuda: United Nations International School,

President of the Northeast Association of Secondary Teachers of Japanese

The recent restructuring of Japanese teachers associations as non-profit organizations will bring about a change in individuals and society. We would like to analyze this change . In America forty years ago no one talked of "non-profit organizations." Now in US not profit organizations are center of American society and are its most distinguishing features. Every second American adult serves as a volunteer in the non-profit sector and spends at least three hours a week in non-profit work. In Japan the law of the not profit organization was established last year. The philosophy of "individualism" in US has a long history. However, the non profit organization mixes cooperative work which Japanese made their philosophy and "American individualism" in its volunteer movement. I called this new type movement is cooperative individualism. In Japan, Japanese need to create a type of American "individualism" in their volunteer movements within their group - company - cooperative back ground in the near future so that non-profit organization can flourish.

Peter Drunker wrote that non-profit organization must focus on specific human and organizational realities of non profit organizations, on the very different role that the board plays in the non-profit institutions, on the need to attract volunteers, to develop them, and manage them for performance, on relationships with a diversity of constituencies, on fund-raising and fund development; (a very different matter) on the problem of individual burnout, which is so acute in non-profits precisely because the individual commitment to them tends to be so intense.

In US the not-profit organization face very big and different challenges. The first is to convert donors into contributors. To make contributors out of donors means that the American people can see what they want to see or should want to see with responsibility. There is the second major challenge for non-profit: to give community and common purpose. Most American already no longer live in small towns, but they have still grown up in one. Although the majority of American live in big cities, they still need a community which they lost recently. The non-profits are the American community now.

In Japan people and society should change their basic structure. The first step is to convert sympathizers to donors and donors to contributors. Making contributors out of sympathizer means that the Japanese people must develop a sense of responsibility as individuals instead of collective responsibility. There is a second major challenge for non-profit: to give community and common purpose. Japanese society faces a big crisis. Most Japanese already no longer lived in small towns, but they still have grown up in one. Although the majority of Japanese live in big cities and exited in cooperative groups such as a paternal type of companies, these companies are no longer secure places, because restructuring. Individuals need to develop a sense of community through a new types of group cooperation such as non-profit organizations which combined individualism and cooperative ideas.

Japanese teachers associations which have both Japanese born and American born teachers have changed their basic structure. This change in organization will bring about a change in individuals and society in response to these phenomena described above. Mingling of American individualism Japanese cooperative ideas will influence setting up of the new non-profit organization, the management of the organization and Japanese language educational inner structure in America. We will bring about a change in individuals and society.

Regional Report

The NEASTJ was established in November 1992. We organized more than 15 conferences and workshops. Since 1994, more than 2000 students joined Student Festivals and more than 100 students went to Japan for exchange programs. The purpose of the Northeast Association of Secondary Teachers of Japanese (NEASTJ) is to broaden Japanese language education in the northeastern area of the country and assist educators in their professional work as teachers of Japanese language and culture. The majority of our work focuses on the high school level but we also work with a few middle, elementary and heritage school educators. Teachers need constant help and practical information, to pool their talents, and to share information about effective classroom practices. Our educators also engage in grassroots relations with community administration and other school colleagues.

1. Administration and Fund developing :

1-1. Membership

Since the national organization has changed its membership policy, we are affected by their due date policy. It is first time the number of our member decreased. We must look to increasing our numbers.

1-2 . Funds developing:

Many Japanese foundation turned down our proposals recently. We will seek other funds through financial advisers and consultants. We need clear strategic management and a concrete plan.

1-3: Finance:

Due to the lack of financial support the NEASTJ should reorganize and

reexamine and developing system including supporting alliances.

1-4 : Board and committee:

NEASTJ reorganized relationship between the board and committee in order to solve short term problem and settle long term policies.

2: Student programs:

2-1. Student Festivals: Spring and Fall Festivals .

Our annual spring festival which began in 1995 has grown from a few hundred students the first year to nearly 1000 students in March 1999 at New York City. A New Fall Festival at Boston was held last fall.

2-2. Students Exchange Programs.

The NEASTJ will continue two-way student exchange programs between our students and students from Kanoya city in Kagoshima Prefecture and Yamagata city in Yamagata Prefecture.

2-3 Student and School Financial Support Program:

The NEASTJ conducted the survey in 1997. 400 schools are looking for Japanese language programs.

2-4 Student International Net Work Program:

The NEASTJ settled the "core-ne" listserve net program through the MIT Program. We could not established the web site to expand our net work program for the student's program.

3: Teacher programs:

3-1. State and Nation Wide Assessment

We will develop New York Regent Tests and National Standards' assessments.

3-2. Teacher Training Programs

The NEASTJ created two school year training programs. The NEASTJ needs to expand the number of its teacher training workshops. This is important for teachers.

3-3. Teaching Material Development Programs

The teaching material development is also important. One group of our members has developed a textbook. One of our members developed interactive computer program. We need funding to publish these materials.

4-1. Establishing Network Programs:

Although The NEASTJ settled the core-ne listserve net program through the MIT Program, *Zakku baran* quarterly NEASTJ newsletter and managed *OSHIRASE* (national newsletter) from 1994 from 1997. We need to set up the web program for teachers. The communication is also important program.

IV: Appendix

**THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)**

**Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
(JTAM)**

Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan

April 16 - 17, 1999

Janet Akaike-Toste

2113 E. Woodhaven Place
Springfield, MO 65804
(417) 883-1051
janet_a_t@hotmail.com

Yuko Akiba

525 W Doty, Apt. #209
Madison, WI 53703
(608) 280-0681
yakiba@students.wisc.edu

Masahide Arai

48108 Washtenaw A6
Ann Arbor, MI 48108
(734) 528-0013
jepark@online.emich.edu

Larry Arbanas

DeWitt Middle School
13183 Schavey Road
DeWitt, MI 48820
(517) 668-3311

Mahua Bhattacharya

Department of Modern Languages
DePaul University
802 W. Belden
Chicago, IL 60614
(773) 325-7320
lon7@midway.uchicago.edu
mbhattec@condor.depaul.edu

Miwako Chiba

725 N. Cory St. Apt H
Findlay, Ohio 45840
(419) 425-0111
CHIBA_M@lucy.findlay.edu

Nobuko Chikamatsu

Department of Modern Languages
DePaul University
802 W. Belden
Chicago, IL 60614
(773) 325-1868
nchikama@condor.depaul.edu

Bridget Dean

Farmington Public Schools
32789 West 10 Mile Road
Farmington, MI 48336
(248) 489-3609
Bridget.Dean@farmington.k12.mi.us

Kaori Deguchi-Schau

4647 East Forest Dr. SE
Grand Rapids, MI 49546-6280
(616) 956-3033
kdeguchi@purdue.edu

Fusae Ekida

Department of Asian Languages and
Cultures, Frieze Building
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1285
(734) 763-7152
fekida@umich.edu

Shoko Emori

Department of Asian Languages and
Cultures, Frieze Building
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1285
(734) 936-8809
semori@umich.edu

**THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)**

**Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
(JTAM)**

Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan

April 16 - 17, 1999

Mutsuko Endo Hudson

Dept. of Ling & Lang, A-633 Wells Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824
(517) 336-7089
endo@pilot.msu.edu

Yukari Fujiwara

Department of Foreign Languages &
Bilingual Studies
Eastern Michigan University
219 Alexander Music Building
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 487-0130
yukarifu@hotmail.com

Atsushi Fukada

Purdue University
Stanley Coulter Hall
West Lafayette, IN 47907
(765) 496-2259
afukada@purdue.edu

Hamako Furuhata

Department of Foreign Languages
Mount Union College
1972 Clark Ave.
Alliance, Oh 44601
(330) 829-8702
Furuhah@muc.edu

Noriko Hanabusa

Department of East Asian Languages &
Literatures
University of Notre Dame
205 O-Shaughnessy Hall
Notre Dame, IN 46556
(219) 631-6559
Hanabusa.1@nd.edu

Mamoru Hatakeyama

633 Langdon St. #512
Madison, WI 53703
(608) 256-1460
mhatakeyama@students.wisc.edu

Takahiko Hayashi

Department of Asian Languages and
Cultures, Frieze Building
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1285
734-763-7152
thayashi@umich.edu

Dena Hillman

West Bloomfield High School
4925 Orchard Lake Road
West Bloomfield, MI 48323
(248) 539-2500

Seiko Horibe

1200 Happy Hollow Rd. #605
West Lafayette, IN 47906
(765) 463-5030
shoribe@purdue.edu

Anne Hooghart

8 Vernon Ave.
Battle Creek, MI 49014
(616) 965-2325
Anne_M._Hooghart@glfn.org

John Hubbard

Department of Foreign Languages &
Bilingual Studies
219 Alexander Music Building
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 487-0130
fla_hubbard@online.emich.edu

**THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)**

**Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
(JTAM)**

**Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan
April 16 - 17, 1999**

Nathaniel P. Huss
202 North Normal Street
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 485-8685
nhuss@online.emich.edu

Terumi Imai
A614 Wells Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48823
(517) 353-0740
imaiteru@pilot.msu.edu

Kanae Igarashi
Department of Modern Languages
160 Baker hall
Carnegie Mellon University
Pittsburgh, PA 15213
(412) 268-4326
kanae@andrew.cmu.edu

Yuki Ishiguro-Edwards
Department of Modern Languages
DePaul University
802 W. Belden
Chicago, IL 60614
(773) 325-1868
yedwards@cin.net

Rika Ito
5133 East Brookfield Drive
East Lansing, MI 48823
(517) 333-3873
itorika@pilot.msu.edu

Yuki Johnson
University of Michigan
3070 Frieze Building
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1285
(734) 647-2091
yukijohn@umich.edu

Takuo Kinoshita
King Elementary School
1108 W. Fairview
Urbana, IL 61801
(217) 384-3690
kinoshita@knight.cmi.k12.il.us

Waunita Kinoshita
Urbana High School
1002 S. Race St.
Urbana, IL 61801
(217) 384-3505
Kinoshita@knight.cmi.k12.il.us

Christine Kelly
Dwight Rich Middle School
2600 Hampden Drive
Lansing, MI 48911
(517) 325-6670

Misao Kozuka
Department of Asian Languages and
Cultures, Frieze Building
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, MI 49109-1285
(734) 936-8808
misakozu@umich.edu

**THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)**

**Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
(JTAM)**

Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan

April 16 - 17, 1999

Rodney Lowe
710 Emmet Apt B
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 483-7023
rlowe@online.emich.edu

Ginger Marcus
Department of Asian & Near Eastern
Languages & Literatures
Washington University at St. Louis
Campus Box 1111
St. Louis, MO 63130
(314) 935-4449
vsmarcus@artsci.wustl.edu

Sheila Marable
19180 Riopelle
Detroit, MI 48203
(313) 892-5415

Rie Masuda
Wayne State University
906 W. Warren
Detroit, MI 48202

Makiko Matsuda
710 Emmet Apt B
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 483-7023

David O. Mills
Department of East Asian Languages &
Literatures
1501 CL, Pittsburgh, PA 15260
(412) 624-0559
DOM@PITT.EDU

Sachie Miyazaki
807-H Cerry Lane
East Lansing, MI 48823
(517) 355-8125
miyazak2@pilot.msu.edu

Mariko Moroishi
Purdue University
1359 Stanley Coulter
West Lafayette, In 47906
(765) 494-6044
moroishi@purdue.edu

Miki Motohashi
211 Langdon St. #1
Madison, WI 53703
(608) 294-6839
mmotohas@students.wisc.edu

Naoko Muramoto
804 Cherry Lane #207
East Lansing, MI 48823
(517)355-7910
muramoto@pilot.msu.edu

Takayuki Nishimata
Salem-Teikyo University
Department of Japanese
Campus Box 497
Salem Teikyo University
Salem, WV 26426-0500
(304) 782-5629
nishimata@ibm.net

Etsuko Ofuka
Department of Foreign Languages &
Bilingual Studies
219 Alexander Music Building
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197

THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)

Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
(JTAM)

Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan

April 16 - 17, 1999

(734) 487-0130

Naomi Ogasawara
Department of Foreign Languages &
Bilingual Studies
219 Alexander Music Building
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 487-0130
ogasawara@online.emich.edu

Akiko Ogino
Beloit College
700 College Street #188
Beloit, WI 53511
(608) 363-2322
oginoa@beloit.edu

Miho Oiwa
University of Findlay, #101 Lovett
Hall
1000 N. Main Street
Findlay, OH 44840
(419) 424-2944
oiwa_m@lucy.findlay.edu

Hitomi Oketani-Lobbezoo
Department of Foreign Languages &
Bilingual Studies
219 Alexander Music Building
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 487-0130
fla_oketani@online.emich.edu

Yasuhiro Omoto
1104 Maiden Ln, Ct. #109
Ann Arbor, MI 48105
(734) 332-9889
yomoto@umich.edu

Carole Peterson
1115 Granger Ave.
Ann Arbor, MI 48104
(734) 327-9395
cpeterson@csi.com

Althea Phillips
1636 Pepper Tree
Lansing, MI 48192-3721
(517) 371-4488
aphillip@scnc.led.k12.mi.us

Emily Poppe
7285 Ida East Rd.
Ida, MI 48140
(734) 269-2207
frog_323@hotmail.com

Laurel Rasplia Rodd
Department of East Asian Languages &
Civilizations
University of Colorado at Boulder
Campus Box 279
Boulder, CO 80309
(303) 492-1138
laurel.rodd@colorado.edu

Midori Savage
Farmington Elementary School
33411 Marquett
Garden City, MI 49135
(734) 762-8460
Billmidori@aol.com

Atsuko Sato
120 Walnut Street
Findlay, OH 45840
(419) 425-3978
sato_1@lucy.findlay.edu

THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)

Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
(JTAM)

Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan

April 16 - 17, 1999

Shingo Satsutani
College of DuPage
425 22nd Street
Glen Ellyn, Ill 60137
(630) 942-2019
saturan@cdnet.cod.edu

Susi Shaw
Garden City High School
(Street Address)
Garden City, MI 49135
sisern@online.emich.edu

Teneisha Smith
535 Rice Avenue
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 434-7306
Teneisha.Smith@wl.com

Dawn Stark
Everett/Saxton High Schools
3900 Stabler Street
Lansing, MI 48910
(517) 325-6600
dawnstar@pilot.msu.edu

Motoko Tabuse
Department of Foreign Languages
& Bilingual Studies
219 Alexander Music Building
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 487-0130
fla_tabuse@online.emich.edu

Kazuyo Takeda
A-630 Wells Hall, Dept. of Linguistics
East Lansing, MI 48824
(517) 355-7788
takeda@pilot.msu.edu

Melisia Taylor
Stevenson High School
33500 Six Mile Road
Livonia, MI 48152
(734) 523-9411
mpytlak@livonia.k12.mi.us

Jessica Thurrott
46 Carol Drive
Plainville, CT 06062
(860) 793-4922
jessicasensei@hotmail.com

Sadatoshi Tomizawa
Ball State University
Department of Modern Languages
NQ 145
Muncie, IN 47306
(765) 285-1361
00s0tomizawa@bsuvc.bsu.edu

Tomoko Traphagan
1850 Brookfield Dr.
Ann Arbor, MI 48103
(734) 747-6114
tomokowt@hotmail.com

Fred Trombley
2725 Winthrop Ct.
Ann Arbor, MI 48104
(734) 973-8851
Yaktakz@hotmail.com

THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE
CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF JAPANESE (CATJ)

Eastern Michigan University (EMU) & Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan
(JTAM)
Corporate Education Center, Ypsilanti, Michigan
April 16 - 17, 1999

Margaret Tsilis
Department of Foreign Languages
& Bilingual Studies
219 Alexander Music Building
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 487-0130
mtsilis@online.emich.edu

Kazuo Tsuda
United Nations International School
24-50 FDR Drive
New York, New York 10010
(212) 696-0347
ktsuda@unis.org

Karen Twomey
554 Pearson
Ferndale, MI 48220
(248) 545-8581

Yoshiko Uchida
University of Chicago
1050 E. 59th Street WB 301
Chicago, IL 60637
(773) 702-1255
yuchida@midway.uchicago.edu

Basile Valtadoros
2830 International Dr. #405
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 572-4430
valtador@online.emich.edu

Allison Werner
1021 Washtenaw Ave. #1
Ypsilanti, MI 48197
(734) 547-9515

Bonnie J. Wolfgang
65364 Dailey Rd.
Edwardsburg, MI 49112
(616) 663-8801
bwolfgang@phm.edu.in.us

Mariko Yamamura
170 East Hadley Rd., #93
Amherst, MA 01002
(413) 253-9753
myamamura@amherst.edu

Midori Yonezawa
1642-1 Spartan Village
East Lansing, MI 48823
(517) 353-6874
yonezawa@pilot.msu.edu

