BREEZE

A Communicative Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Curricula in Washington State High Schools

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ver the past several years, the movement to codify the content of foreign language curricula has gained significant momentum across the United States. Some projects have been national-level efforts, for example, the National Standards in Foreign Language Education, currently being developed by the American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), and the project by the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) at Johns Hopkins University, that led to the publication of A Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Curricula in American High Schools and Colleges in 1993. The field of Japanese pedagogy, in particular, has been characterized by a nationwide surge of grass-roots efforts by state and regional groups of school teachers, impelled by a recognition of the need for standards and a consensus on the content and goals of instruction.

In one such project, high school and college instructors in Washington State have been collaborating since 1991 to develop curricular guidelines for Japanese language instruction in high schools. The resultant document, A Communicative Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Curricula in Washington State High Schools, was published by the Washington State Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction in September this year. The objectives of this document, which is now being distributed to schools and colleges across Washington State, are:

- To establish standards for communication-oriented Japanese language instruction in Washington State high schools, by defining a set of principled, reasonable achievable outcomes.
- To assist teachers by providing a framework for course design, textbook and materials selection, and

lesson planning.

- To assist administrators in planning, implementing, and supporting Japanese language instruction, and counselors in advising students on courses of study.
- To establish a conceptual framework on which to base professional training and enhancement of classroom teachers.
- To established a conceptual framework for research and debate about Japanese language instruction at the high school level.
- To establish a basis for articulation between high school and college programs.

A Communicative Framework seeks to achieve the following broad instructional outcomes. At the end of three years of instruction under reasonably favorable conditions, students should:

- Be able to communicate accurately in spoken Japanese in face-to-face situations involving Japanese native speakers in Japan or in the United States, in conversations that fall within a specified range of topic areas, communicative skills, and concepts.
- Possess a basic understanding of the culture of communication in Japan, and other relevant Japanese social behavior, so that they can make informed choices about how they will interact with Japanese people.
- Read and write the Japanese written language at an elementary level, consistent with the communicative goals of the guidelines.
- Have acquired a solid foundation in the Japanese language that will enable them to continue to learn the language successfully at other educational institutions in the United States, or while living, working or studying in Japan.

The committee responsible for A Communicative

Framework believes that Japanese should be taught, not as an abstract classroom exercise, but on the assumption that students will in fact use their Japanese. We have presumed therefore that 1) students will have opportunities, if not while at high school, then shortly thereafter, to communicate in Japanese with Japanese speakers, and 2) they are likely to use their Japanese language skills not only in Japan, but in the United States.

The committee has not sought to codify an existing mediocrity. Rather than attempt to define an arbitrary set of grammatical patterns to be taught in the classroom, *A Communicative Framework* seeks to identify a core set of likely communicative needs of students in Japan and the United States, and to let the grammatical content of instruction fall out of those needs. In designing *A Communicative Framework*, therefore, we have adopted and modified for Japanese, the work of van Ek for the Council of Europe in the mid-1970s, which has been widely used in developing communicative curricula for European languages in some states.

This communicative thrust has two important corollaries. First, the emphasis is on acquisition of spoken language skills for use in realistic situations in Japan or the United States. Particular emphasis is given to the development of natural discourse skills appropriate to young people. Second, instruction is based not on "language and culture," but "language *in* culture," that is, Japanese is to be taught in the context of the culture of communication and social interaction, so that students can interact in an informed manner with Japanese speakers.

Written language is also addressed. The document specifies skills in reading and writing of hiragana and katakana, and recognition of up to 120 kanji, to be selected from a suggested list of 150 "Practical Kanji." The ability to write of large numbers of kanji from memory is not required. Rather than focus excessively on mechanics of the writing system, A Communicative Framework targets the development of global reading skills, specifying as objectives the ability to skim and scan texts, as well as to read intensively when texts consist primarily of familiar grammatical and lexical material. A crucial distinction is drawn between the use of written language as a medium for language acquisition (a decoding operation), and the instructional objective of enabling students to read simple authentic materials for comprehension and the extraction of information.

A Communicative Framework is structured in two parts. Part I discusses general principles and

instructional issues, and defines sets of topic areas, communicative skills and concepts, together with pertinent skill levels in spoken and written language to be achieved after three years. Part II contains inventories of topic areas, communicative skills, and concepts, together with associated grammatical patterns, phrases and vocabulary items that should be acquired by the end of three years. A "Practical Kanji List" of 150 characters is appended for reference.

The inventories in Part II do not present year-by-year syllabuses. Aside from tending to make the guidelines too textbook-specific, such specifications are apt to neglect local conditions: a school district that has an active exchange program with Japanese schools, for example, may reasonably want to seek to develop its curriculum around that exchange program. Development of year-by-year specifications is left to individual programs or consortia of programs.

A Communicative Framework aims to facilitate articulation between high school and college Japanese language programs by promoting higher standards of teaching and learning in the high schools. It does not attempt to ram high school instruction into the Procrustean bed of high education curricula, but seeks to be self-standing. By providing colleges and universities with information about the goals and content of high school instruction, in the long run, it is hoped that they will be able to develop entry-level programs that recognize and build upon the language skills of the growing numbers of students who commence their Japanese studies in Washington State high schools.

Implementation of *A Communicative Framework* is voluntary in Washington State high schools, and will be accompanied by workshops and seminars for teachers over the next three years funded by private and federal grants, including \$58,000 under the federal Chapter II Grant Program. The Japan Foundation is also assisting with the costs of workshops. The document, which as released is still very much in the nature of a draft, will be revised after feedback from teachers and reissued in a new edition at a later date.

Committee members who helped develop the document include, in addition to the present writer, Leslie Okada Birkland* of Lake Washington High School; Masashi Kato* of Technical Japanese Program, University of Washington (formerly of Bellevue High School); Sandra Mizuno of the Technical Japanese Program, University of Washington (formerly of Bothell High School); Mayumi Nishiyama Smith*, Director, Nippon

Business Institute Japanese Language Program, Everett Community College; and Michio Tsutsui, Director, Technical Japanese Program at the University of Washington. Yumi Toma, Japanese Language Consultant, Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction and Yasuko Wada of Charles Wright Academy, Tacoma and member of the NFLC Framework Committee, served as advisory members. The committee was assisted by a reaction panel of twelve high school teachers drawn from across the state who provided much crucial input in this unusual collaboration among high school and college faculty.

Information about *A Communicative Framework* may be obtained from:

Washington State Japanese Language Curriculum Guidelines Committee

c/o The Japan America Society of Washington State 1800 9th Avenue, Suite 1550 Seattle, WA 98101

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College Board Test and Curricular Framework

Mari Noda The Ohio State University

Introduction

The College Board Achievement Test in Japanese with Listening (re-named the SAT II Subject Test in Japanese with Listening, hereafter the Japanese Test) was developed

simultaneously with A Framework for Introductory Japanese Language Curricula in American High Schools and Colleges (1993, Unger et. al, hereafter referred to as The Framework). While it was important for The Framework to be established in order to develop a meaningful achievement test, it

was also felt that the Japanese Test could also be instrumental in moving the field in the direction recommended in The Framework. The results of the first two administrations of the Japanese Test in 1993 indicate that the Japanese Test is useful in measuring the achievement of current secondary school learners of Japanese, as well as in directing the Japanese language curricula in secondary schools.

The Japanese Test

SAT II Subject Test in Japanese with Listening consists of 80 to 85 multiple-choice questions in three parts:

Listening, Usage, and Reading.' In order to answer the questions in the Listening section, test takers need to identify the general content of the conversation or the monologue as well as sociolinguistic information such as the relationship between the speakers. The Usage section tests the learner's ability to complete Japanese sentences in a way that is appropriate in terms of structure, vocabulary, and social context. The items in this section are given in three-column format, providing the same information in three different types of orthography that beginning learners of Japanese are likely to know. The Reading section questions are based on texts such as notes, menus, advertisements, letters, and excerpts from newspaper articles and essays. A short explanation is given for each text. The questions and options in this section are printed in English.

At the end of the test, participants are asked to answer a set of questions about their background in studies of Japanese. Answers to these questions are used to perform statistical analyses of the test results.

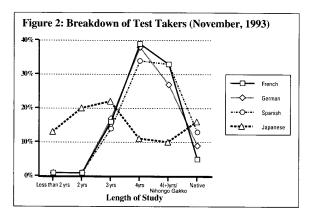
Who took the Japanese Test?

Figure 1 summarizes the participants of the Japanese Test administered in April and November of 1993.2 A total of 2,800 people participated, and a little over half of them came from the target group called the "academic group"-those students whose knowledge of Japanese came primarily from two or more years of high school instruction (College Board publication #207132,1993). In other foreign language tests, more than 80% of the participants belonged to the academic group in the respective languages. The Japanese academic group had the mean score of 521 in April and 505 in November. The difference between the mean scores of the academic group from the two administrations was not statistically significant.

Figure 1. College Board Japanese Test Takers

	Test Takers		Academic Group	
	Number	Mean Score	Number	Mean Score
		(S.D.)	(% of total)	(S.D.)
April 1993	1,715	554		
		(139)	1,444	505
Nov. 1993	1,119	570	(53%)	(112)
		(169)		

There was a noticeable difference in the distribution of sub-groups between the Japanese academic group and the academic groups of the other foreign languages with listening, as illustrated in Figure 2.



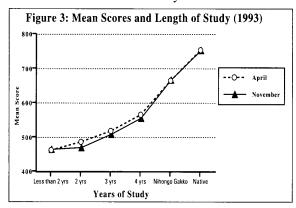
Less than 1% of the test takers in French, German, Spanish tests reported less than two years of study of that language in high school. The largest sub-group in these languages had studied the language for four years or longer. In contrast, 13% of the Japanese test takers had less than two years of high school Japanese, only 11% had four years.

How did the candidates do in the Japanese Test?

In the April administration, 61.1% of the academic group completed the test, 80% reached the 77th item out of 80 items in the test, and 99.9% completed 75% of the test. These results indicate that the test was of reasonable length for the time allotted to the participants.

The number of years of Japanese studied in high school positively correlated to the mean test scores. This is shown in Figure 3. For example, in April, participants with less than two years of study had the mean score of 463 while those with four years of high school Japanese had the mean score of 566. The mean score for those whose knowledge of Japanese came primarily from Nihongo Gakko³ was 665 and

native speakers had the mean score of 754. The November results showed a very similar curve.



The difficulty level of the different sections of the test is measured not with their mean scores, but with a special statistical device called 'observed delta". In comparison with the average observed delta for all foreign language tests, the most difficult section in the *Japanese test* was the Usage section, and the least difficult was the Reading section. The Listening section was only slightly more difficult than the average.

Curricular Considerations: Where do we go from here?

From the results of the 1993 administrations of the *Japanese Test*, several observations and conjectures can be made about the current state of Japanese programs in secondary schools. First, the longer students study Japanese in high schools, the better they tend to do on the

Japanese Test. This is encouraging for it means that the effect of the instruction is reflected in test performance. It should be noted, however, that the biggest difference in mean scores is seen between two and three years of study. The first two years seem to make only a small difference.

Second, the majority of the Japanese programs seem to offer only one or two years of instruction. The small number of students who have had three or four years of study seem to do well. It may be the case that students at schools that offer three or four years of instruction do much better than those whose schools offer only one or two years of Japanese. While no data is available yet to substantiate such a hypothesis, schools with four-year curriculum are more likely to have a full-time teacher of Japanese dedicated to building the program at the school. It may be worth comparing the performance of students with two years of study in a fuller program with that

of students studying in programs that only go up to second-year Japanese.

Third, the products of Japanese programs in secondary schools tend to be weak on accuracy in structure, vocabulary use, and social context. Usage questions come closest to testing production skills since test takers are required to synthesize a sentence. Low level of performance in Usage section may be indicative of the misplaced goals in some curricula. It may for example, be that much greater emphasis is placed on receptive skills over productive skills, or that too much focus on communication is causing accuracy and appropriate use of the language to suffer.

There are some things that the early results cannot tell us. For example, we don't know anything about the correlation between the Japanese Test scores and placement into college-level Japanese. We will have to wait until College Board releases an old test form for use by college programs, and a sufficient number of learners in college programs have taken such a test. It will be important for college teachers to find out if any of their students with previous background in Japanese have had the *College Board Japanese Test* and see if the score differences are meaningful in determining the students' placement.

Footnotes

- 1. For more detail and sample questions, see *Taking the SAT II Subject Tests*, published by the College Board each year and distributed to high school counselors. For information about the *SAT IP Japanese Test with Listening*, contact Brian O'Reilly, director of SAT Program Operations and Development. The College Board, 45 Columbus Avenue, New York, NY 10023-6992.
- 2. The *Japanese Test* will be given only once a year starting November, 1994.
- 3. In most Nihongo Gakko, curriculum is designed primarily for Japanese children who are in the U.S. temporarily.
- 4. I have tried to gather some data on this point, but data is still insufficient for making any conclusive remarks.

References

College Board. 1994. Taking the SAT II Subject Tests 1994-95 (#200701).

1994. Revised Interpreting Scores on the French, German, Japanese, and Spanish Achievement Tests with Listening: November 1 993 (#207132) _ 1994. SAT II Japanese Subject Test: Use the

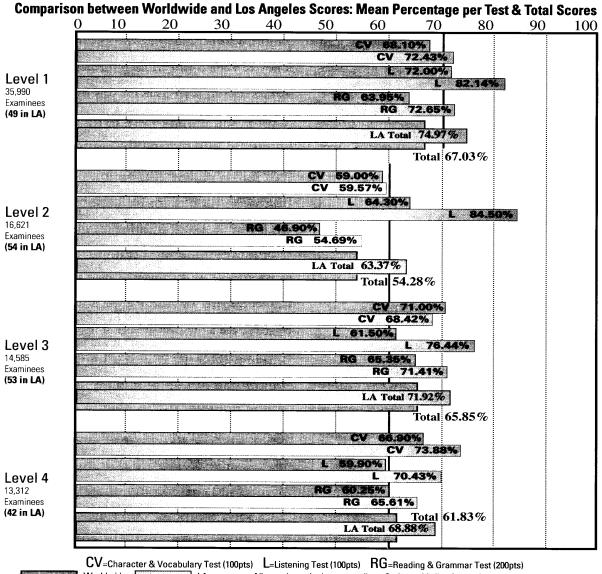
Results to make Important Placement or Admission

Decision for Your Students.

Unger, J. Marshall et al. 1993. A Framework for Introductory

Japanese Language Curricula in American High Schools and Colleges. Washington, D.C.: The National Foreign Language Center.

Results of the 1993 Japanese Language Proficiency Test



____=LA - All examinees in the percentile at & above this line for total score received certificates

Report from the 1994 JF'LC Summer Workshop for Teachers of Japanese

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The Japan Foundation Language Center offered three sessions of 5-day summer workshop for in-service secondary school teachers of Japanese (June 20-24, June 27-July J and July 11-16). We had a total of 20 participants, all of whom successfully completed the course. This article reports on the goal, content and evaluation of the workshop.

1. Goal

Education in the United States is characterized by its diversity and variety because of its decentralized educational system and spirit of freedom. This fact led us to target participants to explore and develop "better teaching" for their own teaching contexts with practice-oriented minds, rather than only to familiarize participants with techniques and skills based on theory-oriented methodologies. Thus the goal of the workshop was set to foster participants' critical self-awareness and self-evaluation of their own teaching because of the following reasons. (1) in pursuing learner-centered principles for language teaching, "better teaching" cannot be prescribed by any supervisor who does not directly know the learners, but can be developed only by the teachers themselves. (2) Opportunities for self-evaluation should help the teachers explore and develop "better teaching" for their own teaching contexts.

2. Content Pre-Workshop Assignment

Pre-Workshop Assignment had been sent a few weeks before the first workshop. The participants were asked to send a one-class hour audio- or video-recording of their teaching a class with a teaching plan and self-evaluation. The purpose of the assignment was for participants to have the opportunity to self-evaluate their teaching, and for us to determine the needs of the participants.

Introduction

The participants were familiarized with the purpose and content of the workshop.

Principles

The participants were familiarized with the principles of proficiency-oriented language instruction. First, as a warm-up, the principles that each participant had already been familiar with were discussed using a

questionnaire that we had prepared. Then, after reading "Hypotheses/Corollaries" (Omaggio 1993: 77-88), the participants discussed which "Hypotheses/Corollaries" they would like to accomplish in their teaching during this workshop.

Application

How to apply the principles of proficiency-oriented instruction to lesson plans and classroom activities were covered through demonstrations and discussion.

A. Structure of the lesson

The following is the basic four stages that we pursued in this workshop.*

- 1) Presentation (Introduction)
- · Provide contextualization for learning
- Make students focus on the learning item (Form/meaning/usage)
- Let students know the objective or learning outcome of the lesson
- 2) Practice for Accuracy (Practice of Linguistic Forms)
- Make students use the words and structures in a controlled way
- 3) Practice for Fluency (Practice of Usage in Discourse)
- Make students use the language in less controlled/more realistic/authentic way
- Let students create their own language
- 4) Evaluation & Feedback
- Check whether students have understood/become able to use the language freely
- Give appropriate feedback according to your observation and evaluation.
- *A single class hour may not include all these stages. The stages are in no fixed order.

B. Designing classroom activities

The first three stages were closely examined through the demonstration and criteria. The following is the checkpoints of each stage.

Presentation

- Showing meaning through a situation/context
- · Showing meaning visually
- Giving several examples
- Using students' ability to guess

Practice for Accuracy

• Mechanical -- Meaningful

- Get students to talk about real life (themselves, their friends, and things in the world)
- Give situations which imply the structure, but leave the students to decide exactly what to say
- Active interaction among students Practice for Fluency
- Use language in a context likely to be encountered
- Discourse (beginning -- end)
- · Real life situation
- · Natural conversation
- Express students' own meaning
- Active communicative interaction among students
- Practice carrying out functions

After demonstrations and explanations of checkpoints, the participants were asked to design and demonstrate activities of the given task in each stage in a small group. The example of the task is in the following: Please make a "Practice for Fluency" to perform the junction ' to express and inquire about likes and dislikes.'

Text Selection and Supplementary Materials

Participants evaluated the textbook currently used in their high schools and another from our library in terms of lesson objectives, relevance to students' needs, vocabulary, grammatical explanation, and exercises. The purpose of this session was to reassure and/or select a textbook to better match the students' needs and interests after identifying strengths and weaknesses of the textbooks.

After learning in what each textbook was deficient, participants explored the supplementary materials, such as picture cards, video, and activity books, available in our library in order to find materials to make up for the deficiencies of the textbooks.

Making A Teaching Plan

Since the goal of this workshop was to foster the participants' critical self-awareness and self-evaluation, they planned, demonstrated, and self-evaluated their own teaching on the basis of the goals which they had set for themselves. Adapting the idea of "Action Research Project" introduced in Nunan (1989), the procedure for developing a plan of action to improve one's own teaching were: 1) declare what aspects of teaching one would like to improve after listening or viewing one's own pre-workshop assignment, 2) plan, implement, and demonstrate simulated teaching, 3) reflect on one's own teaching after viewing his/her video in relation with the focal aspects declared, and 4) discuss self-evaluation together in a group and think about what subsequent actions one would like to take after going back to his/her school.

Each participant chose and analyzed a lesson from the textbook selected for the simulated teaching. He/she analyzed a whole lesson in relation to lesson objectives, topics, vocabulary, communicative functions, grammatical items, types of exercises, and accompanying materials. In addition, he/she added and/or omitted some of the items considering his/her students' needs and readiness.

In making a teaching plan, each participant chose the amount of items which could be covered in 40 minutes and planned a lesson. There were two requirements for a teaching plan. One of them was to cover the three stages discussed in the earlier "Designing classroom activities" session; i.e., Presentation, Practice for Accuracy, and Practice for Fluency. The other was to set a lesson objective based on communicative functions.

Simulated Teaching

Each participant demonstrated his/her 40-minute teaching while others acted as students. Before each demonstration, the participant who acted as a teacher informed others of his/her actual class, such as what his/her students had learned prior to the lesson. Each demonstration was video-recorded and given to the participant as a resource for self-evaluation. In the 15-minute discussion after the demonstration, the teacher made comments based on what he/she declared to focus in simulated teaching. Then, others gave comments and suggestions based on their experience as students.

Self-Evaluation

Each participant viewed his/her own simulated teaching video and evaluated him/herself based on the following questions: 1) how were goals of teaching set in Action Research Project achieved and why, and 2) what part of simulated teaching should be implemented when applying for actual classroom teaching? After individually viewing and filling out a self-evaluation sheet, all the participants discussed and exchanged opinions regarding their simulated teaching and self-evaluations.

Guest Speaker

We invited a teacher who was experienced in teaching Japanese at the pre-collegiate level as a guest speaker. The guest speaker led a session on his/her expertise. A sample of topics covered in the session are listed below: 1) how to motivate students and maintain their interests in learning Japanese, 2) how to manage to teach the large number of students in class, and 3) how to develop a curriculum.

3. Evaluation

In evaluating the workshop, we compared two "self-evaluations" carried out by the participants firstly in the pre-workshop assignment and secondly after the simulated teaching. It was observed that, for most of the participants, the second self-evaluation was more critical and analytical compared to the first self-evaluation. This could be attributed to the fact that the participants had plenty of opportunities to reflect on their teaching while planning and implementing simulated teaching, critically reviewing the activities

using the framework of "Structure of the lesson", and self-evaluating their own teaching. The results of the workshop-evaluation questionnaire from the participants also showed that "Structure of the lesson" and simulated teaching are effective.

References

Nunan, D. 1989. *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Omaggio, A. 1993. *Teaching Language in Context*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Making of Textbooks (2)

A Textbook for Young Students Hisako Yoshiki Japanese Language Consultant State of Wisconsin, Dept. of Public Instruction

The purpose of this article is not to talk about a particular textbook which I had been engaged in producing in 1988 and 1990, or to promote it, but it is rather by discussing the process of textbook production, to raise questions as to whether it is really necessary to write a textbook for the young learners of Japanese; or if it is, then what type of textbooks would be needed for the current dynamic and diverse learners. Therefore this article can be considered as a kind of record of before and after the textbook production, and how the authors' concept of the role of a textbook has changed during the past ten years before and after the production.

The background of the textbook

Nihongo Kantan: Speak Japanese, a textbook for young students was written when the authors, Saka and myself were teaching at the international schools in Japan at the pre-collegiate level. There was next to nothing for the high school levels nor for the middle/Jr. high levels. Thus all the teachers then were curriculum writers, teachers, and textbook writers at the same time. They both suffered from the fact of having no textbooks to follow and, at the same time, enjoyed the freedom of not having to become a slave to the textbook.

Description of the target group

Our students were the students in the middle school and early stage of Sr. high school at the international schools which usually adopt American style education and use English as the language of communication. They are in Japan because of the parents' decision and not on their own. The length of the stay is usually between 6 months to 5 years.

For the students at the latter part of the secondary schools, college level textbooks could be adopted, even though the topics dealt with in those textbooks needed to be altered to suit their age level, but for the younger students there were none, not even a curriculum guideline. That was the reason why the authors felt that it was necessary to do something about it; something to share what they had learned from their experiences with the novice teachers so that this textbook would free them from at least preparing the basic teaching materials of day to day teaching obligations and they would be able to spend their time and energy on teaching itself and to bring in more interesting cultural activities into the classrooms.

The goals of the textbook

What we had in our mind then was something like a simple framework type book which enabled teachers to adapt to their own teaching situations but it should not fail to include everything necessary for students to communicate in Japanese. This is what we learned from our experiences that would benefit the students. First, the materials should be suitable to the learner's age, should promote the meaningful and purposeful language use, and should be full of activities which encourage learners to communicate in Japanese. Students should be able to enjoy studying Japanese.

Second, students will build up a concept to be a global citizen through studying another language different from their own, which in this case was Japanese. While students learn the Japanese language, they, at the same time, learn about the people who use the language and how they live, which ultimately may help them grow to be more broadminded world citizens. This was our biggest goal. Then students will be able to learn how to learn cooperatively with their classmates, since an international school often has more than 60 different nationalities and they need to learn to be cooperative and kind to each other, rather than competing with each other.

Needs analysis

Before starting writing and also while writing, the students were often asked in which situations they wished to be able to speak Japanese in order to make their life in Japan easier.

Questionnaire Name Grade				
JFL (A, B, C, D, 0) JNL (A, B, C, D, E, F)				
1. How long have you been living in Japan? months				
2. What language do you speak at home?				
3. Which language can you speak besides English?				
4. Have you studied Japanese before? EL Yes EL No If Yes, please state where and for how long you have studied.				
5. Why do you want to study Japanese?				

From these questionnaires, we found out that at the very beginning level the students needed to have survival skills in the communities where English was not spoken. A cultural component was based on the culture embedded in the language use and not so

6. By the end of the course, what would you like to

be able to do with Japanese?

much on traditional culture, for at most international schools located in Japan, cultural components are dealt with in the classes such as social studies, Asian studies, or more specifically in Japan studies. Students have usually abundant opportunity to explore Japanese culture on their own.

At the same time, main textbooks of the beginning stage available for college level, which includes Introduction to Modern Japanese were closely examined in the area of grammatical structures and other grammatical elements and as the result, it was concluded that at a very beginning level where the learners are still seeking survival skills, there was not much difference in the functions corresponding grammar even for the young learners. The difference might lie in the socio-cultural areas as to whether the complicated structure of Keigo should be taught or not. Saka and I decided that if our target students can handle the "desu" and "masu" style correctly, they would be able to get things done for them without offending the grown-up persons they would encounter, so most of the Keigo was taken out. Then the functions were matched to the situations and topics where these expressions are used. The vocabulary was then decided on the basis of the situations and topics.

Articulation to the senior high school program

Another important element to consider was the articulation to their courses taught at the high school levels. Even though the students enjoy learning Japanese, unless they can continue their study of Japanese, we cannot say that we are serving their needs. Even though the middle school level should not be looked upon as a mere preparation stage for high school Japanese, if they had to restart their study from the very beginning we are not doing service to the students either. Therefore the sequencing of the grammatical continuation was seriously taken into consideration. At each different stage before a new grammatical item is introduced the previously learned ones are reviewed, even though the main emphasis is helping students develop their communication skills.

Topic/situation and vocabulary

Topics and situations were chosen to suit the needs of the young learners who were living in Japan accompanied by their parents, and studying Japanese as a foreign language at the international schools. Therefore the topics like going to the bank to open an account or going to a housing agency to get assistance to rent a room was not included. Instead, topics on their favorite sports, food, hobbies, school life, or going around in the communities on their own, something more related to their realistic daily lives were chosen. Then the vocabulary was decided in relation to the topics.

How our concept changed; do we still need to produce more "textbooks"?

When we started to think about writing this series in 1984, there was a definite need, for there was not even a curriculum guide available. After ten years, things have drastically changed and we can easily name ten different textbooks for pre-collegiate level. The national curriculum for K-12 Japanese has been completed in Australia to be shared with everybody in the world, more (at least 2) are coming up here in the US for the same level. So, if you have time and energy to produce "textbooks" I would adopt and adapt them into your own teaching situations. We need more opportunities to learn about how to use authentic materials. In order to do that we need a lot more opportunity to get to know what is available and to consider to use such materials. Teachers workshops could accomplish both goals.

Creative teachers

Teachers might wish to have a textbook which has everything in it and all they have to do is to follow it from page to page. It would be so nice to have a textbook which has all kinds of exercises, grammatical explanations, cultural notes and even tests to assess the student's progress. A perfect textbook, if there is any, may be very useful but at the same time, it may have the danger of making the teachers and students its slaves. What students really need is not a perfect textbook but teachers who are free and creative, and above all, who care about the kids.

Whatever textbook teachers may use in teaching Japanese, they have to decide their goals and objectives in order to meet students' needs. Then teachers must organize the course and prepare resources. This means that a textbook should be considered as one of the resources and not as the curriculum. This is the basic and the biggest change in our thinking, for different resources are being needed at every stage of language learning and teaching.

Technology Yes, But Student Centered

Kazuo Tsuda United Nations International School (This is an extract from the paper presented at the 2nd Princeton Japanese Pedagogy workshop, May 1994.)

1. Introduction

s you know already, one of the new practices is computer assisted instruction (CAl). Our challenge is to discover how to use CAl, which includes multi media, with the new computer generation we have today, in the secondary school. This paper describes a CAl program-the Multipurpose Language Program. This program can be used to help transform traditional teacher-centered instruction to student-centered learning.

2. Post-Textbook

I want to discuss first the "post-textbook" aspect of the program. In the post-textbook situation the students are confronted with an alterable page with which they can interact (interface with the text.) They can initiate behavior that turns study into play. The students have the possibility of altering the text; they can add their own text to the printed image, thus creating their own text and simulating unpredictable language activity. In simulating interactive language activity, we escape the teacher-and-textbook dominated class situation in which the student passively absorbs instructional material. Under post-textbook conditions the students become the center of their own language learning activity. In this way the passive learner becomes an active learner-participant in meaningful language activity.

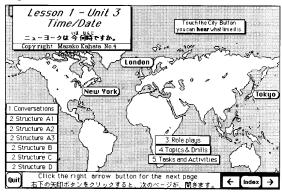
Interacting with this post-textbook, students are stimulated to move as rapidly as they can. Thus the program produces optimal self-pacing. This is a clear advantage of this program over the traditional teacher-centered classroom. The Multipurpose Language Program can be used more creatively.

The self-sorting index feature of the program permits the teacher or the student to creatively respond to particular needs. Student or teacher can arrange or rearrange the text by choosing a modular element, i.e., a situation, a function, a grammatical structure, a communication strategy. A definite advantage of the program over the traditional text is that both student and teacher can tailor material (text) to their individual needs. In the traditional textbook all pages are bound. Page one can never become page fifteen or page fifty.

The teacher can even add authentic material: the teacher can purchase CD-ROM disks from Japan and use them as text support. The students can add their own authentic material or their own creative ideas or they can add to their video portfolio.

So this post-textbook program induces self paced interactive participation. It can be used with any traditional textbook-perhaps we can now call them paleo" textbooks, or the program can be used on its own.

(Figure 1)



3.1 Student Centered

The new computer technology supports the shift from teacher-centered classes to student-centered classes. This shift lays the foundation for developing new student competencies. We can measure the movement in a particular classroom from teacher-centered instruction to student-centered learning. I will be describing the stages of the shift, based on the performance-based foreign language instruction and outcome-based foreign language instruction.

3.1.1 Guided Observation

In the first stage of the shift, the computer displays and introduces authentic materials. Students listen to the audio component while viewing images of, for example, Japan.

3.1.2 Guided Analysis

In the second step of the shift, the computer is an

assistant to the teacher in a teacher-centered class. The computer displays and explains the structure of the language and the strategy of communication. The students rearrange the text by choosing a modular element, e.g., a situation, a function, a grammatical structure, and a communication strategy.

3.1.3 Guided Practice

In the third stage, the computer is still an assistant with the teacher in a teacher-centered class. The computer supports students in self-paced learning through drills and practice and writing in order to help them to memorize. Even though students use technology in the traditional classroom, this step moves the students in the direction of more autonomous learning.

3.1.4 Simulated Interactive Performance

In the fourth stage, the computer technology provides greater motivation for students to work with their peers. In this stage, teachers and students are given new direction. Now, the teacher may introduce a format but the students supply the content to create the simulations. Teachers see their students' skill and knowledge from a different point of view. The characteristic roles of teacher and student change drastically at this stage.

3.1.5 Interactive Performance

In the fifth stage, the greater student advances occur in classes where teachers begin to achieve a balance between the appropriate use of direct instruction strategies and collaborative, inquiry-driven knowledge-construction strategies. Students start to collect information using multiple devices and formats. They can organize this information, linking both visual and audio elements (e.g. responding in speech to a written cue displayed on the computer screen). They can create their own performanceoutcomes and see them on their screen or hear them, correcting or modifying them as they see fit. They can use the same technology to communicate their ideas to others, to discuss and evaluate their performances-outcomes.

3.2 Roles

3.2.1 Teacher Role

Technology changes the characteristic role of the teacher. In the traditional classroom teachers dominate, presenting their knowledge and skill as a model for pupils. In the student-centered class, the teacher cannot do this. In the fourth and fifth stage the role of teachers change from the role of lecturer and expert to sometimes learner and sometimes collaborator.

3.2.2. Student Role

Although computers and other technologies are increasingly important for our generation, they are vitally important for the next generation, they are vitally important for the next generation. This generation was born into the electronic environment. This process makes it easy for our students to change the role from listener to collaborator or expert. This is what happens in the fourth and fifth stages.

4. Advantage of Student-Centered Class

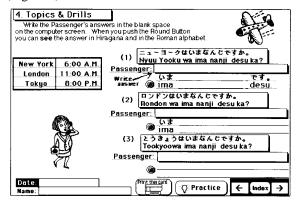
4.1 Learning Styles/Variety of Learning Styles in the Student-Centered Classroom

Although in the traditional classroom the teacher instructs the students, the knowledge and skills cannot be transferred directly from the teacher to the students. Students have many different learning styles. Students are most often compelled to learn a subject using the teacher's learning style. For this reason students who have different learning styles will often have difficulty with a subject. In student-centered education we see many different types of learning styles. All types mingle in student-centered education.

4.2. Advantage of Student-Centered Class

My Multipurpose Language Program allows students to use the learning style they are most comfortable with, but by encouraging collaborative work, it enables students to develop and expand their learning abilities. This may be perhaps the greatest advantage of the Multipurpose Language Program.

(Figure 2)



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Yookoso: A Textbook as a Tool to Create an Enriched Learning Environment

Yasu-Hiko Tohsaku University of California, San Diego

ne of language instructors' roles is to create an "enriched" learning environment which fosters and facilitates students' language acquisition inside and outside the classroom. *Yookoso: An Invitation to Contemporary Japanese*, beginning-level Japanese textbook published from McGraw-Hill, Inc.*, is intended to be an instructional tool that helps instructors create the optimal environment for Ianguage learning as well as maximize students' learning efficiency.

I would like to briefly discuss the designing and development principles of this textbook which will help the users design and deliver their instruction efficiently.

Effective Activities for Language Acquisition

Yookoso is written for a class whose learning goal is to acquire functional, communicative abilities of Japanese in four skills. It is based on a systematic syllabus of topics, functions, situations, and notions that students must be able to handle in order to effectively function in Japanese. The first step to acquire a foreign language is to be exposed to language input. Yookoso provides authentic, natural language input through modeling and demonstration. It also includes a variety of activities through which students are exposed to a large volume of input. Second language acquisition research indicates that Learners' active involvement (experiential learning), interactive, cooperative learning, meaningfulness (relevancy to learner's needs and interests) and context-richness of activities, use of higher-order of cognitive skills, pleasant learning conditions, and learners' strong motivation are contributing factors to effective language learning. Activities in Yookoso are designed and developed with these factors in mind.

Flexible Organization Accommodating a Wide Range of Learners' Needs

Curriculum goals and instructional design must be shaped by learners' needs (including learning goals, learning style, previous learning experience, and language aptitude level) and instructional conditions (class time, class size, etc.). In designing and developing *Yookoso*, every effort was made so that instructors can flexibly and freely select and order materials, and adjust the amount of materials used

inside and outside the classroom depending on curriculum goals and learners' needs. *Yookoso's* flexible organization of various types of activities helps instructors provide learners with an enriched learning environment in a coherent, consistent fashion. For instance, *Yookoso* makes it possible for instructors to sequence activities in the following ways.

- input (comprehension) activities
- output (production) activities
- skill-getting activities
- → skill-using activities
- · teacher-led activities
- → pair/group activities
- · controlled activities
- --- creative, open-ended activities

In addition to the main text, Lab *Manual/Workbook* includes diversified activities that can be used either inside or outside the classroom. *Teacher's Manual* provides suggestions for additional activities.

Integrated Approach to Language Learning and Teaching

Time is a precious resource for instruction. We have usually more content to cover than class time. One solution to this problem is to assign self-learnable materials (i.e., what students can study on their own) as homework, concentrating in class on what we can do only inside the classroom (e.g., activities requiring interactions with classmates and the instructor). Recent second language acquisition research demonstrates that explicit grammar instruction has a relatively small, though not totally negligible, impact on language acquisition. In Yookoso, thus, grammar explanations are clear and simplified so that students can learn grammar independently outside the classroom. Students also learn grammar integrally through classroom interactive activities. The separation of grammar explanations from oral and other activities in Yookoso makes it possible for students to study grammar inductively or deductively depending upon their learning style or grammar

Other means used in *Yookoso* to make efficient use of limited class time is to promote transfer and integration of four skills in a coordinated, systematic manner. Students are given opportunities to apply items acquired in, for example, reading activities to

oral activities or writing activities, etc.

Textbook for a "Learner-Centered" Classroom

Traditional language textbooks, as an authoritative, complete document for language teaching, limit curriculum goals and instructional design to those which the authors considered appropriate. Such a "textbook-centered" approach, ignoring learner's needs in particular circumstances, does not necessarily create the optimal learning condition. In this approach, most likely, learners are passive participants who simply receive and repeat the information presented in the text ("chew-and-spew" use of textbooks). An active process of language development does not take place.

I strongly believe that language textbooks must be a

resource tool that helps learners build their knowledge and improve their skills while actively C involving in, taking an initiative in, and taking control over their learning process. *Yookoso's* diversified content and flexible organization, combined with needs analysis, adequate goal setting, and effective instructional design and delivery, allow instructors to create an input-rich, context-rich, acquisition-rich environment where learners, as active participants in their learning process, can maximize language acquisition.

*Lab Manual/Workbook, audiotapes, and Teacher's Manual are also available. The second volume, Yookoso: Continuing with Contemporary Japanese, accompanying video and computer program will be available later this year.

Making of 中・上級教科書

Yoshiko Higurashi San Diego State University

am honored to share with you some points I noted when I was developing the manuscripts of Current Japanese: Intercultural Communication (Tokyo: Bonjinsha, 1987, henceforth CJ) for intermediate or advanced college students of Japanese and Advanced Japanese: Social and Economic Issues in Japan and the U.S. (Tokyo: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Japan, 1990, henceforth AJ) for advanced college students.

Problems and Needs of Students

When I began writing CJ in 1983, the first step was to analyze the most common problems among my students. They were frustrated with outdated material in their textbooks, they had misconceptions about Japan, and they were unable to discuss current issues effectively in Japanese. There were few students with strong language skills who were interested and knowledgeable about the influence of cultural heritage on the people and society of modern Japan.

Thus, I saw a need to promote intercultural communication along with practical language skills. It was evident that my students needed a text which would (1) help students develop their language skills for the purpose of communication, (2) give a sense of currentness, (3) present an accurate picture of modern Japan, and (4) introduce up-to-date cultural topics.

Create Your Own Guidelines

Once the problems and needs of students are identified, the next step is to create our own guidelines for the text, by asking ourselves general yet fundamental questions. These questions may include the following:

- 1. What level is to be targeted: elementary, intermediate, or advanced?
- 2. Is the audience at the collegiate level or secondary level?

My decision to write <u>CJ</u> for those who had completed an elementary level Japanese text for college students determined the level. My audience would have approximately 180 hours to 240 hours of instruction and could be at the intermediate or advanced level depending upon the curriculum at their institution.

- 3. What materials do we presume to have been covered in the previous text?
- 4. What are the goals of the text? What do we expect our students to have achieved by the time they finish the text?
- 5. What kinds of specific tasks/functions (e.g. how to start/end conversations, how to explain uneasy situations, how to apologize, and how to support/oppose opinions), con texts (e.g. formal-informal, superior-inferior, male-female), content, and text types must we provide in order to attain the

goals of the text?

The ultimate outcomes I sought for students who use <u>CJ</u> were (a) a remarkable improvement of communication skills, (b) wider perspectives on the world, and (c) the development of a warmer attitude toward people with different cultural backgrounds.

I wanted my students to feel comfortable communicating in more than simple paragraphs. Each student, whether speaking or writing, should be able to express complex opinions on a wide variety of topics using the logic and style appropriate to the Japanese cultural context.

- 6. Why do we have to write our own text? Isn't there any text available to accommodate our needs? If not, what kind of contribution can we make to the field by writing our own?
- 7. Do we create original stories/conversations, or do we compile authentic materials? What are the pros and cons of controlled vs. authentic materials?
- 8. How many class hours does it take to finish each lesson and the whole text? What lesson plans are possible for each lesson?
- 9. How should each lesson be organized?
- 10. What kinds of drills, exercises, and activities will best support each lesson?

My Own Guidelines

In the process of developing CJ, I kept the following points in mind:

- Create a text which makes it possible to require students to use only Japanese as a means of communication.
- 2. Write the author's original stories in Japanese. Introduce language and culture in a systematic and graded manner.
- 3. Create main characters who are American students (one male student and one female student, allowing the introduction of both male and female styles of Japanese) who have just moved to Japan after taking elementary Japanese in college.
- 4. Create ten life-like situations based upon the problems they encounter in Japan, and assign them to

ten lessons.

- 5. Devote each lesson to one major topic. Cover essential topics discussed in the theory of intercultural communication.
- 6. Keep the organization of the main story consistent: the situation is explained, the issue is raised, and the problem is solved. Both a written style and a series of conversations must be used in each story.
- 7. Set up a goal for Kanji learning. (Mastery of Kvoiku Kanji was set.)
- 8. Select a guideline for expressions. (<u>Asahi Shinbun</u> no Yogo no Tebiki was used.)
- 9. Produce supplementary materials (at least, audio tapes for the Language Laboratory use and Kanji Practice Sheets)
- 10. Present updated information about Japanese society.
- 11. Use the same structure for each lesson: Main, Story, List of Vocabulary with English Translation, New Kanji, Exercises, Word Definition and Usage, Idiomatic Expressions/Grammar Patterns, Related Matters and Questions for Discussion, and Radicals and Kanji Characters.

This is how I developed the manuscript of CI. I thought the CI was the first and the last textbook I would ever write. However, to my great surprise, those professors who used CI encouraged me to write another textbook to follow CI, by (a) focusing on topics for business-minded students and (b) incorporating 949 kanji characters introduced in junior high school in Japan.

Thus, I wrote a manuscript of AJ. The lesson structure and teaching method used in AJ are almost the same as those of CJ. I am grateful to numerous professors for supporting my textbooks. Both of them are currently in their 6th printings.

I will be delighted if my experience in developing CJ and AJ will be of any assistance to those who plan to write their own text.

The Making of an Intermediate-Level Textbook

Akira Miura University of Wisconsin

deally, you should write your own textbook to teach with. You are familiar with your students' proficiency level, objectives, interests, and capabilities. The problem with writing a textbook,

however, is that it takes an inordinate amount of time, and who has all that time while teaching full time? So what you usually do is choose a textbook you can best relate to, and use it while supplementing it with

handouts of your own creation. You do this for a few years, but sooner or later you become weary of the book; you switch to another textbook and start writing a whole new set of handouts. During all this, you keep saying to yourself or your colleagues, "I'm not really satisfied with this book," but you continue repeating this whole process year after year anyway. Does this sound familiar to you? It should. After all, isn't this what most teachers of Japanese do?

At least this was what my colleague Naomi Hanaoka McGloin and I used to do regarding our second-year Japanese course at the University of Wisconsin until there came a time when we said to ourselves, "Let's write our own book!" Actually it wasn't that simple. I was allowed half of my teaching load off by the University for one year; besides, we were given a grant by the Japan Forum to sup-port us for two summers. With enough time thus guaranteed, we were able to launch our textbook-writing project!

The first thing we had to do was to decide what kind of syllabus our book should follow. We opted in favor of combining a topic syllabus with a functional syllabus. Since the University of Wisconsin has a semester system, each semester lasting roughly fifteen weeks, we thought it would be a good idea to write a book of fifteen lessons, each lesson taking two weeks to study. That meant choosing fifteen topics that would interest our students. At our university, most students majoring in Japanese go to Japan for a year's study during their junior year. So the most logical thing, we felt, would be to select the kinds of topics relevant to their year in Japan. Thus we chose topics such as doing a home-stay, going to restaurants, taking trips, getting ill, etc., in Japan. We also decided to include some current topics that are important in today's Japan, such as issues involving women, internationalization, and cultural friction. Next we chose the kinds of functions that intermediate students would need most:

meeting people, asking favors, receiving or extending invitations, making reservations, offering apologies, etc. Sequencing these topics and functions was not an easy thing to do. The most basic criterion here was what situations our students would most likely encounter. But, before settling on the final sequence, we had to actually use the lessons in manuscript form for a few semesters.

The next thing we did was to discuss the structure of each lesson, i.e., what sections each lesson should consist of as well as in what sequence they should appear. Since we wanted to include as many elements as possible within reason, this was also a difficult task, but somehow we decided on the items as well as the sequence: "Culture Notes," "Dialogues,"

"Intensive Reading Selection," "Glossary," "Kanji List," "Grammar Notes," "Grammar Exercises," "Communicative Exercises," "Listening Exercises," and "Speed Reading 'Pas sage." In addition, we chose to enliven the book with little bits of linguistic/cultural information such as kanji radicals, proverbs, and haiku.

Next came the assignment of work, i.e., who should write which sections. This job was fortunately not very difficult, because our strengths and interests differed, or, to put it more positively, they complemented each other. One of us thus agreed to write some sections, while the other volunteered to take care of the rest. Needless to say, however, we constantly showed each other what we wrote. This was done regularly, i.e., once a week, which produced a constructive exchange of opinions, which in turn led to repeated rewrites and revisions. Using the materials in class was also extremely helpful because we discovered by trial and error what worked and what did not. Moreover, comments from our students and teaching assistants helped a great deal.

Finally, I would like to list some things we aimed at while writing our textbook. (1) We wished to help develop all four language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. (2) In addition to the above four skills, we concentrated on culture. We wanted our students not only to develop their language skills but also to deepen their understanding of Japan, the Japanese mind, and Japanese society. (3) We tried to make the dialogues sound as natural as possible. To that end, we mixed different styles, i.e., male/female, informal/formal, and keigo/nonkeigo. One problem here was that, in all textbooks of Japanese, foreign speakers always speak perfect Japanese. This is, of course, highly unnatural. It is, on the other hand, pedagogically unsound to use incorrect sentences in a textbook. We, therefore, made a compromise by including lines where foreign speakers did not understand some words uttered by native speakers. That kind of situation arises quite frequently in real life, and we wanted to make sure that our students would learn how to ask questions in a case like that. (4) We used some authentic materials, i.e., reading selections directly taken from Japanese books and newspapers. This was due to our belief that even intermediate-level students should and can learn to handle materials written for native speakers, and that they enjoy doing it. (5) As far as the kanji use goes, we avoided the idea of introducing all "kyooiku-kanji," as is done in some intermediatelevel textbooks. Instead, we felt that words that are normally written in kanji should appear in kanji, but that the students should not be expected to learn to

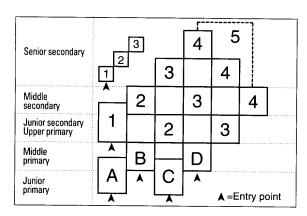
write all the kanji introduced in the book. We therefore divided the kanji in each lesson into two categories: those the student should learn to both read and write and those the student should learn to only read. (6) In the glossary, in addition to literal translations, we added explanations, e.g., *deeto* "date (in the sense of 'social engagement' only)". (7) in "Grammar Exercises," we avoided mechanical drill-like problems as much as possible; instead we included, wherever we could, short conversation-type exercises. (8) In "Un 'yoo Renshuu (Communicative Exercises)," we included pair work as well as small-group work in order to increase the opportunity for the student to use the language communicatively. (9) We provided a speed reading passage ("S okudoku")

at the end of each lesson. Its objective was to give the student some culture-oriented reading material which was informative yet easy enough for him/her to read through quickly, so that he/she could proceed to the next lesson with renewed confidence. (10) We tried hard to make our book fun to use by mixing in humor.

It was thus that our newly published *An Integrated Approach to Intermediate Japanese* came into being. But like any other textbook, ours too starts going out of date almost as soon as it is published. Language is fluid: pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar all change. Besides, topics that are up-to-date today are no longer current tomorrow. That is, however, the fate of a textbook!

The Australian Language Levels (ALL) Guidelines

he Australian Language Levels (ALL) Guidelines is an organizational framework and curriculum guidelines for language teaching learning from primary to secondary levels in Australia. The ALL Guidelines advocates a learner-centered approach. Learner characteristics are described, and language syllabuses and programs are organized by means of a proposed Framework of progressive, age-related stages. The following diagram depicts the Framework of Stages and indicates initial entry points for beginning learners.



ALL Syllabus Development and Programming Book 2, 1998 p.6

ALL Syllabus Development and Programming Book 2, 1998 p.6

Stages A and B are for learners who have no prior background in the target language. Stages C and D are for those who have some home background in the target language.

The syllabuses or each stage contain the five areas of goals (communication, sociocultural, learning-how-to learn, language and cultural awareness, general knowledge) and specific contents (context, topic, functions, notions, grammar, modes of communication, text-types).

The *ALL Guidelines* is comprised of a four book set entitled:

- 1. Language Learning in Australia
- 2. Syllabus Development and Programming
- 3. Method, Resources and Assessment
- 4. Evaluation, Curriculum Renewal, and Teacher Development

Yoroshiku: National Curriculum Guidelines for Japanese, K-12

The *Yoroshiku* series was developed in Australia based on the *Australian Language Levels (ALL) Guidelines*. It is divided into three sets for different: 1) *Niko Niko:*

Stages A & B, 2) Moshi Moshi: Stages 1 & 2, and 3) Pera Pera: Stages 3 & 4. (They might be equivalent to American elementary school level, beginning level at the junior and senior high, and intermediate level Japanese at the high school level respectively.) Each set comes with four types of materials: Students' Book, Teachers' Handbook, Teachers' Resources, and AudioCassette. The Students' Book contains key expressions for every function introduced in each unit, full of activities through the book, and 'simulated authentic' materials. The Teachers' Handbook lists suggested learning items including language functions, notions, grammatical items and kanji for each stage as well as suggested classroom activities in each unit. The Teachers' Resources provide activity worksheets, games, songs, and stories including transcripts an accompanying for audiocassette tape.

Book Title	Price	Call No.t				
Kana Frieze*	A\$45.OO	810.7NA				
Niko Niko: Stages A &B-						
Early Childhood to Upper Primary						
Students' Hoo	ok A\$19	9.95 810.7 NA A,B				

Teachers' Handbook	A\$34.95	810.7 NA A,B
Teachers' Resources	A\$24.95	810.7 NA A,B
Audio Cassette	A\$19.95	810.7 NA A,B
Moshi Moshi: Stages 1 &2-		
Lower to Middle Secondary		
Students' Book	A\$24.95	810.7 NA 1,2
Teachers' Handbook	A\$34.95	810.7 NA 1,2
Teachers' Resources	A\$24.95	810.7 NA 1,2
Audio Cassette	A\$19.95	810.7 NA 1,2
Pera Pera: Stages 3&4-		
Senior Secondary		
Students' Book	A\$34.95	810.7 NA 3,4
Teachers' Handbook	A\$34.95	810.7 NA 3,4
Teachers' Resources	A\$24.95	810.7 NA 3,4
Audio Cassette	A\$19.95	810.7 NA 3,4

+This is the Call No. used in The Japan Foundation Language Center Library.

*It is suggested to use this with Niko Niko and Moshi Moshi.

For further information on the ALL Guidelines and Yoroshiku:,

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Recipients of The Japan Foundation Language Center Grant Programs January-March 1995

Workshops and Conferences Grant Program

1. The Ohio State University Dept. of East Asian Languages & Literatures Columbus, OH "7th Annual Meeting of Lake Erie Teachers of Japanese" February 3&4, 1995 \$2,000.00

2. The Arizona Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ)

"A Workshop on How to Test Oral Proficiency in the Communicative Classroom" March 1995

\$1,000.00

Association Grant Program

 Northeast Association of Secondary Teachers of Japanese (NEASTJ)
 \$1,500.00
 The Japan Foundation

Language Related Programs

2. National Council of Secondary Teachers of Japanese (NCSTJ)"1995 ACTFL Meeting" November 18-21, 1995

Atlanta, GA \$1,222.50 \$1,222.50

From Our Readers

Ritsu Shimizu
Shaler Area High/Middle School

Attending the Institute of the National K-12 Foreign Language Resource Center at Iowa State University

Interactive Multimedia Authoring Institute, one of four institutes established by the National K-12 Foreign Language Resource Center, at Iowa State University. The National K-12 Foreign Language Resource Center (Director, Prof. Marcia Rosenbusch) was funded by a \$400,000 grant from the U.S. Department of Education. The grant made possible the formation of four Institutes to achieve various goals. They were designed to fulfill the established three major initiatives: teaching strategies and curriculum improvement; new technology; and performance assessment.

The participants of The Interactive Multimedia Authoring Institute were selected competitively and numbered twenty teachers, who represented six languages (French, Spanish, German, Russian, Japanese and Chinese); all levels and programs (elementary immersion; middle and high school language courses, and Distance Education); and 11 regions from Alaska to Mississippi, California to Connecticut. Among the twenty, there were two Japanese teachers, including myself from Pennsylvania and Tim Cook sensei from Lincoln, Nebraska.

During the intensive 5-day institute, all participants explored the benefits of using multimedia, examined exemplary multimedia hardware and software, authored a HyperStudio stack and produced lessons linking a stack to segments on a CD-ROM and or a video disc that integrated into the stack a segment of a motion video. All participants also received training in the use of electronic mail since one of the goals of the Institute was to establish long-term professional support for participants through their use of electronic mail.

Despite the unavailability of all the multimedia technological facilities in our current average foreign language classrooms, at least the use of HyperStudio may come close to reality. HyperStudio and Hypercard come with alphabet fonts. At this writing,

I am contacting Prof. Hatasa, at Purdue University, for his new tool software called Development Tools for Japanese (DTJ), which enables the use of kana in the HyperCard environment. Once we can use kana in the HyperCard environment, there are various learning enhancing projects available for our Japanese language students.

Many teachers teach some type of written language as part of Japanese language teaching (in my school, hiragana first). Without sacrificing the development of the cardinal skills of language teaching, that is, aural and oral skills, the students master kana remarkably well after going through a set of developmental, perceptual processing over many months. If the teacher does not have students use the acquired knowledge in a productive fashion, such knowledge may become sterile. As a pilot program, I am planning to have my students create HyperStudio stacks using kana fonts and they will also record their short messages in their stack. This will be conducted as an extra curricular activity as part of the Japan Club activities.

We all know that technology does not replace the teacher, and the student's interactive learning modes with their teacher. Technology serves students as an additional motivational, learning enhancement and reinforcement tool, which we Japanese language teachers in category four language need more than ever. (For those who learn Japanese in Distance Learning, it is an essential means of learning.) Why shouldn't we give them an additional learning tool? How can we as classroom teachers secure such a facility is another issue?

Perhaps someday, among Japanese language teachers we can exchange the stacks students created, or we can form a specific interest group for electronic mail correspondence for our professional growth as well as nurturing the students' interest in learning Japanese.

Michelle Miyazaki
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 Urbandale, Iowa 50322

y name is Michelle Miyazaki, and I am the Japanese teacher at Urbandale High School in Urbandale, Iowa. I have enjoyed reading your publication for the past year, as it has proved to be both interesting and educational to me as a first year teacher. I am writing to share a unique experience that might interest your readers.

Urbandale High School has enjoyed a sister school relationship with Minami Senior High School of Osaka, Japan, for the past four years, and we are excited to announce the visit of their entire junior class. Next month approximately 160 Japanese students and 10 teachers, including the principal, will be traveling to Urbandale, where they will stay with over 80 host families October 27-30. Urbandale currently has almost 100 Japanese language students in four different levels, including two classes taught via fiber optics. Japanese was offered for the first

time five years ago, and the sister school relationship began shortly thereafter. Since then, we have welcomed a group of 17 students and teachers from Minami High School, and last year 15 Urbandale students and teachers traveled to Osaka, Japan. In addition, we have been fortunate to host two longterm Japanese exchange students every year, and have also sent several Urbandale High School students for an extended student exchange.

The October visit of Minami High School students will mark the high point of our relationship with the school. The 80 host families, Japanese language students, and the entire Urbandale community are anxiously awaiting the arrival of our Japanese friends. It is our hope that this visit will not only strengthen our ties with the Japanese school, but increase cultural understanding between the U.S. and Japan. Thank you for your time and support.

New Information On Washington Endorsement

Yumi Toma, Japanese Language Consultant Washington State Office for Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI)

Teachers wishing to have an endorsement in Japanese on their Washington teaching certificate may now obtain this endorsement by passing New York University's Language Proficiency Examination in Japanese with a score of 16. The individual who scores 16 points on the 16-point examination need not take any college course work in order to obtain the endorsement.

The exam is offered in more than 40 languages and used by both native English language speakers and native speakers of other languages. The candidate must be examined for 16 points. The results are valid for five years. The results will normally be sent to OSPI within one month of the examination. "Proficiency Testing in Foreign Languages" (a copy of the brochure/registration form and a description of the exam) is available by calling (212) 998-7030 or writing to:,

New York City University School of Continuing Education Foreign Language Department 48 Cooper Square, Room 107 New York, NY 10003

A report letter from NYU may be sent to the following address:,

Professional Education and Certification Office, OSPI Old Capitol Bldg., P.O. Box 47200 Olympia, WA 98504-7200

State rules and regulations concerning teacher certification are subject to change.

For basic information, please refer to my article on

"Endorsements in Teaching Certificates:, K-12 Japanese in

Washington Language Endorsements" (*The Breeze*, Number Six, April, 1999