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A Forum for and by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Extensive Reading programs--How Can They Best Benefit the Teaching and Learning of English?

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The use of class readers has been a feature of the English syllabus of Hong Kong schools for many decades. In recent years, there has also been a growing interest in extensive reading programs. Kwan (1988), in a survey of the use of extensive reading schemes in Form/Middle One in Hong Kong, reported that of the 169 schools that responded to her questionnaire, 115 local schools claimed that they had extensive reading schemes in Form One. Hirvela (1991: 5) also observed "an openness to literature that did not exist throughout the bulk of the 1980s". In addition to extensive reading programs developed by individual researchers and schools, the Education Department (ED) has also set up an extensive reading scheme for lower secondary students. The ED Scheme, which is developed by the Institute of Language in Education (ILE), has been implemented in 19 schools in the academic year 1991-92. 30 more schools will join the program in September 1992 and the ED plans to implement the Scheme by phases in 200 schools by 1997.

Although most teachers now agree that extensive reading is beneficial to their students, many still regard it as an 'optional extra', a 'luxury' one can only afford when coursebooks have been 'covered'. There is therefore considerable reluctance towards spending class time on it. In this paper, a different point of view will be put forward: Instead of being given a low priority, extensive reading should become an important part of the curriculum if students are to fully benefit from it. Other suggestions that can help to make an extensive reading program a success will also be given in the paper.

Why Extensive Reading Should Be An Important Part of the Curriculum

Extensive comprehensible language through reading is an effective way to help students improve their English. As Nuttall (1982: 168) points out, the best way to improve one's knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to "read extensively in it". Krashen (1985), in discussing the Input Hypothesis, stresses that it is essential to provide learners with a large quantity of "comprehensible input" in their language acquisition process. Criper (1986: 10-11) further suggests that the language input a student receives in the English classroom is limited and insufficient to provide the learner with "an adequate language

environment", but extensive reading will "transform the quantity of input" dramatically.

The views put forward by these linguists are also supported by research studies. The best known of these is the 'Book Flood' Project for 11-12 year olds developed by Elley and Mangubhai (1983) in the Fiji Islands. After following a reading program for about 8 months, the children in these 'book flood' classes showed much greater improvement in English than the control groups using a mainly audio-lingual structure-based syllabus. This improvement was especially marked in reading—children in the 'book flood' classes improved their reading levels by 15 months in an 8 months' period, while the control group showed only 6.5 months' gain. After the second year of the program, book flood groups excelled in all tests of English proficiency, including reading comprehension, grammar, listening comprehension, vocabulary and writing.

Similar positive language gains were also reported in a nationwide extensive reading program for primary pupils in Singapore (Ng, 1988; Elley, 1988). Statistically significant gains were found in reading comprehension and vocabulary, and the carry-over effects on other language skills like listening comprehension, syntactic control of the language and written composition were also evident. Other extensive reading programs reported to be successful include the Reading Scheme in New Zealand for immigrant Polynesian children, the English Language Reading program in Malaysia for secondary school students, and the Extensive Reading Scheme Pilot Project conducted by the Institute of Language in Education in 9 secondary schools in the period 1986-1988. (A Report on the Extensive Reading Scheme Pilot Project in Hong Kong, 1988)

All the reading programs mentioned above had one major characteristic in common: the students were required to read a large number of books (hence the term 'book flood'). This, however, will not come about if extensive reading is only regarded as an 'optional extra'. In the survey on extensive reading schemes in F/M one classes in Hong Kong conducted by Kwan (1988: 250), it was found that many school teachers only expected their students to read 1-5 books per academic year. As Kwan rightly points out, this quantity is "hardly enough to develop a reading habit in the learner". The exposure to English that students can gain from reading such a small number of books is inadequate and therefore unlikely to lead to any marked improvement in English.

What, then, is the best way of encouraging students to read more? To simply dictate that they should read more books per term may not be effective unless the students already have the habit of reading extensively (in which case they will probably read voluntarily anyway without any requirements set by the teachers). For the majority of students who do not have a reading habit, such demands will only kill

off any interest in reading. It is not uncommon for students to resort to copying blurbs, introductions or somebody else's work when teachers ask them for book reports! Students need help guidance and encouragement from teachers if they are to develop a reading habit, and the most effective way of doing this is to incorporate the extensive reading program into the curriculum and allocate adequate class time to it. (This will be called 'a class scheme' in this paper.)

What are the advantages of a class scheme? Firstly, if the scheme is part of the curriculum and class periods are devoted to it, students will take extensive reading more seriously. They will no longer think of this as an extracurricular activity that they will only engage in when they have free time. Secondly, even though in an extensive reading program students are engaged in self-access learning, they actually need a lot of help if they are to successfully acquire the ability to read and work independently. They need an accurate assessment of their initial reading level so that they can choose books of the right level, help with developing the techniques of extensive reading, feedback on their comprehension and evidence of progress that gives them a sense of achievement. All these can be best achieved in class, when the teacher can monitor students' progress, advise on books and give help, encouragement, and feedback. Thirdly, if students are expected to read a large number of books they need to be given time to do it. The class time allocated to extensive reading will get them started on books, and once hooked on them, it is more likely that they will finish reading the books at home.

One can conclude by saying that a class scheme is usually more effective than a library scheme (that is, a scheme without allocated class time) especially at the upper primary and lower secondary levels. Without a reading program in the curriculum, many students' reading at these levels tends to be spasmodic, haphazard and unrewarding, with the result that they will eventually give up reading. On the other hand, a good reading program implemented under the guidance of a teacher in class will help students to gradually progress towards individualized reading and learning.

A good example of this is the ED (ILE) Extensive Reading Scheme mentioned earlier. The 19 Phase I schools all devote 2-3 periods per week to the Scheme in their Form One classes, and by December 1991, 2-3 months after the Scheme was implemented, many students had read up to 20-40 books. Even though the books at the lower levels are quite short this was still an amazing number considering that many of the students had never read an English book before! Although it is still too early to conduct any evaluation of whether the Scheme has led to improvement in English, some teachers did report anecdotes of students becoming more expressive and creative in their writing. There is also the feeling that students have become more confident in their ability to read in English.

Apart from the above, there are other sound pedagogical reasons for the incorporation of extensive reading into the curriculum,. The kind of reading that

students are used to in class is intensive reading of short texts. This, though important, cannot by itself develop fluent reading in a foreign language, and needs to be complemented by a program of extensive reading. "Intensive reading lessons provide students with training in the strategies and skills they need to become successful readers. Extensive reading provides opportunities for putting that training into practice independently, at an unsupported level of learning". The two are "mutually dependent" (Hedge 1985:68). A curriculum that emphasizes intensive reading only cannot produce fluent readers.

One can also view the curriculum from another perspective: The learning of English should comprise the development of students' capability to think and communicate for three purposes: interpersonal, cognitive and aesthetic. Extensive reading, which can be defined as reading aesthetic and other texts for pleasure, has largely been ignored at present, because in the fiercely practical, examination-oriented education system in Hong Kong, to read for pleasure is usually not regarded as 'work'. A valuable teaching resource is thus lost to teachers who take this view. There is substantial research evidence to prove that learning best occurs when the teaching methods provide "a great deal of comprehensible input in the second language in the classroom and aim for a low-anxiety environment" (Krashen 1985:15). Extensive reading programs satisfy both criteria, for they provide not only "a vast quantity of linguistic input" (Criper 1986: 10), but also a low-anxiety environment because students are reading for pleasure. In other words, students become unaware of learning the language but only of the pleasure of the book or story, but because they are using language actively to understand meaning in the process, vocabulary and structures are assimilated without conscious effort.

Ingredients of a Successful program

Merely incorporating extensive reading programs into the curriculum cannot guarantee success. There are many other factors that can determine whether an extensive reading program works or not. This section will be devoted to two important ingredients of a successful program—materials appropriateness and teacher orientation.

Materials appropriateness:

(1) The input must be 'comprehensible'

Many extensive reading programs fail to improve students' English because there is a mismatch between the students' proficiency levels and the difficulty levels of the books. In situations like this the input is not 'comprehensible' and learning does not take place because students are reading at a frustration level.

In Kwan's (1988) study, the teachers reported that the schemes in their schools were often more effective for students with better language abilities. It is likely that

the books selected in these programs were too difficult for students less proficient in English. Similar findings were reported in the Extensive Reading Scheme Pilot Project conducted in 1986-88. There was much greater progress in the reading competence of the more able students compared to students of equal ability in the control group. However, such progress was not observed in the low ability experimental group, and questionnaire findings revealed that teachers reported the books chosen to be too difficult for them. (A Report on the Extensive Reading Scheme Pilot Project in Hong Kong, 1988).

This, however, does not mean that low ability students cannot benefit from extensive reading, but only that books of the right level must be chosen for them. For example, for weaker students at lower secondary level, books for primary children can be included, provided that these are chosen with care and the content is not too childish. As Nuttall (1982:185) puts it, reading skills will develop much better if a student "reads a lot of books that are too easy rather than a few that are too difficult". In addition, bridging materials in the form of simple reading cards can also be provided for these students, as in the ED (ILE) Extensive Reading Scheme.

It must also be borne in mind that even students in the same class have very different levels of language and reading proficiency. Any extensive reading program provided for them should therefore consist of books graded into a number of reading levels to cater for the full range of ability in the class.

(2) The books supplied should be of varied interest

There are basically 2 ways of setting up an extensive reading class scheme. One is to buy multiple copies of a number of (e.g. 10) titles. Students will all read the same title at any one time, and follow-up work on the reader will be done after they have finished reading it either in class or at home. The other method is to include in the program book boxes consisting of a large number of different titles. Students select books according to their reading interests and abilities to read at their own pace.

In Kwan's (1988) study, teachers' responses showed that the latter method was more effective than the former in developing reading interest and reading habit. This is not surprising because, as Kwan points out, the latter method "allows the learner to gain access to more titles and a collection of books covering a greater variety of interests and of difficulty levels". Students in a class usually have very different interests—one enjoys thrillers while another likes love stories, and it is therefore important to give them as many choices as possible.

(3) The follow-up tasks should be short and easy

A question that has always baffled teachers is whether they should check how well students have understood extensive reading books. The argument against this is

that since extensive reading is intended to be enjoyable, any attempt to make it seem like school work is likely to discourage them from reading. In my opinion, this may be true of students who have developed a reading habit and are very confident of their ability to read and understand English books. The majority of students, on the other hand, would welcome some form of feedback that can indicate their progress. The important thing is to make sure that the tasks they have to do are short and will not take up so much time that they are distracted from their main job of reading as many books as possible. Furthermore, the tasks should be simple and easy to do so that these will not put them off the extensive reading program.

Apart from methods like book reports, quizzes and oral story telling, which are reported to be commonly used in Hong Kong schools (Kwan, 1988), a method that is useful is to provide each book with Question and Answer Cards. Students will answer a few simple questions that can provide a quick check on their understanding of the book and check their own answers by means of the Answer Card. They can complete such a task in 10-15 minutes and so can spend most of the lesson on reading.

To produce workcards like this is of course a daunting task and cannot be done by just one or two teachers. The whole English Department needs to be involved so that the work can be shared out. On the other hand, some publishers of readers also produce Question Cards or worksheets to accompany the titles. Workcards for each title are also available in some programs like the ED (ILE) Extensive Reading Scheme.

Teacher Orientation:

Educational innovations will not succeed if teachers who carry them out are not convinced of the value of the innovations, or only make a halfhearted attempt to adopt practices required by the innovations. This is also true of extensive reading programs. For a program to work, teacher orientation before implementation and teacher support during implementation are crucial.

(1) A team approach should be adopted

To ensure adequate teacher orientation and support, extensive reading programs are best introduced in the context of departmental policy within a school instead of as an activity adopted by only one or two teachers. A team approach ensures that work like designing workcards can be shared out and common policies and strategies can be formulated.

A teacher committed to extensive reading can be appointed as the Co-ordinator of the program in the school. His tasks will be, amongst others, to orientate the teachers, liaise with the school librarian who can help with jobs like inventory checking and supervising out-of-class borrowing of books, establish procedures for

operation at classroom level and school level, hold regular meetings with the teachers to obtain feedback and improve the program, as well as create a positive climate for extensive reading through disseminating the values of extensive reading to colleagues, students and parents in publications like school magazines and meetings like Speech Day and Parent's Day.

(2) The teacher should assume new roles in the classroom

An extensive reading lesson demands both the teacher and the students to change their classroom behavior. Unlike the usual classroom practice of the teacher firmly in control of all activities and the teacher's voice being the focus of attention, students will interact with the text without mediation through the teacher, work individually and at their own pace. In order to help students become responsible for and independent in their learning, the teacher should take on three new roles—the Monitor/Facilitator, the Motivator/Enthusiast and the Administrator.

The Teacher as Monitor/Facilitator:

Most of the teacher's time should be taken up with helping students develop independent reading and learning. He should monitor their progress through checking their reading records and more importantly, discussion with individuals about books they have read in teacher-student conferences. The conferences provide a wonderful opportunity for the teacher to get to know each student better. If 2-3 periods per week are allocated to extensive reading and if the teacher holds conferences with about 5 students every period, then it is possible for him to have a 5-minute discussion with every student of the class every month.

The teacher also needs to help students develop successful reading strategies. There are always some students in a class who have not acquired the techniques of successful reading and are plodding through texts word by word. The teacher's task is to help them process linguistic information more efficiently and build up confidence, which is "the key to fluent reading" (Hedge 1985: 33). (Ways to help students develop reading skills and strategies can be found in, for example, Grellet (1981), Nuttall (1982), Williams (1984) Hosenfeld (1984) and Bouman (1987).)

The Teacher as Motivator/Enthusiast:

"Readers are made by readers" (Nuttall 1982: 192). A teacher who does not read and never refers to or recommends books he has read cannot convince his students that it is important to read. If the teacher makes use of the extensive reading lessons to do marking instead of helping students with their reading, the students will not take the lessons seriously. On the other hand, if the teacher is enthusiastically involved in discussing the books with students, this will generate a good response from them. Moreover, students who have difficulty with reading need special attention and help from a teacher who is positive and encouraging, who comments on

what they have got right and helps them build on it rather than simply pointing out what they have got wrong.

The teacher also needs to be patient, and must accept the fact that even students who read a lot will not become fluent overnight. As Nuttall (1982:168) points out, "it may take a year or two" before the teacher can notice "any marked improvement in the productive skills; but then it often comes as a breakthrough that results in long term gains but will not have an immediate effect on students' performance, in, say, discrete-point tests that focus exclusively on lately acquired grammatical items.

The Teacher as Administrator:

The teacher also needs to supervise classroom procedures like borrowing, lending and filling in records. This, however, does not mean that he should take on the role of the librarian and spend all the time recording the loan of books, checking out students who have not returned books and filling in reading charts and records. To do so is wasting precious time. The way to achieve efficient administration is to set up a system for doing these before the implementation of the program so that students can work independently without referring to the teacher all the time. Moreover, student librarians can be appointed to help the teacher with these.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have argued that extensive reading programs can only benefit the teaching and learning of English if they are taken seriously by the school, the teachers, and the students. If an extensive reading program is integrated into the learning process and is regarded as a relaxing and yet regular and necessary part of students' activities, the books chosen are interesting and carefully graded, the students are reading at the right levels and the teachers are committed to it, the program will develop a reading habit in the students and bring about marked improvement in their English in the long run.

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Too Much Work and No Play Make Chris a Dull Boy

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Children and young adults like having fun. They often engage in games and game-like activities just for the sheer pleasure of participating. Elementary and younger secondary school students often experience a transitional period in which more traditional learning activities are substituted for play and game-like activities. The ideal at this juncture is to combine working and playing through games with teaching objectives so that our young learners are engaging in useful and enjoyable language experiences.

This is, of course, not that easy. Second language learning, whatever the approach, involves using language repetitively, which is potentially a tedious, boring, off-putting process. If it is possible to turn this process into games and other activities which the target group of students find amusing and exciting, then, whatever their ages, learning will be more exciting and enjoyable.

Some Characteristics of Games

Games should be fun, enjoyable, intrinsically motivating, and worth playing for their own sake. The latter criterion is paramount for effective language games.

Games all contain a competitive element. Sometimes participants compete with opponents by answering questions or by racing against time, or they may pit their wits against a particular problem as in crossword puzzles, or try to improve their own performance or score on computer or video games. With fun as the critical element, games should have clearly defined objectives and rules which, together with competitiveness, contribute to the intrinsic pleasure of such activities.

Criteria for Selecting Games in TESOL

1. APPEAL. The game should appeal to most students in the class. There are many games with a proven track record of popularity which can be successfully used as vehicles for TESOL instruction if they are appropriate to the age level and background of the students.

2. TARGET LANGUAGE USE. The game has to be designed or modified so that students are obliged to use the target language in order to participate. If the game can be played in the classroom context without recourse to the language being studied, then it has no educational value from an ESL point of view.

3. SIMPLICITY. The game should be simple enough to be understood after a brief explanation. Ideally, its structure should be based on a game with which the students are already familiar. It should be remembered that the overriding intention is to inject some fun into the lesson without compromising educational objectives. Grappling with vague instructions can readily defeat the educational objectives of most games.

4. MONITORING STUDENTS' USE OF THE TARGET LANGUAGE. The teacher must be able to control the correct use of language or reliably delegate that responsibility. The ease with which games can be monitored linguistically should be a significant factor in the selection process. Games like "Scrabble" and "Boggle", in which students form words outside meaningful contexts, preclude effective monitoring since the teacher has no way of knowing if students understand the words they've chosen.

5. TIME-EFFECTIVENESS. The game should be time-efficient in terms of the amount of time devoted to language sue. Many activities involving cutting, pasting, and colouring-in are undoubtably enjoyable but hardly justifiable when one considers that little or no language is required.

6. CONTROL. The game should be easy to organize and control, given the type of students in the group. Excessive physical activities are best avoided with high-spirited students who climb the walls at the slightest pretext. By the same token, it might be advisable to avoid such games with shy, sensitive, introverted students who would experience a degree of embarrassment.

7. GROUP PARTICIPATION. It is important that the whole class by engaged as players or spectators. If only two students at a time can play a particular game and the linguistic or logical motivation for audience interest is low, then such a game would be an unsatisfactory choice to use with a class of thirty students.

8. LANGUAGE LEVEL. The language level must be appropriate for the students if the game is to be a success. Normally, the more advanced the students are, the easier it becomes to select games for them. Beginners are limited to the basic vocabulary and structures they have learned, and many games like "Twenty Questions" would be beyond the linguistic capabilities of beginners.

9. MATERIALS. Materials can be expensive or difficult to produce. Financial considerations might put computer games on the "Reconsider Only If...," list. On the

other hand, if materials can be obtained without putting too much strain on the teacher's time or budget, then they should be considered a worthwhile investment.

10. VERSATILITY. The same game can often be applied to more than one aspect of language learning and teachers should be aware of this so that a popular game is exploited to its full potential. "Noughts and Crosses" ("Tic-tac-toe") can be used to practice vocabulary, grammar, reading and culture—as well as just numbers.

11. TIME. The game should be over before students' interest flags. In fact it's best to always leave your audience wanting more. Reasonably fast action should be a feature of team games where players also spend a lot of time as passive spectators. Thus, games such as "Chess" and "Monopoly" have very little if any value.

12. VARIETY. Teachers should have a wide variety of games in their repertoires. If the games are very similar, differing only in name and little else, the element of fun can erode rapidly.

Integrating Games Into Our Teaching

A number of ways of integrating games into our teaching program is possible depending on our style and approach to teaching. Each system will have its merits and disadvantages. A sound basis for incorporating games into classroom practice is to categorize them under the following headings: vocabulary, grammar, miscellaneous (e.g. the alphabet and the numbers), and the more traditional categories of listening, speaking, reading and writing. We might point out that in our experience, very few games worth playing seem to focus on the writing skill.

There will obviously be some overlap between the divisions with some games and entries which fit under more than one heading. If we see TESOL in terms of vocabulary building, grammatical explanations, and practice in the macro skill areas, then these categories will be helpful in achieving a balance when integrating games into our teaching programs. There are functional and affective classifications as well.

Finding Interesting Non-TESOL Materials

Millions of games, puzzle books, and comics are sold every year on the open market under competitive conditions and young people rush to buy them. No youngster would rush out to buy an audiolingual text book except under extreme duress.

As educators, we know that most educational materials are produced for the mythical average student. While we do need such texts, we also need to be constantly aware of other resources which we can use in our ESL classes even though this may not have been their creator's intention. We need to identify, imitate, modify, and adapt. The *Guinness Book of Records* is typical of such resources.

Other examples include the *Funny Monster Travel Pack* (Mitson 1987), published by Studio Publications, which offers a whole range of games and related activities which can be used in the ESL class with virtually no modification:

The MONSTER MARATHON—Board game; WHERE DID YOU GET THAT HAT? —Word game; COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD WORD SEARCH—Magic words; IT'S SO EASY—Word game; PICTURE POSTCARDS—Speaking game; TRAVEL MATCH—Word game; WHERE IN THE WORLD?—Reading game; CRACK THE CODE—Reading game; CONTINENTAL WORD SEARCH—Magic words; COLOURING PAGE—(Needs colour code) Reading game; GETTING THERE—Speaking game; AROUND THE GLOBE—Word game; MISSING LETTERS—Word game; TRANSPORT WORD SEARCH—Magic words; INITIAL LETTER PUZZLE—Word game; MISPLACED—Word game; NATIONAL COSTUMES—Speaking game; WHERE AM I?—Word game.

An entire class set of a magazine like *Games for Juniors* can be purchased for little more than the average cost of one hardback textbook. Listed below are the contents of the Spring 1990 issue and, as with the *Funny Monster Travel Pack*, most of the listed items may be used in ESL classes with little or no modification:

PICTURE PUZZLES—Picture crossword, Connect the dots, Secrets of the swamp, Who's hues, Triangle tangle, Trick and treats memory test, Out of order, Mixture pictures, Country paths, Lost in space, Match up, What's wrong with this picture? Hats off, Trick or treat maze. WORD PLAY—Riddle search, Crisscross puzzle, Riddle X-word, D is for dollhouse, Build-a-word, Puzzling fill-ins, Disabled vehicles, Opposites attract, Alphabetically speaking, Among the flowers, Crisscross puzzle No. 2. MYSTERY, LOGIC AND NUMBERS—Number crunch, Dinosaur quiz, Magic hex, Tough teasers. GAMES, TRIVIA AND CONTESTS—Dinosaur challenge, Just for Kids—Cooking, Games and Puzzles, The jungle game, Funny business competition, Mixture pictures.

As these examples illustrate, games and game-like activities can add a new dimension of pleasure and involvement to language learning in your classroom. While the section which follows lists some of the more formal games literature we are familiar with, we'd like to stress that the best ideas may come from watching what your students enjoy doing in their leisure and adapting that to your classroom.

Notes

2. Weed (1975) and Cortez (1975) also provide criteria for the use of games and some 1960s resources.

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Training Students to Learn On Their Own

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The first encounter of an American (or any 'Western') teacher with a Japanese EFL class, or the first encounter of a Japanese student with an American teacher, is a time of culture shock—sometimes quite painful. From the student's point of view, the teacher is impatient, not giving him/her enough time to think carefully before demanding an answer; she gives the student assignments that seem embarrassing or silly, such as roleplaying or language games; she asks questions for which no answers can be found in the textbook; and she does not even explain things in Japanese! From the teacher's point of view, the students are agonizingly slow to answer even the simplest of questions; they are too apt to say, "I don't know" when asked questions about their opinions or questions that require them to make an inference; they take so long getting ready to begin an assignment that there is not enough time left to complete it properly; and they seem so nervous about making errors that, given the chance, they may take several minutes of valuable class time to write or say just one short sentence. The result is frustration on both sides.

To lessen this frustration, we feel that it is incumbent on the teacher to try to understand the Japanese students' educational background and expectations about learning, and to teach the students in a way that they find as comfortable and nonthreatening as possible. It is also necessary, however, to encourage these students to abandon some habits and learning methods they have acquired that clearly interfere with language learning. For this task, it seems most useful to try to help students to expand their repertoire of learning strategies beyond a set useful for learning English to pass a paper test to a set useful for learning English to use as a means of communication. By trying out these new strategies and seeing positive effects on their learning, the students can decide for themselves to be more active, autonomous learners, with out feeling that their teacher is trying to force them to stop being Japanese. The culture shock is lessened and more learning takes place as students and teachers meet and interact in a less culture-specific and more communication-enhancing atmosphere.

Traditionally, teachers of English in Japan have relied on the grammar-translation method. In class much time is taken up with the teacher "explaining" reading passages to students. As Yoshitake (1991: 63) points out, ". . . the students are constantly told from childhood to sit quietly and listen to the teacher, and not to stand up and speak out unless called upon." In response to this type of instruction and because the main objective of English teaching has been to prepare students for university entrance examinations, most of our students appear to rely on a very limited number of learning strategies. In fact, the majority seem to depend

almost exclusively on memorization strategies. Other strategies, such as guessing or seeking clarification, which seem particularly useful for language learning are often openly discouraged by teachers. Students are given no practice in using metacognitive strategies such as setting goals for themselves since they are supposed to think of themselves as members of the group and therefore their individual goals are subordinate to the goals of the group. Also, since the teacher is viewed as the fount of all knowledge, a teacher-dependency is fostered, which is a major obstacle to developing learning autonomy. Students come to believe that they cannot learn on their own. They lack affective strategies such as being able to praise themselves for doing something well or having confidence in themselves. Studies conducted by Koike *et al* (1985) under the sponsors of the Ministry of Education (Mombusho) reveal that over the course of their studies in junior high school and high school, the majority of students lose interest in learning English.

For several years we have been trying to introduce our students to the concept of learning strategies in the belief that students would become better equipped to manage their own learning through being exposed to a program in which they were helped to recognize the strategies that they have been using, were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of those strategies with regard to their personal goals, and were presented with alternative strategies. From a variety of sources such as Stern (1975), Rubin (1975), Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Cohen (1990), and particularly Wenden (1985, 1987, and 1991), we have gained insights into the learning process from which we have gleaned the following:

--all learners use strategies but effective learners have a broader repertoire of strategies from which to choose

--the choice of which strategies to use depends on the task to be accomplished; good language learners show greater flexibility in their selection of strategies

--learners can be given training in the use of strategies

--people learn in different ways

When we first began to integrate learner training into our courses on a systematic basis, we used Rubin and Thompson's book, *How to Be a Better Language Learner* (1982). As part of the course requirements, students had to keep learning journals in which they reported on problems and successes they were having in learning English. Class time was allocated for discussions on the various strategies introduced in the text as well as others presented by the teacher. Students were encouraged to share their learning strategies. A particularly enlightening session for one of the teachers was when students were talking about mnemonic devices they employed. All students had something to contribute since this was a strategy that they had all used in many different ways: imaging, making word cards, repeating

words to be learned, putting signs up in their rooms, devising phrases in Japanese that sounded like words to be memorized (e.g., "hito ga saigai [calamity] ni karamareru"), creating stories, and so on. What one person said triggered a memory on the part of another student.

The discussions and learning journals served as the inspiration for an additional component of the training program: videotapes of people talking about strategies that they have employed to learn languages. By taping other people we were able to provide examples of strategies that we ourselves did not use, to introduce strategies that we felt were particularly useful, and to get students to begin to view the world of language learning outside the classroom. Most importantly, rather than continuing in the traditional role of teacher, we wanted to provide other models of learning, and to show teachers as learners. Each "unit" of the videotape consists of a single person talking about a strategy, method, or technique that she or he had found helpful in learning a foreign language. We emphasized that we did not want them to talk about what students should do, but rather what they themselves had done.

In one episode a German professor talked about how he had decided to avoid overreliance on the dictionary when he was reading books in English. Instead he began to try to guess the meaning of unknown words from the context. Prior to watching the video, the following questions were written on the blackboard:

1) What method did Prof. N. used to use?

2) What method does he use now?

3) Why did he decide to change his methods?

4) What has been the result?

The questions served as advanced organizers and focussed the students' listening. Students viewed the video twice and then got in to small groups to discuss their answers to the questions. They were then given an exercise in which they were required to guess the meaning of several unknown words. In groups they discussed their guesses and reasons. After reconvening as a whole class, various methods of making "good" guesses were introduced, and the point was made that it is not always possible or wise to guess. Later, in their learning journals, many students acknowledged that they had always been reluctant to guess (in fact, they had been taught not to) but that they intended to try to do so more often in the future.

Another segment featured a Japanese professor talking about how he had sought out opportunities to use English by joining the ESS (English Speaking Society) at his university. After watching the video, students were asked to compile a list of ways that they could use English in Japan. The final list, which was a composite of all the suggestions students had made, was quite a surprise. Students hadn't realized that there were so many ways in which they could use English right here in Japan.

Other episodes included an American professor talking about how she "talked to herself" in Japanese, rehearsing anticipated conversations or reviewing conversations that had already taken place. Another segment featured an American professor talking about how she used the strategy of circumlocution, and in a separate episode the same professor explained how she had used "learning from mistakes" as an affective strategy to overcome her embarrassment when she misunderstood what some friends had said and was laughed at. The strategies covered in our videotape series include: listening for key words, circumlocution, rehearsing, using mnemonic devices, looking for opportunities to use a foreign language, guessing from context, keeping a journal.

The training program has been viewed positively by students as evidenced by feedback students have given in their journals and as reported in final course evaluations. In the following excerpts from student journals, the underlined sections refer to strategies that were introduced in class through video and discussions. Student "T" wrote: "Until now, I had studied English only with a dictionary. For example, when I was reading . . . if I found some words that I couldn't understand . . . I looked them up . . . (in) a dictionary whose meaning were written clearly in Japanese. And when I studied for tests . . . I learned the words which were included in the range of possible questions by heart. But it was nonsense to do such because I forgot them completely after the test was over . . . We should consider the methods of learning English. I have changed my way of studying English . . . I'm guessing the meaning of words by myself if there are some which I can't understand. As Prof. N. said, we should think about the meaning from the context. I found the fact that I couldn't make progress in English without doing so." Student "T2" adds: "Reading without a dictionary is very useful and interesting. I can read faster than before."

Student "D" wrote in her journal: "I have changed my strategies during this academic year . . . in solving questions, I have read all of the long sentences and then answered the questions until now. In this case, I had to read the long sentences again to look for each of the questions. I found that it was not a useful way. So I decided to read the questions first. This way is much better than my first method because I can read the long sentences with an aim."

Student "M" wrote in his final evaluation: "Remembering this academic year, I think that my view of English has changed revolutionally since I was in this university. When I entered into this school, I thought that English is a 'reminding' subject, so I only reminded words and constructions as many as I could. But, as days I'd been to school passed, I came to know that English is a subject to study for myself, not only to learn or remember words or constructions. Then, my strategies for studying English have come to change. First, I thought that I had to speak more fluently, and I (started) to talk to myself in English whenever I could."

Miss "F" wrote: "When I was a high school student, I studied just for a examination. And I entered this university, then I must study English for myself. I know that I have to study hard, but I don't know what to do. I was lucky to know someone's strategies, because I wonder what I should study . . . Listening for key words helps me. I tried to hear all parts in English, but it was not good. I began to try listening for key words and phrases. I came to understand more than when I tried to hear all of conversations."

And Student "Y" wrote: "During the academic year, my strategies to learn English changed. When I was a high school student, I think I studied English as only knowledge. I learned many things about English, but I think it was not very useful. During this academic year I thought about real English. I was taught how to learn English by myself. Until entering this university I had a passive style when I learned English. But I have some new strategies. For example, guessing and key word. When I see unknown words, I guess the meaning from context or I try to find key words in the sentence. It is not a passive style. It is very important to look for opportunities to use English, too, not only in class. I tried to listen to radio English programs everyday while cooking or cleaning. I wrote my penpals in English."

Several students found our video series useful not only as a source of new ideas of strategies, but also as a source of material to improve their listening comprehension skills. Ms. "T" wrote: "it's very interesting for me that to watch the video which someone (native English speaker) speak some story in English. Because it's real teaching material, I think and I can hear the opinion of many persons. So it's very nice." Ms. "M" agreed: "To watch the videos which professors talk about their experiences is very interesting and useful for me. At first time, I can understand them only half. But by listening to the same story again and again, I can understand almost all of it. So I think I will be able to understand much less time."

The fact that non-native speakers of English and teachers of other subjects besides English were part of the series also had an impact: "I listening to the tape about teacher's project. I respect him for making the effort to be able to speak and read in English . . . I am surprised that the teacher who is not a English teacher speaks English fluently," according to Mr. "H." Other students also commented on the tapes of those professors in particular, perhaps finding them good role models as people who have mastered English.

One other feature of the program that had a great impact on the students was the idea of setting personal goals and choosing strategies that would help them to attain those goals. This idea was introduced by us in the classroom, but frequently reinforced by the video presentations. Most presenters chose first to tell a specific goal that they had had and then to tell the strategy or strategies they had found helpful in reaching that goal. The practice of setting goals for themselves, rather than

always having them imposed by the teacher or school, was very exciting for many of our students, especially since using English for pleasure was presented as an acceptable goal. As Ms. "K" explained: "To tell the truth, I think I had studied English to take an examination. I studied English against my will in my high school days. But when I entered the university, my study made a 180 degree turn. I can study for pleasure. I sometimes watch the video (foreign movie), sometimes listen to music. In short, I like studying English better than before." By the time they reach university, students are tired from the "examination hell" of studies to pass the entrance examinations. They are also experiencing a great deal of freedom after passing through a rather rigid junior high school and high school system. Part time jobs, club activities, and fun take precedence in their minds over studies. For Ms. "K" the idea that she actually could enjoy learning English was a revelation. In addition, she now had a purpose for studying English: to be able to understand the movies she watched and the music she listened to.

Ms. "U" also wrote about the importance of being interested in her studies, making the connection of interest-level and personal goals clearer: "Through this year, strategy was very useful to me. I knew that there were many methods for studying English. If I study recklessly, I must be disgusted. It is important to have interest when we learn something. If we do so, we enjoy studying more and more. I think that I use several strategies from now on." It is refreshing to read comments such as Ms. "U's". It seems that the concept of selecting personal goals can motivate students to learn.

Ms. "F" wrote: "I think that in reaching my personal goal, the strategy of 'I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English' and 'I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English' seem especially useful to me. In the limited personal studying time, I needed to study for my personal goal. So I had to plan my schedule of study." Among Japanese university students this concept of personal studying time is rare.

Ms. "Y's" comments provide more evidence of how important it is for students to engage themselves in the process of setting goals: "I felt gloomy every time I wrote my strategy [a weekly report of what strategies the student has been using and her opinion of or experience with the strategy they had heard about in the previous class]. Because I didn't have my real goal. I do want to find my real goal the rest of my school day." In contrast, Ms. "H," demonstrates how having a goal helped her: "My personal goal, I . . . speak English fluently. I don't feel that I made progress toward my goal. I made little progress. But I reach my goal still more. I think my goal is difficult for me, but I don't give up. I will try. Next year, I want to reach my goal. I have to study hard. I don't have to negative. I have to positive. I seem especially useful to me, I speak English only. It is easy but very difficult. Because I

haven't opportunity speaking English. I want to more opportunity speaking English. I don't have to shy. I don't have to afraid mistakes. If so, I make progress toward my goal. And I'll reach my goal. I hold out!"

We realize that viewing strategies in isolation is not enough. As Anita Wenden points out, "Complexes of strategies rather than individual strategies may characterize successful learning." (1991:22) The videos do have several positive features: they provide models of people discussing strategies that have been successful for them; they provide models of other Japanese who have been successful language learners; they serve as a method for students to get to know various teachers in a non-threatening manner; they give students an opportunity to listen to other varieties of English and can be used for various listening comprehension activities that are themselves linked to learning strategies, e.g., listening for main ideas, making inferences, guessing from context, listening for key words. Students are never forced into a position of having to accept or adopt the strategies that are presented. In fact, the teachers admitted that they would reject some strategies presented thus enabling students to feel comfortable about doing likewise.

In the future we would like to continue to expand our library of videotapes to include students serving as informants, and tapes in which people are given specific tasks and asked to explain on tape how they solved the problem.

We believe that it is important to engage students in the process of evaluating their learning and to help them to become better learners. Our students can gain control over their learning and become more autonomous as language learners by becoming more aware of the strategies they use. In doing so they become able to discard those strategies that are ineffective and adopt new more effective strategies.

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About the Authors

Linda Viswat and Susan Jackson have made numerous presentations and published several articles on training Japanese students to use more effective learning strategies. They have both taught in Japan for more than ten years. They are currently embarking on a research project designed to measure the effects of specific strategy training techniques on language acquisition.

Conference Announcements . . .

International Association of Applied Linguistics 10th World Congress: August 8-15, 1993. Amsterdam, The Netherlands. Contact Johan Matter, Vrije Universiteit, Faculteit der Letteren, Postbus 7161, NL-1007 MC Amsterdam, The Netherlands. (Tel # 31-020-548375)

CALICO International Conference: August 12-14, 1993. Maastricht, The Netherlands. Contact CALICO, 014 Language Building, Duke University, Durham, N. Carolina, 27706 USA.

28th Annual TESOL Convention: March 8-12, 1994. Baltimore, Maryland. The deadline for the Poster, In-Progress, and Video Theater sessions is still open: August 1st. For information concerning submission guidelines call or write to: TESOL '94 Convention Department. 1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300. Alexandria, Virginia 22314-2751 USA. (Tel # 703-836-0774; FAX # 703-836-7864)

Setting the Tone for Any New Class
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Starting off a new class at the beginning of a year can often be full of intricate and often perplexing tasks: how to learn students' names in classes of up to eighty students or more, how to juggle grading and taking attendance in a systematic way, how to explain the objectives of the class, how to get students to do homework, and how to maintain interest even during the waning moments of the class. Does any of this sound familiar?

Yet, while our main objective as teachers is to guide our students to the promised land of language mastery, we often perish because we don't start our quest with a clear agenda or management strategy on how to reach our destination. This failure to set up some kind of routine or plan is akin to the blind leading the blind. In the end, everyone is left holding an empty bag. In order to avoid such pitfalls, this article will suggest ways on how to cut through some of the routine tasks in a more systematic way while allowing teachers to concentrate on their primary responsibility of teaching. The following seven points are ways to manage your classes more smoothly from the very first day.

Connecting a Face with a Name

Nothing is more daunting than to enter a classroom of more than fifty students or more....in an English-conversation class. As part of the first few classes, getting to know students is one of high priority. And while folding name cards often works well for smaller classes, they are impractical in bigger classes for the simple reason that they are difficult to see from the front of the room. Therefore, one way to learn names quickly is to assign seats either by allowing students to choose their own seats or by alphabetical order. In addition to seating charts, teachers can hand out a small index card and have the students answer a few question about their interests.

In my own classes, I ask the students to fill out the card, attach a current picture to it, and return it to me the following class. As the class progresses, I find myself constantly referring to these cards to remember students' interests and hobbies when the appropriate topic comes up in class. In addition, students are always astonished to know that I actually review the cards when their birthdays roll around. In other words, it is one way I am able to show students that I am interested in them and in touch with what is going on in their lives.

If you are dealing with a smaller class, getting to know students individually can be accomplished in part by arranging the seats in a horseshoe. In the traditional classroom, tables and chairs are set up in rows facing the front, creating a barrier between the teacher and the students. While this works well for lectures, it isn't ideal

for a language class. No one carries on a conversation from fifteen feet away, so we shouldn't try to do the same thing in an English conversation class either. This horseshoe arrangement allows teachers to come right up to a student and engage in a conversation. In addition, since students are all facing each other, the problem of students not catching what others are saying is minimized. Furthermore, each student can see the face of every one else in the group, see the other students' name cards, and call the other students by name.

List of Key Expressions

It is often said that Japanese students are shy and don't participate in class because they are not used to teacher-directed questions, but it would be premature to say that this is due to some inherent cultural package that is part of being Japanese. Rather, whether we are learning Spanish, French, or Swahili, everyone feels a little hesitant to jump into the language arena and start talking. Therefore, teachers can facilitate the language process from day one by providing students with a list of key expressions or phrases they can use when they are at a loss.

When you understand...	**When you're at a loss...**
I see. All right. I know what you mean. Uh huh. I got it. I understand.	I'm not sure what you mean. What does <u>dead-end</u> mean? In other words, uh... Huh? (rising intonation) I don't understand.
Checking understanding...	**When you are thinking...**
Do you mean that....? Do you mean....? Do you know what I mean?	Hmm... (voice trails off) Uhhh.... Let me think...

Figure 1

Once students are acquainted with these expressions, teachers should provide focused activities throughout the year where students can make use of this lingo in the class. Since I have made this an integral part of my classroom routine, I have

noticed that students depend upon each other less and are more willing to ask me a question when they are at a loss.

Keeping Track of Student Records

One of the things that often cuts into classroom activities is taking attendance at the beginning of class. Instead of methodically reading students' names one by one, teachers can quickly look around the room, and jot down the date the students were absent on their corresponding index cards while the other students are engaged in some classroom activity. Later, this information can be transferred to the official role sheet at the end of the class. If there is no designated attendance policy, teachers should consider devising their own to encourage regular attendance. One such method would be to designate a certain percentage of the grade to attendance and hold students to it by calculating this percentage according to the number of times they miss: An "A" for fewer than three absences; a "B" for less than six absences and so on. Arriving late to class two times could be counted as one absence.

In addition to attendance, if participation is taken into account in the final grade, teachers can make small checks or vertical slashes directly on the seating chart quickly and easily without losing a step in the classroom routine. Furthermore, students' grades can also be written down on the seating chart if there is enough space allotted for them. If not, students' grades can be written on the backside of their index cards or in a separate grading book.

Explaining Classroom Procedures and Grading

After you have written up your class syllabus, the next step is to present it to the class. What is often the case is that teachers hand out a class syllabus and go over it point by point during the first class. However, it is sometimes questionable if the students really digest what they are hearing or what they are reading on paper, especially in low-level classes. It is often not until students come to you weeks later asking about the information on the syllabus that you realize they didn't catch it the first time. Bresnihan (1993) suggests presenting this kind of information in a dictation or cloze exercise. On the first day of class, he suggests dividing the class up into groups and having each student dictate a small part of the syllabus to the rest of the group. Instead of giving each student a copy of the dictation, tape pieces of the dictation up on the podium, so the students will have to memorize their parts and return to the group and recite it. Afterwards, have the groups compare what each has written.

Teachers should let students know what will be covered during the school term and what academic yardstick will be used to measure their progress. Providing

students with a general course syllabus outlining the tasks they are required to complete is one effective way to show students the teacher has a well-defined plan for the year. As part of this outline, a list of testing instruments including papers, tests, quizzes, and attendance should be included. In addition to these items, a list of classroom procedures relating to make-up work, asking questions, and tips on taking notes would also be useful. These things that would seem like common sense to the foreign instructor are not so evident to the student.

Getting Students to Do Homework

Teachers always hope that students will be motivated to do homework because they are internally driven to learn. Of course, teachers can go a long way in encouraging this kind of behavior by providing meaningful and interesting assignments students will enjoy doing. However, most students must somehow be manipulated into doing the work by other means like tying a certain percentage of the grade to classroom assignments. Then, as you make homework assignments, make sure they are relevant to the material being covered in class. If students see that the work is satisfying a current need, they will be more willing to do it too. Sometimes, the teacher can collect the homework to see if is done correctly; other times, the teacher can walk around the room and visually check and note who has done it and who hasn't. I often carry around the attendance sheet and put a check by the names of the students who haven't done the assignment. Whether it is the teacher's intention to record this check or not is sometimes irrelevant. It shows the students that you are making note of their work, and they will just assume that it goes against them if the haven't completed the assignment.

One Point Lessons

One dilemma teachers find themselves in is what to do during the closing minutes of the class. One sure sign students are losing interest is when you see students shuffling their books or when the topic of conversation turns to the day's lunch menu. Instead of finishing class early, teachers can have a one-point lesson at the end of every class. The purpose of the one point lesson is to share with the students one facet of foreign culture or language during the last few minutes of class. I try to select topics that are sometimes unusual, thought-provoking, or of high-interest value. One such topic that students find both amusing and informative is the idea of bathroom facilities. In Japan, students always ask to use the "toilet" instead of the "bathroom" as commonly referred to in North America. While any North American would understand the Japanese speaker's intentions, there are alternative words that would be more appropriate in this situation. Japanese students erroneously assume that when they say "toilet" they are speaking of the place, not

the bathroom fixture. Then, I ask students how they would react if a foreigner visiting their house in Japan used the equivalent word of toilet in Japanese. They quickly catch on. Finally, I try to personalize this lesson by sharing any related experiences to tie these ideas together. In a short time, teachers should be able to come up with twenty-five short five-minute mini-lessons for their classes.

Coming up with a clear teaching agenda or management plan is just as important as the material you are teaching. By creating an atmosphere of mutual understanding, friendship, and trust, students can spend more time on learning, and teachers can devote more time to teaching. Everyone comes out ahead in the end.

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Qualifications of Language Teachers and English as an International Language

Akiko Fukumura,
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"Female Native English Instructor Wanted." "Native speakers, over 22, with university degrees only." "Need English Conversation Instructors. Must be native speaker of English." These are advertisements for English teachers in the *Daily Yomiuri*, English newspaper in Japan. Among 22 advertisements from nine different language schools that ran from June 1 to June 31, 1992, only one language school did not use the catchy phrase, "native speaker," in its advertisement. Although a few indicated the importance of teaching in an irresolute way, such as "TEFL experience helpful," there was no language school that required a certificate or a M.A. in TESOL directly. In some schools, being a "native speaker" seems to be a crucial condition in the hiring process. Would it be appropriate to evaluate an applicant's aptitude as a teacher based primarily on that person's mother tongue? Is an applicant qualified simply by being a "native speaker"?

The term, "native speaker," is often used but rarely defined (Paikeday, 1985; Edge, 1988). Who will be a "native speaker" is determined by "the accident of birth and growing up (Edge, 1988: 154). Paikeday (1985: 1) defined the "native speaker" as "someone gifted with special and often infallible grammatical insights." As a learner and a teacher of English, I have seen many of those "native speakers" who are unable to explain their "grammatical insights" systematically. They rarely realize that language learners, in most cases, cannot learn a target language as "native speakers" learned their mother tongue and forget how long it took to acquire a level of proficiency. Simply being a "native speaker" is deficient as preparation for being a language teacher. If this is their only qualification, most "native speakers" will never contribute successfully to the English language education of their learners. Edge (1988: 154) says:

> There is no reason for us to support that we select people according to an accident of birth and thereafter rely on their grammatical insights. Conversely, there is no reason not to trust the grammatical insights of someone who has reached an appropriate level of ability in a language whatever the accident of their birth.

Choosing a language teacher based on an "accident of birth" is not only inappropriate but also threatens some professional teachers. Even some "native

speaking" (NS) ESL/EFL teachers may be offended by such a hiring policy if they have some teacher training experience or an excellent educational background, and take their jobs professionally. Moreover, this policy excludes "non-native speaking" (NNS) teachers who possess a high level of proficiency in their second or foreign language.

As a NNS teacher in Japan, I worry that the myth of "NS teacher as an ideal" may give the wrong goal to learners. Although the NS teacher is used as a model, the English that is used in the learner's country is often different from the one in the NS teacher's. Therefore, the learner's goal may also differ from the model's.

English is used on a daily basis not only by NSs but also by NNSs and is no longer the exclusive language of the American, British, Canadian, Australian, and New Zealander. Chinese-English and Japanese-English are also Englishes. The diffusion of English is statistically supported; English is spoken by seven hundred million people, and only half of them are "native speakers" (Quirk, 1985). Kachru (1985: 29) points out that "the dichotomy of its native and non-native users seems to have become irrelevant." His view of the global diffusion of English is explained in terms of three concentric circles: the inner circle, the outer circle (or extended circle), and the expanding circle. The inner circle refers to the traditional users of English: English speakers in the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The outer circle (or extended circle) refers to the countries in which English is used as one of the linguistic repertoire of bilinguals or multilinguals and has important status in their language policies. For example, India, Nigeria, Singapore, and Zambia belong to the outer circle. The third circle, the expanding circle, represents the rest of the countries where English is used as a foreign language, such as China, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Taiwan, and so forth. Kachru (1985: 13) says, "Understanding the function of English in this circle requires a recognition of the fact that English is an international language . . ."

If his theory is widely accepted, and those Englishes in the expanding circle function well in actual international communication, there is no special reason for having a speaker from the inner circle as a model. The English that is used in the expanding circle, such as Japanese English, has come to be recognized as an English.

Let me turn to examples of language learning settings in Japan. Presenting an NS teacher as a model might imprint learners with the inappropriate idea that they need to speak English as a NS teacher does. If English is viewed as an international or universal language, people in the outer circle or in the expanding circle do not have to be taught that only the English in the inner circle is "real". Their Englishes are also real as long as they make themselves understood in cross-cultural settings. Japanese learners do not need to imitate other Englishes, such as American English.

The recognition of varieties of English, or World Englishes, will demand that language learners and teachers shift their gears to set more realistic goals. Lester (1978: 13-14) criticizes the goal of speaking like a "native," as totally unrealistic. He lists implications of an international language, such as "a clear separation between ideal goals and real goals," "more reasonable expectations to the learners," and "less emphasis on native-like pronunciation." These implications would mean, for example, neither students nor NNS teachers will have to confront great difficulty in mastering phonological differences.

Some people may worry about the corruption of English due to the recognition of English as an International Language. They may feel the need of a "core" English that protects the language from corruption or from losing its identity. Quirk (1985, 1990), for example, strongly insists on the need for "standard" English. Although he recognizes the variety of Englishes as a fact, he points out a failure to make clear "which aspects of English were to be regarded as susceptible of standardization (1985: 3)." He warns of a danger of exporting an airy contempt for standards to EFL and ESL countries, saying:

It is neither liberal nor liberating to permit learners to settle for lower standards than the best, and it is a travesty of liberalism to tolerate low standards which will lock the least fortunate into the least rewarding careers (1990: 9).

We may need to draw a line, as Quirk said, that determines how much freedom and flexibility are acceptable in language learning classrooms. For example, some flexibility in the phonology of the language is acceptable. Variations from the syntactic and semantic aspects of a language are quite another thing.

However, if "standard" English is acknowledged as Quirk proposes, such acknowledgement would deny the notion of "English as an International Language." Kachru (1985) argues that the traditional notions of standardization or methods do not apply to English in the current situation any more. As long as "standard" English exists, the invisible walls between the inner, outer, and expanding circle will remain. As Quirk himself points out, if a half of English speakers are not "native speakers," only about a half will have the prestige of being in a mainstream group that speaks "standard" English. Promoting "standard" English may result in the rejection of many, and more importantly, it may cause ethnocentrism that inhibits the integration of the three circles.

The recognition of English as an International Language demands change not only in goals or approaches in language learning classrooms but also in the level of professionalism of its teachers. If the goal of being able to speak as an "native speaker" is removed, the need for the NS teacher as a model will no longer exist. I do

not mean by this that NS teachers are not necessary. They will still maintain an important role in language learning classrooms, but they do not need to be models for learners anymore. Their role is to assist NNS teachers. Edge (1988: 155) says, "the role of the foreign native speaker [NS] . . . is to partner and support the native teacher [NNS] in his or her communication."

The notion of English as an International Language will give the NNS teachers of English, who tend to be viewed as a next best alternative in the hiring process, a more stable status. Under the myth of "NS teacher as an ideal," NNS teachers have not been offered a chance equal to that of NS teachers in the hiring processes. Forban (1992: 3) says, "such a restriction [in the hiring process] suggests that nonnative speakers can never achieve excellence in English language proficiency." It is important to make learners notice that NNS teachers' English is a world English which enables them to fully communicate with other English speakers.

Although it is true that NNS teachers usually suffer from lack of NS proficiency, it is not realistic to exclude them from teaching positions for two reasons. First, learners' goals are various. Not every learner's primary goal is to be able to speak as "native speakers." Some study for exams, and some study for travel or business. Second, not every learner wants to learn English from NS teachers. When I was teaching at a language school in Japan, one student said, "Don't speak to me in English. I don't understand English, and that's why I come here." Two high school students who were very shy could not speak even a word in the NS teacher's class though their English grades at school were A's. In the situation described above, for those learners who had high affective filters, NNS teachers were better than NS teachers for lowering anxiety and encouraging self-confidence. Whether NS or NNS teachers are better for learners depends on the learner's age or needs. Although NS teachers may be effective when learners are young and have low anxiety, NNS teachers may be better for learners who are adolescents or older and have high anxiety.

The best model for the learner may well be the NNS teacher who has reached a satisfactory level of language proficiency and has the same background as the learners (Edge, 1988; Phillipson, 1992). The best English teacher I ever had was a NNS teacher who spoke both languages fluently and could explain the differences between the two languages and cultures precisely. She knew why and where a certain error occurred and what had to be done to help learners. She never spoke Japanese in class, so I had believed that she was a NS teacher. When I heard her fluent Japanese outside the classroom, I came to believe that someday I would be able to speak as she did. That was much stronger encouragement than any of the NS teachers had given me before. As my experience illustrates, presenting NNS teachers as models will offer a more realistic goal and encourage them to learn. Phillipson (1992: 15) says,

It is arguable, as a general principle, that non-native teachers may, in fact, be better qualified than native speakers, if they have gone through the complex process of acquiring English as a second or foreign language, have insight into the linguistic and cultural needs of their learners, a detailed awareness of how mother tongue and target language differ and what is difficult for learners, and first-hand experience of using a second or foreign language.

The conditions that Phillipson lists should be the qualifications for all language teachers, whatever their "accident of birth."

Up to this point, I have discussed the myth of "NS teachers as an ideal," the implications of English as an International Language, and the potential contributions that NNS teachers can make. Turning now to the issue of the qualifications for hiring, it should be clear that being a "native speaker" is irrelevant. Qualifications for teachers of English as an International Language should be based on linguistic knowledge of the target language, knowledge of second language acquisition, familiarity with the learners' culture and language, successful experience as a language learner and user, and advanced training as an educator. Phillipson (1992: 14) says, "Teachers, whatever popular adages say, are made rather than born, many of them doubtless self-made, whether they are natives or non-natives."

In 1991, the Executive Board of TESOL issued its "Statement on Nonnative Speakers of English and Hiring Practice," offering "recognition and support to the well-qualified professionals throughout the world who are teachers of English to speakers of other languages" (Forhan, 1992: 3). Regarding this statement, TESOL will no longer advertise any job announcement that recruits the "native speaker of English," says Forhan (1992). This statement will have a great effect on setting professional NNS teachers of English free from the myth of "NS as an ideal." However, it does not explain what it means by the "well-qualified professional." So far, there has been no universal standard for hiring in the TESOL profession. TESOL programs throughout the world vary in the length and in the number and type of required classes. To certify the teachers who take their job seriously and have a background in TESOL, I think there is a need for an official identification that shows what kind of TESOL training or teacher training they have. Clayton (1990) and Yau (1991) suggest establishing a universally recognized license or credential which qualifies teachers and which is necessary for admission into the teaching profession.

I would like this "license" of language teachers to include TESOL training as mandatory, though I realize that having a TESOL certificate or a MA does not always equate with being a "good teacher." Some training in intercultural communication and a certain level of proficiency in a foreign language should be required in addition to TESOL training for those who apply for teaching positions overseas.

Teaching a language requires more than just a linguistic knowledge or proficiency in a language. Changes in both the hiring process and the goals of ESL/EFL classes regarding English as an International Language will go a long way towards increasing the professionalism of our practitioners and establishing TESOL as a true profession in the eyes of our teacher colleagues and the wider community in which we work.

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More Reasons for Reading

Review by Laurie Shin,
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MORE REASONS FOR READING. Carrie S. Dobbs and Frank Dobbs. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Regents Prentice-Hall, 1992, pp.293. Paper, US$14.50.

This textbook was written for low-intermediate to intermediate pre-college or university ELC students. Its purpose is to help students build nontechnical college-level vocabulary as well as develop skills necessary to read college-level materials

The book is divided into five main units: cultural anthropology, the human brain, non-western ideas, astronomy, and biographies. Each unit is again divided into three more specific chapters relating to the broad topic. These content-oriented reading selections are intended to give students a wide variety of topics about which they read. While they do offer many topics that could be interesting to students, however, they face the problem that all texts that include reading face: the student cannot choose readings according to personal interests or tastes. But these readings not only are set, they also often lack human appeal in their factual, objective style and tone.

In order to introduce students to the topic before actually reading a passage, small groups participate in a pre-reading discussion based on questions, ideas, pictures, and illustrations in the book. This gives the students an opportunity to orient themselves to the subject before encountering unfamiliar vocabulary or sentence structures, establishing necessary background schema that will aid in comprehension. The activities in these discussions vary and encourage students to think in a variety of ways about the passages they read, aided by relevant visual elements of the book.

When they have completed the pre-reading discussion, the students begin reading the actual passage. The author suggests in the preface to the book that the passage first be read aloud by the teacher while students follow along in their own books. This helps the students get through the passage at a good pace without allowing them to stop to look up difficult words, which can interrupt the natural development of ideas. It also gives the students a model of proper intonation, pronunciation, and junctures of sentence parts.

After the passage, each chapter is accompanied by exercises that include questions which may be answered by going back to the passage and scanning quickly for specific items, questions on vocabulary used in the passage, and a self-test to assess comprehension. Individual chapters then have exercises on structures and skills

relating particularly to that passage. These exercises lack variety from one chapter to the next, consisting of mostly fill-in-the-blank questions that seem to require verbatim answers found in the text or int he question itself rather than active student thinking. The exercises are also long, and may become tedious before the student completes them.

The exercise section in each chapter, however, ends with an accompanying writing assignment which encourages students to creatively think about the passage. It also allows the students to participate individually in the reading experience. For example, the writing assignment in Chapter 8, "Filial Piety or Reverence for Parents," asks the student to "write about the relationship between parents and children in your culture." Though the passages are not chosen by the students, this type of assignment can help them to feel like they are participating in the reading experience.

As the book goes on the passages increase in both length and difficulty, building on vocabulary and skills encountered in earlier chapters. This helps the students build up to more advanced skills; however, it again limits student choice in what is read by requiring all readings to be completed in the set order rather than according to what the student would like to read.

The pre-determined sequence and reading materials as well as the long exercises do not encourage innovation or creativity on the part of the student or the instructor. No suggestions for techniques and procedures are given, and no supplementary materials are mentioned that could help the lessons be more effective. In fact, little instruction is given at all except that which explains how the exercises are to be done. The role of the instructor, then, would be to model correct intonation and pronunciation and to guide the students through the chapters.

Perhaps some students and some instructors would like this approach to reading. The lack of a variety of reading materials from which the students can choose as well as a lack of variety in the forms of the reading exercises would make it difficult, however, to use in effectively teaching reading to those who are more individualized and like more flexibility in the classroom. Nontechnical vocabulary and college-level reading skills are focused on throughout the textbook, but its inflexible, repetitive form may actually give students less reasons for reading instead of more.

About the Reviewer

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Notes to Contributors

The *TESL Reporter* is a semiannual publication of the Language, Literature, and Communictions Division of Brigham Young University—Hawaii, and is dedicated to the dissemination of ideas and issues of interest to teachers of English to speakers of other languages worldwide.

Manuscripts relevant to teaching English as a second/foreign language, bilingual education, intercultural education and communication, and teacher preparation in these areas are welcomed and should be submitted (in duplicate) to the editor. Manuscripts dealing with classroom aspects of teaching are especially encouraged.

Manuscripts should be typed and double spaced throughout, generally not exceeding ten to twelve pages. Each manuscript should be accompanied by a cover sheet with the title; author's name, position, and address; and a short (less than 50 words) bio-data statement. Identifying information should not appear elsewhere in the manuscript in order to insure an impartial review. Authors are encouraged to follow APA style and review past issues of the *TESL Reporter* for matters of style. Any tables, graphs, or illustrations should be sent in camera-ready form whenever possible.

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