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Copernicus Effect or Strange Duet? An Experiment: Global Education in Grammar Classes in an Exam Oriented High School

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Introduction

In the beginning of the 15th century, Nicholas Copernicus presented his revolutionary theory of a heliocentric system. 0vertime, this theory completely changed the concept of the universe, followed by the work of Galileo Galilei and Isaac Newton. Copernicus pointed out that through hypothesizing the sun, instead of the earth, is at the center, all the mathematical contradictions and mysteries about the movement of the planets would be solved, though he emphasized that his theory was only a hypothesis, being afraid of the possible punishment for challenging the authority of the Bible and the Church. In Japanese English grammar classes, grammar is often situated at the center of the pedagogic universe and grammar itself tends to be the goal of language learning, though grammar is supposed to be the means of acquiring communicative skills. In this experimental project I created the global-issue centered English grammar classes with a communicative framework to examine the effect of using global issues as the content of grammar classes. Before the project, I was unsure whether it was going to be a success with the Copernicus effect of a paradigm shift or end up in a strange duet of grammar and global education.

For the past two decades, the Japanese Ministry of Education has been eager to enhance students' communicative skills which it still calls "inadequate." *Developing a strategic plan to cultivate "Japanese With English Abilities"* (2002) issued by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology specifically

aims at 'drastically' improving the English communicative skills of Japanese to meet the needs of globalization in the economy and society. The Ministry of Education presents the goal of fostering high school students to be global citizens with fluent communicative abilities, especially English speaking skill to meet with the needs of globalization. This goal, however, does not coincide with the current situation of entrance examinations where communicative oral skills are not tested except in rare cases. In my working situation, oral communication classes with native teachers for senior high school students have been cancelled for the past three years because administration officials and teachers in authority regarded that oral communication classes do not lead students to success in university entrance examinations.

Preparing for the entrance examinations is an overriding concern for Japanese high school students and English plays an integral part. In Japanese high schools, grammar learning and communicative activities have typically been regarded as separate elements in the curriculum and grammar is still regarded as the core foundation of English education. Many teachers apparently believe that emphasis on grammar leads to success in the examinations.

For the past five years, I have been teaching at a new, private exam-oriented junior-senior high school in the Tokyo metropolitan area, which is trying to quickly become successful in the university entrance examinations. Grammar is regarded as an integral part of entrance examinations and I've often been assigned to teach grammar classes using textbooks with meta-linguistic explanations, mechanical substitution drills, and no colored pictures.

The question "How can I make my classes more interesting and effective?" was the genesis of my project. It has been a big challenge to make my classes exciting enough to get students interested and cultivate their motivation. Hence, I have been using songs, magazines, newspapers and relevant movies to complement the textbook in my trial to make the grammar classes more effective and successful. "What kind of topics are the most meaningful ones to the young generation?" This question arose as the next step. Since our planet has many serious problems, and since students are going to take the stewardship in the future, is it not best to use global issues as the content to complement the textbook? Through questioning myself about meaningful content, I

started using global issues as the base of English grammar classes.

The purpose of my project is to examine the effectiveness of using global issues as the content of grammar classes in an exam-oriented high school. My research questions are as follows:

1. Is using global issues as the content of grammar classes in an exam-oriented high school effective in terms of the following points?
    a. raising global awareness
    b. enhancing language proficiency on specific grammar form
    c. enhancing students' motivation
2. Is cooperative group work successful in the global-grammar classes?
3. Do using songs and videos contribute to create successful global-grammar classes?
4. Does adjusting the amount of Japanese in the classes contribute to the effectiveness of global-grammar classes?

Literature Review

Teaching of Grammar Two Schools

A number of researchers claim that formal grammar instruction is unnecessary. Along the line of Krashen's (1985) theory that language should be acquired not through formal instruction but natural exposure, researchers argue that formal grammar instruction enhances knowledge of grammar structure but does not enhance the working ability to use correct forms, since these knowledge and working ability exist as "different systems in the brain" (DeKeyser, 1998). The evidence that speakers of different L1s acquire English morphemes in a similar order (Zobl, 1995) and the application of Universal Grammar that interaction of input and Universal Grammar creates the L2 learning (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001) supports this school of thought.

On the other hand, there is a resurgence of grammar instruction in the classroom mainly because of the following three reasons. First, researchers assert the important role of noticing and awareness of form in second language acquisition (Schmidt, 1990). Second, researchers argue that there is an inadequacy in teaching English without addressing grammar, since according to the studies of French-immersion programs

conducted by Swain and colleagues, learners were not able to achieve accurate usage in specific grammatical forms, in spite of long-term immersion in French (Lapkin, Hart, & Swain, 1991). Third, studies show that explicit grammar instruction, focusing on form is effective in acquiring target language structures (Norris & Ortega, 2000).

Current Approaches

The recent trend in grammar teaching is to focus on form within a communicative context (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). Ellis (2002) suggests that grammar should be integrated with communication if enhancing communicative competence is the goal of second language teaching. Celce-Murcia (2000) claims that the function of any form or structure should be understood at the discourse level within the context. Echoing this principle, Porter (2005) emphasizes that 'skillful teachers' contextualize grammatical input to enhance understanding and use of the form. Empirical studies indicate that content-based language teaching develops and facilitates second language proficiency through promoting students' attention to the relationship of form and meaning (Pica, 2002). There is growing evidence and agreement that second language proficiency is enhanced through linking the target forms with particular persons and events so learners become accessible to the dynamic relations of form and content (Oller, 2005).

Grammar Teaching in Classrooms, Current Situation

Lott (2005) states that grammar is still treated as a set of abstract rules and concepts, which must be learned mechanically. Dellar (2004) claims that grammar translation pedagogy remains salient in classrooms with its 'canonical' nature and the myth that intensive grammar creates fluency. In Japanese high schools, translation-focused, grammar-oriented , teacher-centered EFL classes are still prevalent (Gorsuch, 1998). According to Kanda (2003), in Japanese high schools, grammar classes and communicative activities have been regarded as two separate elements of the curriculum and still grammar classes are composed of explanation of rules and the translation of English sentences into Japanese.

Content-Based Instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) has dual objectives of enhancing both language proficiency and content-learning. Advocators of content-based instruction (CBI) argue that language learning becomes most effective when it is learned in the context of relevant, meaningful content. Snow (1991) defined CBI as 'the use of subject matter for second/foreign language teaching purposes' and suggests the use of themes and content based on student interest. Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) stress that language is a means of learning about the people and the world and recommend the practitioners to use authentic materials and motivating themes. Parmenter (2000) sees CBI as contributing to affective aspects, such as enjoyment, increased motivation and decreased anxiety about making mistakes, in addition to introducing intellectual, social and cultural aspects.

Global Education in Language Classes

For the purpose of promoting peace, UNESCO LINGUAPAX, Kiev Declaration (1987) recommends that foreign language teachers 'increase language teaching effectiveness so as to enhance mutual respect, peaceful coexistence and co-operation among nations.' Along this line, Cates (1990) advocates the unique responsibility of the teaching profession to promote peace, justice and an 'active concern' for the problems in the world. Cates (2004) encourages language teachers to promote peace and international understanding by integrating global issues into content-based language education for the betterment of the world.

The four domains of global education are defined as: 1. *knowledge*: awareness of the world problems; 2. *skills*: communication, empathy, and cooperative problem solving; 3. *active concern*: positive attitude toward problems; 4. *action* for the betterment of the world (Cates, 1990). In *The Course of Study for Foreign Languages* (2003), the Japanese Ministry of Education directs teachers to design the curriculum and treat content so students would 'heighten awareness of being Japanese citizens living in a global community,' 'deepen international understanding from a broad perspective,' as well as 'cultivate a spirit of international cooperation.' These three aims somewhat correspond with the above mentioned *'knowledge*,' '*skills*,' and '*active concern*.' It seems that all

teachers in Japan must teach global issues in language classrooms to fulfill the goal stated in *The Course of Study for Foreign Languages*.

Among educators who advocate the necessity of global education throughout the curriculum, Noddings (2005) states that foreign languages, art, music, science and sports can obviously be used to enhance global understanding, and Noddings stresses the need of school-wide commitment. Smith and Fairman (2005) outline the advantage of integrated program of global education (nonviolent conflict resolution) and philosophy, referring to the higher achievement and retention of academic content.

Kasai (2003) contends that there is a necessity to integrate global issues in English classes at Japanese universities. Peaty (2004) suggests that there is an inherent risk of global education, referring to the inadequacy of teacher knowledge and possible indoctrination. In order to avoid indoctrination, language teachers ought to present many sides of an issue and encourage students to look at any issue from many perspectives, while trying not to express personal opinions at the same time (Sargent, 2004).

Fountain (1990) defines cooperative learning as 'central' to global education, since students can have the concrete experience of interdependence through cooperative activities. Fountain argues that students can foster long lasting understanding of interdependence between countries, ecosystems, world economies, and ethnic groups, through actually experiencing the notion of interdependence. Johnson and Johnson (1983) validate the efficacy of cooperative learning, compared with competitive or individualistic learning situations, indicating higher achievements, more intrinsic motivation, more positive attitudes toward the instructor and higher self-esteem. On the other hand, Leki (2001) points out the inherent problem of cooperative groups, referring to the social/academic relationships between students, particularly, native speakers and non-native speakers. She suggests that even within ostensibly successful groups some participants may feel dissatisfied because of the power relationships that hinder non-native speakers from making meaningful contributions.

Using Music and Video in Language Classes

Suggestopedia and Jazz Chants being the representative methods, successful applications of music in language classrooms are well demonstrated. Music creates a relaxed, friendly,

cooperative classroom atmosphere and encourages creativity and imagination (Eken ,1996). Research in neurology has shown that musical syntax and linguistic syntax are processed in a similar way in the same area of the brain (Maess & Koelsch , 2001). Reimann (2002), states that music is an effective means to motivate students in language classes, stimulating creativity and language output. Baltova (1994) indicates teaching with video has affective advantages and enhances comprehension. Video contributes to student motivation and learning, providing visual stimuli, which generates prediction and a chance to activate schemata (Canning-Wilson, 2000).

Summary of Literature Review

In any current approaches and instruction method, content plays an integral role in language education, for interesting content promotes interest, and increased motivation among learners. Since students are going to take the stewardship in the future, global issues would serve as the most meaningful content for the students. Through linking the target form with particular events and people in global issues, learners would be able to go through the dynamic process of form-meaning connections.

Based on the research reviewed above, I designed the following study for the purpose of exploring the effectiveness of using global issues in grammar classes.

Methodology

The Setting and the Participants

The institutional setting of this study was a newly established progressive private co-educational junior and senior high school in the metropolitan Tokyo area with a student body of about 1300 students. The school used to be a commercial girls' high school till several years ago. Recently, it has been going through a transformation process with a new concept of fostering autonomous global citizens, and at the same time, quickly trying to become successful in the entrance examinations for universities.

Participants in the research were junior high school second year students who were in their 2nd year of official English education. Their proficiency level was that of beginners, with the exception of a few students in each class who had spent some years

abroad. I taught two grammar classes of these students twice a week and the other teacher taught them reading four times a week. There were thirty-three students in each class. The assigned textbook published in Japan was composed of mechanical substitution drills, pattern exercises, translations, meta-linguistic explanations, and rather stereotypical short conversations between a Japanese student, Jiro, and his American friends. The textbook does not have any photograph or colored pictures. Teachers were supposed to teach using coordinated methods, focusing on the pattern drills and we were supposed to ask permission of the chief English teacher to try new methods and use new content to complement the textbook. Thanks to the kind understanding of my colleagues, this research was realized.

I started my research in November, 2004 and finished in March, 2005. Since students were going to be divided into advanced and intermediate classes from the following spring for the first time, according to the result of the end-year exam in March, some students got nervous about grades, accompanied by expectations and pressures from their parents, as it usually happens in the third semester. Generally, the school uses grades as an incentive to make students study hard and foster a competitive atmosphere among students, which becomes more pronounced toward the end of the third semester.

Procedure of the Lessons

The first stage ： peace and human rights classes (Nov.-Dec, 2004)

I carried out the lessons in English on four peace and human rights campaigners: Mother Teresa, Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King and Aung San Suu Kyi. I prepared the original paragraphs explaining each campaigner into which I imbedded specific language forms: present participle and passive voice so students would cooperatively engage in collaborative reading. Then based on the collaborative reading and the lessons, students cooperatively worked on quizzes and language exercises using present the participle and passive voice. For example, looking at the picture of Gandhi, marching to the beach with people to protest against high tax on salt (Salt March), students were supposed to cooperatively write conversations such as: “Gandhi, how long have you been walking?,” “Well, I’ve been walking for five days.” Then, they practiced that short conversation in

groups.

The second stage: child labor and landmine issues (Jan.-Feb., 2005)

I carried out child labor and landmine issues classes using a little more Japanese in the lessons as well as using a video and pamphlets in Japanese from NGOs to examine how the change in the amount of Japanese would affect the effectiveness of the lessons. I designed the lessons so students would engage in discussions and collaborative writing while focusing on gerunds, sensory perception verbs, and causative verbs. For example, looking at a picture of a little boy who fell a sleep while stitching a ball, students cooperatively worked on the translation (from Japanese to English) of an interview I prepared between a reporter and the boy, Pablo (pseudonym) as follows:

Reporter: I was watching you sleeping.

Pablo: I didn't notice you watching me.

Reporter: Would you mind telling your story?

Pablo: It's not worth listening to.

Reporter: It is worth listening to…..

Pablo: I started working two years ago. My job is stitching balls.

Poverty makes me work. My boss makes me work. I'm tired of stitching balls. I feel like shouting, let me play. My dream is…..

Procedure of Data Collection

I designed a study based on both quantitative and qualitative principles. For data collection, I combined questionnaires, student interviews, field notes and colleagues' comments, looking for triangulation (Burns, 1999). I administered the questionnaires during the classes and all the students filled in the questionnaires.

Pre and post surveys

I designed pre and post lesson surveys (one page each) to examine the effectiveness of global-grammar classes in terms of enhancing global awareness and language proficiency on specific grammar points on a quantitative basis (research question-1). I also examined the change of the correlations between global awareness and language proficiency before

and after the classes in each stage (related to research question-4).

I asked the students to fill in a questionnaire (Appendix 1 & 3) to gauge their global awareness and language proficiency focusing on form, at the beginning of both the first stage and the second stage. For global awareness, I used a Likert scale to quantify student attitudes with the questions such as, "Are you interested in Mahatma Gandhi?" And I asked the questions such as, "What did Mahatma Gandhi do?" to quantify their knowledge about global issues. For language proficiency, I tested students' language proficiency in terms of specific language forms (e.g. present participle and passive voice) with original sentences and translation questions.

After both the first stage and the second stage, I administered the survey with the same questions on global issues as the pre-lesson survey and with questions on language form different from the pre-lesson survey, but at the same level (Appendix 2 & 4). I asked students to write their names or initials so I could keep the track of the correlations between global awareness and language proficiency.

Open questions

I administered questionnaires with open questions after stage one and stage two. I asked the students to answer open ended questions such as, "What did you think of the lessons on child labor?" or "What did you think of the exercises, using the context of peace and human rights?" in the written form so students could anonymously express their frank, honest opinions on the lessons. Questions were written both in English and Japanese and students had a choice of answering in either language. Most of the students answered in Japanese and for this paper, I translated their answers into English. In this research, I randomly used 'he' or 'she' to describe their answers, because I administered the questionnaires with open questions on anonymously, and there was no way of knowing whether the questionnaire was written by a male or female student.

Teaching journals and field notes

After each lesson, I recorded my impressions of student reactions in a teaching journal in English. During class, I sometimes made notes in both Japanese and English about what I noticed while students were working in groups.

Interviews

I interviewed six willing students (three students from each class) in February and in March to get access to their personal points of view, opinions and interpretations to explore the effectiveness of the global education in language classrooms in depth. I first asked students to just give me any comments about the global-grammar classes to allow students to shape the answers and take the responsibility for structuring the information so students could freely express their opinions. Then I asked students what they thought of grammar classes and exercises, using global issues and whether using global issues motivated them to learn English more. I used pseudonyms to quote their comments. Also I asked two colleagues who observed my classes to comment on the lessons.

Data Analysis

For the quantitative part, I separately marked students' answers to questions on global awareness and questions on language proficiency on specific forms. I input data into the computer program and calculated average points for both items before and after the classes to examine improvement. Also I examined if there was a correlation between global awareness and language proficiency before the lessons and if the correlation increased after the lessons using excel program.

For the qualitative part, since most of the students participated in both the questionnaires and interviews in Japanese, I translated comments into English. I read students' answers to open questions, memos of interviews, field notes and colleagues' comments reiteratively. Then I compared and categorized the data to find the recurring words and salient features among the various comments.

Findings

Global Awareness Raised: Steps Toward Global Citizens

Students' knowledge in global issues increased

Integrating global issues in the language classroom worked to increase majority of students' awareness of global issues. According to the result of the pre and post survey, the average score of the survey questions for the global awareness was raised by about 11

(of 50) points in the first stage (peace and human rights classes) and by about 20 (of 55) points in the second stage (child labor and landmine issues classes).

Table A: ***Average scores for global awareness before and after the classes***

	Stage 1: Average	**Stage 2: Average**
Global Awareness: Before	18	25.3
Global Awareness: After	28.7	45.6
Difference in Average Score	10.7 (21.4%)	20.3 (36.9%)

Students also appeared satisfied about their own progress as they filled in the questionnaire answering questions such as: 'What did Gandhi do?'(the first stage) or 'Among the permanent members of the UN Security Council, which countries have not signed the Anti-Personal Landmine Ban Treaty? (the second stage). Yuka (pseudonym), for example, said proudly with a smile, 'Oh, great! Now I can answer all the questions. I did it,' as she was answering the questions. Ryu (pseudonym) said, 'Now I know a lot about these issues. I'm happy.' I assume that students were congratulating themselves about having acquired the knowledge, savoring the sense of achievement.

Broadened perspectives

Students broadened their perspectives through empathizing with children in other parts of the world. Many students expressed strong emotion such as surprise, wonder, shock, sadness, anger, and resentment during and after the global-grammar classes. In the open questionnaire, carried out after the classes on Child Labor issues, 36 of 66 (60 %) students commented that they were surprised and felt sad about the children who have to work in terrible situations. For example, Student A wrote:

> I was surprised and was shocked to know that there are many children of my age and younger who have to work to support their families and cannot go to school. How hard it would be to work day after day in a miserable situation. This terrible reality is like a fiction.

Along with other students, Student A expressed an emotional reaction to the use of child labor and the exploitative situations of sweatshops, liking herself to the children of her age in other parts of the world. Many students interpreted the facts in personal terms and revealed a keen sensitivity to suffering, poverty, and injustice inflicted upon other people.

Students broadened their scope of vision and started to look at themselves in connection to the world in a new way. Several students began to identify themselves in the global context to think of the role of him and of Japan. Student B, for example, commented in the open questionnaire after the classes on Landmine Issues:

> S-B: I was surprised and shocked, since I'm living in the country where we don't have such problems. And I thought that the fact that Japan doesn't have these problems is the very reason we should know about these issues to think about future. We should know about the fact that somebody is dying right at this moment when we are studying about the landmines.

His comment suggests that he has broadened his scope of perspectives. He regards himself as someone living in the peaceful country, yet feels restless about the disparity of people dying while he is studying. He positions himself in Japan but at the same time connects himself to the world through the comparison. By claiming that Japanese people should be aware of landmine issues because we are living in peace, he has started to think of positioning himself in a global context and to think of Japan's role in this troubled world as well. This enhancement of the range of vision and horizon suggests a step toward global citizenship.

Students' feeling of need for action emerged

Many students expressed a feeling that the present situation should be changed. An active concern about the need for positive actions for the betterment of the world emerged. After the classes on Child Labor and Landmines, 40% of students (28 of 66) commented that it is necessary to change the present situation, using expression such as '~surubekida', meaning 'we should do something.' For example, Student C commented in the questionnaire after Child Labor classes:

> I cannot forgive the adults who force the children to work. I want adults to respect children's right. It is necessary to eradicate the child labor and we should take some measures to protect children's rights, for example through applying more strict laws.

Student C shows a feeling of the need for action and claims for change through expressing the anger against the injustice inflicted upon children in other parts of the

world. Along with several other students she suggests that the situation of child labor should be improved through legal approaches so people who are forcing children to work would be duly punished. She expresses a strong sense of justice against evil.

Students started to think about possible solutions for the problems, and some students started to think about what they could do to improve the situation. For example, after classes on Landmine Issues, student D wrote:

> I thought a lot about landmines. It is terrible that easy to make, cheap landmines take lives and limbs from people. I think all the mines should be removed and we can approach toward peace through removing landmines in the future. I thought it's desirable to have more efficient detector. Then landmines could be removed more easily. Maybe I would like to contribute to develop efficient ones.

Student D framed his reaction in terms of his interest in scientific technology. Several students expressed a wish to donate money for the betterment of the world. For example, Student E commented:

> It is a serious problem and it is our theme to work on for the future. I pray that someday all the landmines are removed and more flowers are planted. I would like to donate if I have an opportunity.

Here, student D presents her wish for peace and her wish to contribute somehow to improve the situation through donation. Many students expressed an optimistic, positive attitude for tackling problems. They claimed that whether through cooperation, technological development or donation, landmines should eventually be removed. The feeling of a need for action emerged as students started to think actively of ways to solve the problems of child labor and landmines.

Language Lessons were Effective for the Majority of Students

Students' proficiency in English increased

According to the result of the language test on specific grammar points before and after the lessons, a full 97 % (64 of 66) of students improved their score in the first stage (peace and human rights classes) and 98 % (65 of 66) of students improved their scores in the second stage (child labor and landmines classes). The average score of language test

rose by about 16 (of 50) points in the first stage and by about 27 (of 60) points in the second stage.

Table B: Average Score of the language test on specific grammar points before and after the classes

	Stage 1:	**Stage 2**:
Language Test: Before	17.9	13.4
Language Test: After	33.6	40
Difference in Average Score	15.7 (31.4%)	26.6 (44.3%)

A large majority of students improved their language score on the written test on specific grammar points: present participle and passive voice in the first stage and gerund, perception verbs and causatives in the second stage.

Exercises captured most of the students' interest

Eighty-three percent of students (55 of 66) commented that exercises using the context of global issues were more interesting than the ones in the textbook. In the open questionnaire, student H wrote:

> I liked the exercises on global issues far better than the ones in the textbook because I got tired of the pattern exercises in the textbook. The pattern is always the same in every lesson.

Most students wrote that they were bored with the exercises in the assigned textbook and found the exercises in the context of global issues more interesting. Generally, students were bored with the sameness of the exercises and were looking for change.

Many students also commented that they prefer the exercises using global issues because they were real issues. Student I wrote:

> It seems that the lesson and grammatical points go into my memory easily because the topic and issue are what is actually happening. Compared with the unrealistic exercises in the textbook, realistic ones are much more interesting.

Many students expressed a wish to know more about the "reality" of the world and to have lessons with authentic, real issues, calling the exercises and the conversations in the

textbook unrealistic.

Students' frustrations

A noticeable minority, 17% (11 out of 66) of students, did not respond positively to global issues language lessons. Five percent (3 out of 66) of students preferred the exercises in the textbook and 12 % (8 of 66) of students were neutral, while 83% of students found the language exercises on global issues interesting. Student J wrote:

> I think global issues introduced have nothing to do with me. Could you just concentrate on the exercises in the textbook? I don't really want you to introduce the issues which don't have anything to do with the term-exam.

Student J found the global issues introduced in the classes irrelevant to his life. The other two students who expressed a wish to study with the textbook also thought that global issues were not as important as the term-exam or the study of grammar.

Result of the term exam

The results of the third semester term exam (the year-end exam) in March show that students in this study scored on average about 4 points higher than the students in other classes taught by other teachers.

Table C: Average Score of the Year-End Exam

	Year-End Exam Average Score (March, 2005)
Score of Students in this study	68.78
Score of Students in other classes	64.39
Difference in Average Score	4.39

The results in this table suggest the positive impact of using global issues in grammar

classes. In my school, English teachers usually teach using traditional methods with emphasis on mechanical drills. Therefore, the results of the end-year exam suggest that students in this study achieved better learning than students who studied by traditional methods.

Students' Motivation Enhanced

Students engaged in the class with enthusiasm

In typical classes, using the assigned textbook, students looked bored after twenty minutes and several students started yawning in another five minutes and eventually one or two students would fall asleep. Using global issues as content made a great change. Generally, students looked more serious and excited. They earnestly engaged in the class and became actively involved in the discussions with peers in their groups. For example, student K commented in the questionnaire:

> I attended the class with more enthusiasm than usual because it is like "killing two birds with one stone," since we are learning the global issues and the situation of the world, while studying English.

A colleague who observed both the typical class with the textbook and the global-grammar class commented that he noticed a change in student attitudes and enthusiasm. In the interview, five out of six students mentioned that they attended the classes with more enthusiasm than usual and felt that they would like to study English more.

Students' motivation to learn more about global issues enhanced

Many students expressed a wish to learn more extensively about other global issues and expressed a wish to learn more in depth about the issues presented in the class. In the interview, for example, Kinshiro commented:

> I liked today's lesson because I was able to understand what you wanted to say. I would like you to arrange another lesson like today's lesson using another global issues because I learned a lot and I'm interested in the world. So I would like to know more about what is happening in the world.

Kinshiro wanted another global lesson because he thought there was a clear message in the lesson, whereas he had not been able to find any message in the mechanical exercises

in the textbook. Kinshiro's comment suggests that interesting content and a clear message enhanced his wish to learn more about the world. It seems to imply that providing meaningful and interesting content in grammar classes is essential.

Students' motivation to communicate in English was enhanced

During group activities, I noticed that most of the students were trying to communicate with peers in English. Moreover, students asked me more questions in English than usual. Furthermore, some students voluntarily answered the questionnaire in English, though I did not ask them to. For example, student M wrote:

> S-M: There are hundreds of millions of children working at a low wage; I felt sad with the fact.

Students tried hard to communicate in English with their limited vocabulary. Engaging in substitution drills and pattern exercises require the learners to be passive, in a sense that learners have to utter something which does not have anything to do with their emotion or opinions. In the global-grammar classes students had a strong emotional reaction, which enabled them to express themselves in English to become an active communicator.

Cooperative Group Work Harbored Some Problems

As I walked among the groups to answer students' questions while they were working cooperatively, I had the general impression that overall, students seemed to enjoy group work and were actively involved in the conversation. In addition, most of the students said that they enjoyed the group activity and gave positive feedback on group work. Student N commented:

> S-N: We had fun. Group work is good because we can discuss and teach each other and a cooperative atmosphere is generated. Through talking with friend, I can learn the points I do not understand, so it seems effective.

Many students commented that through helping each other they learnt a lot. However, a few students pointed out some negative points in the open questionnaire. Students commented:

> S-O: One person in our group did not participate earnestly in conversation and I was not happy about it. No matter what the task is, those who don't engage in the

class just don't do their job.

S-P: I did not have much chance to talk.

Students felt dissatisfaction with non-cooperativeness in supposedly cooperative work. Student O was not happy about the fact that not everybody was seriously engaged in the group work and student P was displeased with the fact that he was not able to express his opinion fully though he had something to say. Though most of the students liked the co-operative learning and learned well in a cooperative style, some students complained. This suggests that cooperative group which is ostensibly going well could harbor some inherent difficulties.

Using Songs and Videos Helped Create a Successful Global-Grammar Class

Music creates a good, pleasant atmosphere of sharing joy, while preparing the students to concentrate on the lesson. I started the peace and human rights class with the song *There is a Hero*, written by Billy Guillman because the lyric of the song matches the lives of the peace campaigners. In the open questionnaire, 80 percent of the students wrote that they like listening to music during the class. In the interview, Saki said:

> I liked the song. I really thought that peace campaigners were "the flowers and the candles in the darkest corners of the world" as the lyric went. I feel very relaxed to listen to the music especially at the beginning of the class. It somehow helps me understand the issues and language point. So please continue using music in the class.

As Saki commented, music relevant to the content of the lesson helps understanding of the issue and helps connect the classroom with the outside world, instantly taking the whole class to a different dimension.

I started the child labor class with the song *We are the World* partly because it has the lyric using a gerund, "let's start giving," and gerunds were one of the forms to focus on in the lesson. Since many students were familiar with the song, they naturally started humming and singing toward the end of the song. In the interview, Taro commented:

> I liked the idea that famous musicians got together and created the song for helping people. I think I can easily remember the phrase "let's start giving." I would like to listen to the song again, so can I borrow your CD?

Taro's comment implies that the songs help students get interested in both global issues and language lessons. Gerund was one of the forms to focus on in the child labor class and Taro suggested that the phrase went into his memory easily because he knew the melody and could sing along. I assume that using songs contributed to creating successful global-grammar classes.

When I used the video of Martin Luther King's *I have a dream* speech in peace and human rights campaigners' class, students looked intrigued by King's speech. In my teaching journal on November 30, I wrote in English:

> As soon as the video started, students appeared to have forgotten my existence for a while and became absorbed in watching the video, looking fascinated with King' speech, though the video was without subtitles and it was utterly impossible for them to grasp everything with their limited vocabulary.

With attractive visual aids, students seem to try to understand the material beyond their language capability. Four TC classmates and my colleague who observed the class talked about the effectiveness of that video agreeing that all the students paid full attention to the screen.

Students expressed their fondness for video. For example, Miki commented in the interview:

> It was impressive that so many people marched together to Washington, sang together and listened together to Martin Luther King's speech. His speech was very powerful and I liked it. "I have a dream…" I like watching the video in English classes because learning becomes easier.

Her comment suggests that video stimulated student interest, facilitated learning and helped students understand the issue. Video provided visual clues.

Using Japanese in Global Lessons was Effective for Students with Lower Global Awareness and Lower English Proficiency

In the first stage (peace and human right campaigners), the correlation coefficient between global awareness and language proficiency before the classes was 0.178608, which means that there is a slightly positive correlation between global awareness and language proficiency. The students who had higher global awareness had a higher

language proficiency. After the lessons the correlation coefficient between global awareness and language proficiency rose to 0.329978.

Table D: Correlation between Global Awareness and Language Proficiency: Stage 1

	Global : Before	Global : After
Language: Before	0.178608	0.275826
Language: After	0.212374	0.329978

This strengthening correlation implies that the lesson was effective for students who had both or either high global awareness or high language proficiency but not quite effective for those who had neither of these at the beginning.

In the second stage (child labor and landmine issues), I spoke more Japanese during the lesson and used a Japanese video on child labor and landmine issues to make the lessons effective for the students with lower global awareness and language proficiency as well. As shown in Table D below, there is a correlation between global awareness and language proficiency before the lessons but that correlation decreases after the lessons from 0.47801 to 0.125845.

Table E: Correlation between Global Awareness and Language Proficiency: Stage 2

	Global : Before	Global : After
Language: Before	0.47801	0.176493
Language: After	0.1790	0.125845

In order to explore the meaning of this weakened correlation, I grouped the data into the following four groups, according to the score of the language test before the lessons: l. low global awareness with low language proficiency: 2. low global awareness with high language proficiency: 3. high global awareness with low language proficiency: 4. high global awareness with high language proficiency. Then I examined the improvement of the scores in language proficiency before and after the lessons.

Table F: Average Improvement of the language test according to the groups: stage 2

Groups	Average Score: Before (full Score 50)	Average Score: After (full score 60)	Average Improvement
1. Global: low (5-22)/ Language: low (0-8)	4.5 (9%)	34.6 (58%)	30.1 (49%)
2. Global: low (13-25)/ Language high (10-27)	15.2 (30%)	41.5 (69%)	26.3 (39%)
3. Global: high (29-38)/ Language: low (0-14)	11.5 (23%)	37.8 (63%)	26.3 (40%)
4. Global: high (32-39)/ Language: high (15-42)	22.8 (46%)	46.5 (78%)	23.7 (32%)

This table shows that students with low global awareness and low language proficiency before the class made the best improvement and students with high global awareness and high language proficiency made the least improvement in the score. This result implies that nearly all students regardless of the initial score of global awareness or language proficiency improved their score in the language test after the lessons. The comparison shown in Appendix 8 and Appendix 9 highlights that in the second stage, almost every student made more progress than in the first stage.

Discussion

In this study, firstly, I have found that integrating global issues into grammar classes was effective in creating a nice harmony to enhance students' global awareness, language proficiency and motivation. Students made a step toward becoming global citizens with deeper knowledge, broader perspectives and feeling of need to take action for the betterment of the world. Generally, students found the language exercises in the context of global issues appealing and meaningful, and made a lot of progress in language proficiency in terms of specific grammar forms. However, a few students expressed frustration about having global-grammar classes because they were not able to find any

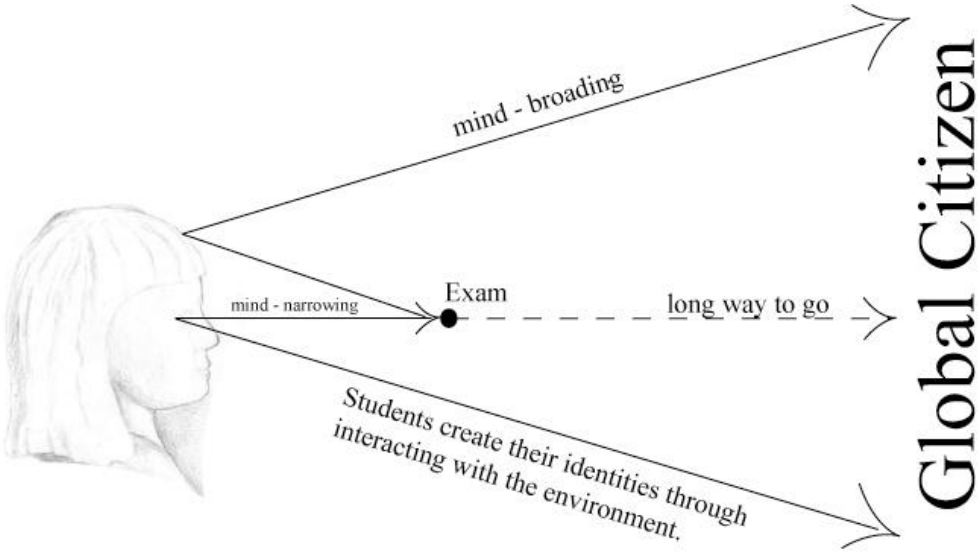
relevance between global issues and term exams. In the end-year term exam, students in this study scored a little better on average than students who typically study with traditional methods. As shown in the interviews and the questionnaires, students felt excitement, joy, sorrow, restlessness, and anger throughout the lessons, which led to higher motivation to earnestly engage in the class, a wish to learn more, and greater enthusiasm to communicate more in English. Secondly, I have found some inherent problems in cooperative groups. Thirdly, I have found that using songs and videos concerning global themes was effective in creating a positive atmosphere to facilitate learning. Lastly, I have also found that using Japanese in global lessons was effective for students with lower global awareness and lower English proficiency.

As Ryan (2000) states "Intrinsic motivation is entailed whenever people behave for the satisfaction inherent in the behavior itself." Students expressed their wish to have more global issue oriented lessons and engage more extensively and in depth with the global issues, in spite of the fact that global issues orientation had nothing to do with the term-exams and the language lessons using global issues were not directly relevant to the test scores. It implies the positive effect of the global-grammar classes. Students found learning more interesting and meaningful and this experience itself became a factor motivating students to learn. Students started to become more intrinsically motivated and, to a certain degree, more autonomous learners independent from an extrinsically motivating system of behaviorist reward and punishment.

On the other hand, a few students expressed frustrations about having the classes that used global issues. They asked me to arrange no more global classes because they felt that classes were irrelevant to the term exams. They have set their goals on getting good grades on the exams and wished to achieve that goal efficiently. As a teacher I am in a position to seriously listen to each student's opinion to understand the dynamics of the classroom. I interpret the implication of students' different reactions to the same classes as the contradiction between educational aims in a genuine sense and the entrance examination-centered education. Not only my school, but also many high schools in Japan might have similar contradiction of following an ideal to foster the students' development as autonomous citizens with global perspectives but at the same time having to cope with the high competition among schools to become successful in the entrance

exams.

Focusing on preparing for the exams is usually a mind-narrowing, activity, heading toward a single goal, during which students sometimes lose the chance to probe different possibilities to choose their ways while searching their identities, since university entrance exam is such an energy and time consuming issue in Japan. Studying global issues, however, broadens students' scope of vision, leading them through the journeys outward and inward, helping them in their search for their identities, while creating intrinsic motivation and autonomy.



Through combining these mind-narrowing exam-oriented grammar exercises and mind-opening global issues together, I was able to hear a nice duet. Media, like video and music, joined and it became a quartet, with students' happy chorus resonating in the classroom. However, here and there, I heard the cacophony, expressing the worries and frustrations about the exams. Through this research, I have become able to see the classroom as a dynamic mixture of unique voices. The fact that students have shown the signs of growth as a step toward global citizenship while enhancing their language skill and intrinsic motivation was encouraging to me. I surely will continue to be attentive to the cacophony, which represents the dilemmas and frustrations many teachers, high

schools, and administrations have on the educational ideal of fostering global citizens and the immediate and pressing needs of focusing on preparing for the exams.

In grammar-centered grammar classes, grammar itself tends to be the goal of language learning, though grammar is supposed to be the means of acquiring communicative skill. Through integrating global issues into my grammar classes, I found the first notes of a paradigm shift: global-issues at the center, grammar as the means. The goal of language education is, essentially, enhancing communicative skill so people can understand and solve problems together. A great vision in grammar classes where even large global problems can be addressed through communicative and cooperative work sheds light on solutions for the detrimental effect of the mind-narrowing, exam-focused sphere of Japanese English language education.

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Questionnaire （アンケート） Peace & Human Rights

1. Do you think it is important to think about peace and human rights?
平和や人権について考えることは大切だと思いますか？
1 2 3 4 5
全く思わない ほとんど思わない どちらとも言えない 大切だと思う とても大切だと思う
not important not very important neutral important very important

２．マザー・テレサに興味がありますか？(Are you interested in Mother Teresa?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

3. マザー・テレサはどんなことをした人ですか？(What did Mother Teresa do?)
（ ）

4. ガンジーに興味がありますか？(Are you interested in Gandhi?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

5. ガンジーはどんなことをした人ですか？(What did Gandhi do?)
（ ）

6. マーテイン・ルーサー・キングに興味がありますか？
(Are you interested in Martin Luther King?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

7. マーテイン・ルーサー・キングはどんなことをした人ですか？
(What did Martin Luther King do?)
（ ）

Appendix 1

8. ア・ウン・サン・スー・チーに興味がありますか？(Are you interested in Aung San Suu Kyi?)

1　2　3　4　5

全く興味がない　ほとんど興味がない　どちらとも言えない　興味がある　とても興味がある

not interested　not much interested　neutral　interested　very much interested

9. ア・ウン・サン・スー・チーはどんなことをしている人ですか？
(What is she trying to do?)

（　　）

Present　Participle (現在完了)

1.　“How long~” で始めて現在完了を使い自由に英文を作りましょう。
（Write your original sentence, using “How long~”）

_____

2.　“Since when~”で始めて現在完了を使い自由に英文を作りましょう。
(Write your original sentence, using “Since when~”)

_____

Passive Voice (受動態)

☆　Put into English (英語にしましょう。)

１．　トムはいつ自転車を盗まれましたか？

_____

２．　夏目漱石は皆に知られています。

Questionnaire （アンケート） Peace & Human Rights

2. Do you think it is important to think about peace and human rights?
平和や人権について考えることは大切だと思いますか？
1 2 3 4 5
全く思わない ほとんど思わない どちらとも言えない 大切だと思う とても大切だと思う
not important not very important neutral important very important

２．マザー・テレサに興味がありますか？(Are you interested in Mother Teresa?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

3. マザー・テレサはどんなことをした人ですか？(What did Mother Teresa do?)
（ ）

4. ガンジーに興味がありますか？(Are you interested in Gandhi?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

5. ガンジーはどんなことをした人ですか？(What did Gandhi do?)
（ ）

6. マーテイン・ルーサー・キングに興味がありますか？
(Are you interested in Martin Luther King?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

7. マーテイン・ルーサー・キングはどんなことをした人ですか？
(What did Martin Luther King do?)
（ ）

Appendix 2

8. ア・ウン・サン・スー・チーに興味がありますか？(Are you interested in Aung San Suu Kyi?)

1　2　3　4　5

全く興味がない　ほとんど興味がない　どちらとも言えない　興味がある　とても興味がある

not interested　not much interested　neutral　interested　very much interested

9. ア・ウン・サン・スー・チーはどんなことをしている人ですか？
(What is she trying to do?)

（　　）

Present　Participle (現在完了)

3.　“How long~” で始めて現在完了を使い自由に英文を作りましょう。
（Write your original sentence, using “How long~”）

_____

4.　“Since when~”で始めて現在完了を使い自由に英文を作りましょう。
(Write your original sentence, using “Since when~”)

_____

Passive Voice (受動態)

☆　Put into English (英語にしましょう。)

1. 赤ん坊はメアリーと名付けられました。

_____

2. 昨日田中先生に呼ばれました。

_____

—

Questionnaire （アンケート） Child Labor and Landmine Issues

1．世界の人口は？ (What is the population of the world?)
（ ）

2. 児童労働という問題に興味がありますか？
(Are you interested in Child Labor issues?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

3. 児童就労者はどの様な仕事についていますか？（What do child laborers do?）
（ ）
4. 児童就者の多い地域は？ (Where do child laborers live?)
（ ）

5. 児童労働の解決方法としてどのようなことが考えられるでしょう？（What are some solutions to child labor?）
( )

6. 子供の権利を守る国際的機関は？(What is the name of the international organization, which works for children's rights, their survival and protection?)
（ ）

7. 地雷の問題に興味がありますか？ (Are you interested in landmine issues?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

8．地雷を一つ製造するのにいくら位かかると思いますか？(About how much do you think it costs to produce a landmine?)
( )

Appendix 3

9. 地雷を一つ取り除くのにいくら位かかると思いますか？（About how much do you think it costs to remove a landmine?）
(　　)
10. 国連の安全保障理事会常任理事国の中で対人地雷禁止条約に署名していない国はどこでしょう？(Among the permanent members of the UN Security Council, which countries have not signed the Anti-Personel Landmine Ban Treaty?)
(　　)

Gerund (動名詞)
動名詞を使って次の二文を一文にしましょう。（Combine the two sentences into one, using gerund）
5. Emi practices karate. She enjoys it.

6. Jiro is going to visit San Francisco. He is looking forward to that.

動名詞を使って書き換えましょう。(Rewrite the following sentences, using gerund)
7. Please turn off the light when you leave the room.

8. Shall we invite Jane to dinner?

Causative Verbs （使役動詞）Sensory Perception Verbs (知覚動詞)
Put into English（英語にしましょう。）
１．　私は地面が揺れるのを感じました。
_____
2. 私たちはメアリーが歌の練習をしているのを聞きました。
_____
３．トムのお母さんはトムに彼の部屋を毎週土曜日に掃除させる。
_____
4. マイクは叔母さんに自転車を修理してもらった。

Questionnaire （アンケート） Child Labor and Landmine Issues

1．世界の人口は？ (What is the population of the world?)
（ ）

2. 児童労働という問題に興味がありますか？
(Are you interested in Child Labor issues?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

3．児童就労者はどの様な仕事についていますか？（What do child laborers do?）
（ ）
4．児童就者の多い地域は？ (Where do child laborers live?)
（ ）

5．児童労働の解決方法としてどのようなことが考えられるでしょう？（What are some solutions to child labor?）
( )

6. 子供の権利を守る国際的機関は？(What is the name of the international organization, which works for children's rights, their survival and protection?)
（ ）

7．地雷の問題に興味がありますか？ (Are you interested in landmine issues?)
1 2 3 4 5
全く興味がない ほとんど興味がない どちらとも言えない 興味がある とても興味がある
not interested not much interested neutral interested very much interested

8．地雷を一つ製造するのにいくら位かかると思いますか？(About how much do you think it costs to produce a landmine?)
( )

Appendix 4

9. 地雷を一つ取り除くのにいくら位かかると思いますか？（About how much do you think it costs to remove a landmine?）
(　　)
10. 国連の安全保障理事会常任理事国の中で対人地雷禁止条約に署名していない国はどこでしょう？(Among the permanent members of the UN Security Council, which countries have not signed the Anti-Personel Landmine Ban Treaty?)
(　　)

Gerund (動名詞)
1. Would you mind ~?　を使って「～をしてくださいませんか？」という文を作りましょう。

_____

____
２.「～をしていて忙しい」と断る文を作りましょう。
I'm　　sorry　　but
_____
３．How about ～？を使って「～をしませんか？」と誘う文を作りましょう。

動名詞を使って次の二文を一文にしましょう。（Combine the two sentences into one, using gerund）
３．　Paulo stitches balls. He does not enjoy it.

Causative　Verbs （使役動詞）Sensory Perception Verbs (知覚動詞)
Put into English（英語にしましょう。）
２．　君が眠っているのを見ていたんだ。
_____
3.　私たちは子供達が泣いているのを聞いた。
_____
３．ぼくのボスが僕を働かせるんだ。
_____
４．　仕事に飽きちゃったよ。私を遊ばせてよ。
_____

Appendix 5

☆ 授業について感想を聞かせてください。

1. 平和と人権の運動家達について授業はどうでしたか？
（What did you think of the lessons on peace campaigners?）

2. 平和と人権の運動家達を中心に授業を進めましたが、どう思いましたか？
（ What did you think of the language lessons using child labor issues?）

その他の感想 （Other Comments）

Appendix 6
☆ 授業について感想を聞かせてください。

１．　児童労働の授業についてどう思いましたか？**(What did you think of the lessons on Child Labor Issues?)**

2. Child Labor という問題を中心に授業を授業を進めましたが、どう思いましたか？　**(What did you think of the language lessons, using child labor issues?**　教科書の問題をするのと比べてより興味がわきましたか？　より効果が上がると感じましたか？ それはなぜですか？　**(Were the exercises more interesting than the ones in the textbook? Did you feel that exercises were effective? Why?)**

２．　その他の感想　**(Other Comments)**

Appendix　7

☆ 授業について感想を聞かせてください。

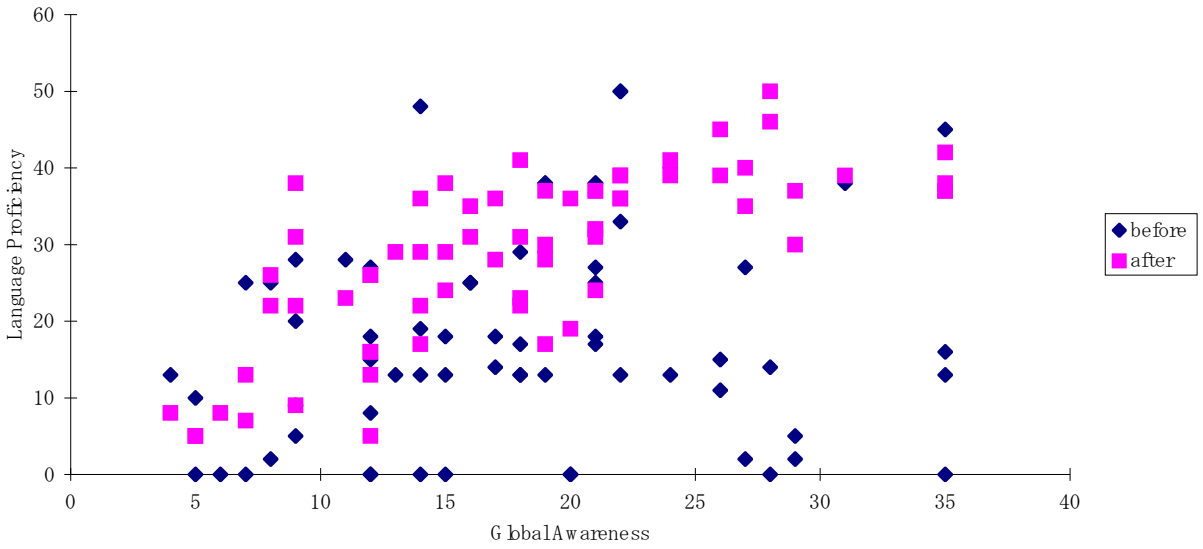
1.地雷の問題についてどう思いましたか？ (What did you think of　the Landmine Issues?)

２．　地雷の問題を中心に授業を進めましたが、どう思いましたか？　**(What did you think of the language lesson using the issue of landmines as the content?)** 教科書の問題をするのと比べてより興味がわきましたか？　**(Were the exercises more interesting than the ones in the textbook?　)**

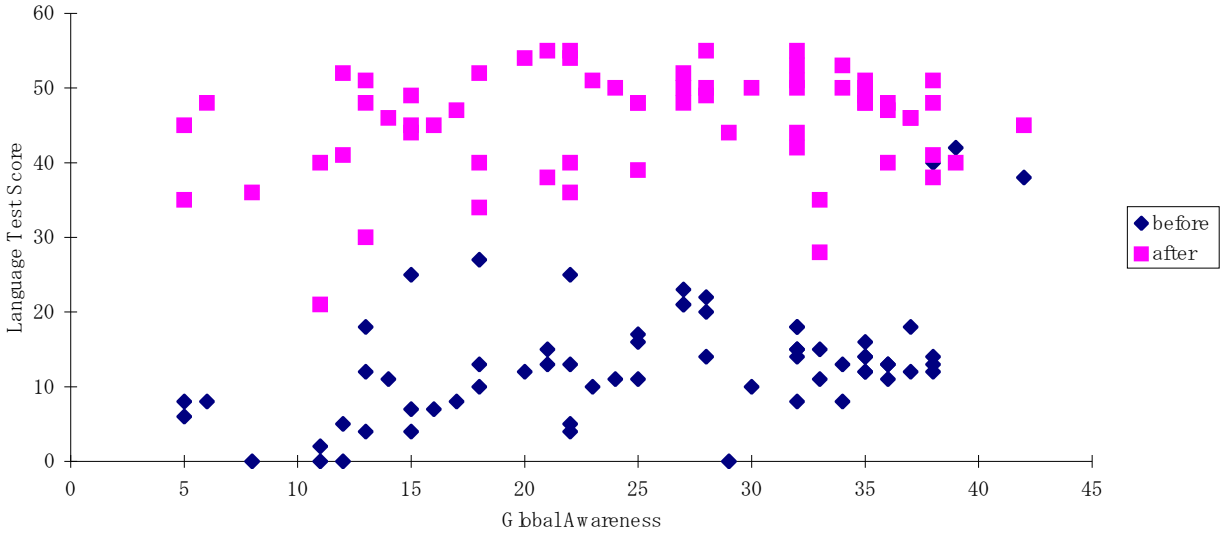
３．　グループで学習はどうでしたか？　（**What did you think of learning in groups**）**?**

4.その他の感想　(Other Comments)

Correlation between GlobalAwareness and Language Proficiency before and after the Lessons: Stage 1
Appendix 8



Correlation between GlobalAwareness and Language Test Score before and after the Lessons: Stage 2
Appndix 9



Citation

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Examining Self-Confidence Variables: An Action Research Inquiry Into Pair Taping (PT) Efficacy

By Michael F. Kubo

Education in and out of the classroom and across the lifespan.
-- Teachers College motto

Introduction

Stevick (1980) claimed that second language (L2) learning success depends more on "what goes on inside and between people in the classroom" (p.4) than on "materials, techniques and linguistic analyses" (p.4.). Paying due respect to Stevick, his belief speaks volumes for my humanistic bent on the ideal L2 classroom, but says little for the "materials, techniques and linguistic analyses" that constitute the impetus for writing this paper. That said, Stevick's belief challenges but does not diminish my conviction that what goes on *outside* the classroom can have an equally profound and positive social psychological affect on learners. Encouraged by Kluge and Taylor's (1998) article on outside pair taping (henceforth also referred to as PT) I developed a similar system designed to give my college conversation students more opportunities to speak English outside of the classroom, with the belief doing so would increase their sense of self-confidence, something I felt most of them lacked. My concern over this deficit led to my inquiry into the research on pair taping and self-confidence (Kubo, 2006).

It is no accident that pair taping research was initiated in Japan; in fact, all the work done in PT has come from EFL teacher-researchers working in Japan, a

predominantly mono-cultural society where opportunities for college students to speak English are rare (Norris, 1993, Gilfert & Croker, 1999, Norris-Holt, 2001, Yashima, 2002). It's little wonder, therefore, all work done on PT stemmed from a common rationale: to get students to speak more (Schneider, 1993, 1997, 2001, Washburn & Christianson, 1996, Kluge & Taylor, 1998, 2000). And in that vein, all work done on PT is, therefore, relevant to my own, for I too teach in Japan and implement PT for essentially the same reason. And the overwhelming evidence suggests that PT has met teacher-researchers' mutual objective. PT has become an indispensable aspect of my teaching as well. However, in the interest of contributing something new and insightful to the body of PT research, I am compelled to find a niche.

I have been using pair taping with my students for over six years and have followed the research agenda closely, gathering references as well as data for my own research. Schneider (2001), the originator of pair taping, recently published an article, identifying the motivational attributes he associates with pair taping, including confidence. Schneider, appealing to both student and teacher, stated "Being motivated to continue studying speaking English is especially important for those in their last conversation course" (p.13). Schneider's sentiment resonates with my own. As a college EFL conversation teacher, my goal is to help students develop a sense of self-confidence that will allow them to continue learning on their own, long after graduation day. I feel Schneider (2001), having tackled such a "complex phenomenon" (Lightbrown & Spada, 1993, p.40, referring to motivation), may have overlooked some of the more subtle though salient aspects of self-confidence. While I hesitate to say this paper is written in response to Schneider's (2001) study, considering its expansive scope, I will say that self-confidence in its own regard deserves to be examined in an even broader scope, possibly independent of all other motivational components. More precisely, I choose to respond to Schneider's article with regard to PT and resultant self-confidence only. I argue that students who practice regular, extensive, pair taping experience a greater sense of self-confidence, both "state" and "trait" (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p.547), a distinction Schneider did not make in his most recent study. Due to the fact "little empirical work exists on variations in L2 self-confidence" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p.547), I review the social psychological assumptions underlying the work done in L2 self-

confidence within the frameworks of more encompassing bodies of research, such as motivation and willingness to communicate (WTC), particularly studies that recognize the state/trait distinction within self-confidence and those specific to the Japanese EFL context. In assessing the efficacy of PT in terms of self-confidence building, I turn to the major empirical studies on motivation and WTC done by individual researchers (e.g., MacIntyre, 1994, Clément, 1985, Yashima 2002) and research groups (e.g., Clément & Kruidenier, 1985, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994, and MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide & Shimizu, 2004) to support my assumptions. I also discuss how these major findings helped in both the formulation of my MA project research question and theoretical grounding of my study. My research question is: Do students who practice regular, extensive, pair taping report gains in both state and trait self-confidence? The question specific to this paper is, however: Have I found my niche? In other words, does this present inquiry warrant a more in-depth inquiry?

The remainder of this paper is organized into two sections: review and discussion/ conclusion. In the review section, I offer a brief explanation and history of the pair taping method, including its L2 educational significance. The literatures of both PT and major studies are divided into two subsections. In the first subsection, I briefly define the methodologies of three PT systems and summarize the action-research studies done on their use, highlighting relevances to motivation or components thereof. In the second subsection, I provide an overview of the major empirical studies involving L2 self-confidence. Throughout each subsection of the review, I credit influential elements each study has had on my PT methodology and theory. Likewise, I make references to the points I differ, offering anecdotal illustrations to support my views. Later, in the discussion and conclusion, I further debate the consistencies as well as discrepancies common to both bodies of literature and address these matters in relation to my research inquiry by summarizing, to some degree, the most salient findings based on the literature reviewed, points considered and/or implemented, and research I have conducted.

Review

The first article to be published on a pair taping titled *Developing Fluency with Pair Taping* was written by Peter Schneider (1993). Addressing the problem of large

enrollment in oral communication classes in Japanese colleges, Schneider proposed a practical system to deal with the problem. Schneider gave his students the option of making frequent audio recordings in pairs outside of the classroom and over an academic year instead of attending weekly conversation class, thus giving independent learners an attractive, autonomous option to classroom learning and more classroom contact for more dependent learners. Subsequently, roughly half of his students elected to pair tape. While modestly claiming his study preliminary, Schneider reported impressive and promising results derived from qualitative and quantitative measures. Having measured fluency (in speaking), enjoyment of English (in general), ease of speaking English, and feelings of English speaking improvement, Schneider's PT students reported higher overall gains in these categories when compared with those reported by his regular students. PT students also considered the technique extremely useful. Interestingly, the listening comprehension of PT students improved equal to that of the classroom learners, suggesting it is not necessarily advantageous for learners to be exposed to native speaker input in order to improve listening comprehension.

Since Schneider's initial study, seven additional papers on PT have been published to date, including a literary review of PT research to date (Kubo, 2006). However, for this paper, I review the literature less in terms of methodologies employed, underlining instead, the insight they each lend to my present inquiry.

Pair Taping Studies

It appears Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) in-depth article on motivation inspired Schneider (1993) to develop his pair taping method with the rationale of providing more opportunities for his students to speak English. Crooks and Schmidt (1991) wrote "the possibility often exists for SL learning to continue beyond the classroom" (p.494), suggesting that learners in EFL countries (such as Japan) can practice speaking English with each other outside of the classroom. In developing PT, Schneider simply applied an inventive methodology to Crooks and Schmidt's speculations. Schneider's rationale also included the need to boost his students' speaking fluency, something he believed frequent speaking opportunities would yield. In fact, he suggests the success of PT "may be due to the efficacy of learning something in multiple short periods, and to students being

relaxed, confident and motivated when studying on their own" (p.55), suggesting students learned to speak fluently as a result of the autonomous nature of pair taping. Giving legitimacy to this claim, Schneider cited the work of Dickinson: "Students involved in self-instruction tend to be more confident and less inhibited..." (Dickinson 1987, pp.24-25, quoted in Schneider, 1993, p.60) adding that his PT learners "became perceptibly more open and confident about speaking" (p.60). The results of Schneider's year-end questionnaire revealed students' positive feelings about the method. 25 out of 26 pair tapers reported enjoying English more and found it easier to speak, suggesting a possible confidence-building attribute associated with the method, one which his more recent studies shed light on. Schneider concluded his article by claiming that his method "utilizes self-directed learning with its power to motivate, and helps to activate passively learned knowledge by giving increased chances to speak" (p.61).

Washburn and Christianson (1996) initiated a pair taping method with the primary aim of giving students conversation "strategies" they could use to manage communication breakdowns, failures in communication marked by long pauses which, in turn, disjointed fluency. Washburn and Christianson claim that by having students read transcriptions of actual student conversations in which effective speaking strategies were used, gave learners a "much-needed boost of self-confidence" (p.9). The conversations were transcribed verbatim, mistakes and all, to reflect the teachers' value of meaning over form. Washburn and Christianson felt by doing this, they would not only inspire students to push their abilities to the point of breakdown, but equip them with the strategies to overcome them. The teachers felt that the autonomous nature of their method helped students develop their confidence, comparing L2 free conversation to the game of tennis, stating "learners play with learners; using conversation strategies, they are able to return serves and control the tempo of the game. In this way, they build up confidence to play with those on the next level." (p.9).

I am fond of the analogies used by researchers, because by doing so invites others to engage in friendly volleys with the research agenda. And the way I respond to Washburn and Christianson's comparison is to contemplate the various forms of tennis when discussing confidence. As a recreational player of tennis, having learned on the hard courts at a public park in my hometown in California, I felt pretty confident about

my game. It wasn't until I came to Japan that I stepped on my first sand court. I recall thinking "I'm going to slip and break my neck." The point that I lost all games that day is irrelevant (mainly because I rarely ever win!), but how I felt perhaps is. I felt less than confident playing on unfamiliar ground. I've since gotten used to playing on sand courts, but should I ever play on, say, a grass or clay court, I may experience that certain anxiety yet again. With respect to the L2 speaking confidence connection often made in relation to pair taping, I have my reservations. While the tennis analogy helps illustrate the confidence students may gain by "playing" with other (sometimes better) "players", the picture is less clear should the playing ground itself change. Giving socio-psychological terms *state* and *trait* self-confidences a tennis spin: *state self-confidence* is the kind of confidence I felt on the hard courts of California, whereas *trait self-confidence* is the type of confidence felt by, say, Martina Navratalova, undoubtedly a person with experience playing on every type of court imaginable. What this distinction means to my research on self-confidence in L2 speaking is that I must umpire the finer points of the game, and to recognize that the playing conditions can vary greatly.

Schneider (1997), in a continued effort to strengthen the theoretical foundation for his method, considered the prime motivators for language learning as defined by Dörnyei (1994) and Crooks and Schmidt (1991) in relation to his method, arguing PT students can gain self-confidence regarding their English, can discover the relevance of studying English, and can experience "increased satisfaction from studying it" (p.1). The short paper Schneider published in 1997 basically reiterated the points made previously (cf. Schneider, 1993), but served as a precursor to a very ambitious, in-depth study of PT and motivation which I will review at length later in this section.

A teacher-researcher pair contributed greatly to the PT research agenda and, as I mentioned in the introduction, their work inspired me to become involved in PT action-research. Inspired by the work of Schneider (1993), Kluge and Taylor (1998) were attracted to the autonomous element their mentor's method inherently possessed, and developed a similar system boasting an even greater self-governing capacity, as their method's name -- *outside taping* -- implied. Schneider (1993, 1997) had his students tape in a language laboratory while Kluge and Taylor provided portable recorders, allowing students to record anywhere on campus. Kluge and Taylor felt the method exceeded their

expectations, claiming their students experienced "enriched learning, increased autonomy, and improved ability." (p.33). Two years after publishing their article, Kluge and Taylor (2000) published another practical paper on PT, but with little more to add to the research agenda. Unfortunately the work done by Washburn and Christianson (1996) was not cited in Kluge and Taylor's (1998, 2000) studies, though it appeared the two teams were making similar inquiries, both concerned with the potential of student self-assessment and *noticing* (Schmidt 1990, 1993, Lynch, 2001) of language recorded. I have since taken a closer look a Lynch's (2001) work in the area of noticing, which involves students transcribing their recorded conversations and taking a closer look at form. I have considered how I might incorporate an element of noticing in my conversation classes using students' pair tapes as a way to offer my students more in the way of direct feedback, which may prove to be a confidence-building exercise. Evaluating PT from this prospective may be the subject of my future research.

When I first read Schneider's latest (2001) paper, clearly the most theoretically grounded article written on PT to date, I considered to close the book on my own research, thinking my research question had been answered and the niche I had hoped to carve out for myself filled over. However, after scrutinizing every sentence of his article, I realized my niche was if, anything, more specified and, therefore, encouraging me to respond to a recent call made by Dörnyei (2003), asking L2 teacher-researchers to "focus on specific learning behaviors rather than general learning outcomes" (p.22). I will discuss this and similar proposed directions for L2 motivation research in conclusion.

Schneider (2001) has made a strong argument in support of the self-confidence boosting merits of PT, grounding his assumptions in the major research done in L2 motivation and self-confidence and producing, administering and analyzing a questionnaire resulting in a plausible conclusion: "learners who chose pair taping reported increases in... self-confidence about speaking English (and) motivation for improving their spoken English..." (p.1). However, upon reexamination of Schneider's research objective, I began to question certain findings based on some questionnaire items relating to motivational variables, thinking they may have been misconstrued by his participants. Namely, I questioned the validity of certain items on Schneider's questionnaire. Schneider set out to define a wide array of merits of PT, extending the

scope of his research question to inquire the effects PT had on students' confidence, anxiety, motivation, sense of achievement, to name a few. Regarding the self-confidence variable, for example, I feel Schneider's inquiry did not entirely examine the diversity of this major variable of motivation. Again, this discord as well as agreement with Schneider's study will be discussed in more detail later in the paper. At this juncture, it is important I delineate Schneider's research more thoroughly before discussing the overall influence it has had on my work.

Citing various studies done on expectancy-value (e.g., Hunt 1965, deCharms, 1976, 1984, Eccles et al., 1983,), Schneider (2001) built a case for introducing PT to students who have had little opportunities to speak English, stating many "EFL learners who, despite their knowledge of English, have never considered succeeding in speaking it and so lack confidence and are unmotivated" (p.15). Schneider goes on to argue that fluency practices (such as PT) "should encourage learners with low expectancy to overcome their feeling of "I can't"" (ibid.), subsequently learners believe "in the high probability of future success" (ibid.). Schneider, also concerned himself with the aspect of confidence when considering what his students lacked most, claiming "with such limited opportunities for practice, [students] may not be confident about learning to speak, despite the English they already know" (p.1). To substantiate his beliefs, Schneider turned to the self-confidence work of Clément et al. (1994) and recognized that self-confidence was "the sub process most highly related to success, establishing its importance in an EFL context" (p.7). It appears Schneider formulated his (Likert scale) questionnaire based on a combination of expectancy-value and motivation/self-confidence constructs, as his questionnaire items suggest. For students who had elected to do pair taping instead of attending regular class were asked the following questions:

-Is speaking often useful?
-Is taping useful?

and for both pair tapers and classroom students the following questions:

-Do you feel closer to the teacher now?

-Do you feel less worried about speaking English now?
-Has your English speaking improved?
-Is it easier for you to speak English now?
-Do you feel more confident speaking English now
-Do you feel more relaxed about speaking English now
-Do you enjoy speaking English more now?
-Do you want to improve your English speaking more now than before?

The results of Schneider's questionnaire revealed pair tapers' had higher means than their classroom peers for all items except for *feeling closer to the teacher*. Schneider (2001) claimed that after factor analysis, his results reflected those common to expectancy-value theories, and suggested that students' "improvement was related to their increased confidence and their increased motivation to improve was to their increased enjoyment of speaking English" (p.1). Schneider surmised: "perhaps as the pair taping learners found speaking English more relaxed and easier, they also became more confident about it and more proficient in it, and came to like speaking English more and wanted to study it more as well" (p.14). To illustrate Schneider's hypothesis, I created a diagram (see Fig. 1 below) to show the path Schneider suggests his PT participants may have taken.

I find Schneider's research very inspiring, but I feel further research will help firmly establish PT's efficacy in L2 education. What is needed is a comprehensive model to test PT's L2 motivational features, particularly self-confidence. This is the subject of the next subsection in which I review the research done in L2 motivation, citing major empirical studies well known in the L2 motivation research community and those specific to the Japanese EFL context.

Major & Japanese Context Specific Studies

L2 Motivation research dates back to the late 1950s (Gardner and Lambert, 1959), but in keeping the scope of motivational research in tune with objectives outlined earlier in this paper, I will begin my investigation of with the work done starting from the early 1980s, subsequently briefly highlighting the noteworthy achievements over the decades since

Gardner's breakthrough research in 1982.

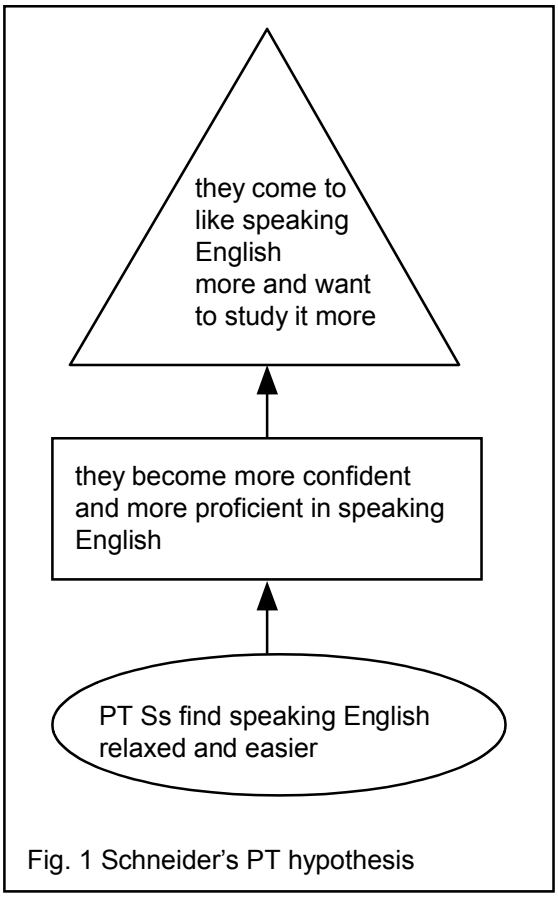

Fig. 1 Schneider's PT hypothesis

Gardner's (1982) socio-educational model inspired many researchers to either duplicate, modify or build upon. Gardner's early research is well known, discussed and cited even today. The two key terms typically associated with Gardner's model are *integrative* and *instrumental* motivations. For many years after its inception, numerous researchers believed that integrative motivation was more important in the educational setting (Norris-Holt, 2001), but in recent years research done in Japan shows evidence to support the importance of instrumental motivation or even a combination of the two has entered the research arena (ibid.). There is much to report on L2 motivation research in the Japanese EFL context, and I will discuss this and other trends within the

chronological organization of this section.

Almost as soon as Gardner's socio-educational model was published, there were researchers there to challenge it. Clément and Kruidenier (1983) and Ely (1986) argued that it was difficult to draw a clear distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. Furthermore, the researchers claimed motivational orientations were contingent on other situational factors. In the end, Gardner and his associates recognized the dynamic nature of motivational orientations. Nevertheless, it is interesting to consider these orientations with regard to the classroom dynamic. The first thing I ask my students to do is to tell me the reason they are taking my class. Interesting to note, Clément and Kruidenier (1983) identified and proposed *travel* as one of the three additional orientations to be added to Gardner's integrative and instrumental orientations. *Travel English* is the title of my conversation course. In fact, later in this paper, I will describe how the situation specific nature of my curriculum determined how I worded my research questionnaire.

In the mid 1980s, Deci and Ryan (1985), developed the theory (not unlike Gardner's socio-educational theory) of *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation, claiming intrinsically motivated students, those interested in learning tasks simply for the enjoyment garnered were more apt to succeed in a L2 than extrinsically motivated learners, those described as reward oriented. Avoiding punishment was thought to be extrinsically driven. The students studying to enter Japanese universities are known to display extrinsic motivational characteristics (see Gilfert & Croker, 1997, Gorsuch, 2000, Norris-Holt, 2001). Also, in the mid 1980s, Clément & Kruidenier (1985) introduced a study that suggested that competence did not equate to self-confidence in the classroom, adding self-confidence resulting from previous pleasant and successful experiences with the target language outside the classroom was more relevant that self-confidence resulting from classroom success. This phenomenon has been noted by other researchers, (MacIntyre et al., 1998, Dörnyei, 2003, Yashima, 2004) yet to this day, very little empirical research has been done to suggest its cause (Dörnyei, 2003, Yashima et al., 2004). With regard to pair taping, PT research might involve identifying a possible crossover of self-confidence gained by pair taping outside the classroom, and the self-confidence gained in the classroom.

By the mid 1990s, Clément, et al. (1994) refined his motivational model to include three levels of motivation, the learning situation level, the learner level, and the language level and all directly correspond to the L2 learning process: the L2 environment (situation/setting), the L2 learner and the L2 itself. Additionally, the three levels correlate directly with language aspects: the subject matter component, the interpersonal component and the social component. What these meant in practical terms was that combinations of any and all levels and component variables are possible, i.e. L2 learners display varying combinations of these variables, according to the researchers. To put this in more concrete terms, suppose 2 students share a common goal (e.g. they both desire to do a homestay), but one student likes the class (and/or the teacher) and the other does not, certainly the two do not share the same level of motivation. A practical application of this research could involve having students complete a needs survey, the results of which could help teachers more effectively gear their lessons. I use a similar survey designed to get students to form taping pairs based on their individual learner needs.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), contributing to the self-confidence debate, pronounced that self-confidence is related to L2 learning in an opposite manner to anxiety, however both variables are related to motivation and are rooted in stable personality characteristics. Research conducted in Canada revealed that self-confidence may, however, be more than simply the flipside of anxiety. In multicultural societies (such as Canada) self-confidence may be a combination of low anxiety, and positive opinions of competence using the L2 outside the educational setting. However, in a mono-cultural society (such as Japan), the researcher must question the universality of the Canadian models of motivation and self-confidence. Later, I will mention one such Japan-based researcher who has done just that.

Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994), suggested that many variables were related to motivation, but specifically produced adequate evidence to show that self-confidence is a powerful and major motivational process in multicultural as well as mono-cultural societies. The researchers concluded that classroom activities and atmosphere played a role in promoting self-confidence, but another type of self-confidence (or lack thereof) could be the product of extracurricular acquaintance (both positive or negative) with the L2. The work Clément et al. helped reopen the motivation research agenda, and their

examination of EFL societies attracted L2 motivation researchers and EFL teacher-researchers alike, and by the early 2000s, TESOL journals were filled with new perspectives on the agenda. One of those articles inspired the Schneider's (1993) development of PT. Also in the mid 1990s a new perspective spearheaded by MacIntyre (1994) and borrowed from L1 motivation research termed willingness to communicate (WTC) gained added momentum in the years to follow (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996, MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels 1998) and has continued to energize the L2 motivation research agenda to date.

As L2 willingness to communicate (WTC) (MacIntyre 1994, MacIntyre & Charos, 1996, MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels 1998) matured, researchers began to realize that the L2 model of WTC was dissimilar to the L1 model of WTC in that the linguistic and psychological variables (e.g. self-confidence, interpersonal motivation, attitudes, etc.) of L1 WTC were stable throughout the model and assumptions of one's L1 performance could be determined relatively accurately and consistently. However, applying the WTC model to L2 learners, researchers realized some variables were not stable and subject to change depending on with whom, at what time, and in what situation the learner was to enter into discourse. The situated nature of L2 WTC models lend themselves to action research, in that teachers can examine specific contents based on them. For example, Yashima (2002) has successfully applied the WTC model when she researched the connections between L2 learning and L2 communication variables among Japanese L2 learners. In a later study, Yashima and associates (Yashima et al., 2004), compared WTC of two groups of Japanese L2 English learners, one group studying in Japan, the other abroad. The researchers learned that many of the exchange students gained competence, but due to the foreign setting produced "situational" anxiety, subsequently reducing students' WTC. On the other hand, the other group of students studying in a familiar situation (i.e. Japan), reported increases in WTC. While these rules apply particularly to intermediate learners, what we can learn from WTC studies is the importance of distinguishing situational or state and trait variables (namely state and trait self-confidence and state and trait anxiety). Yashima and associates (2004) hypothesized that since Japanese learners, given their predominately monocultural society, lacked the level of motivation L2 students in multicultural societies processed, a latent variable they

defined as "international posture" (p.123) predicted Japanese EFL students' motivation. International posture is a term Yashima, et al. (2004) used to describe learners' need to identify with the target language's culture and society and functioned as a motivation to study that target language. Yashima et al. (2004), influenced by the WTC work of both MacIntyre (1994) (see figure 2 below) and Clément and Kruidenier (1985), combined their WTC models with the international posture variable in formulating an L2 WTC proposed model (see figure 3 below) specific to the Japanese EFL context. This model is currently being researched and Yashima et al. (2004) suggest that limitations need to be discussed and the relationship between L2 competence and L2 self-confidence need to be adequately addressed. However, the researchers are inspired by evidence that motivational and attitudinal variables of Japanese EFL students can be examined using WTC models.

What the research in WTC means to my research is that it first, resonates with my belief that L2 self-confidence is a changeable variable contingent on situational factors. Secondly, given the research done by Yashima (2002) and Yashima et al. (2004), with consideration to the attention given to the social/cultural element of language learning (as embodied in the proposed international posture variable) is not only pertinent to my teaching context, but perhaps a suitable model to use when examining the language learning process of students engaged in pair taping and the travel English based content of my curriculum.

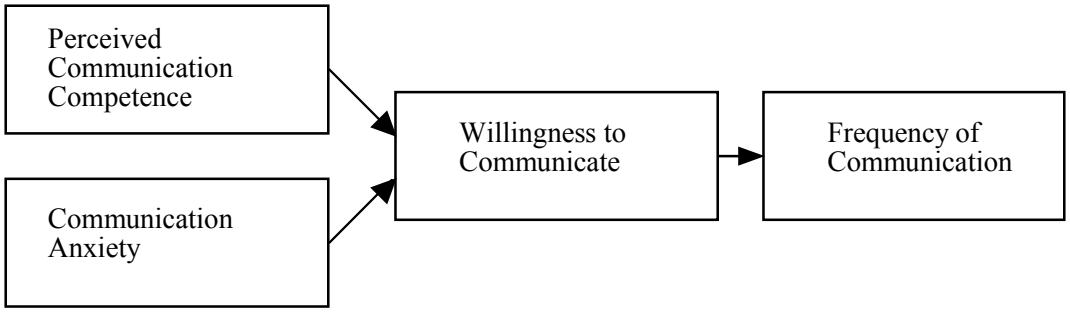

Figure 2 Portion of MacIntyre's (1994) Willingness to Communicate Model

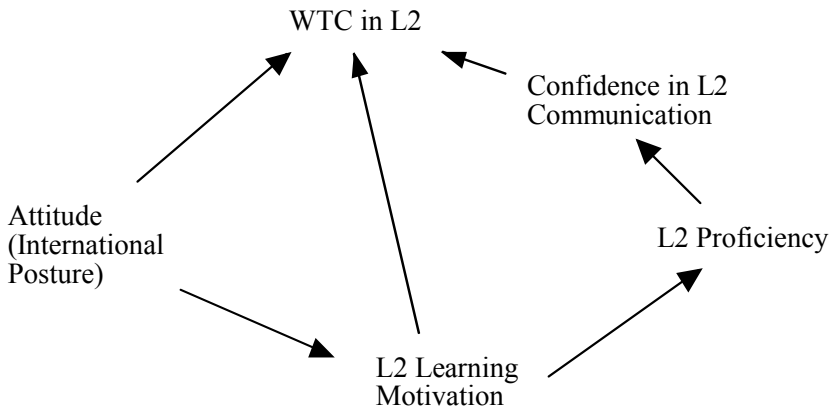

Figure 3 Yashima's WTC Model to be tested

Discussion and Conclusion

In the interest of making a research contribution to both L2 motivation research and PT methodology research and development, I've been encouraged by the work many of the L2 motivation pioneers and major contributing researchers. I've found the recent work done by "context specific" researchers very relevant to my own work and I am following that vein of the research agenda. Given the Japan-context nature of research done in pair taping, the work done by Yashima (2002) and Yashima et al. (2004) should be considered and incorporated when examining students' learning processes related to the use of PT. Two key variables that must be considered in the Japanese EFL context are the state/trait

variables of self-confidence (and state/trait anxiety) and possibly Yashima's (2002) proposed variable, *international posture*. For my MA research (Kubo, 2005) I have used Griffee's (1997) a 12 item Lickert scale Confidence in Speaking Questionnaire that he not only went to great lengths to ensure its validity, but addressed the state/trait nature of self-confidence, by eliciting responses based on students' perceived "ability, assurance and willing engagement" (p.187). In fact, Griffee's confidence construct is similar to MacIntyre's (1998) Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC (reprinted in Yashima, 2002, p.57) and other WTC models. I believe Griffee's questionnaire fits my research question well. Additionally, by the focus I place on the examination of self-confidence only, I am answering a plea recently made by Dörnyei (2003), asking L2 teacher-researchers to "focus on specific learning behaviors rather than general learning outcomes" (p.22). In fact, Schneider (2001) concluded in his most recent article on PT that he can only speculate that PT has an effect on students' confidence to succeed in learning to speak, stating "just as people learn to drive a car by driving one, language learners learn to speak a language by speaking it. Allowing learners to focus on developing proficiency by doing fluency practice may enhance their confidence..."

I agree with Schneider on this point. But borrowing his driving analogy, I might add that one accustomed to driving on the left side of the car does not necessarily have the confidence to drive on the right. I have lived in Japan for many years and sweat with anxiety at the mere thought of driving in Japan for that reason. The *where*, *when*, and with *whom* one drives are distinct situational variables which absolutely play a role in one's confidence to drive a car, as well as to speak a second language. Perhaps a more in-depth study on the dynamic nature of these important variables is warranted after all.

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The Shame of the Nation: The Restoration of Apartheid Schooling in America.

Jonathan Kozol. New York: Crown Publishers. 2005. Pp. vii + 404.

A Book Review by Gregory P. Glasgow

There is no doubt that in today's competitive, postindustrial global economy, education is a burning issue in the minds of concerned parents worldwide, seeking to empower their children to succeed in life. Achieving this goal in some nations, however, comes easier for some than for others, a fact that Jonathan Kozol clearly laments in his treatise of the perennial racial and socioeconomic inequalities in the American school system today. *The Economist* recently portrayed America's schools as unfair, and mentions that "some unlucky kids get a shoddy education"("Unequal: the Sequel," p.34) while wealthy children "live in areas with more property taxes, more education spending and better schools. They also tend to be white"(ibid). In *The Shame of the Nation: The Restoration of Apartheid Schooling in America,* Kozol would concur. He does not sugarcoat the issue of such educational inequality at all: in fact, his book is a searing, heart-rending portrait of the current U.S. educational crisis seen from many viewpoints. These include leaders and researchers closely following the dilemma, the teachers and administrators who struggle to motivate their disillusioned pupils from charred, decaying and hostile school environments, and the low-income, disproportionately minority children themselves, who face the daily reality of having to learn in such severe contexts.

After a gripping introduction, which gives the reader a retrospective look on how events in the civil rights era prompted Kozol to become an educator, Chapter One, "Dishonoring the Dead", highlights the searing discrepancies between school age-children affected by acute poverty and those that are not. Kozol states that "a segregated

inner-city school is "almost six times as likely" to be a school of concentrated poverty as is a school that has an overwhelmingly white population" (Kozol, p. 20). Exposing ironies such as hyper segregated schools named after famous African-American champions of civil rights – San Diego's Rosa Parks High School is 86 percent black and Hispanic, and Philadelphia's Martin Luther King High School black student body is 98 percent – Kozol displays the isolation felt by some of the inner-city youth that attend these institutions. Chapter 2, "Hitting them Hardest When They're Small", begins with examples of student letters Kozol cites that beg for better school conditions: "You have all the thing and we do not have all the thing…can you help us?"(p.39), one letter states. Juxtaposed together in this chapter are accounts of affluent parents vying for their childrens' admission to "Baby Ivy" private pre-kindergarten schools along with devastating portraits of inner- city school kindergarten and sixth grade classes making the best out of substandard conditions.

As the book moves into a discussion of school practices and discrepancies in conditions, Chapter 3's "The Ordering Regime" tells of how B.F. Skinnerian-like, rote- and drill classroom approaches in disadvantaged settings have come to be the norm in current urban educational systems, depriving teachers and students of opportunities for innovation. Chapter 4's "Preparing Minds for Markets" continues with examples of how elementary schools that assign various "managerial" tasks to students such as "Absence Managers" and "Coat Room Managers" infuse youth with the message that a solid work ethic "will prompt companies to give you opportunities to work, to prove yourself, *no matter what you've done*" (p. 93, my emphasis), which seemed bemusing to Kozol since it seems excessive, and presupposes a limit to the type of success they may be able to achieve. Additionally, the following chapter, "The Road to Rome", may make readers bristle as Kozol describes imperious measures taken by some urban high schools to ensure that their children succeed in standardized exams, such as forgoing breaks and recesses, as well as extending school days- measures rarely or never found in wealthier schools. Chapter 6, "A Hardening of Lines" demonstrates a widening gulf between the worlds of "more sophisticated consumers of education (that is, better educated parents)"(Baker & LeTendre, 2005, p. 77) influencing PTA boards to accept their children and the harsh reality of urban high schools that Kozol visits. This is followed by a

saddening portrait of school conditions ranging from lack of materials to vermin-related problems in Chapter 7, “Excluding Beauty”.

The following two chapters mention governmental initiatives and well-known educational administrators in the quest for the eradication of school inequality. Chapter 8, “False Promises”, mentions the implementation and decline of compensatory programs to fight desegregation such as Higher Horizons and Operation Counterpoise. It also discusses the high public hopes and expectations of erstwhile New York City school chancellors Drs. Joseph Fernandez and Rudy Crew, as well as the media attention given to former bat-wielding Paterson, New Jersey principal Joe Clark. With the demise of Fernandez and Crew, and Clark’s departure from the world of education, this chapter contends that “the tantalizing notion that the problems of this system can be superseded somehow by a faith in miracles embodied in dynamic and distinctive individuals” (Kozol, p.200) is simply untrue. Chapter 9, “Invitations to Resistance” starts to consider solutions to the current quagmire. Here, Kozol asserts that principals and teachers in the schools will fail to see apartheid as a distant remnant of the past, and want to see action. He illustrates this chapter with instances of successful school desegregation programs in Wisconsin, Missouri and Kentucky and how some of them are being threatened, even though they show success! According to Gary Orfield, a pre-eminent political scientist and researcher on segregation, “a political movement is a necessary answer” (p. 221).

The next two chapters continue to look at the matter of school desegregation and equality from an educational policy standpoint. In Chapter 10’s “A National Horror Hidden in Plain View: Why Not a National Response?”, Kozol reviews legislative processes against school segregation and criticizes the federal No Child Left Behind Act for failing to “bring the power of the federal government to bear on lessening inequities in funding or in infrastructure between wealthier and more impoverished districts” (p. 240). Chapter 11, “Deadly Lies” reveals the tensions between proponents of the current U.S. standards-based reform efforts and its detractors. Kozol also engages here in a discussion of the counterproductive effect that he feels the “open education” movement in the 1960s had on school inequality. Though President Bush has lauded the success of current standards-based educational approaches, Kozol notes the persistence of a widening gap in the proficiency of math and science students and the worsening of a

shockingly low high school graduation rate for blacks and Hispanics. In an emotional closing, Chapter 12, "Treasured Places" and the Epilogue present to the reader narratives of the lives of Miss Rosa and Mr. Bedrock, a principal and teacher in the Bronx whose unremitting profiles would make those who proudly chose education as their profession remember why they did.

Kozol's blunt, hard-hitting polemic will no doubt have the propensity to shock and sadden. However, the effect that it has could be twofold. Either it can leave one with more of a sense of hopelessness than with a sense of hope, or serve as an impetus for awareness and eventual action. The concern that I have here is that though the book is a rich constellation of facts, recollections and perspectives on this issue, constructive dialogue on solutions seems to have been forsaken by an overemphasis on the degree to which gross educational disparity exists. For instance, Kozol, in his interview with Gary Orfield, notes Orfield's sanguine energy when discussing strategies leading from desegregated housing to desegregated schools, but seems to downplay it by saying that "he was speaking as if he believed that this was actually possible" (p.224) This casts more of a negative shadow on the argument. Additionally, the final quote of the book from Roger Wilkins, Professor of History and American Culture at George Mason University, states "I don't think we have any choice but to reject this acquiescence, to reject defeat" (p. 317), which seems optimistic, but somewhat difficult to believe judging from the rest of the tone of the book. I wonder at times whether Kozol indeed feels as if defeat can be rejected.

His intentions notwithstanding, it is absolutely clear that *The Shame of the Nation* tells a chilling story that must be told. It is important for international readers to understand this story and relate it to their own contexts. In no way does Kozol mince words when in the way he forcefully exhorts us to pay close attention to the educational future of our young. This is must read for anyone concerned with education and school equality. It implores us to remain vigilant in ensuring a sound and optimistic future for our youth through equal education and avoiding letting our children be led in, as Kozol would put it, a perilous direction.

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How do CALL Programs Affect the Literacy Skills of English Language Learners?

Kristen Carlson

Over the past decade, many English language education programs have incorporated computer-assisted language learning (CALL) programs in their classrooms. For example, institutions have adopted specially designed computer software programs for language learners or have utilized the Internet in reading classes to expose students to authentic English texts. Other institutions have set up Local Area Networks (LANs) or developed computerized bulletin boards to facilitate student-to-student feedback on writing. Although CALL programs are being used in language classes throughout the world, there is not yet a solid understanding of their effect on the literacy skills and behaviors of English language learners. As more institutions make use of computer-mediated instruction, it becomes increasingly important for educators to understand how computer technology affects language learning and be knowledgeable about which technologies have proven to be effective.

This paper will examine five recently published research studies that address the impact computer technology has on ESL/EFL students' reading comprehension skills, strategy use, vocabulary retention, writing skills, and learning preferences. The analysis of these research studies will include a brief description of the methods used in each study, a discussion of the important findings, and an evaluation of the conclusions drawn by the authors followed by suggestions for future research. The implications the current research findings have for instructional practices will also be presented.

Web-based Reading vs. Traditional Print Reading

One research study investigated whether web-based reading is more effective for

improving comprehension levels than reading traditional print texts. In this study, Stakhnevich (2002) designed a research project that allowed her to compare the posttest scores of ESL students assigned to self-directed reading tasks that utilized both mediums of instruction. For her study, Stakhnevich created an original text on the history and culture of the state of Mississippi. The text was developed into a web-based resource that included multimedia features such as graphics, animations, hyperlinks to vocabulary definitions and an online dictionary. A traditional print version was also developed that included the same information as the web resource, but utilized typical print features such as static illustrations, traditional glosses, and a bound copy of the dictionary. Stakhnevich tried to determine which medium would be more effective for teaching content and whether students with higher proficiency levels benefited more from the activity than students with lower proficiency levels.

Thirty adult students (16 females and 14 males) from 10 different countries participated in Stakhnevich's study. All of the students had recently moved to the United States to attend programs at the University of Mississippi. None of the students had ever lived in an English-speaking country nor had they ever visited the U.S. prior to their enrollment. On the basis of the students' TOEFL scores, which ranged from 400 to 647, they were divided into two subgroups: those who scored at or above the median score of 597 and those who scored below. Participants in each subgroup were then randomly assigned to three different groups: a control group, a group that read the web-based text, and a group that read the traditional print version.

During the two-hour experimentation session, all participants completed a demographic study and a computerized pretest. The two treatment groups were told to learn as much as possible about Mississippi culture and history through independent reading in their respective mediums while the control group watched a video and engaged in a teacher-led discussion on a completely unrelated topic. At the end of the session, all participants completed a posttest.

In her analysis of the posttest scores of the students in the various groups, Skakhnevich found that the ESL students in both treatment groups achieved significantly higher scores than the students in the control group. For example, the pretest means of the students in the web group, traditional print group, and the control group were 10.6364, 11.4, and 10.5 respectively while their posttest means were 18.3636, 16.9, and 11.6 respectively. She also found that the ESL students who utilized the web-based resource achieved a significantly higher level of reading comprehension than those

students in the traditional print group. Thirdly, she found that there was no significant difference (at the .05 level of significance) between the students with higher TOEFL scores and the students with lower TOEFL scores. Skakhnevich concluded that the medium of instruction can have an impact on reading comprehension levels and that the mode of web-based instruction results in better performance than using traditional print texts. She also concluded that students at varied levels of proficiency, at least as measured by TOEFL scores, benefit equally by learning through the kind of content-rich, self-directed reading activity used in her study.

The results of Stakhnevich's study suggest that there might be a discernable advantage to adopting the type of CALL technology she utilized in her study. However, generalizations cannot be made with certainty because her study was conducted over a short period of time and included only a small sample size. Also, there are other factors that were not explored in the study that may have contributed to the findings. For example, individual differences such as age, country of origin, native language, gender, and previous English experience or psychosocial factors such as motivation and learning style preferences might have influenced the participants' performance. In order to produce more generalizable outcomes, similar research projects in the future may want to take these factors into consideration and be conducted over a longer period of time with a larger number of participants.

Further research is also needed to investigate precisely which multimedia features aid the comprehension process and how those features interact with students' preferences or influence their behavior. For example, in her study, Stakhnevich only briefly mentioned that the web group, which had significantly higher scores, spent slightly more time on the assignment than the other groups. Perhaps the many options and easily accessible reading supports of the web text raised student interest and motivation to read more, or perhaps these features were considered distractions that caused students to lose concentration and thus take more time. Future research that examines whether various features of web resources are beneficial or distracting to learners would be useful to ESL educators.

Hypertext-specific Reading Strategies

A second research study examined the types of strategies students use when reading hypertext. Konishi (2003) utilized a think-aloud activity to look into the behaviors and strategies ESL students use when reading authentic texts on the Internet. Konishi

videotaped students as they completed reading tasks online and traced their navigation of websites through a tracking system loaded onto the computer. The students in Konishi's study met with her individually for a 1½ -hour session and completed a questionnaire concerning their familiarity with hypertext, cognitive preferences, and English proficiency. The students also received instruction on how to engage in the think-aloud protocol and were interviewed after the session to give their reflections on the activity. Konishi's research tried to determine whether students use strategies to read hypertext similar to those used to read print text, what strategies might be unique to hypertext, and how familiarity with hypertext and proficiency in English might influence strategy use.

Six international students from Japan who were studying at a university in Melbourne, Australia, participated in Konishi's study. The four females and two males in the study had different majors, and their TOEFL scores ranged from 525 to 627. Their lengths of stay in Australia varied from six months to four years and their experience with using the Internet varied from three and a half to seven years. The students' reported weekly Internet use ranged from five to ten hours, and only two students reported that they enjoyed reading web pages. Only one participant reported that she read footnotes often and was also the only student who reported that she did not like to read text with pictures, tables, or graphs. During the think-aloud session, all participants, except one, opted to complete the protocol in Japanese.

Each participant was asked to complete two tasks and think-aloud as the tasks were completed. The first task required students to utilize strategies for an open-ended task that involved free browsing, skimming, and careful reading. Participants were asked to browse through the site of a popular Melbourne newspaper, choose an article of interest to them, read through the article, and then report to the researcher about its content after the session. The second task required students to use searching and scanning strategies. For this task, participants were asked to use a popular search engine to locate specific information about Australian Aboriginal languages and report their findings to the researcher after the session.

From the think-aloud data, Konishi found that every student used cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies similar to those typically used to read traditional print text. For example, students commented on word meanings or pronunciations, utilized their background knowledge, made inferences, set goals for reading, monitored their understanding, and revised their strategy use. However, because of the nature of the

Internet, with its multiple layers of text, students utilized cognitive strategies that are not commonly used in ESL classes. These strategies included checking the consistency between two sources or evaluating the importance or the validity of texts. Students also used meta-cognitive strategies specific to reading hypertext such as deciding what key words to enter, which menus to search, or what Web pages to open. Additionally, Konishi recorded numerous examples of hypertext-specific navigational strategies employed by her subjects. For example, students scrolled through text, clicked links, and used multiple windows. She noted that students also encountered difficulties when navigating through web pages, such as clicking on links but not finding pages or not being able to download pictures. Konishi also found that several of her subjects went off task during the protocol because they were tempted to search through pages of personal interest, but which were of no relevance to the assigned tasks. The most significant finding from Konishi's study was that hypertext reading requires a great deal of cognitive flexibility because readers must constantly integrate new information and monitor their understanding. Students needed to continuously make decisions about what content to access and what sequences to take, including when and where to start and finish reading.

This research study provides ESL educators with an insightful look at the actual behaviors of students and the strategies they utilize when reading on the Internet. However, it does not allow for reliable generalizations because the data was collected from a small sample size of Japanese ESL learners who all had a high degree of computer skills. Further research is needed to see if ESL learners from different countries and language backgrounds with varying levels of hypertext familiarity utilize the same strategies or perhaps others that were not found in this study. Moreover, Konishi never thoroughly analyzed how the learner variables of familiarity with hypertext and English language proficiency may have influenced the data she collected. She also never reported whether the students were able to successfully locate the information they needed, so it is unclear whether the strategies the students used helped them complete their assigned tasks. Future follow-up studies may want to include a broader population of students and evaluate how learner variables, such as computer experience, reading rates, or second language proficiency levels affect the types of strategies students use. Research that investigates what strategies help students navigate through difficulties online, or studies to determine what types of authentic hypertext reading tasks are most interesting and/or beneficial to students

would also be useful to ESL educators.

Electronic Dictionaries and Vocabulary Retention

A third research study investigated how students utilize dictionaries built into CALL software programs and whether there is a relationship between students' dictionary preferences and vocabulary retention levels. Laufer and Hill (2000) designed a study to investigate ESL and EFL learners' ability to remember vocabulary definitions after having the opportunity to access various kinds of dictionary information while completing a reading comprehension exercise. Their study utilized a computer program called *Words in Your Ear* that consisted of four parts: a pretest of the words targeted for investigation, a text in which those words appeared highlighted, information about each target word in the form of five dictionary options (definition in English, translation into Hebrew or Chinese, word pronunciation, root, and "extra" information), and a tracking system that kept a log file of every option selected. The 12 words the researchers targeted in their study were confirmed in a pilot study to be the most unfamiliar. Laufer and Hill sought to determine what percentage of words were remembered, whether different lookup preferences were associated with different retention levels, and whether there was a relationship between the number of lookups and retention of word meanings.

The participants in the study were 32 EFL students from the University of Haifa in Israel and 40 ESL students from the University of Hong Kong. Both the Israeli and Chinese students were taking English for Academic Purposes and had at least seven years of English education prior to their university studies. The Chinese students' mean proficiency score on the TOEFL was 570 and the Israeli students had all scored 1-1.5 standard deviations above the mean on the reading comprehension section of the TOEFL.

Both groups of students followed the same 3-stage experimental procedure. First, the students completed the pretest of the *Words in Your Ear* computer program. Second, they were given 10 minutes to complete the computerized tutorial that displayed the text with the highlighted words. Third, students were given a surprise vocabulary test that asked them to write the meanings of the target words in either their native language or in English, after which they were given a comprehension exercise. Students were told that there would be a reading comprehension exercise after the tutorial and encouraged to use the dictionary information options to look up information about the highlighted words in the text. Students were not informed that there would be a vocabulary posttest so that the researchers could analyze the amount of incidental vocabulary learning that occurred through the reading task.

Laufer and Hill found that every participant looked up all the target words, but the groups showed very different retention levels and lookup behavior patterns. For example, the Chinese students gave correct definitions for 62% of the words, whereas the Israeli students correctly identified 33% of the words. Most Israeli students (72%) preferred to look up unknown words in their native language of Hebrew. In comparison, only 12.5% of the Chinese students selected translations in their native language. Most Chinese students (38%) selected word meanings in Chinese and/or English along with "extra" information, such as other forms of the word, phonemic transcriptions, or related meanings. The Israeli students' highest retention score (45%) was obtained by those learners who looked up words in English and Hebrew in equal proportions, whereas the highest retention score for the Chinese group (79%) was obtained by students who preferred to look up word meanings in English. Laufer and Hill also found that there was no significant relationship between the number of lookups and correct retention.

This research study demonstrates that multiplicity of lexical information tends to be associated with better retention. In spite of the differences between the two groups, the use of native language translations together with English definitions lead to good vocabulary retention. The findings also suggest that there is no one particular lookup strategy that results in better retention for all students. One limitation of Laufer and Hill's study is that it could not explain why the Hong Kong learners outperformed the Israeli learners. The researchers mentioned that the Chinese students spent more time on the tutorial (full 10 minutes) than the Israeli students (5-6 minutes). This difference in time spent on the reading task might be a reflection of the students' motivation or task diligence. Also, because the stated goal of the task was reading comprehension, not vocabulary learning, the Israeli students might have paid greater attention to the text as a whole rather than focusing on the meaning of each word.

Future studies that examine why lookup strategies work differently for different groups of learners would be useful for English teachers using electronic dictionaries in their classrooms. Factors such as the specific features of students' native language or prior dictionary training may need to be considered. Longitudinal studies could also help determine how CALL programs aid ESL/EFL students' long-term retention of vocabulary.

LAN Classes vs. Traditional Writing Classes

The fourth research study looked at whether LAN computers improve the writing skills of ESL and EFL students. Braine and Yorozu (1998) examined the effectiveness of LANs

through a review of studies by several researchers that measured the quantity and quality of students' essay writing and peer feedback. These studies reported the number of words written by students in LAN classes as well as the number of messages students contributed to LAN class discussions. These studies also compared the first and final drafts of essays written by students in LAN classes to those written by students in traditional writing classes and compared the student discourse patterns and behaviors during the peer review process in both classroom environments.

Braine and Yorozu found that LAN technology elicited a high volume of writing from students and a high percentage of participation. For example, in one study involving 14 students in Hong Kong, all 14 students participated in the LAN discussion and generated 99 messages during a 105-minute class. In two other studies measuring student output during peer feedback sessions, the researchers found every student participated in the small group LAN discussions and that at least 71% of the interactions were between students. The researchers found this to be very different from the 60-80% of classroom speech that is attributed to teachers in traditional language classes.

Although LANs proved to elicit a high quantity of writing and active class participation, Braine and Yorozu could not find conclusive evidence that LANs enhance writing quality more than traditional writing classes. They compared four different research studies that measured the changes in scores between first and final drafts of students in both LAN and traditional writing classes. In only half of the studies were the final drafts of students in LAN classes of higher quality than those in traditional classes. Also, in three of the studies, essays written by students in traditional classes showed more improvement between the first and final drafts than those written by students in LAN classes.

In regards to the peer review process in the two environments, Braine and Yorozu found that traditional classes produced more feedback than LAN classes as determined by word count. For example, in a study of 100-minute peer review sessions, students provided an average of 694 words of verbal feedback in traditional classes, whereas students in LAN classes wrote an average of 334 words. Braine and Yorozu also found that students in the two classroom settings exhibited very different behaviors and discourse patterns. For example, students in traditional classes gave holistic feedback, took turns speaking in an orderly fashion, provided feedback in narrative form, and responded immediately to their peers' comments. Feedback in LAN classes was found to

be more sporadic and unorganized. Students in LAN classes selected which essays to review arbitrarily and many students did not react to feedback made by their peers.

Braine and Yorozu's analysis of current research on the effectiveness of LANs is useful for understanding both the advantages and disadvantages of using computer networks. One limitation of their work is that there was no discussion about the content of the students' essays. It is unclear which aspects of the students' writing differed or improved between drafts. Also, the quality or amount of teacher instruction and interaction was not taken into consideration. Future research may want to investigate what types of students or class sizes can benefit most from the use of LAN technology, or what aspects may negatively influence student motivation or ability to follow the flow of ideas generated in LAN discussions.

Computer Anxiety and Learners Preferences in Writing Classes

A fifth research study examined how computer anxiety affects students' learning preferences and performance in EFL/ESL writing classes. Matsumura and Hann (2004) designed a study to measure student comfort levels with computers and the amount of improvement in their essay writing after the opportunity to receive different forms of feedback. Matsumura and Hann's study attempted to determine whether students' levels of computer anxiety were related to their preferred methods of feedback on their writing and whether the degree of improvement in their writing was related to their chosen feedback methods.

The participants in Matsumura and Hann's study were 218 college-age students in four beginning-level and four intermediate-level EFL writing classes at two private universities in Japan. The students had roughly the same level of computer experience, and the majority had taken a semester-long introductory computer course.

At the start of the study, students completed a questionnaire on computer anxiety and then, as part of their graded regular coursework, wrote a formal essay on the topic "Should English education begin in Japanese elementary schools?" using a standard five-paragraph format. Students were required to submit a rough draft at the end of the first week, make appropriate improvements as suggested by the teacher's feedback, and submit a final draft at the end of the third week. Students were not given time to develop their essays in class, but they did receive instruction regarding essay structure and mechanics. The essays were evaluated by two instructors on five criteria, for a possible total of 20 points. Students had several feedback options: receive direct

feedback from teachers and peers by posting drafts to the online bulletin board, receive indirect feedback by viewing drafts written by peers along with the teacher's suggestions, or receive face-to-face feedback by visiting the teacher to discuss improvements. Students had the freedom to use any or all of the options as well as none of them.

Matsumura and Hann found that the students with higher levels of computer anxiety chose feedback methods that involved no computer use, whereas the students with lower anxiety levels chose feedback methods that involved computer use. The researchers also found that the students who received all the available forms of feedback (posting drafts online and receiving online and face-to-face feedback) showed the most improvement in their essay writing. Matsumura and Hann's results also showed that receiving any two forms of feedback in the revision process benefited students more (about a 2 point gain) than receiving only one form of feedback (about a 1 point gain) or none at all (½ point loss). The researchers found no significant difference in the degree of improvement between the essays of students who opted for online indirect feedback only and the essays of students who opted for face-to-face feedback only.

The results of this study suggest that providing multiple feedback options is effective for improving students' writing and that classroom feedback methods should match the preferred feedback styles of individual students so that computer-anxious students are not put at a disadvantage. One limitation of this study is that it did not collect data that measured anxiety over face-to-face interactions, which might have influenced learners' feedback preferences. Also, the disproportionately small number of students who chose to post their essays online (only 13) made it impossible for the researchers to perform statistical tests to compare that group of students with others. To encourage more students to post their drafts in future studies, researchers may want to assign un-graded writing tasks or guarantee the anonymity of authors. Future researchers may also want to examine the effectiveness of various forms of feedback on student essay writing over the course of a semester or year, explore changing levels of computer anxiety, or investigate the feedback preferences of learners from different age groups or nationalities.

Implications for Educational Practices and Conclusions

The five research studies reviewed in this paper suggest that computer technology can be utilized to enhance the literacy skills of English language learners. However, the implications these findings have for educational practices vary depending on the type of

technology. In the first three studies, which incorporated reading comprehension exercises, the findings imply that teachers should utilize web-based texts in the classroom, teach hypertext-specific strategies to help students navigate through web pages, and provide students with a variety of dictionary options when assigning tasks that involve the understanding of unfamiliar words. In the last two studies, which analyzed how computer technology can improve students' writing skills, the main teaching implication is that educators should not rely solely on computer-mediated instruction in writing classes. While LANs were shown to encourage high productivity and participation, traditional forms of instruction may work better for improving the quality of students' writing. Teachers should also provide classroom feedback that is matched to students' preferences, which may mean not utilizing computers if it causes high levels of anxiety in the learner.

In conclusion, future research is still needed to obtain a clearer picture of how computer technology affects the literacy skills of English language learners. It is the responsibility of educators to incorporate the CALL programs that best meet the language needs and learning styles of their students. Although CALL programs can offer students and teachers many learning options, caution needs to be taken before educators assume that computer-mediated instruction is suitable or beneficial to every student.

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