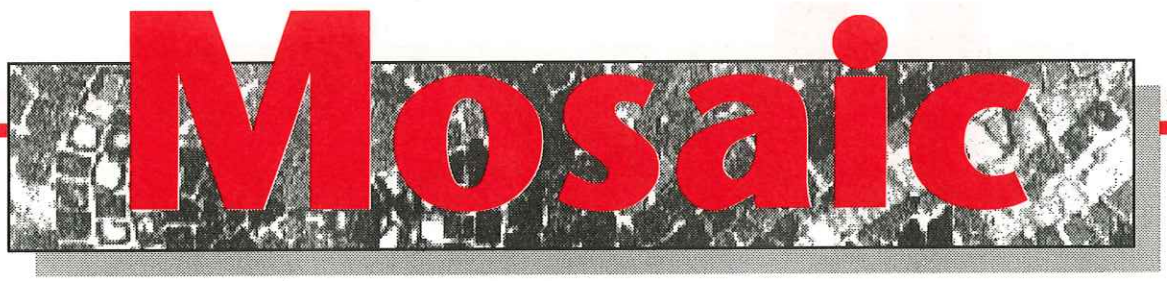

A Journal for Language Teachers

Published by éditions SOLEIL publishing inc.

In this issue...

edited by Anthony Mollica

Vol. 6 No. 1 ISSN 1195-7131 Fall 1998

Founded in 1993 by Anthony Mollica, **Mosaic** is a journal published four times a year (Fall, Winter Spring, Summer) by éditions Soleil publishing inc. Manuscripts and editorial communications should be sent to: Professor Anthony Mollica, Editor, **Mosaic**, P.O. Box 847, Welland, Ontario L3B 5Y5. Tel/Fax: [905] 788-2674.

All articles are refereed anonymously by a panel of readers. Authors are required to be subscribers to the journal.

The language graduate who never reads a professional journal and participates only minimally, if at all, in professional meetings, will stagnate. There is an onus on the profession in all areas to upgrade and keep abreast of current developments in the field. **– Peter Heffernan**

Mail Canadian subscriptions to:
Mosaic
P.O. Box 847
Welland, Ontario L3B 5Y5

Mail U. S. subscriptions to:
Mosaic
P.O. Box 890
Lewiston, NY 14092-0890

Telephone/Fax: [905] 788-2674. E-mail: soleil@iaw.on.ca

Toll Free Order Desk Fax: 1-800-261-0833

Subscription Rates
(4 issues per year sent to the same address):

1-5 subscriptions $12.00 each
6- 50 subscriptions $11.00 each
51 + subscriptions $10.00 each

Single copies $4.00. Back issues are available at regular subscription price.
Canadian orders please add 7% GST.
U.S. subscriptions same rate as above in U.S. currency.
Overseas subscriptions $35.00 each (Sent by air mail)Advertising rates available on request.

Mosaic is indexed in the Canadian Education Index by Micromedia Ltd., 20 Victoria St., Toronto, Ont. M5C 2N8, Tel.: (416) 362-5211, Fax: (416) 362-6161. **Mosaic** is available on microfiche from the ERIC Document Research Service (ERDS) at 1-800-443-3742 or (703) 440-1400.
ISSN 1195-7131 Printed in Canada

Birgit Harley

French Immersion Research in Canada: The 1990s in Perspective

With its focus on language teaching and learning processes, French immersion research of the 1900s deals with a number of issues of significance to teachers.

INTRODUCTION

It is said that more research attention has been devoted to immersion programs than to any other educational innovation. In the early 90s, for example, Cummins (1991) counted as many as 1,000 immersion studies in Canada alone. To begin with, in the 1970s and 80s, most of these Canadian studies consisted of program evaluations concerned with learning outcomes of French immersion. As such programs spread across the country, parents and educational policy makers in each jurisdiction wanted answers to key questions about the effects of immersion education on participating students:

- How would it affect students' English language skills?
- Would they master other subjects as well in French as if they had studied them in English?
- How much French would students learn?

In a 1984 article, Swain and Lapkin reviewed the research results and were able to conclude as follows:

> The research and evaluation studies associated with French immersion have demonstrated that students from a majority-language group can be taught in a second language with no long-term negative effects on first language development or on content learning, while at the same time becoming highly proficient in the target language. (Swain and Lapkin, 1984, p. 52)

As French immersion programs settled into the educational scene with reassurances that the immersion experience was having an additive, and not a subtractive, impact on students' learning, research energies could be redeployed. The research emphasis shifted from product to process. New research questions began to be addressed that were of more direct relevance to immersion classroom teachers:

- How do second language skills develop in an immersion context?
- What interactional patterns characterize the immersion classroom?
- How do teachers integrate language and content teaching?
- Do some instructional strategies work better than others?

It is research of this kind concerned with teaching and learning processes in French immersion that is the topic of this paper.

But first a brief digression to draw attention to the main characteristics of immersion as it is practised in Canada (cf. Swain and Johnson, 1997). It is important to keep these characteristics in mind when considering the relevance of the Canadian immersion research to other settings. In Canada, French immersion is designed for non-native speakers of French. It is an educational option offered by a substantial number of English-speaking school boards across the country in response to public demand, – demand which has come mainly from middle and upper middle class English-speaking Canadians who see educational and economic advantages in bilingualism for their children. In the first few years of a French immersion program, French is the medium of instruction for some or all of the time that the students are in class, but students generally have very little exposure to the second language outside school. The immersion curriculum parallels that of regular English-medium classes, and the development of academic skills in English is by no means lost sight of. Thus even when there is 100%, or "total", immersion in French to begin with, instruction in English is introduced after two or three years and is gradually increased so that it eventually takes up 50% or more of each school day. When the immersion program is a "partial" one, up to 50% of the day may be in English from the outset. French immersion programs vary, then, in the extent to which students are immersed in the second language. They also vary in starting point:

- "early" immersion begins in Kindergarten or Grade 1,
- "middle" immersion begins at Grade 4 or 5, and then there are
- "late" immersion programs that begin at Grade 6, 7, or 8.

By far the most widespread variety is early total immersion and this is the type of program that has received most research attention both from an outcomes and a pro-

cess-oriented perspective. This brief overview of characteristics of French immersion in Canada is by no means exhaustive, but is just to set the stage for the research now to be discussed.

Learning Processes

What do we know about learning processes in French immersion? Various approaches have been taken to the study of this question. Weber and (1991a,b), for example, used an ethnographic approach to examine children's learning experiences in early immersion kindergarten, providing insights into their first steps in French. In a year-long study of two classes, they included classroom observations, audio and video recordings, teacher journals, and interviews with the children. The interviews featured a shy English-speaking puppet who had never been to school and needed help to function in the immersion kindergarten context. The study revealed how quickly and easily the children became at home with the classroom culture. Their comprehension of meaning and curriculum content did not depend on any precise understanding of the teachers' words in French. Rather, it depended on the contextually embedded nature of the classroom routines and the children's personal involvement in these routines. *La récréation*, for example, was translated for the puppet as "It means to go outside and play on the monkey bars", and the daily weather question *Quel temps fait-il?* as "Look outside!" (rather than "What's the weather like?"). In production, a widespread phenomenon was the use of "little understood but appropriate formulaic phrases" (Weber and Tardif, 1991a, p.929). Concrete nouns, such as *le sable* and *l'eau*, were more readily translated into English and were sometimes produced as one-word stand-ins for a request to play with these. Entirely absent were grammatical features such as plural verb inflections. In Kindergarten, the young immersion learners' initial way into French, the second language, appears to be more through memorized, personally significant, contextualized words and formulaic chunks rather than through intuitive grammatical analysis. This lexical, memory-oriented approach to initial language acquisition is in keeping with other studies of both first and second-language acquisition in natural settings (e.g., Berman, 1987; Fletcher, 1985; Peters, 1983; Wong Fillmore, 1976).

An interesting question is whether a memory orientation to second language learning is still characteristic of early immersion students at a later stage in their school career and whether they differ in this respect from late immersion students. According to the critical period hypothesis (Lenneberg, 1967), those whose second-language exposure comes in adolescence or adulthood are disadvantaged relative to those who begin earlier as children, and the later learners have to use a more effortful, intellectual approach to language learning. In line with this hypothesis, it could be predicted therefore that while memory ability would be related to second-language proficiency among early immersion students at the high school level, it would be analytical ability that would relate to proficiency in French among late immersion students. In a recent study (Harley and Hart, 1998), the sample consisted of 65 11th-grade students in two partial immersion programs in Ontario. Half the students had begun early immersion for 50% of the day in grade 1, and the other half had begun 50% late immersion in Grade 7. The study included a number of measures of French language proficiency, and to assess learning orientation, three different kinds of measures of language aptitude were used: associative memory, memory for text, and language analysis.

The results of the statistical analyses provided support for the hypothesis. Memory for text was the main predictor of scores on French proficiency tests for the early immersion students, whereas for the late immersion students, analytical language ability was the only significant predictor.

These findings leave us with a conundrum: Are the results determined, regardless of the learning context, by the starting age of the learners? Or do they reflect different teaching emphases in early and late immersion that encourage different learning orientations? And if so, would learners in each context benefit from more balance in teaching approach? At this juncture, based on this one study, we are in no position to answer these questions. However, we should note that there is evidence that teaching strategies do in fact differ in some early and late immersion classes. In an observational study conducted at grades 6 and 8 in the Ottawa region, Dicks (1992) found that there was a more experiential focus on the communication of meaning in two early immersion classes and a more analytical focus on the language in two late immersion classes. Later in this paper I will return to the question of balance in teaching approach.

Meanwhile, several other studies of language learning processes in the immersion context are relevant here. One of these was a cross-sectional study (Harley, 1992) which examined patterns of French language development across grade levels. Guided individual interviews were conducted with matched samples of 12 early immersion students at Grades 1, 4, and 10. The interviewer's questions were designed to elicit various features of the French verb

system as students talked about past experiences, future plans, and hypothetical events, and described given cartoons. The use of certain verbs and verb constructions was anticipated, based on what native French speakers in Grades 1 and 10 did in similar interviews. Some of the patterns of development observed in this study were as follows:

Early Development of Strategic Competence

Early immersion students in grade 1 did not have available specific vocabulary items such as *sonner*, or *pincer*, that were regularly used by the native speakers as they described a given cartoon. Instead the young immersion students did what first language learners have been observed to do – they stretched basic, general purpose action verbs such as *faire* and *aller* to cover the meanings they wanted to convey, at times using noises and gestures as added contextual support. These communication strategies served very well in a face-to-face context to convey their intended meanings. Gradually at higher grade levels there was increased use of more specific verbs as the students' French lexical repertoire grew.

As in Weber and Tardif's study in Kindergarten, the young immersion students in Grade 1 had developed excellent context-embedded comprehension strategies as well. As part of a translation task that followed each interview, students were asked to translate a conditional French sentence into English. This they did promptly and unerringly, relying no doubt on the presence of an initial si clause in the interviewer's question along with information in the broader situation. As late as Grade 10, however, only about half the students could actually produce a conditional verb in an obligatory context in French.

In short, children in immersion have shown themselves able from an early stage of their program to make highly skilled use of both receptive and productive communication strategies in compensating for gaps in their knowledge of French. We should note that no-one has taught them to do this! Valuable as this skill undoubtedly is, there may be a catch in the long run if students rest on their laurels and are not pushed to be more precise in their use of the second language (Swain, 1985).

The Role of the First Language

Surrounded as they are by peers who speak the same first language, it is not surprising to find continuing influence from English on students' production in French. The students seem typically to assume that not only verb meanings but also the constructions they enter into are equivalent in English and French. In languages as closely associated as these two, this assumption is for the most part a good one to make, giving rise to what is known as positive transfer. But in those instances where there is only partial congruence between English and French, it leads students to diverge from native speaker norms. So, for example, even when they knew the relevant vocabulary item *pincer* to describe a man's nose being pinched, Grade 10 immersion students would insert this verb in an English-style sentence frame: for example, **quelque chose... le pince sur le nez* ("something is pinching him on the nose"). In the same context, native speakers typically used a dative construction to express the same idea: *la radio lui pince le nez.*

Problematic Language Features

The French auxiliaries, *avoir* and *être*, and verb inflections marking tense, aspect, number and person created stumbling blocks for immersion students in this study. Features such as plural verb inflections, use of the aspectual *imparfait*, and choice of auxiliary with certain verbs were still giving trouble to some of the grade 10 students. It is clear that there is considerable inherent complexity here for the native speaker of English, who has a morphologically simpler first language. Anyone who has struggled with French grammar in school will sympathize with the immersion student in another study who referred to it as "something that will boggle your mind at the sight of it" and as "something with so many endings for so many words that it's not even funny" (Kowal and Swain, 1997, p.292).

Based on a detailed analysis of the errors and omissions observed in this and other studies, it appears that certain kinds of second-language features are problematic for immersion students: those features that differ in non-obvious or unexpected ways from the first language, those that are irregular, infrequent, or otherwise lacking in salience in the second-language input, and those that do not carry a heavy communicative load (Harley, 1993). The question that concerns teachers, of course, is how best to help students fill the apparent gaps in their knowledge.

Learning Needs

Certainly it is clear from a study in Grade 8 early immersion described by Kowal and Swain (1997) that students lack explicit knowledge about the workings of the French verb system, and particularly about the functions of different verb forms. On an error correction task, for example, students were much better at correcting and explaining a mechanical verb agreement error than they were at dealing with the functionally incorrect use of the

imparfait. In this error correction task, Kowal as teacher of this class called upon students to state target language rules. Just how helpful such highly explicit knowledge is for learning a second language is a much debated issue, an issue that has obvious relevance when it comes to designing second-language instruction (e.g., Doughty and Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1994; Green and Hecht, 1992; Towell and Hawkins, 1994; Hulstijn and Schmidt, 1994). What level of language awareness is helpful in causing learning? Or is awareness something that emerges instead as a result of learning? Currently there is a growing consensus among second-language researchers that at least some level of awareness is necessary for language learning to proceed. According to Schmidt (1994), for example, the minimal conscious experience of noticing is indispensable. It is now conventional wisdom, he argues, that:

> target language forms will not be acquired unless they are noticed and that one important way that instruction works is by increasing the salience of target language forms in input so that they are more likely to be noticed by learners. (Schmidt, 1994, p. 195)

Schmidt is concerned here with the role of *input* in creating favourable conditions for the conscious experience of noticing. Swain (1995, 1998, in press; Swain and Lapkin, 1995), referring specifically to the development of French proficiency in the immersion context, has argued that students' *output* can also promote noticing, and hence learning. In attempting to produce the second language, learners may notice that they do not know exactly how to express the meaning they wish to convey. Recognition of this problem, Swain argues, may cause learners to move from the strategic semantic processing that is often adequate for comprehension to more complete grammatical processing. This in turn may lead to new linguistic knowledge or the consolidation of existing knowledge. Output, Swain points out, also provides the learner with a way of trying out new forms and constructions, i.e., it provides an opportunity to test hypotheses. And a further function of output is metalinguistic: "learners use language to reflect on language use" (1998, p.68), and in so doing may deepen their awareness of how the second language works. Swain provides examples of these various functions of output in dialogues produced by pairs of Grade 8 immersion students as they worked together to reconstruct a short French text they had heard. From the perspective of Vygotskian sociocultural theory, she regards the kind of metatalk that occurs in such dialogues as highly conducive to learning, in that the second language is not only the instrument that the students use for the purpose of reflection but at the same time the object of that reflection. Through individualized post-testing of students on precisely those linguistic points that each pair had discussed as they reconstructed their French text, Swain (1998) was able to show that they had retained the relevant knowledge. Typically, when a pair agreed on a correct solution to an identified problem, they each scored well on the specific test, and when the solution of a pair was incorrect, they did correspondingly poorly on their test. Swain and Lapkin are currently continuing to study the role of collaborative dialogue in second-language learning.

Field Studies of Classroom Interaction

If salience in input and/or output is a requirement for language learning, then perhaps lack of such salience in the classroom context is one reason that immersion students have problems with certain features of the French language system. Field studies of interaction in the French immersion context suggest that some features of French are indeed lacking in input salience in immersion classrooms in the sense that they are rarely produced by teachers in their natural use of the language. This then would help to explain why such features are not well mastered by the students. Tape-recorded data from a classroom observation study in Grades 3 and 6 indicated, for example, that in ten early immersion classrooms at the grade 6 level, teachers hardly ever used *vous* as a politeness marker in addressing students (Allen, Swain, Harley, and Cummins, 1990; Swain and Carroll, 1987). It is not surprising, therefore, to find immersion students in other studies (e.g., Swain and Lapkin, 1990) using the familiar *tu* in contexts where *vous* was needed. The teachers did focus on verb inflections in grammar lessons, but from a formal rather than a functional perspective, and in the process of teaching other subjects, they seldom used marked verb forms such as the conditional. Infrequency of exposure to its use may again help to account for the problems the students have using this verb form in French. The observations also revealed that the second language output of students in these classes often involved producing only short answers to questions. In Swain's terms, students were thus apparently not being sufficiently pushed to move from strategic semantic processing to more complete grammatical processing.

Error correction in reaction to second-language output is one way in which teachers can add salience to problematic second language features. Lyster (1998a,b) did an analysis of how teachers in

four immersion classes in Montreal were giving corrective feedback on errors as students communicated in French. The classes were at the Grade 4 and 5 levels and included one early immersion class and three middle immersion ones. Based on the transcribed audio recordings of about 18 hours of classroom interaction, Lyster observed that less than half the students' errors received feedback from the teachers and that over half of these feedback moves were *recasts* which appeared to be nonsalient in the sense that students may not have recognized them as corrections. In a recast, the teacher simply reformulates what the student has said, and the interaction continues without any explicit indication that an error was made. Since recasts did not generally lead to any overt uptake by students, and since teachers also recast or echoed correct utterances that students produced, Lyster argues that this form of corrective feedback is the least likely to get students to notice the gap between what they have said and what is required by the second-language system. More effective may be the *negotiation of form* in which the teacher reacts to the error with a question, gives a partial clue, or highlights the error by emphasizing it. In overtly responding to this kind of feedback, students have to exert mental effort in thinking about how to improve on what they have said.

Providing corrective feedback while the classroom interaction is focused primarily on subject matter content has sometimes been frowned upon as potentially disruptive and inhibiting for students. Lyster did not find this to be the case in the classes he observed. The teachers' corrective moves fitted smoothly into the ongoing content- and meaning-focused interaction without deterring students from expressing themselves in French. In a case study of how one teacher negotiated form with students in his Grade 8 class, Lyster (1994a) demonstrates how this succeeded in eliciting more precise language from the learners. A case study by Lapkin and Swain (1996) of another Grade 8 immersion teacher shows how he too integrated language with his content teaching in an expert way, pushing students to use more sophisticated vocabulary and associated grammatical constructions as they discussed the scientific topic of the *effet de serre* (greenhouse effect). As this research shows, corrective feedback can be applied in meaning-oriented activities as students communicate about subject matter content. It can serve in this context to help students better express what they genuinely want to say. And in this sense it may be a particularly helpful way of promoting language learning (Lightbown, 1998).

Indications that personally relevant, genuine interaction is crucial for second language development in immersion programs have already come from the kindergarten study by Weber and Tardif. Its importance also emerges from an observational study conducted in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador. Netten and Spain (1989; Netten, 1991) compared interaction patterns in three Grade 2 early immersion classrooms which differed in average academic ability. Class A with the lowest relative ability did unexpectedly well on a test of reading comprehension in French whereas Class C with a moderately high average ability score did not meet expectations on the French test. (Class B with the highest ability scores more or less met expectations). Based on about 2,000 or more messages per class, Netten and Spain's analysis of process differences in the three classes produced the following findings: Over half the messages in Class A – the class that did better than expected in French – were initiated by the students.In comparison, students in the other two classes initiated a third or less of the total number of messages produced. Classroom A was observed to present

> a learning environment where pupils were constantly using, and experimenting with, the second language as they engaged in communication of an academic and social nature with their peers and the teacher (Netten and Spain, 1989, p.494)

Classroom C, on the other hand, was described as providing

> a rather formal learning atmosphere where pupils had limited opportunities to use the second language to engage in real communication" (pp. 493-494)

These classroom process differences, the authors argued, contributed to their results on the French comprehension test.

Experimental Classroom Treatment Studies

The above-mentioned classroom observation studies have suggested various ways in which instructional strategies can make a difference to immersion students' second language development at different grades. Other experimental studies have formally tested the merits of some of these strategies by introducing classroom activities designed to promote the learning of specific second-language features. These studies have been conducted at various grade levels of early immersion programs ranging from Grade 2 to Grade 11 (e.g. Day and Shapson, 1990; Harley, 1989, 1998; Harley, Howard, and Roberge, 1996; Lyster, 1994b; Swain, 1998) and have sometimes taken the form of action research by immersion teachers in their own classrooms (e.g. Kowal, 1996; War-

den, 1997; Wright, 1996). Most of these experimental studies involve several classes, some of which were provided with experimental materials, and other comparison classes which did not receive the materials. The students were tested to see if the experimental classes made more progress than the comparison classes.

The results of these experimental studies have not for the most part been absolutely clear-cut. Taken together, they nonetheless provide solid support for the use of communicative activities integrated with content learning to raise students' awareness of specific features of French.

For example, Day and Shapson (1990) in British Columbia designed a science unit for Grade 7 immersion in which students had to plan a space colony. The linguistic goal of this 6-week-long unit was to improve the students' use of conditional verbs. Use of the conditional was prompted in a variety of cooperative group activities requiring the students to hypothesize what would happen if certain changes in the space colony environment were introduced. More formal warm-up exercises designed to provide practice of the conditional were also included. The results of this study showed that the experimental students made greater progress on two written tests of the conditional than comparison students who had not been exposed to the unit, and maintained their advantage over the long run. Where the experimental students' linguistic gains were not significantly greater than the comparison students was in spontaneous oral production. The researchers point out that an apparent reason for this was that one of the comparison classes had also concentrated on learning conditional verbs. This unintended complication shows just how difficult it is to control what happens in experiments done not in laboratories but in real classrooms.

Another classroom experiment done among Ontario Grade 8 immersion students (Lyster, 1994) was designed to raise awareness of sociostylistic variation, and in particular to teach students the appropriate use of the pronouns *tu* and *vous*. Based on 3 weeks of classroom treatment, the experimental students, in contrast to the comparison students, made clear lasting gains in distinguishing the use of these two pronouns and in using *vous* where needed. Activities in this teaching unit ranged from analysing the differential use of these pronouns in a novel in French to a cooperative group activity where the task was for each group to produce several versions of a new message depending on the formality of the situation and whether the message was oral or written. A model was provided for the students to refer to. This experiment with older students (age 13-14) was able to rely on the greater metalinguistic maturity of the students in analysing samples of language.

Cognitive maturity of students is not essential for awareness-raising activities to have an impact, however. Another Ontario study (Harley, 1998) shows that a preplanned language focus can have a positive effect even among primary immersion students at 7-8 years of age. The focus of this five-week study was on grammatical gender in French, a formal feature that is both unexpected for naive learners of English-speaking background and generally lacking in meaning. In earlier research, it had already been observed to be a long lasting problem for immersion students (Harley, 1979; Stevens, 1984; Taylor Browne, 1984). In this classroom experiment conducted at Grade 2, then, the purpose was a preventative one: to make students aware of clues to noun gender early so that they would not become accustomed to ignoring this grammatical distinction. A variety of children's games were designed so that success depended on getting the gender right. Some more explicit activities included making separate picture dictionaries for masculine and feminine nouns with an appropriate label for each picture (e.g. *la chaussette, un bateau*). In this study, students in the experimental classes became more accurate in assigning gender to familiar nouns than students in comparison classes, but they didn't learn to predict the gender of unfamiliar new nouns from their characteristic masculine or feminine endings. The activities designed to focus on noun endings appear to have emphasized too much new vocabulary so that students were more focused on learning their meanings than on noticing similarities of form. The activities related to familiar nouns may also have been more successful in that they were more clearly related to curriculum themes, a factor considered very important by the teachers at this grade level.

Another experiment designed to improve early immersion students' accuracy in gender distinctions took place close to the other end of students' school career in G 11. Here, an important question was whether certain errors still present after 10 years in an immersion program would have become fossilized. In this action research study conducted by Warden (1997), inductive grammar activities were quite explicit. For example, students in groups were given different noun endings and instructed to find 10 nouns for each in their dictionaries, noting whether they were consistently one or the other gender. Also in groups, students had to design games to teach each other characteristic noun ending clues. Results indicated that the students in the

experimental class made greater gains than two comparison classes on discrete-point tests of grammatical gender, but were not significantly more accurate in making gender distinctions in spontaneous oral and written production. However, a closer analysis of the experimental students' written work revealed that they had in fact become more accurate on nouns with precisely those endings that had been featured in the instruction – a finding that counters the notion of irreversible fossilization.

This sample of experimental studies gives credence to the view that preplanned analytically oriented language activities are a helpful complement to the content-based experiential learning that generally characterizes early French immersion programs. In other words, to answer a question I posed earlier, a balanced pedagogical approach may encourage more analysis on the part of memory-oriented early immersion learners and enhance their second-language learning. I would argue at the same time that only certain kinds of language features appear to need focused instructional attention, and that analytical language activities that are meaning-oriented, well integrated with curriculum content, intrinsically interesting, and personally relevant to students at the age level concerned are the ones most likely to succeed.

Conclusions

I do not mean in any way to imply that instructional issues in the French immersion context have now been fully resolved. As a basis for classroom practice, the studies I have presented provide at best signposts for teachers but still little in the way of specific guidance for practice at each grade level. There has been hardly any process-oriented research in middle and late immersion programs, and this is one gap that needs to be filled. We need to know more about effective teaching of content at different levels. We need also to know more precisely what aspects of the French language system students can be expected to master at any particular grade, given different starting points and different extents of immersion in French. The key role of the teacher in diagnosing the students' linguistic needs, in providing the needed language support, and in assessing its results cannot be overemphasized. In survey research (e.g. Canadian Education Association, 1992; Day and Shapson, 1996), French immersion teachers have repeatedly expressed a need for more continuing professional development, especially in teaching French language arts. They also want more specific guidance as to appropriate learning objectives at different grades. In other words, research in French immersion needs now to pay added attention to teachers' as well as students' needs.

In considering how the research I have described relates to immersion programs in other settings, it is important to take account of program similarities and differences in many domains: the timing and extent of the program involved, available educational resources, the student population and the role that the second language plays in their lives outside school, the specific first and second language involved, and so on. I would hope, nonetheless, that the process-oriented Canadian research I have described has some broader relevance for immersion pedagogy in general.

References

Allen, P., M. Swain, B. Harley, and J. Cummins (1990). "Aspects of classroom treatment: Toward a more comprehensive view of second language education." In P. Allen, M. Swain, B. Harley, and J. Cummins eds., *The development of second language proficiency* (pp. 57-81). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Day, E. M. and S.M. Shapson (1991). "Integrating formal and functional approaches to language teaching in French immersion: An experimental study." *Language Learning*, 4, 25-58.

Day, E. M. and S.M. Shapson (1996). "A national survey: French immersion teachers' preparation and their professional development needs." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 52, 248-270.

Doughty, C. and J. Williams (1998). *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, N. (Ed.). (1994). *Implicit and explicit learning of languages*. London: Academic Press.

Fletcher, P. (1985). *A child's learning of English*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Green, P.S. and K. Hecht (1992). "Implicit and explicit grammar: An empirical study." *Applied Linguistics*, 13, 168-184.

Harley, B. (1979). "French gender "rules" in the speech of English-dominant, French-dominant and monolingual French-speaking children." *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 14, 31-46.

Harley, B. (1992). "Patterns of second language development in French immersion." *French Language Studies*, 2, 159-183.

Harley, B. (1993). "Instructional strategies and SLA in early French immersion." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 245-259.

Harley, B. (1998). "The role of focus-on-form tasks in promoting child L2 acquisition." In C. Doughty and J. Williams eds., *Focus on form in classroom second-language acquisition* (pp. 156-174). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Harley, B. and D. Hart (1998). "Language aptitude and second-language proficiency in classroom learners of different starting ages." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 379-400.

Harley, B., J. Howard and B. Roberge, (1996). "Teaching vocabulary:

An exploratory study of direct techniques." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 53, 281-304.

Hulstijn, J. and R. Schmidt (Eds.). (1994). "Consciousness in second-language learning." *AILA Review*, 11.

Kowal, M. (1997). *French immersion students' language growth in French: Perceptions, patterns, and programming*. Unpublished Ed.D. thesis, University of Toronto.

Kowal, M. and M. Swain (1997). "From semantic to syntactic processing: How can we promote it in the immersion classroom?" In R. K. Johnson and M. Swain (Eds), *Immersion education: International perspectives* (pp. 284-309). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lapkin, S. and M. Swain (1996). "Vocabulary teaching in a grade 8 French immersion classroom: A descriptive case study." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 53, 242-256.

Lightbown, P.M. (1998). "The importance of timing in focus on form." In C. Doughty and J. Williams eds., *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 177-196). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Lyster, R. (1994a). "La négociation de la forme: stratégie analytique en classe d'immersion." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 50, 446-465.

Lyster, R. (1994b). "The effect of functional-analytic teaching on aspects of French immersion students' sociolinguistic competence." *Applied Linguistics*, 15, 263-287.

Lyster, R. (1998a). "Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20, 51-81.

Lyster, R. (1998b). "Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms." *Language Learning*, 48, 183-218.

Netten, J. (1991). "Towards a more language oriented second language classroom." In L. Malavé and G. Duquette eds., *Language, culture and cognition: A collection of studies in first and second language acquisition* (pp. 284-304). Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.

Netten, J. E. and W.H. Spain (1989). "Student-teacher interaction patterns in the French immersion classroom: Implications for levels of achievement in French language proficiency." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 45, 485-501.

Peters, A. (1983). *The units of language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schmidt, R. (1994). "Implicit learning and the cognitive unconscious: Of artificial grammars and SLA." In N. Ellis ed., *Implicit and explicit learning of languages* (pp. 165-209). London: Academic Press.

Stevens, F. (1984). *Strategies for second language acquisition*. Montreal: Eden.

Swain, M. (1996). "Integrating language and content in immersion classrooms: Research perspectives." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 52,529-548.

Swain, M. (1998). "Focus on form through conscious reflection." In C. Doughty and J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second-language acquisition* (pp. 64-81). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M. (In press). "The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue." In J. Lantolf ed., *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. and S. Carroll (1987). "The immersion observation study." In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins, and M. Swain. *The development of bilingual proficiency. Vol. 2: Classroom treatment* (pp. 190-341).

Swain, M. and S. Lapkin (1984). "Research update." *Language and Society*, 12, 48-54.

Swain, M. and S. Lapkin, S. (1990). "Aspects of the sociolinguistic performance of early and late French immersion students." In R. C. Scarcella, E. Anderson and S. D. Krashen eds., *Developing communicative competence in a second language* (pp. 41-54). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.

Taylor Browne, K. (1984). "The acquisition of grammatical gender by children in French immersion programs." Unpublished M.A. thesis, University of Calgary.

Towell, R. and R. Hawkins (1994). *Approaches to second language acquisition*. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.

Warden, M. (1997). "The effect of code-focused instruction on control of grammatical gender by French immersion students in grade eleven." Unpublished Ed.D. thesis, University of Toronto.

Weber, S. and C. Tardif (1991a). "Assessing L2 competency in early immersion classrooms." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes*, 47, 916-932.

Weber, S. and C. Tardif (1991b). "Culture and meaning in French immersion kindergarten." In L. Malavé and G. Duquette eds., *Language, culture and cognition: A collection of studies in first and second-language acquisition* (pp. 93-109). Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual atters

Wong Fillmore, L. (1976). "The second time around: Cognitive and social strategies in second language acquisition." Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Stanford University.

Wright, R. (1996). "A study of the acquisition of verbs of motion by grade 4/5 early French immersion students." *The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue des langues vivantes*, 53, 257-280.

Editor's Note: This is a revised version of a plenary paper presented at the 4th European Conference on Immersion Programmes, Carmarthen, Wales, September 1998.

Birgit Harley, is a professor specializing in second language education, in the Department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning, at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto.

Kimiko Teratani-Goto and Mitsume Fukui

K-12 Japanese Language and Cultural Curriculum in North America: An Annotated Bibliography

The main purpose of this bibliography is to provide teachers, administrators and researchers, for not only Japanese but English speakers as well, in North America with the opportunity to further their knowledge about the current curriculum for Japanese language

INTRODUCTION

The continuous growth of the Japanese economic status in the world is influencing other countries in regards to having greater mutual understanding and co-operation with Japan. Japanese language education is moving towards a broader perspective, where education is considered not only in terms of language but also in terms of culture.

Japanese learners, especially in elementary and secondary school institutions, are increasing in numbers. A *Survey Report on Japanese-Language Education Abroad 1993* by the Japanese Foundation shows the following enrolments in North American institutional settings:

Elementary and
Secondary Schools: 37,134

Universities: 20,629

Out-side schools: 9,251

As these statistics clearly show, Japanese is learned the most in elementary and secondary schools. Accordingly, we considered this institutional setting as a legitimate base for examining the program of Japanese language and culture curriculum.

Editorial Principles

We chose relevant articles for this bibliography through the ERIC database and from the Japan Foundation library in Toronto using the perspectives of recentness and utility value. As a result, the articles vary in theme and style. They can be categorized into

- general curriculum/teaching guides,
- teacher certifications,
- benchmarks,
- bibliographies, and
- material resources.

Even though they differ in content, the articles have a common theme which is they are all related to curriculum design or development in North American schools.

The selected articles include 10 from the U.S.: California, Colorado, Indiana, Oregon, Washington, Wisconsin, and 4 from Canada: Alberta, British Columbia, and Saskatchewan. The five states, except for Colorado, are included in the top 6 of a survey recording the number of Japanese learners in pre-collegiate schools in the U.S. (See Chart A). As for Hawaii, which holds the largest number of Japanese language learners, as far as the ERIC database shows, the various textbooks for Japanese language courses were developed in the 1970's (Unfortunately, we were not able to find more up-to-date documents on curriculum development for the Japanese courses in the database). The three

Chart A

States	Number of Learners
1. Hawaii	10,455
2. Washington	5,427
3. California	4,869
4. Oregon	3,835
5. Wisconsin	2,865
6. Indiana	2,708

(*The Breeze: Quarterly Newsletter*, The Japan Foundation Language Center, Sep. 1994-Jan. 1995)

Chart B

Provines	Number of Schools
1. British Columbia	55
2. Alberta	19
3. Ontario	9
4. Saskatchewan	6

(*Survey Report on Japanese-Language Education Abroad 1993*, The Japan Foundation, 1993)

provinces in Canada are listed as in the top 4 in terms of the number of elementary and secondary schools with Japanese language courses (See Chart B).

Bibliography Organization

1. The table is organized in alphabetical order by geographic source.
2. Authors are also listed with the year of publication of their article.
3. Document Type indicates Teaching Guide (TG), Research Paper (RP), Project Description (PD), and/or Bibliography (B).
4. Target Audience indicates Teachers (T), Administrators (A), and/or Researchers (R).

1. Geographic Source	2. Author/ Year of Publication	3. Document Type	4. Target Audience	5. Target Students	6. Language Classification	7. Document Content
U.S.: All States	Walton, A. Ronald (1995)	RP	T, A, R	K-12	FL	Curriculum Development Field Evaluation
All States	Unger, J. Marshall et al. (1993)	TG	T, A	10-12	FL	Curriculum Design/Development Instructional Techniques
California	Ca State Dept. of Education (1987)	TG	T, A	K-12	HL	Curriculum Design/Development Bilingual Education Educational Resources
Colorado	Parisi, Lynn et al. (1993)	TG	T	K-12	FL	Curriculum Enrichment Social Studies Instructional Materials
Indiana	Brooks, Elizabeth (1995)	B	T, R	K-12	FL	Instructional Materials Educational Resources
Indiana	Bliven, Arlene R., Comp. (1991)	TG, PD	T	K-12	FL	Curriculum Development Cultural Education
Oregon	The Oregon State (1996)	TG	T, R	10-12	FL	Benchmarks
Oregon	Tamura, Linda et al. (1989)	PD	T, A	7-12	FL	Teacher Certification
Washington	Birkland, Leslie, Okada (1994)	TG	T, A	10-12	FL	Curriculum Design Teacher Eduation
Wisconsin	Sandrock, Paul and Yoshiki, Hisako (1995)	TG	T	K-12	FL	Curriculum Development Cultural Education Instructional Materials Educational Resources
Canada: All Provinces (B.C.)	Fukawa, Masako (1995)	RP, PD	T, A	K-12	FL, HL	Curriculum Development
Alberta	Saegusa, Sachiko (1994)	RP	T, A, R	10-12	FL, HL	Curriculum Design Student Assessment
British Columbia	B.C. Ministry of Education (1992)	TG	T, A	9-12	FL	Curriculum Design/Development
Saskatchewan	Itoh, Kohei et al. (1994)	PD	T, A, R	10-12	FL	Curriculum Development Instructional Materials

5. Target Students are specified further between elementary and secondary grades (K-12).
6. Language Classification indicates Foreign Language (FL) and/or Heritage Language (HL).
7. Document Content indicates Curriculum Design/Development, Curriculum Enrichment, Cultural Education, Field Evaluation, Instructional Techniques, Bilingual Education, Social Studies, Benchmarks, Teacher Certification, Instructional Materials, Educational Resources, and Student Assessment.

Walton, A. Ronald. (1995). "Japanese-Language Instruction in the United States; Perspective Issues, and Future Challenges". *Current Report on Japanese-Language Education around the Globe,* Vol. 3. The Japan Foundation Japanese Language Institute: Urawa, Japan. 15 pp.

The Japanese language is in "Category 4 languages" according to a classification by The United States Foreign Service Institute, which means, it is one of the most difficult languages for native English speakers to learn. Walton in his report describes the broad context of Japanese language instruction in the American K-12 sector. He also discusses how the teaching of non-European languages such as Japanese are faring and steps that could be considered for future improvement.

Walton introduces the "Language Field Architecture Model" which is used for assessing the strength of a language field, for improving a language field and for a language field's development. The model is comprised of Instructional Programs, an Infrastructure, and a Base Structure. An assessment characterization of the current K-12 LCTL (the Less Commonly Taught Languages) Program using this model is: the Language Programs are lacking teachers' job security, teaching materials, curriculum design and formal teacher education; the Infrastructure is lacking research tradition, strong expertise transmission, teacher trainers, standards and certification; and the Base Structure is lacking language-learning frameworks and field-wide strategic planning.

Possible Future Strategies for enhancing LCTL Instruction include: creating graduate level programs in related fields such as Linguistics, Applied Linguistics and Sociolinguistics, Second Language Acquisition, and Anthropology; developing a special M.A. program for educating qualified professional language teachers; developing learning frameworks; and investing energy and resources in existing LCTL teacher organizations or creating new organizations.

Unger, J. Marshall et al. (1993). *A Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Curricula in American High Schools and Colleges.* Johns Hopkins University, Washington, DC. National Foreign Language Center. 87pp.

This framework is intended to provide general guidance in the design of curricula for teaching introductory Japanese to English-speaking students at the high school and college levels. It is not a course syllabus or statement of specific instructional outcomes. It has three purposes: (1) to assist Japanese language teachers in planning curricula for their individual programs and teaching; (2) to inform administrators about possible program formats; and (3) to advise parents and students, through administrators, of reasonable expectations for high school Japanese programs.

An introductory section provides background information, explains romanization conventions and key terminology, and outlines ten basic assumptions underlying the curriculum framework. Some of these assumptions are: speech is primary; a foreign language is not a translation of one's native language; misinformation is counterproductive; the rift between the styles of spoken and written Japanese is extraordinarily large; instruction is best focused on the learner; and the target culture is delivered through the base culture.

The framework itself is presented in four chapters, each targeting a different concern for teaching Japanese in the United States: Chapter 1 addresses Goals and Evaluation; Chapter 2 gives information about Presentation and Sequencing of Instruction; Chapter 3 concentrates on The Writing System; and Chapter 4 addresses Activities in the classroom for helping students achieve communicative competence. A concluding section summarizes key points of the framework of particular importance to administrators. A brief bibliography and index are also included.

California State Dept. of Education, Sacramento. Bilingual Education Office. (1987). *Handbook for Teaching Japanese-Speaking Students.* 135 pp.

This handbook for teachers, administrators and other instructional personnel in California targets students (elementary and secondary) who are Japanese speakers with limited English proficiency. The document discusses the benefit of bilingualism from the perspectives of a Japanese language program in community and in school settings. Japanese schools can be categorized into two types: for American-born Japanese and for Japanese nationals, who are temporarily residing in the U.S.

The handbook points out that private Japanese schools in the community and expectations of parents on children are not enough to ensure maintenance of the Japanese language. Therefore the public school is expected to play a vital role in supporting the students in becoming bilingual. Instructional and curricular strategies for Japanese language development are recommended in the handbook.

According to the handbook, five readiness skills, 1) visual skills, 2) sensorimotor skills, 3) oral language skills, 4) conceptual skills, and 5) motivation for reading and writing, are required before

reading and writing in Japanese begins. Reading skills can be divided into four categories: readiness, decoding, comprehension and critical reading. The discussion of school readiness by teachers and administrators is also included. For example, there is the possibility of using different approaches within the school depending on the concentrations of Japanese students, and the school might look to other language instruction provided in the community in order to utilize it for the development of a Japanese reading instructional program.

Methods of teaching reading and writing in Japanese, using oral English instruction, are also introduced. In school situations there are four ways for language minority students to be exposed to English: 1)submersion classes, 2) grammar-based English as a Second Language (ESL), 3) communication based ESL, and 4) sheltered-English classes. Four choices in organizing a reading program in bilingual contexts are described; using Japanese followed by English, using Japanese and English simultaneously, using English followed by Japanese and using English only.

Parisi, Lynn *et al.* (1993). *Japan in the Classroom: Elementary and Secondary Activities,* Revised Edition. Social Science Educational Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo. 220 pp.

The first edition of this book was formed from the product of a one-year cultural study and curriculum development project in 1987. The objective of the project was to offer students an opportunity to obtain knowledge of the social organization, and the historical and economic development of Japan. This would help them further understand the cultural and economic relationships between themselves, their communities and Japan. The original document was revised due to the continuous change of the relationship between the U.S. and Japan.

This book is organized into three sections. Section I, Society and Culture, lists 11 activities relating to cross-cultural perspectives. Section II, Japanese Language, Literature, and Art, contains 9 activities focusing on various ways of expression, such as poetry, literature and origami, in Japanese. Finally Section III, Japan and the World, provides 6 activities on Japanese economic and geographical relations. Each activity is structured, starting with a brief description of the activity followed by a list of objectives, grade levels, an appropriate time required to do the activity, and a list of materials needed to implement the activity. Procedures for the implementation are listed step-by-step. Teacher background information and black-line masters provide additional support for the procedures. Follow-up activities and handouts are also included for each activity.

Brooks, Elizabeth. (1995). *Guide to Teaching Materials on Japan. Revised edition of the 1994 Database of Teaching Materials on Japan.* ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Bloomington, IN.: National Clearinghouse for United States-Japan Studies, Bloomington, IN. 71 pp.

This booklet contains annotated bibliographies and the printed version of an on-line database of teaching materials on Japan. The database is available through the Internet in two ways: (1) go to Gopher or Telnet at "ericir.syr.edu.", then choose "Clearinghouses", then "Adjuncts", "National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies" and "K-12 Teaching Materials on Japan", or (2) on the World Wide Web, go to the Clearinghouse home page at "http://www.indiana.edu/~japan.", choose "Other Online Resources" and then "K-12 Teaching Materials on Japan".

The book is divided into four parts. Each part contains bibliographic information on resources for teaching about Japan at specific grade levels: Elementary, Secondary, and K-12. The subject areas introduced in each level are: Art Education; Geography; Global Education; Japanese Language; Language Arts; Social Studies; Economics; and World History. In each subject area, some teaching materials are introduced.

The Clearinghouse collects, analyzes abstracts, and sustains a database of materials and resources. It can assist school systems and individual teachers in developing and implementing curricula and lessons on broad areas of Japanese culture and society, and on U.S.-Japan relationships.

Bliven, Arlene R., Comp. (1991) *Learning and Teaching about Japan in Indiana Schools. Program and Resource Guide.* Earlham College, Richmond, IN. Institution for Education on Japan.; Indiana State Dept. of Education, Indianapolis. 381 pp.

The Learning and Teaching about Japan Project began in 1987. It was designed and administrated by Earlham College, and funded by the state. Since then, it has developed 16 school corporations in an ongoing program to internationalize the K-12 curriculum and implement Japanese language programs in the schools. This Program and Resource Guide has been developed as a record of activities conducted by the 16 participating school corporations. It is a comprehensive report that any school corporation can use to plan changes of its own in order to incorporate a global perspective across subject areas. It contains information about the project, in the areas of teaching, curriculum and outreach. Descriptions of each school corporation and their Japanese language programs as well as curriculum product are included.

Profiles of participating school corporations include the background situations supporting the program, e.g., some communities were influenced directly and indirectly by the Japanese economy (unemployment rates increased in the automobile industry paritally because of Japanese competition; there were also anti-Japanese feelings, but a great deal of support for Japanese products.) Each cor-

poration had its own goals for the project and for the international education curriculum within the K-12 range.

The information also includes: requirements that Indiana teachers must meet in order to teach the Japanese language; Japanese and Chinese Intensive Language Workshops that are offered at Ball State University; a list of the Indiana high schools that offer Japanese and Chinese language programs; cultural exchange programs and documents to assist with the exchange of students and educators.

The Oregon State System of Higher Education, Japanese Language Project. (1996). *The Oregon Japanese language proficiency package.* (Draft). The Oregon State.

This document is comprised of "Japanese Benchmarks for the State of Oregon," a statement of the minimum expectations that a student should achieve with the language, and "The Oregon Japanese Curriculum," an outline of what needs to be presented in the classroom in order to help students reach these performance levels.

In its six levels, Benchmark VI is the entrance standard for public universities in Oregon (PASS), and Benchmark IV is a reasonable but tough standard for a Certificate of Initial Mastery (CIM). Students achieving Benchmark IV by the end of 10th grade are on track to reach Benchmark VI by the 12th grade. It establishes a smooth path from introduction through college entrance-level proficiency. These benchmarks articulate what students can do in a face-to-face interview with a stranger. It also allows teachers to articulate instruction at all levels and it presents parents and students with a clear, unified set of expectations. It is based on standards established by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), and is tied to proficiency levels approved by the Oregon State Board of Education (K-12) and the State Board of Higher Education. The content is divided into Oral sections and Reading and Writing sections.

The Oregon Japanese Curriculum is a blueprint for organizing many hours of practice. It is based on five basic principles, which teachers should bear in mind while planning, and it is organized around themes, topics, and functions. It consists of a "table of contents", a "curriculum matrix", and "definitions of functions".

Tamura, Linda *et al.* (1989). Designing Oregon's Certification Program for Japanese: The University, School Districts, and Community Working Together. The Oregon State. 10 pp.

This is a description of a program to prepare Japanese language teachers for Oregon state certification. The project was designed through the collaboration of three integral groups: departments within the University, school districts, and members of the Japanese and business community. The program was designed to meet the growing demand for Japanese language teachers, and it inspired the development of model curricula, teaching resources, as well as innovative events for teachers and students.

In 1988, Japanese was the fourth most enrolled foreign language in Oregon schools; however, school administrators experienced difficulty hiring qualified teachers. At Pacific University, where more than half of the enrolled students were Japanese and because it was situated in an area intensely impacted by the Pacific Rim with its numerous Japanese electronics companies, the University developed the Asian Languages Project to solve common problems. After a two-year extensive program approval process, involving the University, the state and the educational consortium, Pacific's Japanese teaching program for state certification was approved in 1988.

The program includes Pacific University's Japanese language proficiency endorsement, an immersion overseas study program in Japan, adjustment of native speakers of Japanese as certified teachers, and an immersion Japanese Day at high schools. Also included are seminars and workshops which can be counted as units of graduate credits, a pilot program for teaching Japanese in the elementary school, and the development of the Pacific Intercultural Institute, a materials center funded by Matsushita Electric Corporation.

Leslie Okada Birkland. (1995). "On the Communicative Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Curricula in Washington State High School". *Current Report on Japanese-Language Education around the Globe.* Vol. 3. The Japan Foundation Japanese Language Institute: Urawa, Japan. 14 pp.

This document is a framework of a three-year program for Japanese language teachers of high school levels in Washington State. It addresses reasonable goals and standards of instruction acceptable to both teachers and administrators. The teachers may use this framework for improving and developing their language programs within their classes.

This document consists of two parts: 1) a Framework and 2) Inventories. In Part I, the Fundamental Philosophy and Objectives of the document are addressed. The document is based on 5 basic assumptions and principles which emphasize the importance of communicative competence in cultural context. Linguistic Specifications, Written Language, and Classroom implementation then follow the assumptions and principles. In Part II, Topic Areas, Core Patterns and Phrases, Communicative Skills and Concepts with regards to the Linguistic Specifications are clarified. Birkland addresses the written language; that is, writing and reading as secondary to speaking and listening. Although the document suggests learners do not write text in Roman script, it leaves the decision to the teachers

for choosing which script, either Hiragana or Katakana, to introduce first. The choice of kanji is also left up to the teacher and the specific goals of the local curricula. The consideration of a variety of approaches is suggested, but the communicative approach is recommended as the main philosophy for classroom implementation. The expected outcomes of an acquisition of communicative skills and a basic understanding of the culture of communication in Japan are results of the successful implementation of the framework.

Sandrock, Paul and Yoshiki, Hisako. (1995). *Japanese for Communication: A Teacher's Guide. Bulletin No. 96186*. Wisconsin State Dept. of Public Instruction, Madison. 180 pp.

The guide was developed in order to teach Japanese as a foreign language outside Japan as opposed to a second language taught in Japan. Due to the increasing growth in the enrollment of Japanese students in Wisconsin schools, a cohesive framework and common goals in Japanese Language Instruction was needed. The guide is composed of three sections: the Rationale, Teaching Themes and Resources.

The curriculum is developed first by defining students' outcomes based on the language in use. From here sample expressions of student responses are given, and finally the inherent linguistic structures are identified. There are four developmental language levels: Beginning, Transitional, Intermediate and Advanced. These levels are based on the principle that the language and context are reintroduced and practised in new and more in-depth ways across language levels. Since the curriculum is designed to support various program models, the four levels can be adapted to K-12, 6-12 or 9-12 programs. This will enable students to start the study of Japanese at various points in the school program. This curriculum also covers the issue of transition from the K-12 program to a university program.

The curriculum identifies twelve instructional themes for organizing instruction and providing a context for instruction. Outcomes are defined in detail for each of these themes from the transitional to the advanced levels. The definition of the outcomes is based on the meaningful use of the target language in realistic and authentic situations. These outcomes are clarified by suggested assessment activities which emphasize giving students a sense of what is valued in language learning. In order to make the generic outcomes meaningful, the specific context is described as an instrument of embedding language function in a cultural and situational context. Sample expressions of students which represent authentic use of the language in the contextualized situation are given in order to achieve the outcomes and to carry out the assessment activities. Then, the linguistic structures in these expressions are introduced. Here teaching the structures not in isolation or at a single point in the curriculum but throughout the curriculum is re-stressed.

Fukawa, Masako. (1995). "Foreign Language Education Policy and Japanese". *Current Report on Japanese-Language Education around the Globe*, Vol. 3. The Japan Foundation Japanese Language Institute: Urawa, Japan. 11 pp.

Fukawa mentions a history of Canadian government policies in relation to Japanese language education. She traces the nation's history from racism and integration processes in the 1960s, through the 70s bilingualism and biculturism which stemmed from Francophone pressure, to the 80s Multiculturalism which was in response to the racial and ethnic minorities desiring personal identities based on their cultural and linguistic heritage.

Now, heritage language programs are offered outside the regular school system, mostly organized and supported by community groups. International languages, i.e., foreign languages or second languages, are offered in the public school system. The B.C. Ministry of Education has led Canada in the teaching of Japanese as an international language and has the highest number of Japanese language students. Because of its economic and geographic position, the government of B.C. launched the Pacific Rim Education Initiatives in 1987. Since then, enrollment has been increasing despite the shortage of qualified teachers. In 1994, Japanese was the third largest in enrollment (1.3%) preceded by French (16.4%) and ESL (9.9%) programs. From 1995, Japanese and Mandarin Chinese are provincially approved curricula, and have provincial exams at the end of three years of study.

The new Language Education Policy presented in 1994 provides a comprehensive vision of language education for the K-12 students, given that in some districts over half the students do not come from English-speaking homes. The policy recognizes that language education is an important tool for the intellectual development of the students. From 1995, it has been compulsory to take a second language, whether it is French or any other language preferred by the community, for four years in grades 5-8. Beginning in 1995, languages learned outside the formal school setting or in another country can be given high school credit at the grade 11 and 12 levels.

Fukawa adds some descriptions about B.C.'s Japanese Language Programs. Having been promoted and supported by the provincial government, the Ministry of Education provides grants to school districts. It has developed curriculum guides and resource materials. It has also enabled teachers to develop their language proficiency and teaching methodology, e.g., bilingual summer schools and three-month language and culture immersion in

Japan. However, she also includes areas of concern, such as the shortage of qualified teachers/resources, the need for teachers' language skills, and the need for standards of achievement and proficiency.

Saegusa, Sachiko. (1994). "Canada Alberta-shu ni okeru Nihongo Kyoiku ni kansuru Hokoku". *Current Report on Japanese Language Education around the Globe.* Vol. 3. The Japan Foundation Japanese Language Institute: Urawa, Japan. 11 pp.

This document reports on the current trend of Japanese language education in Alberta, specifically the program, Japanese Language and Culture 10-20-30 (10 applies to grade 10, 20 to grade 11 and 30 to grade 12). The reason for the development of a Japanese language program in Alberta is also explained through a description of the historical background of the relationship between Japan and Alberta. It is followed by a report on the current situation of the program.

The curriculum of the program has five main features: it is content-based, it uses an integrated approach, it is outcome-based, it is a continuous program and it focuses on the effective use of the language for interaction. Content-based curriculum is based on the communicative approach. It aims at encouraging students to acquire knowledge about Japan, its culture and its people through the learning of the language. The integrated approach focuses on fusing and facilitating communication skills, sociocultural comprehension, Japanese language skills and general learning ability all at the same time. According to the principle that ability progresses at on-going and serial bases, the importance of a continuous program is pointed out as well. The last feature consists of two parts: effective usage of the language and the understanding of its principles.

The Alberta Ministry of Education identified four sections to be included in the curriculum: 1) idea and philosophy of the program, 2) general learner expectations, 3) criteria of the curriculum, and 4) fundamental learning materials. Five stages of development are designated in the general learner expectations. Stage 3 is considered as the basic standard for graduation. Stage 4 and stage 5 are for those students whose home language is Japanese or who have had experience living in Japan long enough to proceed quickly. Each of the five stages has five levels which outline the specific learner expectations. The learner expectations are defined from the viewpoints of knowledge, skills and attitudes. The first viewpoint is divided into knowledge of the language, of the culture, and of the concepts developed through the study of cultural facts. The second viewpoint is categorized into linguistic, sociocultural, and cognitive skills. The third, attitudes, relates to specific topics that are designated at each level. Program implementation and assessments are included as well. (For additional information, see also the article *Japanese Language and Culture 10-20-30* available at Alberta Education, Devonian Building, West Tower, 11160 Jasper Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, T5K 0L2).

The Ministry of Education, Province of British Columbia. (1992). *Japanese: Intermediate Program (First Four Years) Curriculum Guide.* Victoria, B.C. 45 pp.

This Curriculum Guide provides a systematic set of goals, objectives and learning outcomes for the teaching of Japanese to British Columbia students in the Intermediate 1 to 4 Program. This guide describes in detail the goals, objectives, and learning outcomes and lists what is needed for gaining general communicative competence in Japanese.
Four interrelated spheres stated are:

- Attitudinal
- Cultural
- Developmental
- and Linguistic.

Each sphere is explained in a closely related manner to Canadian context, e.g., Attitudinal objectives list that the student should begin to develop an appreciation of the value of other nations, other nationalities and multiculturalism, and of their own heritage. They should also develop a national identity and an appreciation of the unity of human experience in different cultures. *Cultural Goals* are to enable students to develop knowledge of the beliefs, behaviors and values of Japanese-speaking people and to gain an awareness of the diversity of the global community.

Another feature of this guide is the setting of *Developmental Goals.* The developmental learning outcomes devoted to managing learning are generic. They relate to all areas of learning and are placed there as a reminder to language teachers of the unity of learning in all subject areas. The program will enable students to develop their thinking skills, and their ability to manage their own learning.

Finally *Linguistic Goals* enable students to develop an ability to communicate in basic Japanese, and *Sequence* is shown by the themes and functions. Profiles for each level are shown as a list of functions with sample words/phrases and sentences in selected themes. As well, linguistic reading and writing learning outcomes for each level are included.

Itoh, Kohei *et al.* (1994). "Curriculum outline of Japanese courses at the collegiate level in Saskatchewan." *Canadian Modern Language Review;* v. 50 no. 3. 25 pp.

Japanese credit courses for non-Japanese speakers at the high school level in Saskatchewan have been offered since 1992. The "Proposed Saskatchewan Curriculum Guide for Japanese 10, 20 and 30", which was approved by the Saskatchewan Board of Education in 1991, was used as a one-year pilot project for the credit courses. The curriculum was evaluated and its re-

fined version is presented in this document.

Three levels are defined in the curriculum: Japanese 10-20-30, refers to grades 10-11-12 respectively. Goals, objectives, basic sentences, and situations are described at each level. Objectives are addressed in terms of speaking, listening comprehension, reading, writing and cultural understanding. Basic sentences are chosen from grammatical points of view which will enable students to assimilate and apply basic patterns in speaking, listening, reading and writing. Further, situations are selected according to their authenticity in real life.

Itoh presents discussions and remarks which were raised during the process of modification of the curriculum. The discussions centered around the areas of reading and writing referring to the issue of Hiragana or Romaji use, and Kanji. Remarks were made on the importance of the usage of cassette tapes and oral tests in order to improve students' listening and speaking skills. The importance of understanding culture is pointed out as well.

SUMMARY

In the field of Japanese language education, student enrollment in North American schools began to increase in the early 1980s paralleling the economic growth of Japan and other Asian countries. It encountered a shortage of qualified teachers and teaching materials in Canada and the United States. As well, it met a lack of relevant standards, regarding what and how to teach Japanese and Japanese culture: this made curriculum articulation difficult between secondary schools and universities.

We have chosen a variety of documents which provide a broad view and up-to-date information about Japanese language and cultural education. The articles mainly discuss how the Japanese language is or should be taught in specific geographic areas and situations. The selected articles provide teachers with both theoretical and practical reinforcement in implementing teaching Japanese language programs in Kindergarten, Elementary and Secondary schools, as well as settings outside of regular schools.

Some of the articles describe in detail how Japanese programs emerged and flourished in certain areas of North America, and how they have attempted to solve the above-mentioned problems. The west coast, particularly the Pacific Rim, such as Oregon (see Tamura (1989)) and B.C. (see Fukawa (1994)), is the strongest leader in this field. The American mid-west, e.g., Indiana (see Bliven (1991)) and Wisconsin (see Sandrock and Yoshiki (1995)), and the Canadian prairies, Alberta (see Saegusa (1994)) and Saskatchewan (see Itoh et al. (1994)), are the next strongest areas. The common factor in all these areas is that they teach Japanese language at a pre-college level in order to make their students aware of Asian cultures and to make the students internationally qualified.

Japanese language education in Canada is closely related to the nation's politics, i.e., "multiculturalism", under which the idea of Japanese as a heritage language is integrated in the regular school curriculum (see Fukawa (1994), Saegusa (1994)). Among all provinces in Canada, Ontario maintains the highest number of heritage language learners. In Ontario, research in this field is becoming more popular and material/curriculum development is being paid further attention. As for Japanese education as a heritage language, there is a book called *Japanese as a Heritage Language: The Canadian Experience* (1997: The Canadian Association for Japanese Language Education), edited by Kazuko Nakajima and Michiko Suzuki, developed in Ontario. It provides the latest information in this area covering the situation in other provinces as well.

Japanese as a heritage language in the U.S. is treated rather as bilingual education (see California State Dept. of Education, 1987), which follows the curriculum for teaching Japanese endorsed by the government of Japan. There are several Japanese immersion programs in North America as well. This is a new area and its curriculum development began to be discussed more, in recent years.

Looking at further ideas presented in the articles, we see Unger et al. (1993) give general guidance in designing curricula for teaching introductory Japanese specifically to English-speaking students. Oregon State (1996), Sandrock and Yoshiki (1995), Birkland (1994), and the B.C. Ministry of Education (1992) offer their standards and frameworks in detail. They contain both what is to be achieved by the students and what is to be presented by the teachers with some indications of sequence, based on the levels of the students' achievements. Each level is organized around themes or topics, functions or concepts, and linguistic or communicative competence. They also include standards for when to teach, by specifying grade levels. Canadian curriculum guides (see B.C. Ministry of Education (1992), Saegusa (1994)) are unique in terms of emphasizing the idea that thinking skills are interrelated to language and content; thus, they integrate language learning and general learning, including both the concept and content of other subject areas.

Strategies for practical teaching and planning techniques are also discussed. Walton (1994) presents overall strategies to develop Japa-

nese education, which is a Less Commonly Taught Language in the U.S. Unger et al. (1993) indicate strategies for the presentation and sequencing of linguistic elements. Parisi et al. (1993) present practical content and techniques used when cultural aspects are specifically targeted. The California State Department of Education (1987) concentrates on techniques used when Japanese and English are taught in a bilingual setting.

Many of the assumptions described for teaching Japanese are common to several articles: language is for communication; speech is primary in language development; authentic language use is important in context, as is cultural context; language is a life-long learning process (see Unger et al. (1993), Birkland (1994), Oregon State (1996), Sandrock and Yoshiki (1995)). However, there are different views on using Romanized Japanese script; Unger et al. (1993) insist on the use of Romaji as a pedagogical transcription in the initial stage of learning, while Birkland (1994) states that the reading of Roman script is not realistic and should be avoided. Other articles take neutral positions entrusting an individual teacher's judgment in each specific situation.

Reading through these articles reveals that successful Japanese language K-12 programs are supported by three components: the education organization, the local community and the local educational board (see Bliven (1991), Tamura (1989)). Universities are at the center of their educational organization. Walton's report (1994) supports the importance of the development of academic expertise to improve the language field. We realize that it takes a great amount of time and energy to create curricula in this field. The research in this field is still on-going and is expected to provide better curricula throughout North America as time goes on.

Kimiko Teratani-Goto taught Japanese as a second language at several universities in the United States and Canada. Her current research interests are second-language acquisition and instruction, and professional teacher development.

Mitsume Fukui completed an M.Ed. in second-language education at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. Her research interests are learner's attitudes in second-language learning and second-language attrition / retention.

Walter Rankin

Achieving the National Standards in Foreign Language Education through Project-Driven Instruction

The project-driven classroom elaborates upon the conventional role-play, implementing the instructional goals of the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, while presenting possible solutions to the issue of listening comprehension (LC) anxiety.

INTRODUCTION

The 1996 National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project focuses alliteratively on five primary concerns of foreign language (FL) instruction:

- communication
- comparisons
- cultures
- connections
- and communities.

Methodologies of FL instruction have been labeled as communicative during the past few years with a gradual shift to context and content-based teaching (Omaggio Hadley 1993; Snow, Met, and Genesee 1989). The proposed project-driven FL classroom expands the focus and goals of the conventional role-play and provides instructors and students with innovative means of addressing each of the instructional goals listed in the National Standards.

Additionally, the projects suggested in this article address the issue of listening comprehension (LC) anxiety, which is not often taken into account in FL instruction. As Vogely notes, LC anxiety has generally been ignored as FL instructors have focused increasingly upon speaking. Yet, listening and speaking exercises are closely connected: "LC anxiety can undermine speech production because, in order to interact verbally, the listener must first understand what is being said" (Vogely 1998, 68). Studies indicate that LC anxiety is increased when students are presented with non-contextualized tasks and that a variety of structured tasks should be used to alleviate this anxiety (Scarcella and Oxford 1992).

THE PROJECT-DRIVEN CLASSROOM

Omaggio Hadley asserts that role-plays can be used at nearly any proficiency level with vocabulary hints offered as needed (260). The project-driven classroom builds upon the traditional role-play by integrating audio-visual technology and authentic texts. Where role-plays are often used secondarily as an instructional tool to build and test proficiency, the project-driven classroom makes them a cultural and contextual centerpiece. Instruction is organized around regularly scheduled group projects designed with specific tasks so that the students are able to meet the five criteria posed by the National Standards:

1. Communication:
   Present information and ideas in the target language to an audience on a variety of topics
2. Cultures:
   Demonstrate an understanding of the products and perspectives of the culture they are studying
3. Connections:
   Reinforce and express knowledge of other disciplines through the target language
4. Comparisons:
   Demonstrate understanding of the culture by comparing it to the native culture
5. Communities:
   Encourage students to become life-long learners

The following projects were used in intermediate (second-year) and advanced (third-year) German classes, but each could be implemented in other language courses (particularly Spanish-language classes which have the advantage of easily accessible authentic materials from several Spanish-language channels like Telemundo and Univision) at the intermediate level and above. Each project focuses on cooperative and collaborative learning which, in contrast to individualistic classroom structures, fosters a less competitive atmosphere while improving student attitudes and motivation (Dörnyei 1997). The projects themselves can be organized by the instructor to emphasize cooperative learning with highly prescriptive activities or collaborative learning with fewer prescriptive activities and more creative freedom allowed to

the students (Oxford 1997). Each project consists of an authentic video presented to the class in the target language; an outline for the structure of the project and concepts (cultural and grammatical) and vocabulary to be learned by the students; the presentation and videotaping of the project; the self-evaluation of the finished product; and the viewing/peer critiquing of the videotaped project. The amount of time allotted to the presentation of each project depends largely upon class-size and class-time. The projects of each group can be presented all on one day or throughout the course of a week as a regular ten-to-twenty minute segment of the class.

Listening anxiety is addressed directly in the viewing/peer critiquing of the videos. Students watch the initial "live" performance without any additional aids, getting vocabulary meaning from the context. In repeat-viewing on video, students fill out a peer evaluation form designed by the instructor. This handout should address culture, grammar, and vocabulary (see Appendix A: Sample Student Evaluation Sheet from Advanced German I). While watching the video performance, students should note cultural information gained or any questions they have about the presentation. They can note recurrent grammatical errors and vocabulary which they did not understand within the project's context. Performing this close listening exercise, students will also likely notice that fluent speakers are not always accurate, and accurate speakers are not always particularly fluent.

The Newscast

This project presents a number of opportunities and roles for students to portray. As a warm-up activity, the class is asked what information they get from news broadcasts. They can be asked what segments of the news (weather, sports, politics, world news, entertainment) most interest/bore them and why. Next, the class is shown a representative newscast from the target culture and in the target language. The class is then asked to determine the structure of a newscast and to critique it for content. Finally the class is organized into small groups (three to five students) and given guidelines and vocabulary hints to prepare their own newscast with each student anchoring a different segment. The students are encouraged to use props (weather maps, pictures of newsworthy figures) in their presentations.

This project emphasizes each of the goals set forth in the National Standards. In particular, students communicate cultural information on a variety of topics to their audience and make connections through other disciplines (politics, economics, and so on, depending on the "news" written by the students).

The Music Video

This project provides a change of pace for the typical FL class. An appropriate warm-up exercise would involve asking students to describe their (least) favourite type of music and their favourite musical group. Ask if anyone has any musical abilities or aspirations. As with the first project, a sample video can then be shown in the target language, and the students can be asked to criticize it. The class can then be broken up into individual "musical groups" and be given guidelines to design their own video. A list of possible songs should be handed out (although suggestions for alternative songs in the target language should be welcomed). Students can choose to lip-sync the song they choose, but they should also be able to explain any vocabulary – particularly idioms – used in the song. Again, students should be encouraged to use props (wigs, microphones, etc. One group used dry ice for a smoke-like effect).

This project emphasizes the students' understanding of cultural information and encourages students to make comparisons between their own culture and the target culture.

The Talk Show

As a warm-up exercise, students can be asked their opinion concerning popular talk show hosts and typical talk show topics. How do late-night talk shows differ from daytime talk shows? Students are then shown a typical talk show in the target language. Although popular hosts like David Letterman and Oprah Winfrey have been translated into most languages, talk shows likely abound in the target language as well. (Popular German talk show hosts include Sabine Christiansen addressing Oprah-like topics, Hans Meiser centering on more hard-hitting interviews, and Harold Schmidt, hosting a risqué late-night comedy). After viewing the talk show segment, students should be encouraged to compare its content and set-up with talk shows from their native culture. They can also visit a variety of Web-sites centering on talk shows and individual hosts (See Appendix B: German Language Web Sites for example sites, particularly Talkshows im Fernsehen which lists several talk shows and their topics). Students should then be broken into larger groups with one student acting as the host/moderator and others portraying guests. This project involves larger groups and allows the students not presenting to be a part of a "studio audience" which can ask spontaneous ques-

tions and give more dimension to this extended role play.

This project focuses on getting students to understand and compare cultural communities. Depending on the topic presented by the students, this project can also encourage interdisciplinary connections (psychology, sociology, economics, science) as students present information in the target language.

The Soap Opera

Once again, the channels Telemundo and Univision can provide a wealth of video sources for Spanish-language instructors focusing on this project. Have students discuss the genre of the soap opera. Are continuing dramas like The X-Files, Baywatch, and NYPD Blue soap operas? How do they differ from The Young and the Restless, Melrose Place and Dawson's Creek? How realistic is the portrayal of the native culture on a soap opera? Students can be encouraged to seek out Web-sites for their favorite soap operas in the target language (See Appendix B for Melrose Place, NYPD Blue, and The X-Files). Next, show students an authentic soap opera from the target culture and have them compare it to ones in the native culture. How accurate do they believe its portrayal is of the people? Finally, have students create or satirize a soap opera on their own. What segment(s) of society do they want to show and why?

This project presents a relaxed alternative to more serious projects, but it nevertheless emphasizes strong comparisons of cultural communities.

The Movie Review

Warm-up by asking students what films they have recently seen. Find out if they have seen any films in the L2 and what they thought of those films. Then hand out a movie review of a popular film which has been dubbed into the L2 (reviews of ET: The Extraterrestrial, Star Wars, Jurassic Park and Titanic should be readily available) and discuss the structure of the review. Discuss the role of one's culture when reviewing a film. Next, hand out a prepared list of movies suitable to the abilities of the class (at lower levels, subtitled films could be considered). Students can then be paired to watch and critique a film on their own outside of class. They should write their own reviews and then host a review show for the class in which they discuss their reactions to the film.

The movie review project encourages students to analyze their own culture from the point-of-view of the target culture; they make comparisons and connections which help them understand the nature of communities.

Conclusion

The project-driven classroom integrates authentic language materials with cooperative and collaborative teaching techniques. The group projects discussed in this article encourage students to use the target language in order to achieve each of the five goals set forth in the National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project. Additionally, students are given clearly designed tasks to lower listening comprehension anxiety while improving their oral proficiency skills.

Appendix A:

Sample Student Evaluation Sheet from Advanced German I:

I. Kultur

1. Was haben Sie über die Deutschen und Deutschland gelernt?
2. Was wurde vielleicht stereotypisch dargestellt?
3. Vergleichen Sie die dargestellte deutsche Kultur mit Ihrer Kultur! Was ist anders? Was ist ähnlich?

II. Grammatik: Was für Fehler haben Sie gemerkt?

1. Verben (Perfekt, Imperfekt, Partizipien, Konjunktiv, usw.)
2. Wortstellung (und Konjunktionen)
3. Kasus (Nominativ, Akkusativ, Dativ, Genitiv, usw.)

III. Neue Wörter im Kontext

1. Welche Wörter haben Sie mit Hilfe des Kontexts verstanden?
2. Welche Wörter haben Sie vielleicht nicht verstanden? Raten Sie! Ihrer Meinung nach, was könnten solche Wörter bedeuten?

Appendix B: German Language Web Sites

Talkshows im Fernsehen
www.flensburg-online.de/redaktion100elf/talkshows/talkshows.html

Sabine Christiansen
www.gymmedia.com/ard_stellung.htm
www.tvmovie.de/aktuelles_heft/0198/gespraech/sabine

Hans Meiser
subway-net.de/magazin/1997/02hansme.htm
www.tvmovie.de/aktuelles_heft/themas/gespraech/hans_meiser.html

Melrose Place
members.aol.com/cmller1969/index.htm

NYPD Blue
alf.zfn.uni-bremen.de/~taechl/nypdepse.htm

The X-Files
www-discount.de/akte-x/univers/x-akten.htm
biwidus.ch/text/to6/0694.html

REFERENCES

Baker, R. (1992). *A Report on the Effectiveness and Potential of an Interactive Video Teaching Trial.* University of Central Queensland, April. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 359 931.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. (1997). "Psychological Processes in Cooperative Language Learning: Group Dynamics and Motivation." *Modern Language Journal*, 81: 482-493.

Julkunen, K. (1989). *Situation- and Task-specific Motivation in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching.* Joensuu, Finland: University of Joensuu.

Long, M. H. and P. A. Porter. (1985). "Group Work, Inter-Language Talk, and Second Language Acquisition." *TESOL Quarterly*, 19: 207-228.

Omaggio Hadley, Alice. (1993). Teaching Language in Context. Second Edition. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Oxford, Rebecca. (1997). "Cooperative Learning, Collaborative Learning, and Interaction: Three Communicative Strands in the Classroom." *Modern Language Journal*, 81: 443-456.

Snow, Margarite An, Myriam Met, and Fred Genesee. (1989). "A Conceptual Framework for the Integration of Language and Content in Second/Foreign Language Instruction." *TESOL Quarterly*, 23: 201-17.

U.S. Department of Education and the National Endowment for the Humanities. (1996) *Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century*. Lawrence, KS: Allen Press, Inc.

Vogely, Anita Jones. (1998). "Listening Comprehension Anxiety: Students' Reported Sources and Solutions." *Foreign Language Annals*, 31: 67-80.

Walter Rankin is Assistant Dean for Student Academic Affairs and instructor of German and comparative literatures at George Mason University, Fairfax, VA.