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INTERNATIONALIZING THE JAPANESE CLASSROOM WITH
COMPUTER-MEDIATED INSTRUCTION

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
Hajime Kajiwara


June 2004

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June 2004


Approved by:



Dr. Lynn Diaz-Rico, First Reader

April 26, 2004

Date



Dr. Gary Negin, Second Reader

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ABSTRACT

The Japanese government currently plans to use English education in Japan to internationalize the classroom. Many schools have set about to materialize this goal. In most case, however, English instruction cannot actualize the goal of internationalization because of obstacles such as excessive focus on the college entrance examination as outcome assessment.

The goal of this project is to design an effective way for Japanese high school students to improve their English communication skills through internationalized, computer-mediated instruction. For the purpose of achieving this goal, this project examines five key concepts: computer-mediated communication, distance learning in TESOL, resistance to learning a second language, internationalizing the Japanese classroom, and English-immersion programs. Integrating these concepts leads to a theoretical model for the design of curriculum based on e-mail activity between Japanese English learners and native-English speakers.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

Internationalization is one of the biggest goals in English education in Japan. English is one of the required subjects for students who are in junior and senior high school. Beginning in 2002, students at elementary school started learning English in school. Therefore, many skillful English teachers will be needed, with a reliable English education as the goal. Based on the concept of internationalization, various innovative styles of classes are supposed to be attempted. In actual fact, however, the style of teaching English remains very conservative.

Basically, in public school, there are thirty-five to forty-five students in a class. This is why teachers cannot pay much attention to every student. Also, the focus of learning English tends to be the study of grammar. In order for students to pass the college entrance examination, English teachers place a great deal of weight on teaching grammar because few universities require English communication skills from examinees. Consequently, Japanese people do not, for the most part, exhibit the confidence of speaking, writing, and listening

to English correctly, compared with the proficiency that they achieve in English grammar. Moreover, almost all curricular content is determined by the Ministry of Education, currently known as the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT). Because of this, students are limited to learn only officially sanctioned English. Teachers cannot teach what they want. There is actually not an iota of internationalization in the current state of affairs.

For the purpose of resolving such a contradiction, English education in Japan has to undergo a complete transformation. Especially, because of the need for improvement of the English communication skills of Japanese students, an effective curriculum for English communication is needed for both students and teachers.

The Role of English in Japan

Recently, demands for English communication skills have increased dramatically in Japan. Certain schools have exchange programs and Japanese students can easily contact foreign cultures. These schools are not yet widespread, but this kind of school is starting to take root. Learning a foreign language can involve knowing and respecting cultures, not only in educational circles but also on the part of the general public. The existence of foreign-owned

corporations is a good example. In business, English plays an important role as an international language. After World War II, the Japanese economy rebounded to a high degree of development. As the economy has flourished, the necessity of learning English has been recognized.

Nevertheless, English education has not been able to keep up with those demands. It has always focused on the college entrance examination as a curricular goal. As a result, most Japanese people cannot use proper sentences in conversation. English education in Japan has nearly neglected English communication skills.

The Current Situation of English Education in Japan

I was an English teacher at a public senior high school for several years. On the basis of my job experience, I observed three shortcomings in the current situation of English education in the Japanese high school: excessive focus on studying grammar, lack of student enjoyment in the classroom, and little contact between Japanese students and native-English speakers.

Excessive Focus on Studying Grammar. Japanese students have to study English grammar instead of communication skills. Regular textbooks, for the most part, emphasize grammar. Fundamentally, usually acquire a

language first through communication. However, students do not have enough opportunities to acquire communicative proficiency because of grammar-focused instruction. What is worse, the college entrance examination contains many questions about grammar, so an emphasis on studying grammar has become a logical consequence.

Lack of Student Enjoyment in the Classroom. Most instruction conforms to the textbooks, so many students lack interest. It is rare that textbooks arouse students' curiosity or interest. Furthermore, Japanese students in English classrooms always face the fear of making mistakes. As a result, those students resist learning English. This leads to the fact that everybody in the classroom becomes bored during English classes. Most teachers do not have adequate skills to deal with a class full of resistant students. Boring textbooks, students without desire, and low-skilled teachers with resistant students make English classes dull.

Little Contact between Japanese Students and Native-English Speakers. "When in Rome, do as the Romans do." That is to say, students must have a lot of opportunity to talk to English speakers. In Japan, there is an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) system, with native-English speakers helping teach English to students in classes with

Japanese teachers. The ALT system is a good tool, but English education in Japan does not make the best use of it. This is why the English class relies on textbooks too much and students hardly experience authentic English.

Target Teaching Level

At the senior-high-school level in Japan, the content of English class is advanced, in contrast to the junior-high level. When students are in junior high school, they learn basic English, like greetings or short sentences. Compared with that, senior high students step into more complicated areas. For example, the Japanese language does not have any expression corresponding to the past perfect tense in English. However, students learn the past perfect tense in high school.

Usually, there are four English classes a week. One class takes about fifty minutes, so there are two hundred minutes per a week to study English at school. However, the classes almost always focus on grammar and students can hardly get enough communication skills, as mentioned above. Simultaneously, most students in senior high school have a chain of college entrance examinations to face after studying English. This is why an effective English curriculum, especially for improving communication skills, must be required in order to keep Japanese adults to

become internationalized. Moreover, the students in high school have the power to follow their personal interest or curiosity, so I would like to support them throughout my English curriculum.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of the project is to develop opportunities for students to interact with native-English speakers in the English class in Japan. This project focuses on enhancing students' motivation to learn a foreign language without any hesitation or resistance.

In this project, six instructional lessons provide Japanese high school students, with effective methods of developing their English communication skills and opportunities for cultural exchange. With this computer technology, Japanese students can interact with foreign culture using language learning.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters: Introduction (Chapter One), Review of the Literature (Chapter Two), Theoretical Framework (Chapter Three), Curriculum Design (Chapter Four), and Proposed Assessment (Chapter Five). Chapter One describes the background and current situation of English education in Japan and the purpose of this

project. Chapter Two reviews five key concepts: computer-mediated communication, distance learning in TESOL, resistance to learning a second language, internationalizing the Japanese classroom, and English immersion programs. Chapter Three provides a theoretical framework based on an integration of these five key concepts. Chapter Four presents a unit plan with six lessons based on the theoretical framework in the previous chapter. Chapter Five offers the assessment plan corresponding to the curriculum unit in Chapter Four; an appendix containing the unit plan concludes this project.

Significance of the Project

In Japan, English is regarded as an international language, and fluent communication in English is believed a promissory note for the success of the business both in Japan and in the world. The demands of English have increased year after year. Although the MEXT has emphasized the importance of educating an internationalized people, English instruction in schools, especially public schools, still seems not to satisfy its demands. A number of schools are equipped with computer rooms, but there are useless fixtures in most schools. The context of English instruction in Japanese classrooms

focuses on preparing students to pass the college entrance examination.

This project offers several tips to help students communicate with native-English speakers for the internationalization that Japanese students and teachers seek. The curriculum design will offer an instructional unit with the objective to internationalize the computer-mediated English class in Japan. Therefore, this project is significant for Japanese students who struggle in English classes and for teachers who are eager to change the routine of English instruction.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Computer-Mediated Communication

Human beings have been interacting with computers for many years. In the last decade, the communicative use of technology has dramatically increased, enabling people to communicate with others more easily (Chesebro & Bonsall, 1989; Peyton, 1999). Thanks to this development, information is transmitted to more people in less time. As a simultaneous development, computers as communication devices have attracted a great deal of attention in the field of education.

What is Computer-Mediated Communication?

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is one of the ways technology can be used as a communication tool. CMC includes numerous ways humans use computers and networks to transmit, store, and retrieve information (Berge, 1995). According to Lam (2000), one attraction of CMC is the variety of options it offers the users. Students now have a chance to participate in multiple computer-mediated environments. Romiszowski and Mason (1996) defined CMC as "communication between different parties separated in space and/or time, mediated by interconnected computers"

(p. 439). Romiszowski and Mason (1996) divided CMC into three types: highly interactive communication, multi-way communication, and synchronous or asynchronous communication.

Highly Interactive Communication. CMC is capable of supporting complex processes of interaction between participants. Unlike the previously limited interactivity, the possibilities for interaction and feedback are nearly limitless. Participants are able to express within their messages communicative content enriched with their viewpoints and emotions.

Multi-way Communication. Communication, at the very least, is two-way, but CMC can be multi-faceted between all the participants of a group, who can receive and respond to messages from all the other participants.

Synchronous or Asynchronous Communication. CMC has both synchronous and asynchronous characteristics. In synchronous communication, people sustain communication between two or more participants in real time. In asynchronous communication, participants are not on line at the same time.

McIsaac and Gunawardena (1996) listed two major types of on-line services: electric mail (e-mail) and computer conferencing. In an e-mail system, a message is sent by

the system to the addressee's mailbox on the host computer and kept there until it is read by the addressee. Beyond e-mail, computer conferencing systems provide a conferencing feature that supports group communication. Time and places are independent. In this system, messages are linked to form chains of communication and these messages are stored until people read and reply to the messages.

CMC is "a generic term now commonly used for a variety systems that enable people to communicate with other people by means of computers and networks" (McIsaac & Gunawardena, 1996, p. 438). In scholastic life, CMC is almost indispensable.

Differences between Computer-Mediated Communication and Natural Communication

Technology has significantly changed human communication and interaction. People around the world communicate by natural means in verbal and nonverbal languages. Computer networks create a unique form of human communication that can be different from face-to-face communication. When people use the computer as a communication tool, they rarely see each other face to face. Interaction between users includes taking turns on the computer screen to share ideas.

Users can also access other countries' networks easily and find a variety of information from the Internet. A significant amount of information exists on the Internet and users can select what they need in seconds. As a result, CMC has uniquely different aspects from former methods of communication. Many researchers anticipate its increased use in the classroom.

One of the reasons researchers are examining CMC is because people are using computers for everyday activities. Millions of computers are being used in homes, businesses, schools and colleges all over the world. Because computers have become cheaper and more widely available, computer-mediated education has benefited (Peyton, 1999). As computers become more accessible, they provide a powerful teaching tool for ESL/EFL students.

Computer-Mediated Communication in Education

Even though CMC is widely accepted, it is of little benefit for students if teachers are computer illiterate. Therefore, it becomes necessary not only to teach with computers, but also to provide teachers with instruction about computers (Iwaki & Hamano, 1985).

Institutes have been offered to train ESL/EFL teachers how to use computers in the classroom. Distance learning was combined with traditional classroom

instruction in an ESL/EFL teacher-training program in Finland as a part of an eight-week summer program (Dahlman & Rilling, 2001). The course program used the following schedule:

The central 6-week distance-learning portion of the course was preceded by an initial week in traditional classrooms, including a computer lab. This first week prepared students for the distance experience by familiarizing them with the necessary technologies and tasks. After completing 6-week distance portion of the course, the final week, also held in traditional classroom, provided a wrap-up and opportunities to do final course evaluations. (Dahlman & Rilling, 2001, p. 4)

In computer-mediated education, teachers play an important role. Therefore, well-trained teachers must be utilized in the classroom.

For ESL/EFL students, CMC in the classroom will provide many benefits for language learning. For example, CMC removes the barrier to learning a second language (L2) for students with physical and learning disabilities. This means that students can freely participate in the language-learning classroom. CMC also promotes self-

discipline and invites students to take responsibility for their own L2 learning (Berge, 1995). It helps students to keep their pace when learning L2. In order to promote more beneficial use of CMC in ESL/EFL classroom, teachers are expected to keep up with the development of computer technology and profitable usage of CMC in classrooms.

Management of Computer-Mediated Classrooms

Well-organized management is essential for a successful computer-mediated classroom. Beller-Kenner (1999) suggested that teachers will benefit by using the following eleven tips during CMC: (1) make the computer center inviting, (2) vary the computer activities, (3) use humor, (4) make objectives meaningful, (5) teach technical elements on a need-to-know basis, (6) demonstrate all software, (7) choose an appropriate level of challenge or let students choose the level, (8) do not let technology become a barrier to learning, (9) give students feedback, (10) provide additional resources for independent learners, and (11) give students enough time to practice.

The instructional time allowed in the classroom is limited, but teachers must cover a substantial amount of content. Therefore, careful planning and creative implementation are needed for successful use of CMC. If they know how familiar their students are with computers,

teachers can save time by instructing students in classroom and planning the content which is suitable for their students.

Some students need a comfortable and pleasant atmosphere when instruction is held in a computer lab. All students might not be familiar with computer-mediated environments. Liang and McQueen (1999) suggested that teachers should encourage second language learners to share their opinions by providing them more time to prepare answers in order that computer-mediated instructions provide students successful language-learning opportunities. At the same time, to lessen students' resistance or frustration in a computer-mediated education, basic computer and Internet skills must be required before the instruction begins. Teachers should implement strategies to promote students' success. Hanson-Smith (1999) mentioned that teachers should specify contents, indicate tasks to complete, and ask students whether they have difficulties in using computers. Careful management is critical for computer-mediated classrooms.

Computer-Mediated Instruction in Japan

According to Iwaki and Hamano (1985), computer-mediated instruction in Japan is not being implemented in classrooms. The Ministry of Education, currently known as

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), has just begun to show an active attitude for using computers. In regards to language learning, computers are seldom used in classroom environments.

Basically, the focus of learning English tends to be on the study of grammar, using only a textbook. This trend has been gradually changing, but most instruction is teacher centered and follows the content of textbooks. Computer-mediated instruction will promote the usage of technology with traditional methods of teaching.

Iwaki and Hamano (1985) described one example of CMC in a Japanese institute as the following:

Tokyo Institute of Technology is carrying on 'remote' teaching. A so-called TV transmitting instruction system, designed by several members of the electrical engineering faculty, enables professors to teach at two campuses, 30 kilometers apart, without leaving their home base... Since the system is both video and audio interactive, students on the remote campus not only can talk back to the professor, but also are visible to him as they talk on a monitor near the podium. (p. 59)

In this case, many students have opportunities to receive high-grade instruction at one time and students can learn specific information from diverse angles. Teachers can manipulate the content in the computer-mediated classroom.

CMC is not commonly used in typical Japanese classrooms. However, the example explained above proves that CMC in Japan is being implemented in several sample sites. This phenomenon verifies that education in Japan has slowly begun to pay attention to CMC in classrooms. Nevertheless, at this time the movement toward technology use in the classroom is limited.

Implications of Computer-Mediated Communication for Future Classrooms

Over time, CMC will be increasingly used in the classroom. Sharp (2002) expressed her views of future classrooms as follows:

Future technology breakthroughs will make it easier to integrate the computer into the classroom. Students will be heavily involved in distance learning, have robots aiding them in the instructional process, be downloading their books, and be wearing computers. Using virtual reality, students will visit museums, see

different countries, see chamber groups in concert, learn how to fly airplanes, work in science labs, and engage in all sorts of educational experiences. (p. 466)

Her vision indicated that more expanded learning using CMC can be expected in the near future.

Meskill (1999) used a short scenario to describe the future use of CMC in ESL classes. In the scenario, students use personal notebook computers in the classroom and at home. This allows them to freely use computers in order to complete their assignments and prepare for lessons. Activities in future classrooms are more likely to integrate CMC.

These predictions are expected to happen in the near future. Because "computers will be smaller, faster, more efficient, and less expensive" (Sharp, 2002, p. 478), researchers predict that all schools in the future will be able to access the Internet. Software will be more sophisticated and offer speech recognition. Interaction between classrooms will increase. Global communication will be facilitated by using computer technology (Kelm, 1998).

In addition to this, Sharp (2002) mentioned that the role of teachers will be lessened in the classroom if CMC

becomes a standard in education. She concluded the following:

Computers are not just a passing fancy; they will be with us for a long time. They have made life both easier and more complicated. We can accomplish a great deal more by using a computer, but we have to work harder to keep up with the technology... Education will integrate computers as much as possible, but problems with funding and lack of adequately trained teachers may limit what is accomplished in classrooms.

(Sharp, 2002, p. 479)

CMC is a double-edged sword, which means that students will be able to benefit, but may also be disadvantaged by computers. Information on the Internet or materials found in software is not always beneficial and suitable for students. Consequently, teachers will always be needed in the computer-mediated classroom. Their knowledge of how to enhance students' motivation in CMC is indispensable (Sharp, 2002). Constant interaction between teachers and students is essential to CMC in the classroom.

In sum, the development of computer technology has influenced human interaction and created a different kind

of communication. CMC is expected to increase in the field of education. Some institutes or schools have already integrated CMC into regular classrooms. However, CMC has not developed as much as researchers had once anticipated. At the same time, teachers need to acquire some basic knowledge of CMC. Using CMC in the classroom still looks incomplete. As time goes by, computer technology will become more sophisticated and the role of teachers will be more necessary. Therefore, teachers should master a wide knowledge of computers and make the best use of the knowledge.

Distance Learning in TESOL

Thanks to the development of technology, communication with people in distant places has become more feasible. Through the use of the Internet in applications such as email, chat groups, or electric discussion groups, people can easily connect with others in remote parts of the world (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002). This dramatic change has brought ESL/EFL students opportunities to interact with others around the world. Therefore, distance learning has become a meaningful tool for second-language learning, especially for ESL/EFL learners.

What is Distance Learning?

According to McIsaac and Gunawardena (1996), history of the distance learning in the United States started in the late 1800s. That was the first major correspondence program. However, many regarded this correspondence education as having poor quality. Since then, development of radio and television impacted instruction in the classroom and the spread of computers has influenced distance learning today (McIsaac & Gunawardena, 1996).

In distance learning, students and instructors are usually separated by time and place (McIsaac & Gunawardena, 1996). Moore (2002) explained that distance learning "includes the use of videotaped sessions, CD-ROMs, computers, the Internet, and telecommunications technologies such as satellites, videoconferencing, and cable television systems that broadcast instruction from one central site to one or more remote locations" (p. 6). In other words, students can learn wherever and whenever they want to without having to rely on their instructor's physical presence (Lehman, 1995). Distance learning may enable students and instructors to learn or teach more flexibly (Connick, 1999). This means that it is different from, and additional to, more traditional styles of learning.

According to Connick (1999), about 75 percent of colleges and universities in the United States offer distance learning programs or courses today, and another 10 percent plan to do so in the future. Harry and Perraton (1999) stated that distance learning in higher education is growing and expanding more rapidly than ever before. It can be said that most schools, even those not in higher education, have tried to teach using distance-learning programs. This means that distance learning has gradually and widely infiltrated into contemporary education.

At its inception, Perry (1981) proposed that distance learning must prove that not only can it teach but also it can teach successfully. It is certain that distance learning is not just a hypothetical tool. This indicated that most institutions or educators have a positive view of distant instruction. However, it might be doubtful that every opportunity in distance learning succeeds. Distance learning can offer a variety of opportunities in education or in language learning, but well-devised planning is needed.

Peyton and Bruce (1993) documented some learning activities over long distance, showing that distance learning provides students the opportunity to interact and share experiences and ideas with those of other schools.

Students can communicate with other students who have different values and life experiences. Distance learning is not only instruction with distance but also instruction with opportunities for discovering something new or different compared with traditional education.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Distance Learning

There are, however, some advantages and disadvantages in distance learning. Lehman (1995) compared the standard class with a distance-learning class. One of benefits of distance learning is that students can take classes at remote sites. In other words, this class can include students who live far from the campus, students with physical disabilities, and students whose schedules do not allow them to attend class regularly can participate in the same class (Garrison & Borgia, 2000). Distance learning is basically open to any student who has a computer and can connect to the Internet.

Learning through computers provides very convenient access to course materials or the instructor. Lehman (1995) observed that students do not need to consider time in distance learning. For example, class discussions have unlimited time. Students can access the instructor by e-mail at any time. Therefore, distance learning provides opportunities for wide participation (Lehman, 1995). This

is good for students who cannot participate in the activities of an ordinary class.

At the same time, students' responses to assignments through distance learning are sometimes viewed with suspicion because much of instruction occurs off-campus and off-hours (Sherron & Boettcher, 1997). Thorpe (1998) also mentioned that distance learning usually does not require students to face their instructors, so nobody can find out whether or not the work submitted through the computer is actually done by the sender.

In addition, Lehman (1995) also listed several possibilities. First, computer-mediated instruction sometimes requires the use of equipment that is unfamiliar to many learners. Students may know how to manage basic computer skills, but instructions for distance learning programs are not always easy and well-known. Second, it also requires familiarity with the particular computer system for effective participation. The right place and the right time are still required in distance learning.

Moreover, initial costs, such as purchasing computers or arranging for a computer classroom, are high; and continuing costs such as telephone line charges can also be costly. Mehrotra, Hollister, and McGahey (2001) also

pointed out, "Costs are involved also in training and supporting faculty providing distance education" (p. 12).

Not only are costs high, but it is also time-consuming and can be tiresome for both instructors and students to participate in a distance-learning class. Most activities may be done off-campus and off-hours, so it may be possible that extra burdens are placed on both instructors and students (Lehman, 1995). In other words, "extra time is required of faculty, especially initially, to learn to use new course design principles, new teaching techniques, new software, and asynchronous modalities for communicating with students" (Mehrotra, Hollister, & McGahey, 2001, p. 12).

Compared with the ordinary classroom, instruction in distance learning should be more carefully planned and structured by instructors (Srisa-An, 1981; Johnson & Huff, 2000). Instructors may have less chance to face their students, so students will not have as many visual and verbal cues (Lehman, 1995). Consequently, intelligible and simple objectives are helpful. This is easy to say, but difficult to put it into practice. Distance learning has the potential to have a great effect on student's communication, so clear instructions, multiple

opportunities for rehearsal, and reflection on the rehearsal all play important roles.

Distance Learning and ESL/EFL

For ESL/EFL students, distance learning can be a powerful means for learning English because they will be able to contact and collaborate with native English speakers while they are in their countries (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002). Through this opportunity, learners of English can open their eyes to worldwide information, not just language learning.

Shih (2001) described correspondence between American teachers and Taiwanese students through e-mails. American teachers were assigned to correspond weekly and send at least eight messages during two months. They began with an introduction of themselves and American culture. In a second message, they established the needs of their key pals by asking what their partners needed to learn and how they might help and examining samples of their partners' writing to ascertain their capabilities. The rest of the correspondence was supposed to include instruction in English language and American and Taiwanese cultures. Similarly, Taiwanese students introduced themselves in the first letter. The second message was to explain their needs for assistance from their partners and to help their

key pals establish the learning goals such as practicing conversational English and reading novels to becoming acquainted with American culture.

In this way, ESL/EFL students could take advantage of native-English speakers at a distance using computer-mediated distance learning. Shih (2001) observed that students could experience the opportunity for authentic language learning through writing practice with American readers, who could offer feedback. In this case, at the same time, students benefited from the opportunity for cultural exchanges. Learners of English usually have limited opportunities to encounter different cultures and to listen or see native English in their countries. Communication with native-English speakers will somewhat enhance ESL/EFL students' motivation to learn English.

Learning language, especially second/foreign language, is not an easy task. Therefore, students need to motivate themselves. Instruction only focused on the rules of language is limiting for students. Gaining the attention of students is one of the essential goals in distance learning (Mehrotra, Hollister, & McGahey, 2001).

Distance Learning for Future Classrooms

As mentioned, distance learning has the potential to become an outstanding tool for learning. McIsaac and

Gunawardena (1996) indicated distance-learning programs or courses would grow all over the world, related to global needs. Using computers can make possible a global education curriculum, so understanding other cultures is exceedingly needed for successful language learning (Liang & McQueen, 1999).

McIsaac and Gunawardena (1996) stated distance learning also would become of far greater importance in the United States. It can be said that it may be true in many other countries. The educational community needs increased opportunities for distance learning.

Even though distance learning will play a significant role in the future, people may doubt whether or not distance learning really is viable. Lehman (1995) tried to answer the question. In his research, most of the students in distance learning achieved the same level of the traditionally taught class. Therefore, not only in theory but also in fact, the content of distance learning may not be appreciably different from the traditional instructions. In addition, distance learning has every possibility of better class production if the class is organized successfully and planned extremely well.

Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) suggested the role of teachers who use computers in the class as the following:

Computer-assisted language learning teachers caution that they must help students carefully plan and organize learning experiences, rehearse useful language, and understand not only some of the physical operation of the Internet and Web but also the conventions and codes that have become "netiquette" for such communications. (p. 87)

Most teachers may be able to e-mail or research through the Web, but teaching through computers is different from hobbies or playing. As years go by, teachers will need further knowledge of computers, and computer literacy will become more essential for teachers of distance learning. On the other side, students are also required to obtain how to deal with computers correctly.

Resistance to Learning a Second Language

In Japan, English is a compulsory class in secondary schools. However, not every student has a comfortable time in English class; some students suffer pain through English instruction, and therefore become uncooperative and recalcitrant. It is important for teachers to know the reasons for their students' resistance to learning English and find a solution to counteract that resistance.

The Concept of Resistance

Giroux (1983) defined resistance as a type of negation in the face of ruling discourses and practice. Resistance is a rejection by subjects of their reformulation as docile objects. According to Giroux, resistance is a valuable construct that provides a significant focus for examining the relationship between school and a wider society.

Giroux (1983) supported the value of resistance as an educational principle. The pedagogical value of resistance is that it not only politicizes the notion of culture, but also points to the need to analyze culture in school within shifting terrains of struggle and contestation. Resistance becomes a focal point for the formation of different sets of experiences. Moreover, Giroux (1983) suggested that the concept of resistance highlights the need for teachers to decode how the modes of cultural production displayed by subordinate groups can be examined to reveal both their limits and their possibilities.

Acquisition and use of language is one of the important aspects of socialization for young students (Lee, 1995). Lee (1995) also insisted that "mastery of language often fosters success in future developmental tasks" (p. 9). Additionally, personality development and

distinctions in language traditions may be closely related. Therefore, language learning is a significant part of school. Lee (1995) expressed the complexity of the cultural context in the United States, enumerating some social environmental factors: racism, economic disadvantage, and acculturation. Ogbu (1986) attributed the situation of the resistance of students to learning English in the United States to the fact that minorities in the United States had experienced schooling unequally. Given the long history of discrimination and racism in schools, students and their parents have often been more critical of the education offered.

Japan is a racially homogeneous nation, with a fairly stable economy. Consequently, racism and economic disadvantage are not as visible in the classrooms of Japan as in the United States. Though racism and economic disadvantage are rarely the cause of resistance to English in Japan, some sorts of acculturation may be noticed that may cause students to resist learning English.

Resistance and Biculturalism

In order to delve into the concept of resistance, Darder (1991) referred to the relationship between resistance and biculturalism. Darder (1991) defined biculturalism as "a process wherein individuals learn to

function in two distinct sociocultural environment" (p. 48). In addition, she described the cultural conflicts that a bicultural human faced and the daily struggle with racism and other cultural domination.

Then, Darder (1991) explained the intimate relationship between culture and resistance as follows:

The dynamics of biculturation are considered to begin when the dominant culture exerts increasing influence on the subordinate culture to accommodate and assimilate to the dominant culture's value, language, and cognitive style. At this point, a dynamic of resistance is said to develop, which causes the individual to experience cultural crisis. (p. 53)

She described that biculturation can be also understood as patterns of responses by students' reaction, adjustment, and accommodation to resistance that are caused by a cultural dissonance. Figure 1 shows that the process of biculturation can be perceived in terms of resistant relationship between the dominant (primary) and subordinate cultures and between forces of domination and resistance. Dominant culture and subordinate culture are poles apart, and so are domination and resistance. These four elements reflect each other and relationship between

power and culture consequently influences bicultural students.

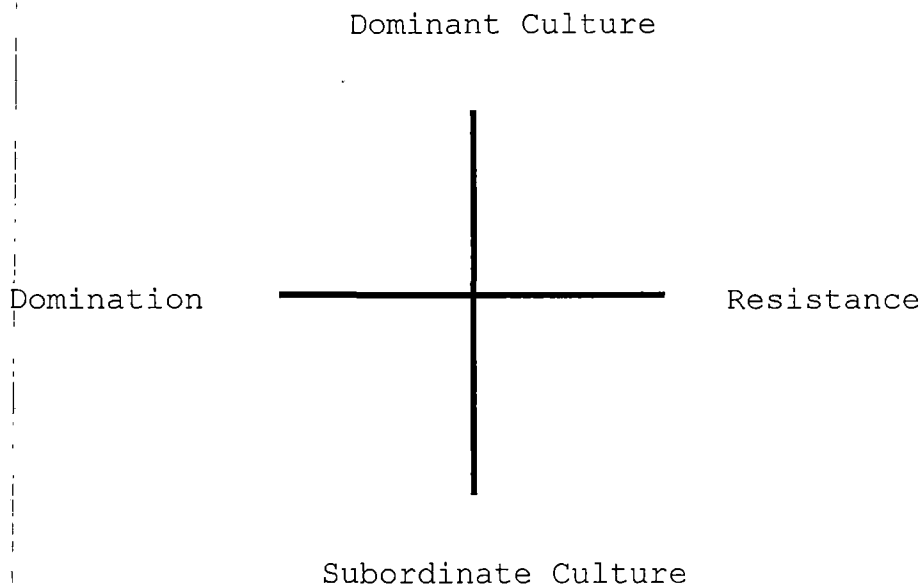


Figure 1. Axial Relationship between Culture and Power

Source: Darder, 1991, p. 55

Examples of Resistance in Classrooms

Researchers have documented examples of resistance in actual classrooms. In her research, Lin (1999) observed four schools in Hong Kong which have different conditions and backgrounds. One of those classes consisted of students who use only Chinese at home. In other words, English is not used in their daily lives. In the classroom, the instructor kept using English in every moment. However, some students in the class could not

totally understand what the instructor said and how they are supposed to answer. In a short time, they started chatting in their own language.

Lin (1999) interviewed several students in the class. They replied that English class was boring because the instructor used English through the entire lesson and they could not understand. At the same time, the students were afraid of being asked questions by the instructor. Based on this, students had developed cynical views of school life and their future. This caused a dilemma in that while the students did not like learning English, and they knew they could not find a job in society without learning it.

Students in this class seemed to find themselves confronted with a language in which they had neither interest nor confidence, but the language was a key to success in their society. Their resistance directly influenced their behavior in the classroom. Their resistance seems to be against the curriculum and the instructor. In addition, they would not master the foreign language, which resulted from their defiant attitudes.

Lin (1999) proposed that instructor develop methodology for students based on reflective research, using languages to develop rapport with students:

Although the prescription to use only the target language in teaching the target language is common, my observations of the four classrooms described here show clearly that what matters is not whether a teacher uses the L1 or the L2 but rather how a teacher uses either language to connect with students and help them transform their attitudes, dispositions, skills, and self-image. (Lin, 1999, p. 410)

Benesch (2001) also faced resistant students. She chose the topic of anorexia in her class, but three students showed their resistance to studying anorexia. One of the students complained that discussing eating and eating disorders was boring because it was not an issue he needed to consider. However, she kept asking the student questions about his and his friends' experiences connected to the topic, such as if he went out with female friends for dinner. Gradually, the rest of class participated in this small "discussion." She engaged that student by showing him how his "complaint triggered an important discussion about how the social construction of women might differ from men's in their relationships to food and body image" (Benesch, 2001, p. 74). As a result, using students' resistance to learning could broaden the topic

of the class. This case did not relate to EFL language learning, but the strategy in this case may be able to apply to EFL contexts.

How Can Resistance to Learning be Decreased?

Erickson (1987) pointed out that school could be one of the places where people are able to change the existing distributions of power and knowledge. He claimed that students might well learn cultural styles without setting off a reaction of resistance and cultural schism "if children and their parents believe very strongly in the legitimacy of school stuff and in the content and aims of a school program" (p. 354). It can be said that students and their parents are not only victims of educational systems but also actors. If instructions are clear and consistent, students and their parents can recognize the teachers' authoritative styles as a sincere attempt to engage students who suffer from resistance to learning. Referring to this, Ogbu (1986) stated that parents from oppressed minority societies reflected their ambivalent attitudes about education and success. This means that these parents may be uncomfortable to educate their children in subordinate culture.

Erickson (1987) concluded that the politics of legitimacy, trust, and assent seemed to be the most

fundamental factors in school success, and the role of culture and cultural difference were related to school success, especially for cultural minority or resistant students.

Nieto (1996) showed numerous examples of students' refusal to learn. Vandalism, misbehavior, lack of attention, and poor relationships with teachers are all signs of students' resistance. It is important that teachers quickly receive those signs and recognize the struggling students in their classrooms before they drop out from schools. Moreover, Benesch (2001) indicated the role of teacher against resistance was to maintain a dialogue about the topic and encourage whatever responses came up.

In sum, students are always anxious when they are not confident; especially in second-language learning. Their target language is sometimes a completely different or totally new language system from their first language. Therefore, some students feel uncomfortable or resist learning a second language. In addition to finding the signs of resistance to learning a second language, teachers should incessantly reflect on the content of the class. In other words, teachers should create suitable style of teaching or learning a second language as much as

they can, in order to sustain their students' attention and to reduce their fear of learning the target language. This flexibility may play an important role when teachers face resistant students. Flexibility here refers to expanded approaches taken by teachers as they lead students to the topic or content which they do not like or feel is boring. According to circumstances, teachers need to change their approach to resistant students, such as using more visual aids, reconsidering the questions, relating the students' resistance with the topic, and so on.

Resistance as Communication

Abowitz (2000) described several examples of resistance as communication. According to Abowitz (2000), communication is not merely the act of expression and exchange of personal perspective by individuals. Communication is the making of something in common in which more than two humans modify their individual experiences through activities.

Abowitz (2000) reported that the research of North American theorists emphasized that resistance was performed with some kind of degree of intentionality by students who were conscious of a public problem as they experienced it. Their forms of resistance took the form of

symbolic expression (style of dress, graffiti, verbal insubordination, silences, and so on) or embodied action (absence from classes, physical insubordination, dropping out of the school, and so on).

In her work, Abowitz (2000) also introduced that examples of Black and Navajo communities' resistance. Their resistances were understood as a reaction based on historical and structural oppression. Culture is rarely represented as multifaceted or as hybrid forms. Hence, students in those cultures are often struggling to accept a bicultural position. Identities of students became more complex. Therefore, students' resistance to learning also became complex.

Finally, Abowitz (2000) tried to document a relationship among resistance, communication, and community. She mentioned that viewing resistance as an exchange of information is a better way than seeing it as a competitive struggle in the process of dealing with students' attitude and behaviors. She advised that students who were engaged in opposition tended to take the first steps toward inquiry. That is to say, resistance could be considered as a productive step, which could create bonds among students through resistant experiences. Then, these bonds of experience would help construct the

shifting structures of consensus built or rebuilt through shared lives. Lives shared by resistant students may enhance, not destroy, their individuality. Therefore, various experiences of community life, even including events that students hesitate to face, may not be able to infringe upon their identity.

Abowitz (2000) concluded that understanding of students and power relations would drive the ideals of resistance. Resistance is the point where individuals meet communal norms and communication may imply alteration of normalization through the experiences. Therefore, she emphasized "a number of factors in educational practice can influence the success of resistance as a source of inquiry rather than the impetus for further silencing and exclusion of certain students" (p. 902).

In conclusion, Abowitz (2000) claimed that resistant acts by students possibly changed all those involved in the experience and opened up possibilities for communication. An open atmosphere characterized by trust, dialogue, and shared work can open resistant students' minds. Resistance to learning is apt to be regarded as a negative factor for acquiring a second language. However, the positive use of resistance in the classroom may benefit second-language learning.

Internationalizing the Japanese Classroom

One of the goals of English instruction in Japan is helping students acquire a wider view of culture. Schools should internationalize in order to educate students for global citizenship, to keep pace with international affairs, and to better serve the national and international community (Biddle, 2002). On the basis of this, English education in Japan has continuously promoted internationalization of the English classroom.

Definition of Internationalization

Ellingboe (1998) defined internationalization as the process of integrating an international perspective into the educational system. She promoted internationalizing the curriculum as a way to enhance and improve education.

Schoorman (2000) defined internationalization as the following:

Internationalization is an ongoing, counter-hegemonic educational process that occurs in an international context of knowledge and practice where societies are viewed as subsystems of a larger, inclusive world. (p. 5)

Many educators agree that internationalization has become quite important in education (Schoorman, 2000) and Internationalization may be able to play a more important

role in English classrooms. The shift from ordinary classrooms to the internationalized classroom could influence a shift in thinking "from monocultural, parochial, singular point of view to a broadly based, future-oriented, internationally focused, interdisciplinary dimension" (Ellingboe, 1998, p. 200). Therefore, making students think about cultures from a global point of view seems to be the beginning of internationalizing the classroom.

The History of Anti-Internationalization in Japan

Japan was isolated from other countries until the end of 1860s. Lamont-Brown (1994) explained that policy of *sakoku* (closing off the country) kept Japanese away from contact with foreigners and foreign cultures. *Sakoku* ended in 1868 and Japan opened windows to other cultures, but the Japanese still retained some nostalgia for the seclusion and hoped to function without foreign influence (Lamont-Brown, 1994). Before the World War II, internationalization in Japan also meant incursion and colonization. Korea, Taiwan, and China were colonized by Japan.

After the American occupation of 1945-1951, Japan experienced international influence. International markets were opened and the Japanese economy dramatically grew at

an amazing pace. The subtlety was that the ordinary Japanese people were kept away from taking part in international affairs. As a result, what had happened in Japan occurred once more. The internationalization at this specific period did not open hearts and minds to foreign things. Economic success, ironically, brought stances of superiority and arrogance. More recently, the oil shock in 1973 and the Gulf War caused the nation again to be psychologically nervous about internationalism (Lamont-Brown, 1994).

There are a number of critical reasons why Japan has not kept up with true internationalization. Those perspectives have still led tenaciously rooted Japanese to hesitate over internationalization.

Internationalizing Education in Japan

The Ministry of Education in Japan, now known as the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, has reformed the Japanese educational system, attempting to make schools more flexible and responsive to individual student needs (Ellington, 2001). According to the Ministry of Education, 5583 native-English speakers came to Japan as Assistant English Teachers (ALTs) in 2001 to help students acquire English. The impact of educational reform in Japan at the beginning of the 2002

school year has caused some class to lack textbooks and guidelines for activities. The goal of this attempt is to provide students the freedom to study whatever interests them. As a result, some elementary schools are teaching students English with ALTs, and ALTs will be regularly posted to elementary schools in the near future. In addition, English teachers in secondary schools take in-service training in order to provide a higher quality of teaching.

According to Gainey and Andressen (2002), the number of Japanese study-abroad students in 2000 was about 180,000, compared to about 85,000 in 1988. Gainey and Andressen (2002) described deficiencies in the Japanese education system that might possibly cause this trend. Classes that engender feelings of frustration, sacrifice for entrance exam preparation (what Gainey and Andressen (2002) called "examination hell"), and relatively high education costs for Japanese universities encourage students and their parents to look into studying abroad.

It is rare that students can communicate with people from other cultures while in Japanese schools. Most classrooms contain only Japanese students and there are few schools or classrooms in which Japanese students and foreign students study together. Gainey and Andressen

(2002) reported that the number of foreign students in Japan had also been increasing, thanks to *kokusaika* (internationalization) policy. According to Gainey and Andressen (2002), "international exchanges of students would not only add to world development but would also improve Japan's international relations" (p. 166). Accepting foreign students into Japanese schools can help to internationalize ordinary classrooms.

Lamont-Brown (1994) also reported that the number of schools which accept pupils who have studied abroad has increased and there are many opportunities for native Japanese students to collaborate with those pupils in schools. He also mentioned that Japanese society and schools are increasingly encountering different languages, cultures, values, and perspectives because of students' foreign travels.

As another point of view, Kubota (1998) explained that both nationalism and internationalization have impacted English education in Japan. Nationalism as a reaction against Westernization tends to emphasize the uniqueness of Japanese culture compared to Western cultures. Internationalization, in contrast, tends to emphasize teaching and learning Western cultures and languages. According to Kubota (1998), Japanese people

know that nationalism arouses fears of losing identity caused by the addiction to English. However, they also notice that acquisition of English broadens their lives. This represents both resistance to and accommodation to internationalization. Internationalization and learning English in Japan are bound up together.

Nevertheless, Lamont-Brown (1994) emphasized that Japanese education has not resulted in adequate preparation of students' communication skills in foreign language. The problem has been that English language teaching had only been introduced so far into elementary education as a simple experience, not an earnest program. On the other hand, Lamont-Brown (1994) pointed out that Japanese society had been under pressures to internationalize. For example, Japan does not have a military power and opinions against militarism are still strong in this country. However, many people believe that the country has to play a greater military role in the United Nations if Japan is to make progress in internationalism. Lamont-Brown (1994) stated problems of internationalization as the following:

Overall then the international problems which Japan faces have not been confronted in terms of education; schools in Japan very rarely reflect

the happenings of 'the real (international) world.' Until the end of the century, the Japanese are likely find it much easier to say the world 'internationalism' than they will to formulate and carry out policies which will tailor its potential to their needs. (p. 188)

Education in Japan is still groping toward true internationalization. Meanwhile, the education reform by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology can lead the way to success of internationalization in Japan.

Tips for a More Internationalized Class

One common proposal for internationalizing classrooms is to add international elements (Lundy Dobbert, 1998). Scott (1990) suggested that a simple way to internationalize classrooms is to infuse international content into existing class curriculum or courses. This approach can encourage teachers to add international (or other cultural) materials to the courses. Furthermore, infusion of international content helps teachers emphasize the global and cultural aspects of the topics of the class. Scott (1990) also stated that infusing is not very threatening to teachers with limited international experiences because they can gradually add more

international instruction as their mastery and self-confidence with international topics grow. At the same time, however, Scott (1990) felt misgivings that the coverage of international topics by infusion might be piecemeal and deprive students of substantive international understanding unless international topics are clearly assigned and taught by teachers.

Welch, Welch and Marschan-Piekkari (2001) mentioned that it is better to use another language for communication at a relatively early stage of internationalization. This indicates that using a foreign language, not the mother tongue, in the early stage of schooling helps students experience internationalized situations. In contrast, in most English classrooms in Japan, students are provided with explanation in Japanese. Internationalizing the classroom may not be accomplished unless this precedent is changed.

The Internet can also play a significant role in internationalization. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology, the number of the computers in schools in 2002 was 1,405,036, and each school was equipped with 32.4 computers. About 98 percent of schools can access the Internet. This helps students interact with foreign people and touch other

cultures from their school. These can encourage internationalization. Philson (1998) introduced the use of electronic mail (e-mail) as a tool of internationalizing classrooms. Using e-mail is asynchronous. Asynchronous modes of communication can allow participants to send or receive messages at any time in a day. Therefore, this seems beneficial when working with students in different countries and time zones. When choosing technology for internationalized classrooms, Philson (1998) recommended keeping in mind that "technology should be selected based on its appropriateness in helping you accomplish specific educational goals" (p. 173).

In conclusion, there will be limitations to internationalizing the Japanese classroom. According to Lundy Dobbert (1998), learners should be required to at least live in the target culture for 9 to 12 months or more in order to make internationalization a normal experience. Learners would need to stay long enough to experience culture shock and emerge from it with an acceptance of the target culture. It is, of course, impossible to do that in the limited time offered by the typical school day. However, there is a hope for success in internationalization. Japanese students can learn other cultures because they are "genetically and operationally

generalists" (Lundy Dobbert, 1998, p. 62). Accordingly, even though internationalizing the classroom is not an easy task for educators, they should try it because it may provide a quick way to understand and experience other cultures.

English-Immersion Programs

Most English classes in Japanese schools are taught by native-Japanese teachers. They explain English grammar, correct students' compositions and ask students questions in Japanese, not in English. In addition, students have fewer chances to come in contact with native-English speakers, and they hardly can experience target English cultures under those Japanese-language-centered instruction. English-immersion programs are one of the methods of second language acquisition. According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002), immersion education can provide both academic and language instruction. Leo and Erben (1996) stated that a language used in immersion programs was mostly seen as one ingredient. That is, students will be able to learn not only the target language but also various content through immersion instruction. Therefore, English-immersion programs will differ from ordinary English classes in Japanese classrooms.

The History of the Immersion Program

In 1965, French-immersion programs started in Quebec, Canada. The parents of the students envisaged a program that would provide their children with an improved opportunity to learn French. These parents believed that their children could learn French best in an immersion classroom, and the teacher would become the means through which the French language, culture, and heritage would be learned. Within ten years, French-immersion programs were offered throughout Canada. Canada set the standard for immersion education, and many countries around the world began establishing their own language-immersion programs.

The first immersion program in the United States is considered to be the Spanish-immersion instruction in Culver City, California, started in 1971 (Katoch Gakuen Schools, 2004). Since then, introduction of immersion programs has been seen mostly in public schools, teaching Spanish, French, German, Chinese, Dutch, Arabic, Russian, and so on. There are also Japanese-immersion schools in the United States. About two hundred schools have immersion programs today in the United States and about 320,000 students in the United States take immersion instruction (Niijima Gakuen Junior College, 2003).

It is reported that the first immersion program in Japan began in 1992 (Niijima Gakuen Junior College, 2003). Katoh Gakuen Schools (2004) pioneered English-immersion programs in Japan. Most English-immersion programs were seen in private schools, but it has started taking root in public schools, too. English-immersion programs are gradually becoming more popular in English education in Japan.

Enrichment Immersion

Enrichment-immersion programs focus on developing the second-language abilities of students. According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002), enrichment-immersion programs are usually seen in the exclusive private schools in the United States. Instruction in enrichment immersion programs takes place in the enrichment language. Therefore, this program requires fully trained bilingual teachers who use a second language (L2) during instruction.

Lambert (1984) indicated the concept of immersion schooling: students learn L2 in the same way as learning their first language. The most encouraging point for immersion programs is that these open students' minds and promote a positive attitude toward foreign groups (Lambert, 1984). Experience in enrichment immersion

fosters particular sociopolitical insights that monolingual students would likely never develop (Lambert, 1984). Students with enrichment immersion can experience opportunities of learning both other languages and different cultural perspectives.

With enrichment-immersion programs, the English communication skills and cognitive growth of students are relatively enhanced (Lambert, 1984). Lambert (1984) asserted that enrichment-immersion students tend to be open to other ethnicities without losing their identities. In enrichment-immersion programs, second languages are used as the major or the only medium of instruction. So, more careful evaluations of enrichment immersion are needed (Lambert, 1984).

English-Immersion Programs in Japan.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) recognized that English played a central role as the common international language in order to link people all over the world. For students facing a global future, acquiring communication abilities in English as a common international language is essential. Therefore, MEXT emphasized cultivating students' English abilities through English classes in Japanese schools.

Based on this policy, English-immersion programs are gradually promoted. By 2005, MEXT will designate one hundred high schools as "Super English Language High Schools." Those schools especially focus on second-language learning through the scholastic life. Innovative English education will be promoted at those senior high schools and unified secondary schools. For instance, developing a special curriculum focused on acquiring English, building a closer connection with sister schools overseas, and teaching other subjects (math, science, etc.) in English are actually practiced in those Super English Language High Schools. Immersion instruction is the basis for practice in those schools.

The effective use of Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) is also promoted through utilizing them as special part-time instructors who can teach alone in class. In addition, appointing one thousand ALTs as junior and senior high school full-time teachers will be promoted in the future. Thanks to these attempts, ordinary instruction can be automatically given in immersion programs. Thus, the use of native speakers of English, such as ALTs with excellent experience, tends to be promoted in Japan now.

At the same time, each school also attempts their own English-immersion program. For example, students

communicate with students in sister schools in the United States in order to make a school newspaper. ALTs help them proofread their work. In this way, many schools in Japan have begun to adopt English-immersion programs. Hence, English-immersion programs in Japan permeate a large number of schools, and this trend will become more widespread.

Benefits of Immersion Programs

For second-language learners, there are several benefits of immersion programs. Katoh Gakuen Schools (2004) listed seven benefits of English-immersion programs. First, when native-English speakers teach, the pronunciation of learners can become like the native speakers' because learners are exposed to authentic target language. Second, through the immersion program, learners obtain the various perspectives of different cultures. Third, immersion programs can prompt both intellectual and mental development. Fourth, learners can learn not only the language but also about other cultures. Fifth, learners not only acquire target languages but also well understand the enrichment language. Sixth, it can be possible for learners in immersion programs to communicate with many people in the world. Especially in business situations, English is now becoming a world language, so

English-immersion programs will help people acquire English communication skills if they want to succeed in business. Then, finally, learners have many job opportunities available because they can speak more than one language.

Walker and Tedick (2000) emphasized that the most significant contribution of immersion program was that this type of program could be used for a variety of purposes across a wide range of social, cultural, and political contexts. They prescribed that immersion programs continue to be used to teach a foreign language, as well as for other purposes.

Limitations of Immersion Programs

English-immersion programs require trained teachers, special textbooks, and a curriculum with the higher goals of rapid second-language learning and the active integration of all students in a target cultural community (Porter, 1991). It can be said that immersion programs require more time and effort than ordinary instruction.

Immersion learners not only need opportunities to learn academic content in second language, but also need to learn the second language accurately, coherently, and appropriately (Swain & Lapkin, 1989). However, there will be limited opportunities for learners to produce content

in the target language. Hesitation and puzzlement caused by using the target language may overwhelm students and reduce students' motivation.

As a result, it is possible for fossilization to occur. Peter (2001) explained that fossilization occurs through the process of learning second language. Fossilization can be defined as that second-language learners fall into cessation of learning the second language (Gass & Selinker, 2001). In other words, fossilization is the concept that second-language learners reach a stage that results in little change in some or all of the language they produce. Phonological, morphological, and syntactic fossilization have been seen in immersion programs (Peter, 2001). When students face the challenge of acquiring the target language, they sometimes start to use interlanguage. Students communicate with each other in their version of the target language and feel comfortable with this. Therefore, fossilization sometimes happens in immersion programs.

Moreover, Flood and Lapp (1997) questioned whether or not English-immersion programs work for every student. They suspected that many students in immersion instruction were more likely to "sink" rather than "swim" in English-only instruction. Those students faced considerable

difficulties in English-immersion programs. For this reason, the question whether or not English-immersion programs is really the better way to learn English in Japanese schools still remains to be seen.

How Can English Immersion Programs be Effective?

According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, sports, Science, and Technology, cultivating Japanese students with English abilities is realized through the practice of teachers who have daily contact with children. Therefore, the teaching methods of immersion program teachers are extremely important. Certain level of English ability and teaching ability are required of English teachers to conduct English immersion classes, which aim to use English as a means of communication and to foster communication abilities in listening, speaking, reading, and writing through English-immersion classrooms.

In addition, ALTs definitely provide a valuable opportunity for students to learn living English and familiarize themselves with foreign languages and cultures. ALTs can increase the students' joy and motivation for English learning. In this way, the use of a native speaker of English has great meaning. Collaboration with native-English speakers is essential when students can understand directly the necessity for

English in society and how English abilities can broaden their world. Therefore, the enhancement of the teaching system and the effective use of ALTs should strongly be promoted through English-immersion programs.

Katoh Gakuen Schools (2004) also suggested several tips for effective English-immersion programs. Learners always feel hesitation before they learn new things. They will, of course, be confused by English-immersion programs at first. Teachers must concentrate their efforts on reducing this hesitation and puzzlement.

English-immersion programs require students and teachers to use English as communication tools. Therefore, teachers need to carefully select words used in English-immersion classrooms. Teachers had better consider students' levels of English proficiency and then sort the words they use to communicate.

It is also necessary to vary the content of curriculum for English-immersion programs. In Canada, French-immersion programs are essential for learners in order to live in the French-speaking community. In other words, French-immersion learners need to learn and acquire French for their survival. On the other hand, Japanese students who are in English-immersion programs do not seem seriously to need English to survive.

In addition, the use of the computer in English-immersion programs will be effective. For instance, Steve (2001) introduced tele-immersion, which is long-distance transmission of life-size, three-dimensional synthesized scenes, accurately sampled and rendered in real time using advanced computer graphics and vision techniques. Immersion programs through computers can enhance students' motivation and provide more effective visual aids or authentic English pronunciation.

English-immersion programs have finally started to take root into the education system in Japan. However, it is limited to certain schools, such as Super English language High Schools. In the regular public schools, introduction of English-immersion programs have several limitations as mentioned above. Nevertheless, English-immersion programs have possibilities to fascinate students and teachers of language learning. Not simply the goals for English, but also the tools for English will be promoted in English education in Japan. Based on this, English-immersion programs are considered as a valuable method for English Education in Japan.

In conclusion, this chapter has provided an overview of key components in this project. The first section, Computer-Mediated Communication, discussed the development

of technology, the difference between CMC and ordinary communication, and how CMC worked in education. In the second section, Distance Learning in TESOL, the advantages and disadvantages of distance learning were presented, as well as the fit between distance learning and ESL/EFL classrooms. The third section, Resistance to Learning a Second Language discussed the concept of resistance. In this section, several examples of resistance were mentioned, and the concept of resistance as communication was explained. In the fourth section, Internationalizing the Japanese Classroom, the history of internationalization and anti-internationalization were described. Tips for internationalized classrooms were also provided in this section. The fifth section, English-Immersion Programs, characterized the English-immersion instruction in Japanese schools and both benefits and limitations of English-immersion programs.

The next chapter provides a theoretical framework that combines these five key concepts to create an academic model for English instruction in Japanese high school.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Description of Theoretical Framework

In the previous chapter, research literature was reviewed on five key concepts of this project: computer-mediated communication, distance learning in TESOL, resistance to learning a second language, internationalizing the Japanese classroom, and English-immersion programs. This chapter combines those key concepts in a theoretical model for ESL/EFL instruction in Japanese schools. This model provides a theoretical basis for the curriculum design (see the Appendix) as well as describes how this framework will function in the Japanese context.

Figure 2 shows the model of the internationalized classroom using computer-mediated instruction. The large framework represents the program context and the small framework inside the large one represents the instructional delivery. In the program model, instruction is provided through English-immersion and distance-learning methods. The practical content of instruction focuses on internationalization. Not only the target culture (American culture) but also the native culture

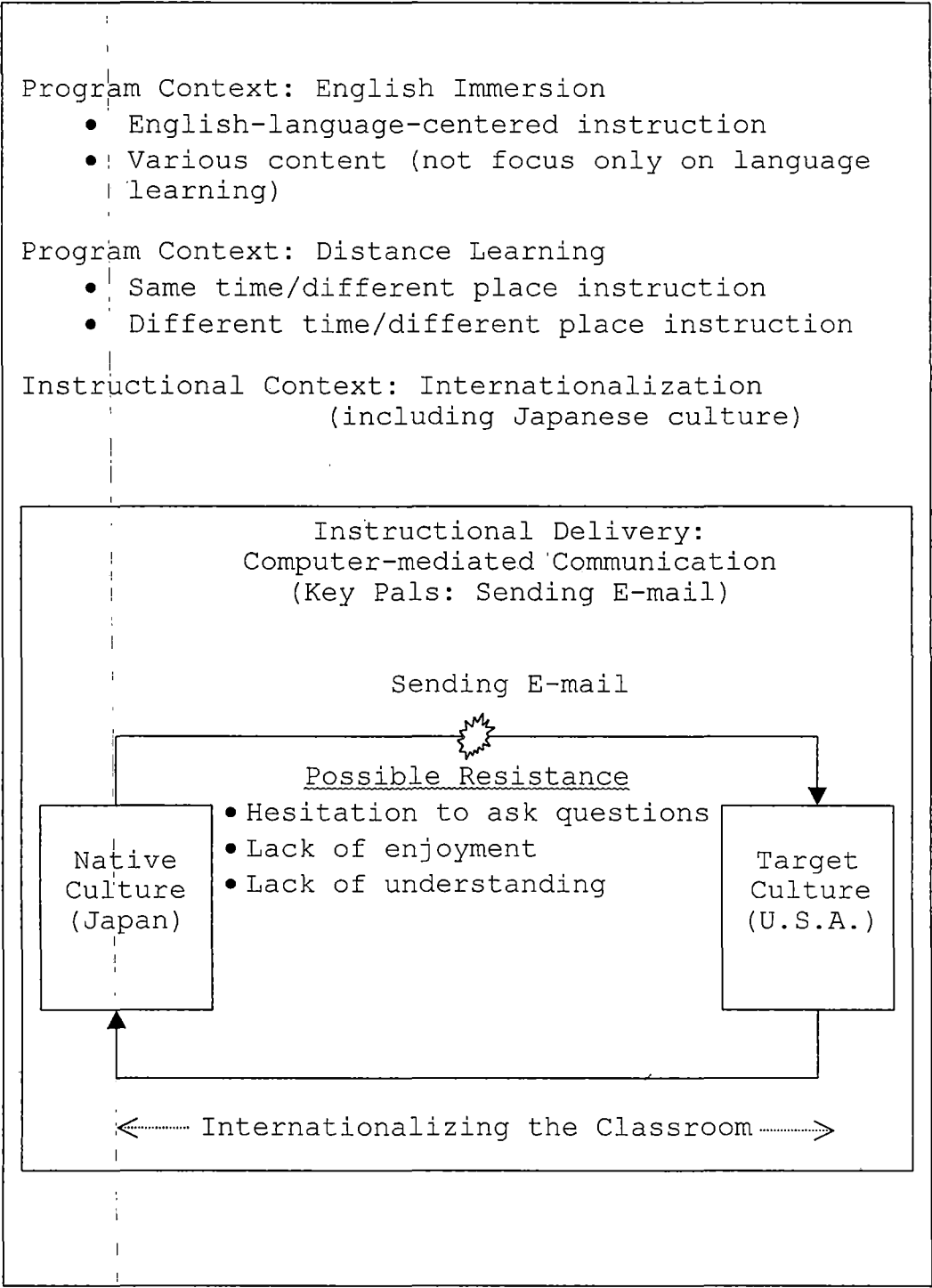


Figure 2. A Model of the Internationalized Classroom

(Japanese) is considered part of the internationalization. Basically, instruction centers on the exchange of e-mail between students and native-English speakers. At this time, students may have some resistance to the instruction. Through this exchange, the target culture and the primary culture are simultaneously reproduced.

The Components of the Theoretical Framework

Figure 2 describes two program contexts and one instructional context. Detailed explanation of each category is provided as follows.

English Immersion

As was mentioned in Chapter Two, most English instruction in Japanese schools is provided in Japanese. Students have limited opportunity to experience English-language-centered learning. In the English-immersion framework, the program is taught all in English. All explanation about tasks inside (and outside) the classroom is given in English. As the need arises, the instructor also can teach the class with ALTs.

The content of the immersion program should not focus on learning the target language. English education in Japan has tended to focus only on linguistic skills such as learning English grammar. As Katoh Gakuen Schools

(2004) suggested, English should be a communication tool, not an ultimate goal, in this instruction. Students learn other cultures, customs, perspectives, and senses of values through language learning.

Distance Learning

There are two types of distance-learning instruction that suits English instruction in Japanese schools.

Same Time/Different Place Instruction. According to McIsaac and Gunawardena (1996), this type of instruction has two characteristics: (1) participants who are separated by geographic distance can simultaneously interact with each other through computer technologies, and (2) participants can be instructed by the use of noninteractive media such as television or radio scheduled programs without responses from participants.

Different Time/Different Place Instruction. This type of instruction is classified as a transmission of information such as e-mails (McIsaac & Gunawardena, 1996). This instruction can permit the interaction between the instructor and learners, and between groups of learners. It also can be said that different time/different place instruction considers students' autonomy as important. That is to say, the instruction sometimes becomes a learner-centered collaboration activity.

Internationalization

In the model of the instructional context, internationalization becomes a key concept. Besides learning the language, students can be influenced by internationalizing content. Different cultures, customs values, and perspectives broaden monocultural horizons. Students learn American culture through this type of instruction and, in turn, students introduce their primary culture to other participants. Thanks to the exchange of information between students and their partners, students' interest may be boosted more than in ordinary English instruction.

The next section describes the framework of the instruction in detail.

Instructional Delivery

The practical instruction that is introduced in the theoretical framework is key-pal (sometimes called e-pal) activity. Students contact native-English speakers via e-mails. Compared with the chat system, the benefit of the key-pal activity is that there is no need to be concerned about a time differential. During the e-mail correspondence, students will introduce their culture, country, food, etc. to their partners. Students will

receive replies from their partners and get to know their partners' culture, food, etc. The language used in the activity is, of course, English. Therefore, through e-mail correspondence, students will spontaneously learn reading and writing skills. Japanese students tend to make grammatically correct sentences that are nevertheless semantically incorrect. Therefore, sentences made by Japanese students sometimes sound inappropriate. However, students can acquire appropriate expression through their partners' modeling. Students can also learn English communication skills through this instruction.

Possible Resistance

Exchanging e-mails can be one of the simplest ways of internationalizing the English instruction in Japanese schools. However, there may be several types of resistance on the part of students.

Hesitation to Ask Questions. All instruction is provided in English. Quite naturally, students must use English all the time. Therefore, students who do not have confidence with their English ability may hesitate to ask the instructor questions. Those students may also resist corresponding with native-English speakers. Lacking confidence with writing e-mails in English leads students to this resistance.

Lack of Enjoyment. Exchanging e-mails will face the repetition of monotonous questions such as where the partner lives or how old the partner is. Even through the e-mail in Japanese, those types of questions hardly raise the interests. The contents of questions should be carefully considered in order to avoid those tedious situations.

Lack of Understanding. When students receive replies from their key-pals, it may be possible that unknown expressions or difficult vocabulary words are included in the replies. At the time, some students may stop reading the e-mails because of not understanding the content. Unfamiliar sentences will undermine students' motivation.

The instructor should consider how students could avoid those types of resistance to learning language through this type of instruction. To lessen possible resistance, the instructor must explain the content well until students fully understand it, choose intelligible words or expressions as the instructor explains, and create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.

In sum, this theoretical framework illustrates that internationalized instruction through computer-mediated instruction in distance learning can increase the opportunities for both linguistic and cultural experiences.

Students exchange e-mails with native-English speakers and take advantage of the valuable chances to broaden their outlook. Based on those theoretical ideas, the next chapter describes how the concepts discussed in this chapter are incorporated into the curriculum.

CHAPTER FOUR

DESIGN OF CURRICULUM

Organization of the Unit Plan

This curriculum provided in this chapter is designed to develop students' English communication skills by exploring differences between Japanese and American culture through corresponding e-mails with native-English speakers. Each lesson plan include includes one or multiple key concepts mentioned in Chapter Three.

The purpose of this project is to internationalize English classes in Japan through computer-mediated distance learning. This project also aims to reduce students' hesitation to learning a second language.

In order to materialize the purpose, the unit focuses on e-mail activity. The content of each lesson is associated with e-mail or e-mail activities. Therefore, students are not always required to work inside the classroom in a definite period, but in the computer lab at a lunch break, in their house after school, and so on.

Each lesson includes lesson purpose, objectives, materials, warm-up, task chains, and assessment. Every lesson is geared toward the target level, which is intermediate Japanese high school students. In this unit

plan, several focus sheets, work sheets, assessment sheets, peer-evaluation sheets, a self-evaluation sheet, and assessment sheets are featured. A feedback sheet is also used for the evaluation of oral presentations. Each lesson requires computers and several lessons allow students to access the web sites in this unit plan.

The Content of the Curriculum

The topics of six lessons are as follows: Establish E-mail Accounts, What is Netiquette?, Introducing My Country and Myself, Finding a Key Pal, Replying to My Key Pal, and Making a Presentation. Lesson One introduces the history and the development of e-mail. This lesson requires students to establish e-mail accounts and correspond with classmates and the instructor. Lesson Two offers "netiquette." Students could lessen their anxiety about composing the inadequate e-mail messages by knowing about netiquette. In Lesson Three, students research their own culture and create messages to their key pals. Students actually send e-mail to their key pals in Lesson Four. In this lesson, students introduce themselves using their own words, and learn other cultural information. After receiving messages from key pals, students send "e-cards" to their key pals in Lesson Five. Based on replies

from their key pals, students finally make a presentation about the other culture in Lesson Six.

Distribution of Key Concepts in Lesson Plans

This curriculum design is consequent upon the review of the five key words in Chapter Two. Table 1 shows how these five key concepts match to this curriculum for accomplishing the goals.

Table 1. Distribution of Strategies in Lesson Plans

Components	Lesson Plans					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Computer-Mediated Communication	X	X	X	X	X	
Distance Learning in TESOL	X	X		X	X	
Resistance to Learning a Second Language	X	X	X	X	X	X
Internationalizing the Japanese Classroom	X	X	X	X	X	X
English+Immersion Programs			X	X	X	X

The Component of Computer-Mediated Communication

Students need operate computers in order to communicate with key pals. Corresponding using e-mail with native-English speakers is regarded as communication through technology. In the lesson activities, students

send e-mails to their classmates, instructor, and native-English speakers as their key pals.

The Component of Distance Learning

In this curriculum design, students are required not only to work in the classroom but also to work outside the classroom. In some lessons, students cannot proceed to next tasks if they do not send assignments outside of the classroom to the instructor. This concept matches different place/different time activity. Students can submit their assignments anytime (by the deadline) and from any place.

The Component of Resistance to Learning a Second Language

Students can easily resist learning a second language; therefore a curriculum is needed that draws students' attention and lessens their anxiety. To attract students' attention, for example, Lesson Three provides a game activity. Compared to routine class activity, students can readily be involved in the game activity. In order to lessen students' anxiety, several lessons make use of group activity. Japanese students can act in a small group more vividly than in a big class. This shows that Japanese students fear to make a mistake in public. This mentality causes Japanese students' passive reaction

in the classroom. Reduction of number of workmates will help Japanese students act more positively and assertively.

The Component of Internationalization

The main purpose of this curriculum design is to internationalize the English classroom in Japanese schools. In corresponding with native-English key pals, for instance, students can ask their key pals to teach their culture, perspectives, or customs. At the same time, Japanese students can send e-mails about Japanese culture to their key pals. Through the e-mail activity, students can experience crosscultural exchange with people from another culture. Several lessons also help students recognize difference or sometimes similarities between Japanese and American culture.

The Component of the English-Immersion Program

In Japan, it is difficult to provide English-immersion lessons in public schools. Therefore, an English-immersion environment is very meaningful for students' second-language acquisition. E-mailing with native-English speakers reinforces an English-immersion atmosphere quite easily. In Lesson Six, the instructor invites an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) to the classroom and lets the ALT evaluate students' oral presentations. These students can ask the ALT questions,

freely involving students in an English-immersion surrounding. The better students adjust to this surrounding, the more their English communication skills are enhanced.

In sum, applying these key concepts will boost students' English communication skills. Using e-mail is comparatively daily occurrence. However, this ordinary activity can lead students to an extraordinary experience through the entire unit. Daily life can be altered by these international activities.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

Purpose of Assessment

Assessment is a process for verifying the level of a learner's performance or knowledge (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002). Therefore, the result of the assessment should be used to help learners improve their performance, become aware of their current level of achievement, and to understand the target language and culture. There are several purposes for assessment. Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) discuss purposes of four types of assessment instruments in second-language learning: proficiency tests, diagnostic and placement tests, achievement tests, and competency tests.

Proficiency tests determine students' ability in a second language. These tests evaluate whether the test taker is ready for the next step of learning. Diagnostic and placement tests determine the specific aspects of students' proficiency in second-language learning. These tests "provide information to place students in the appropriate level of academic or linguistic courses" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, p. 181). Achievement tests measure students' success of learning the instructional

content, such as knowledge about the target language or other subjects. Competency tests are used to identify whether the test takers may be promoted or advanced.

Another purpose for assessment is to provide teachers with information to help them make informed decisions about the instruction (Pappas, Kiefer, & Levstik, 1999). That is to say, assessment is needed to determine what is effective instruction. Better understanding students' learning will lead teachers to become better informed about students' needs. Meaningful and useful assessment should be required not only to evaluate students but also to evaluate the instruction itself. For this reason, O'Malley and Pierce (1996) stated that assessment should be conducted accurately and reliably.

Assessment of Second-Language Learning

There are various forms of assessments for the second-language learning. Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) explained that there are three methods for assessing students' accomplishment: performance-based assessment, standardized tests, and teacher observation and evaluation.

Performance-Based Assessment

Performance-based assessment tests directly what is taught in the classroom. In this type of assessment, the

teacher may elicit students' response to the class activity. Performance-based assessment requires students to accomplish significant tasks with previous knowledge, recent learning, and relevant skills to solve the problems (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). In other words, it is related to classroom routines and learning activities.

Performance-based assessment also requires teachers to judge students' responses accurately and reliably.

Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) explained that performance-based assessment includes both classroom tests and portfolio assessment. Classroom tests may require one specific answer or be open ended, with multiple answers possible. These types of tests may be able to reflect functional or communicative goals. Meanwhile, the goal of portfolio assessment is to maintain a long-term record of students' progress of learning. Portfolio assessment includes writing samples, reading logs, drawings, self-assessment, audio- or videotapes, and teacher's notes about students. One of the most valuable aspects of portfolio assessment is to represent what the second-language learner learns in the classroom (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

Standardized Tests

In second- and foreign-language learning, standardized tests indicate assessing a common standard of proficiency or performance. Norm-referenced tests and criterion-referenced tests fall in this category. Norm-referenced tests compare students' scores against a population of students. On the other hand, criterion-referenced tests are used to find out how much of clearly defined language skills or materials students have learned. The difference between norm-referenced tests and criterion-referenced tests is whether the focus is on comparing scores against other students or comparing students' achievement in relation to the objectives built into the materials they have learned.

Teacher Observation and Evaluation

The purpose of teacher observation and evaluation is to observe students' attention to tasks, response to different types of instructional materials, and interactions with other students or teachers. Assessment by teacher observation and evaluation includes observation-based assessment and teacher-made tests. In observation-based assessment, a teacher can note individual differences among students. Teachers also may record a cooperative or collaborative group work. Those

observations of speaking and listening should cover all contexts of the curriculum and all types of interaction. Teacher-made tests are often used for classroom grading. These types of tests can assess skills of reading comprehension, oral fluency, writing proficiency, and listening.

These methods of assessments "enable students to construct information rather than simply choose response alternatives, and challenge students to use their language to communicate their understandings and appreciations of knowledge" (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 31).

Suggestions for Improving Assessment

Assessment requires planning and organization. Especially, extra care must be taken when teachers assess second-language learners or students from different cultural backgrounds. Kaplan (1996) suggested several tips for the better assessment in second-language learning (see Table 2).

Table 2. Tips to Improve Assessment

<u>Suggestion</u>	<u>Elaboration</u>
Be aware of the possible difficulties	This is the first step to better assessment. Understanding controversies and the weaknesses of various evaluation instruments leads to a more cautious assessment.
Gather information from many different sources	This can increase the validity of the assessment. A number of sources should be used to enlarge information from standardized instrument. This information should be taken seriously.
Look for possible reasons for a difficulty	Look at the classroom context, the nature of the teacher-student relationship, the language sophistication of students, and the functioning of students in the classroom should be undertaken.
Obtain information useful for teachers	Assessment should yield information that is not only useful for eligibility decision but also which helps teachers in their quest to provide better instruction. Assessment should offer information relevant to the teaching process.

Make certain familiarity	The nature of testing situation is a concern. Students should be familiar with the types of questions to be asked.
Avoid bias in evaluation	Be aware of the differences in the way students from various cultures or of various levels of accomplishment. Judging students by the standards of the teacher's cultural background or preconception will be able to lead to a narrow, biased approach.

Source: Kaplan, 1996, p. 345

Assessment in the Unit

The unit mainly focuses on e-mail activity. In association with this activity, lesson plans require students to read articles, to work with peers or in groups, to write e-mails, and to make an oral presentation. Therefore, performance-based assessment, observation-based assessment, and teacher-made tests occur in the unit plan.

Throughout the entire unit, students are evaluated using work sheets and assessment sheets. Students also evaluate other students with peer-evaluation sheets and assess their own performance using self-evaluation sheets.

The teacher assesses students' performance on their oral presentation with a feedback sheet. In addition, the teacher evaluates e-mails from students inside and outside the classroom. In this case, students' e-mails are evaluated based on a rubric (See Table 3).

Table 3. Scoring Rubric

<u>Score</u>	<u>Components</u>
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveys meaning clearly and effectively • Presents multi-paragraph organization logically • Uses smooth transitions • Uses vivid vocabulary consistently • Writes with few grammatical and mechanical errors
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveys meaning clearly • Presents multi-paragraph organization • Shows some evidence of transitions • Uses appropriate vocabulary • Writes with some grammatical and mechanical errors without affecting meaning
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expresses ideas coherently most of time • Develops a logical paragraph • Writes with variety of sentence structure, but with limited transitions • Uses high frequency vocabulary • Writes with grammatical and mechanical errors that seldom diminish communication
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attempts to express ideas coherently • Begins to write a paragraph containing organized ideas • Writes primarily simple sentences • Uses some vocabulary

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writes with grammatical and mechanical errors that sometimes hinder communication
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begins to convey ideas • Writes simple phrases • Spell words • Write simple sentences

Source: O'Malley

Little by little, second language learners gradually acquire second-language skills, particularly in a racially homogeneous country will need to interact with members of the target cultures. Furthermore, in spite of the time limitations in the classroom setting, teachers should thoroughly consider the context of the lessons they teach.

This project, which is based on e-mail correspondence with native-English speakers, might be helpful for English

classes in Japan. Students not only acquire English communication skills but also participate in cultural exchange with each other. I hope this project fosters a new style of English instruction in Japan that impacts second-language learning in Japan in the near future.

APPENDIX
LESSON PLANS

INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT PLAN:

E-mailing to Friends in the World

Lesson One: Establishing E-mail Accounts

Lesson Two: What is Netiquette?

Lesson Three: Introducing My Country and Myself

Lesson Four: Finding a Key Pal

Lesson Five: Replying to My Key Pal

Lesson Six: Making a Presentation

Lesson One

Establishing E-mail Accounts

Target Level: Intermediate Japanese High School Students

Lesson Purpose: Students will distinguish characteristics of e-mails from those of letters. Students will also create their e-mail accounts.

Objectives: Students will

1. Learn about the development of the computer and e-mail
2. Compare the merits of e-mail with letters
3. Establish the e-mail accounts

Materials:

Focus Sheet 1-1

Focus Sheet 1-2

Work Sheet 1-3

Focus Sheet 1-4

Focus Sheet 1-5

Assessment Sheet 1-6

Computer

Online Webpage:

<https://registernet.passport.net/reg.srf?ppHttp=1&sl=1&id=2&lc=1033>

Warm-Up: The instructor asks students how many students have their own computers at home, and how many students have experienced the use of e-mail and the World Wide Web.

Task Chain 1: Development of the computer and e-mail

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 1-1 and lets students read it.
2. The instructor asks students questions about the content of Focus Sheet 1-1.
3. The instructor also distributes Focus Sheet 1-2, and introduces what e-mail address looks like, and how people can exchange e-mails.

Task Chain 2: Letters and e-mails

1. The instructor divides students into groups of five.
2. The instructor distributes Work Sheet 1-3 and lets students compare e-mails with letters.

3. The instructor calls on students to present their opinions.
4. The instructor explains the merits (and demerits) of e-mails, adding students' opinions.

Task Chain 3: Establishing e-mail accounts

1. The instructor writes down the webpage address on the board and lets students open the webpage.
2. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 1-4 and explains what the sign-up page looks like.
3. The instructor also distributes Focus Sheet 1-5 and explains the procedure of registration.
4. The instructor lets students register their new e-mail account and helps them to create the account if students need any help.
5. Students compose messages and send them through e-mail to the instructor.
6. When receiving students' messages, the instructor sends Assessment Sheet 1-6 back to the students through e-mail.

Assessment:

1. The instructor evaluates e-mail messages sent by students.
2. The instructor collects Work Sheet 1-3 for evaluation.
3. The instructor evaluates students' participation in the class activities.
4. The instructor distributes Assessment Sheet 1-6 and lets students work on it. Criteria for grades by point value are shown as the following:

51-60	Excellent	A
41-50	Good	B
31-40	Fair	C
21-30	Study harder	D
0-20	Failure (Get help from the teacher)	F

Focus Sheet 1-1

The History of E-mail

Mankind has always had a compelling desire to communicate. In ancient times this could be verbally or in some form of writing. If remote communication was required (i.e. if the parties were not physically together) then messages had to be physically carried or sent by a messenger. Examples of early forms of remote transmission of messages not requiring a person to actually move between the sender and the receiver would be "jungle drum" or "smoke signal" transmissions. These were somewhat lacking in security and privacy.

If "e-mail" is loosely defined as "messages transmitted electronically", then the first "e-mail messages" would have started in the last century with telegraph messages (by wire) and Morse Code transmissions (via airways).

This definition would also include the telex network that was used extensively by business on a worldwide basis from the mid-1920's to the mid-1980's. The telex network was independent of the telephone network and telex machines could connect with and communicate with any other telex machine on a global scale. Telex also was relatively secure in that the sending and receiving machines did identifying handshaking. It was relatively expensive to have a "telex line" installed and subsequent telex messages were charged on a data-transmitted basis. In addition, for much of its history, use of telex required a dedicated "telex terminal" which was less than intuitive and often required trained operators. [It may come as a surprise to many in this age of computers and chips everywhere that telex is still operating and being used throughout the world.]

During the 1960's and 1970's many companies who were using mainframe and mini computers also used email facilities on those systems. This enabled users of terminals attached to those systems to send messages to each other. As companies began to connect their central systems (hosts) to branch offices and subsidiaries then employees were able to send e-mail to other employees of that company on a worldwide basis.

Focus Sheet 1-1 (continued)

The History of E-mail

Also during this time the US Department of Defense's research into computer networks was well underway, resulting in the embryonic ARPANET --the forerunner to the now global Internet. According to information regarding these early years, the first ARPANET network e-mail message was transmitted in 1971.

In the late-1970's and 1980's the phenomenal growth of personal computers (Apple II 1978 - 1985; IBM PC 1983 and Apple Macintosh 1984) created a whole new genre of e-mail technologies. Some of these systems were proprietary "dial-up" systems such as MCI Mail, EasyLink, Telecom Gold, One-to-One, CompuServe, AppleLink etc. For two people to exchange messages remotely on these systems they had to both be subscribers. The proprietary systems did not interoperate or transmit messages from one system to another, or for the few systems that did these were notoriously unreliable - a reason for eventual demise of most of these systems. At the same time, companies and enthusiasts were setting up "bulletin board systems" (BBS) which were often used both to send/receive messages and to exchange information.

In parallel with the development of the personal computer market, companies were connecting the personal computers increasingly being used by their staff, to both their mainframe/midrange systems and to "LAN-based" e-mail systems. When connected to the mainframe/midrange systems they were often being used in "terminal emulation" mode and therefore the email being used was the same as for the dedicated terminals. The LAN-based systems often had much easier-to-use interfaces and offered more functionality, such as the ability to send attachments with e-mail messages.

As the company networks slowly evolved from terminal-based host-access applications through to PC work groups, the Internet was becoming more widely used for access to information. Firstly for military use, then academic and commercial communications. The history of the Internet and its creation is a complex issue.

Focus Sheet 1-1 (continued)

The History of E-mail

As the Internet became available to more people, both privately and through company connections, the e-mail facilities available to users have evolved from the proprietary e-mail systems available within company networks and via host-based systems through to the current trend of "Intranets" which are effectively private mini-Internets, using the standards-based Internet services, such as mail and web servers in place of proprietary ones.

Since 1995 both the Internet and e-mail have been 'hot' topics. But when one cuts away the hype, one realizes that email itself is not new. No doubt the Internet will shape future communications, far beyond the current uses. As to what features and functions that will become available over the next few years, the speed of progress dictates that we can only guess.

Source:

<http://www.vicomsoft.com/knowledge/reference/email.history.html>

Focus Sheet 1-2

E-mail Address

Q. What is an E-mail address?

An example e-mail address looks like this:

sales@vicomsoft.com
└───┬──────────┘
Email Account Domain Name

This address is made up of two parts:

E-mail account This is a particular users email account name that, in this case, the vicomsoft.com mail server can deal with.

Domain name This is a name that a company has registered so that they can use it on the Internet. Other examples are: apple.com, or microsoft.com, etc.

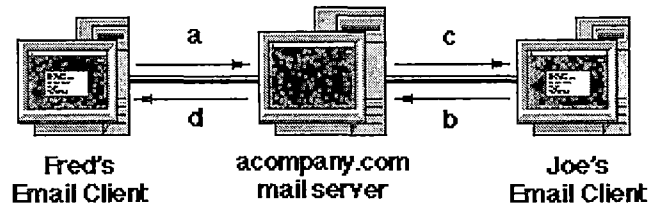
If a person or company has not registered their own domain name then they may be using their Internet Service Provider's (ISP) domain name, for example: netcom.com, or aol.com. This is usually a less expensive option than registering your own domain name, but does mean that you have to use your ISP's domain name all the time.

In the above example "vicomsoft.com" is the domain name that has been registered so that Vicomsoft can use it on the Internet.

Focus Sheet 1-2 (continued)

E-mail Address

Q. How does e-mail get from one e-mail client to another e-mail client?

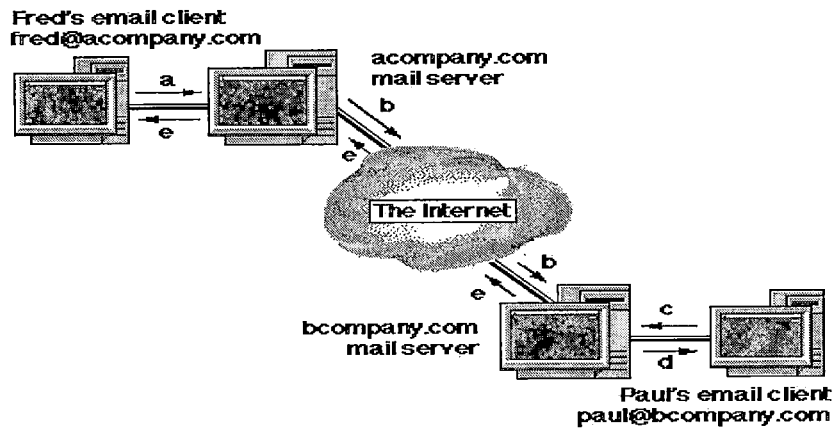


- a. Fred wants to send an e-mail message to joe@acompany.com. The e-mail client on Fred's machine sends the message to the email server. The mail server checks to see if it has an account with the user name "Joe." If this account exists then the message is stored, ready for Joe to collect. If there is not an account for Joe, the message is returned, with an explanation that Joe does not have an account, so the message could not be delivered.
- b. Joe checks his e-mail at a later time. Joe's e-mail client asks the e-mail server if there is any mail for Joe.
- c. As there is mail waiting for Joe--from Fred--the e-mail client downloads the waiting message from the mail server. Joe can then read the e-mail message and reply to Fred, if he wants, using his e-mail client.
- d. If Fred had sent mail to "tom@acompany.com", instead of "Joe@acompany.com" and Tom did not have an e-mail account created on the mail server, Fred would receive a message back telling him that Tom did not have an e-mail account, so his message could not be delivered.

Focus Sheet 1-2 (continued)

E-mail Address

Q. How does e-mail get from one e-mail client to another when they are at different locations?



- Fred creates his email message with his e-mail client, which sends the message to the acompany.com mail server.
- The mail server compares the domain name of the destination e-mail address (bcompany.com) with the domain name it has been told to look after (acompany.com). These domain names are different, so the acompany.com mail server will send the message to the mail server that looks after e-mail for the bcompany.com domain.
- Paul checks his e-mail at a later time. His e-mail client asks his e-mail server if there is any mail for Paul.
- As there is mail waiting for Paul--from Fred--the e-mail client downloads the waiting message from the mail server. Paul can then read the e-mail message and reply to Fred, if he wants, using his e-mail client.

Source:
<http://www.vicomsoft.com/knowledge/reference/email.server.html#1>

Work Sheet 1-3

E-mails and Letters

E-mails	Letters

Focus Sheet 1-4

Sign-up Page

Registration

Complete this form to register for a Hotmail account, which is also a Microsoft .NET Passport.

The Hotmail e-mail address and password you create are your .NET Passport credentials. You'll need them to access your Hotmail account and to sign in where you see the .NET Passport sign-in button: [Sign-In](#)

[What if I want to close my account later?](#)
[What does Passport do with my information?](#)

Profile Information [Help](#)

First Name:

Last Name:
Your first and last names will be sent with all outgoing e-mail messages.

Language:

Country/Region:

Prefecture:

Time Zone:

Gender: Male Female

Account Information


E-mail Address: @hotmail.com

Password:
Six-character minimum; no spaces

Retype Password:

Secret Question:

Secret Answer:

Registration Check: Type the characters that you see in this picture. Why?

I can't see this picture.

Characters are not case-sensitive.

[If you can't see this picture, click the "I can't see this picture" link below.](#)

Tired of registration forms? You can speed registration and get personalized services at participating sites by sharing your .NET Passport information with them when you sign in. Select the boxes below to choose how much of your .NET Passport information Microsoft can share with other companies' .NET Passport sites at sign-in:

Source:

<https://registernet.passport.net/reg.srf?sl=1&id=2&lc=1033&ppHttp=1>

Focus Sheet 1-5

Procedure of Establishing E-mail Account

1. Open the Webpage (See Focus Sheet 1-4).
2. Complete the registration information and make sure to fill in all boxes. Also keep the following rules:
 - You must use your name as e-mail account!
 - You must put the underscore between your first and last name.

EX) If your name is James Washington, your e-mail address is *James_Washington@hotmail.com*
3. Click "I AGREE" at the bottom. MAKE SURE YOU WRITE DOWN YOUR E-MAIL ACCOUNT NAME AND PASSWORD before continuing!!!
4. Congratulations! Now, you have your own e-mail address. Keep your password in a safe place to prevent other people from viewing your e-mail.

Assessment Sheet 1-6

Establishing E-mail Accounts

Name: _____

Date: _____

1. Explain what the domain name is. (15 pts.)

2. Explain what the e-mail account is. (15 pts.)

3. Write a brief summary of the history of e-mails. (30 pts.)

Lesson Two

What is Netiquette?

Target Level: Intermediate Japanese High School Students

Lesson Purpose: Students will recognize what netiquette is and be able to avoid composing the wrong e-mails.

Objectives: Students will

1. Discuss DO's and DON'Ts on the Internet
2. Identify the rules of Netiquette
3. Compose the e-mail in conformity with the netiquette

Materials:

Work Sheet 2-1
Focus Sheet 2-2
Focus Sheet 2-3
Work Sheet 2-4
Peer-Evaluation Sheet 2-5
Assessment Sheet 2-6
Computer

Warm-Up: The instructor asks students to enumerate the DO's and DON'Ts when they write letters.

Task Chain 1: DO's and DON'Ts on the Internet

1. The instructor divides students into groups of five.
2. The instructor distributes Work Sheet 2-1 and lets students discuss Do's and DON'Ts when people use the Internet.
3. After students discuss, the instructor asks one student from each group to write the group opinions on the board. Then, the instructor discusses those opinions.

Task Chain 2: Rules of Netiquette

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 2-2 and lets students read it.
2. The instructor asks students the questions about the content of Focus Sheet 2-2.
3. The instructor also distributes Focus Sheet 2-3 and explains how smileys and abbreviations work in e-mail messages.

Task Chain 3: Compose E-mail with Netiquette

1. The instructor divides students into pairs.
2. The instructor distributes Work Sheet 2-4 and explains the procedure of this activity.
3. Students compose e-mails and send the message to their partners and the instructor.
4. After receiving the message, students discuss what was good or bad about their partner's message. Students write their partner's evaluation on the Peer-Evaluation Sheet 2-5.

Assessment:

1. The instructor evaluates e-mail messages sent by students.
2. The instructor collects Work Sheet 2-1 and Peer-Evaluation Sheet 2-5 for evaluation.
3. The instructor evaluates student's participation in the class activity.
4. The instructor distributes Assessment Sheet 2-6 and lets students work on it. Criteria for grades by point value are shown as the following:

51-60	Excellent	A
41-50	Good	B
31-40	Fair	C
21-30	Study harder	D
0-20	Failure (Get help from the teacher)	F

Work Sheet 2-1

DO's and DON'Ts on the Internet

DO's	DON'Ts

Focus Sheet 2-2

Rules of Netiquette

When we talk, we expect other people to observe certain rules of behavior. The same is true online. Here are a few pointers to help you communicate more effectively.

1. Clearly summarize the contents of your message in the subject line.

Properly titled messages help people organize and prioritize their e-mail.

2. Don't use CC (Carbon Copy) to copy your message to everyone.

This is particularly true at work. These days everyone receives too many e-mails. Unnecessary messages are annoying. If only a few people really need to receive your message, only direct it to them. Similarly, when responding to e-mail, do not respond to all recipients. By choosing Reply to All or a similar button when responding to a message, you may end up broadcasting your response to your entire company.

3. Use BCCs (Blind Carbon Copies) when addressing a message that will go to a large group of people who don't necessarily know each other.

Just as it is not polite to give out a person's telephone number without his or her knowledge, it is not polite to give out someone's e-mail address. For instance, when you send an e-mail message to 30 people and use To or CC to address the message, all 30 people see each other's e-mail address. By using BCC, each recipient sees only two-- theirs and yours.

4. Keep your messages short and focused.

Few people enjoy reading on their computer screens; fewer still on the tiny screens in cell phones, pagers and other mobile devices that are becoming increasingly popular. Recipients tend to ignore long messages.

Focus Sheet 2-2 (continued)

Rules of Netiquette

5. Avoid using all capital letters.

USING ALL CAPS MAKES IT LOOK LIKE YOU'RE SHOUTING! IT'S ALSO MORE DIFFICULT TO READ.

6. Don't write anything you wouldn't say in public.

Anyone can easily forward your message, even when done accidentally. This could leave you in an embarrassing position if you divulge personal or confidential information. If you don't want to potentially share something you write, consider using the telephone.

7. Use a smiley to make sure that a statement is not misunderstood.

Smileys are typically used in personal e-mail and are not considered appropriate for business. They should rarely be used in the office. If what you are writing needs a smiley for better understanding, most likely you should not be delivering this message via e-mail. Even with a smiley, someone may misunderstand you. Smileys should be used to support a statement. It's rude to write something mean or derogatory, then place a happy smiley at the end of the sentence. Refer to the Smiley article for a list of commonly used ones.

8. Nasty e-mails should also be avoided.

These messages have their own term: flame. Flame e-mail is an insulting message designed to cause pain, as when someone "gets burned."

9. As a courtesy to your recipient, include your name at the bottom of the message.

The message contains your e-mail address (in the header), but the recipient may not know that the return address belongs to you, especially if it is different from your real name.

Source:

<http://www.learnthenet.com/english/html/65mailet.htm>

Focus Sheet 2-3

Basic Smileys and Abbreviations

Smileys

: -)	Happy
: -(Sad
: -o	Surprised
: -@	Screaming
: -I	Indifferent
: -e	Disappointed
: -D	Laughing
; -)	Wink

Abbreviations

<BFN>	Bye For Now
<BTW>	By The Way
<G>	Grin
<HTH>	Hope This Helps
<IJWTK>	I Just Want To Know
<IJWTS>	I Just Want To Say
<IMHO>	In My Humble Opinion
<LOL>	Laughing Out Loud
<OTOH>	On The Other Hand
<ROTFL>	Rolling on the Floor Laughing
<TOY>	Thinking of You
<YMMV>	Your Mileage May Vary

Source:

<http://www.learnthenet.com/english/html/25smile.htm>

Work Sheet 2-4

E-mail with Netiquette

1. Compose an e-mail message with the following rules:
 - Use at least two smileys and two abbreviations in your message.
 - Put the instructor's e-mail address in the "CC (Carbon Copies)".
 - The content of the e-mail message must be a diary of yesterday.
 - Use more than 150 words, but less than 200.
2. When you receive your partner's e-mail, print it out and evaluate it. (Use Peer-Evaluation Sheet 2-5)



Peer-Evaluation Sheet 2-5

E-mail with Netiquette

Name _____ Date _____

Your Partner _____

1. The sender adequately uses smileys and abbreviations in the message.	5 4 3 2 1
2. The sender use more than 150, but less than 200 words in the message.	5 4 3 2 1
3. There is nothings tat violates Netiquette in the message.	5 4 3 2 1
4. The content of the message is understandable and relevant to the requirements.	5 4 3 2 1
5. There is an acceptable number of mechanical errors in the message.	5 4 3 2 1
Score	/25

- 5: Excellent
- 4: Good
- 3: Fair
- 2: Passing
- 1: Need more improvement

Comments

Assessment Sheet 2-6

What is Netiquette?

Name: _____

Date: _____

1. Answer what the smiley stands for. (10 pts.)

A. :-@

B. ;-)

C. :-e

D. :-D

E. :-o

2. Answer what the abbreviation stands for. (20 pts.)

A. OTOH

B. IMHO

C. HTH

D. BTW

E. IJWTS

Assessment Sheet 2-6 (continued)

What is Netiquette?

3. Write 3 rules of netiquette and explain them. (30 pts.)

1	
2	
3	

Lesson Three

Introducing My Country and Myself

Target Level: Intermediate Japanese High School Students

Lesson Purpose: Students will introduce their cultural background and themselves using their own words through e-mail activity.

Objectives: Students will

1. Compare folk beliefs in Japan
2. Research the Japanese culture through the Internet
3. Write a short information of Japanese culture and students themselves

Materials:

Focus Sheet 3-1
Work Sheet 3-2
Focus Sheet 3-3
Work Sheet 3-4
Work Sheet 3-5
Work Sheet 3-6
Assessment Sheet 3-7
Computer
Online Webpage:
<http://www.google.com>
<http://www.yahoo.com>

Warm-Up: The instructor evokes students' interests by asking questions as follows:

1. What do you imagine when you hear folk beliefs?
2. Do you believe in folk beliefs?

Task Chain 1: Folk beliefs in Japan

1. The Instructor distributes Focus Sheet 3-1.
2. Students read Focus Sheet 3-1.
3. Then, the instructor divides students into groups of five and distributes Work Sheet 3-2
4. Students discuss other folk beliefs in Japan.
5. After students finish discussing, students write the folk beliefs and brainstorm about them on Work Sheet 3-2.

6. The instructor calls on one student from each group and the student presents the group's opinion.

Task Chain 2: Researching the Japanese culture

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 3-3.
2. The instructor explains how to research effectively.
3. Then, the instructor writes down the webpage addresses (<http://www.yahoo.com> and <http://www.google.com>) on the board.
4. Students open the webpages and start researching their own topic.
5. Students take notes on Work Sheet 3-4 while doing research.
6. The instructor walks around and answers any students' questions.

Task Chain 3: Introducing myself

1. The instructor divides students into pairs.
2. The instructor distributes Work Sheet 3-5.
3. Students interview each other in turn. At that time, students who are interviewing take notes on Work Sheet 3-5.
4. After taking notes, students exchange their Work Sheet 3-5.
5. Based on Work Sheet 3-6, students make their own introduction on Work Sheet 3-6 as a draft to send e-mail to their key pals in the next lesson.

Assessment:

1. The instructor evaluates students' participation in the group and pair activities.
2. The instructor collects Work Sheets 3-2, 3-4, 3-5, and 3-6 to evaluate.
3. The instructor distributes Assessment Sheet 3-7 and lets students work on it. Criteria for grades by point value are shown as the following:

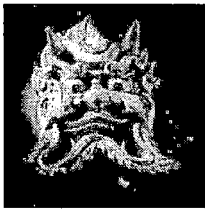
51-60	Excellent	A
41-50	Good	B
31-40	Fair	C
21-30	Study harder	D
0-20	Failure (Get help from the teacher)	F

Focus Sheet 3-1

Folk Beliefs in Japan

Oni

A horned, ferocious, scarlet-faced figure usually equated in folktales, proverbs, and common parlance with a demon or ogre. His true nature, however, is more complex and ambivalent, in that he has a benevolent, tutelary face as well as a demonic one. The demonic side of the *oni* was strengthened by the connotations of the Chinese character with which the word is written and by the *oni*'s association with the demon tortures of various Buddhist hells. Evidence of the *oni*'s ancient benevolent role, however, may still be seen in a number of festivals or rituals, in which he marches at the head of the procession, sweeping away evil influences.



Tengu

An uncanny and ambivalent creature in Japanese folklore, with a long beak and wings, glittering eyes, and a man's body, arms, and legs. A variant form, sometimes credited with higher rank, has a long nose, white hair, and red face and carries a feather fan. The *tengu* is seen principally as the guardian of certain mountains with a particular affinity for huge trees. References in medieval literature reveal him as a subtle enemy of Buddhism, kidnapping Buddhist priests and tying them to the tops of trees, implanting thoughts of greed and pride in their minds, or feasting them on dung magically disguised as delicious food.

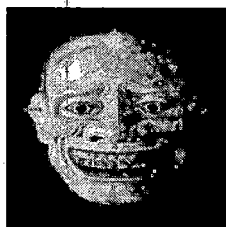


Focus Sheet 3-1 (continued)

Folk Beliefs in Japan

Yamamba

A female demon believed to live in the mountains. The *yamamba* is thought to have been originally a mountain deity or a mountain deity's female servant. Commonly described as a female demon who devours humans, the *yamamba* sometimes appears in legends and folklore as a humorous, stupid old hag.



Kappa

An amphibious supernatural creature said to inhabit Japan and thought to be a transformation of a water deity. The description and name of the *kappa* vary from region to region. Generally, the *kappa* is believed to be about the size and shape of a twelve-or thirteen-year-old child, with a face like a tiger and with a snout; its hair is bobbed, and a saucer-like depression on top of the head contains water. When the supply of water diminishes, the *kappa's* supernatural power on land is impaired. The *kappa's* slippery body is covered with blue-green scales and emits a fishy odor. It has webbed feet and hands. Human beings can recognize the *kappa* by its ability to rotate its arm and leg joints freely. Although in some areas *kappa* help with rice-planting or irrigation, usually they prey on humans and animals. The *kappa* is also said to be fond of cucumbers and partial to *sumo* wrestling.



Focus Sheet 3-1 (continued)

Folk Beliefs in Japan

Yuki Onna

The apparition of a woman dressed in white, believed to appear on snowy nights. Pale and cold like the snow, she is often blamed for mysterious happenings. Frequently appearing with a baby in her arms, she is associated with children and is sometimes thought to be a woman who died in childbirth. At other times the spirit is described as a woman with one eye and one leg. The *yuki onna* is also thought to be a form of New Year's deity who visits people at the end or beginning of each year.



Manekineko

A figurine in the shape of a sitting cat with one paw upraised, as though making the customary Japanese gesture used in beckoning to people. It is often displayed prominently at the front of shops and businesses that rely on heavy customer traffic, such as eateries and drinking establishments, and is believed to beckon good fortune and business success. *Manekineko* sometimes have the right front paw raised and sometimes left front paw.

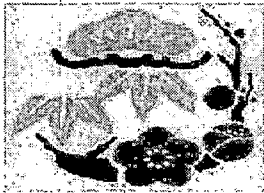


Focus Sheet 3-1 (continued)

Folk Beliefs in Japan

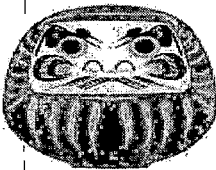
Shochikubai

Shochikubai stands for pine, bamboo, and plum. The pine and bamboo, which stay green throughout the winter, and the plum, the first tree to flower in spring, have been collectively regarded as a symbol of hope and good fortune in Japan since the Nara period, when this notion was imported from China. Since that time, the three have been planted together, combined in flower arrangements, employed as a design motif, and used in decorations for New Year's and other auspicious occasions.



Daruma

Dolls representing the Indian priest Bodhidharma, the founder of Zen Buddhism in China, who is said to have lost the use of his arms and legs after spending nine years meditating in a cave. They are used as charms for the fulfillment of some special wish, such as a plentiful harvest or successful election to public office; the custom is for the purchaser to paint in one eye, place the *daruma* in the family shrine, and paint in the other eye when the wish is fulfilled. The present form of the doll dates from Edo period, when it was regarded as a talisman for protection against smallpox.



Source:

Japan All Illustrated Encyclopedia. (1996). Keys to the Japanese heart and soul. Tokyo, Japan: Kodansha.

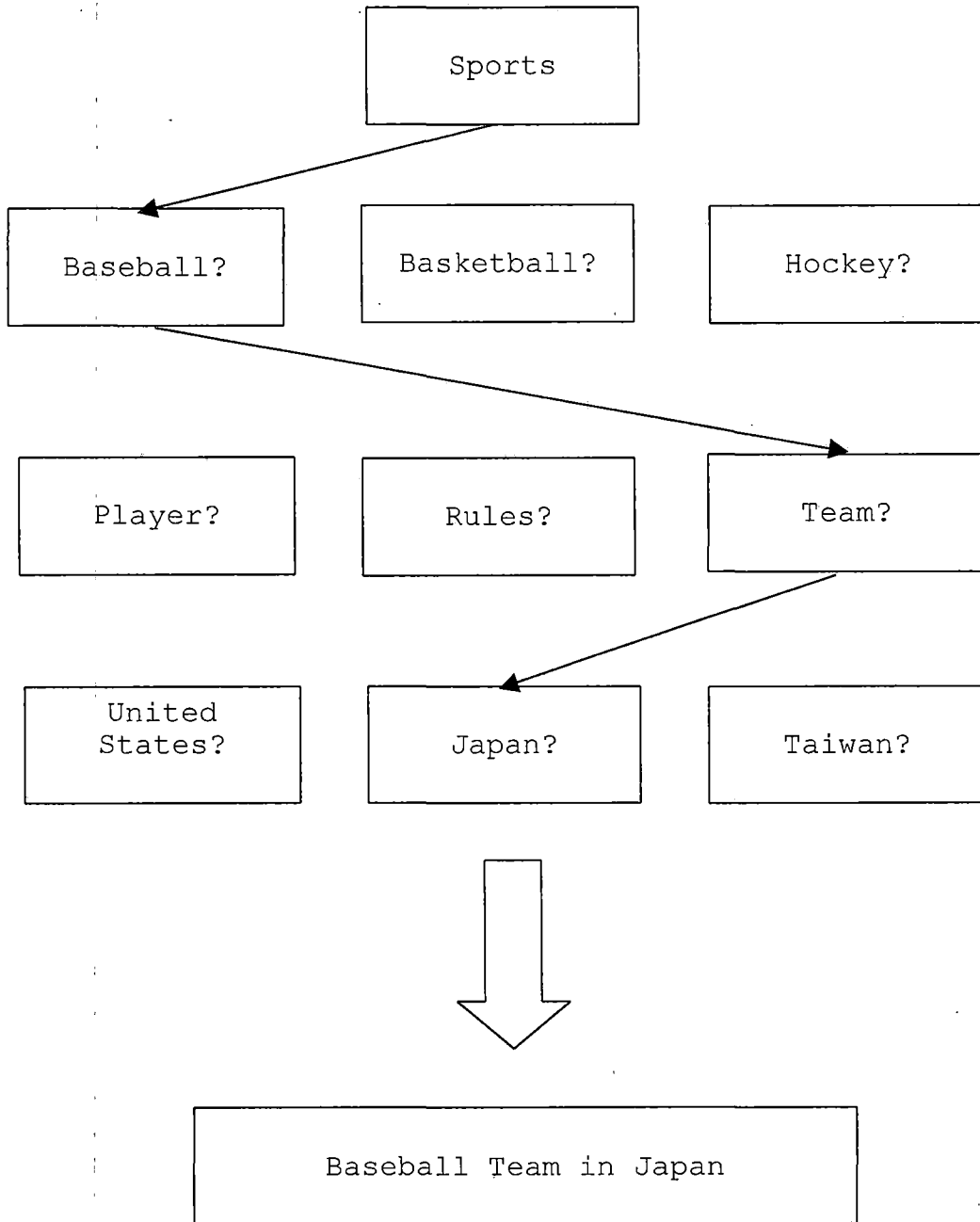
Work Sheet 3-2

Folk Beliefs in Japan

1 hitodama	2	3
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Spirit• Depart from human body• A bluish white• Premonition of the death• Graveyards		
4	5	6

Focus Sheet 3-3

Effective Research



Work Sheet 3-4

Research Note

Topic:
Topic:
Topic:
Topic:

Work Sheet 3-5

Interview Sheet

Partner's name _____

1. What is your nickname?
2. Where do you live?
3. When is your birthday?
4. What is your blood type?
5. What is your hobby?
6. What is your dream?
7. Who is your favorite movie star?
8. What is your favorite food?
9. What is your specialty?
10. What is your dream?
- 11.
- 12.
- 13.
- 14.
- 15.
- 16.
- 17.
- 18.

Work Sheet 3-6

Introducing My Culture and Myself (Draft)

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, occupying the central portion of the page. It is intended for the student to write their draft response to the prompt.

Assessment Sheet 3-7

Introducing My Country and Myself

Name: _____

Date: _____

1. Make a brief introduction of your country. (25 pts.)

2. Make a brief introduction of yourself. (25 pts.)

Assessment Sheet 3-7 (continued)

Introducing My Country and Myself

3. Complete the sentences in Column A with the sentences in Column B. (10 pts.)

Column A

- 1) *Tengu* is...
- 2) *Yuki Onna* is...
- 3) *Daruma* is...
- 4) *Kappa* is...
- 5) *Manekineko* is...

Column B

- a) a woman dressed in white, believed to appear on snowy nights.
- b) believed to beckon good fortune and business success.
- c) used as charms for the fulfillment of some special wish, such as a plentiful harvest.
- d) seen principally as the guardians of certain mountains with a particular affinity for huge trees.
- e) believed to be about the size and shape of a twelve- or thirteen-year-old child, with a face like a tiger and with a snout.

1)	2)	3)	4)	5)
----	----	----	----	----

Lesson Four

Finding a Key Pal

Target Level: Intermediate Japanese High School Students

Lesson Purpose: Students will find a key pal through the Internet and send a message to him/her. Students will also write sentences with their own words instead of using unknown or difficult vocabulary words.

Objectives: Students will

1. Write a message (introduction of themselves and Japanese culture) to a key pal
2. Find a key pal through the Internet and send a message.

Materials:

Focus Sheet 4-1
Focus Sheet 4-2
Work Sheet 4-3
Focus Sheet 4-4
Focus Sheet 4-5
Work Sheet 4-6
Assessment Sheet 4-7
Computer
Online Webpage:
http://www.japan-guide.com/penfriend/index_e.php

Warm-Up: The instructor gives 5 words as clues and lets students guess the correct word. The example is as the following:

food, between, eat, meals, television → snack

Task Chain 1: Writing a message to a pen pal

1. The instructor divides students into groups of four. In the group, students are divided into pairs (two pairs in one group).
2. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-1 and explains the rules of the game called Taboo.
3. Then, instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-2.
4. Each group starts the game.
5. During the game, the instructor walks among students and answers any students' questions if they have.

6. After each group finishes the game, the instructor explains the importance of the variety of expression and tells students not to worry about using difficult expressions.
7. The instructor distributes Work Sheet 4-3.
8. Students write a message to their key pal on Work Sheet 4-3 as a second draft. At that time, students use their first draft (Focus Sheet 3-6 in a previous lesson).

Task Chain 2: Finding a key pal

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 4-4 and explains the webpage of the pen pal lists.
2. The instructor explains the rules of finding pen pals with Focus Sheet 4-5.
3. Students open the webpage and start putting the information on the webpage.
4. Then, students choose a pen pal from the list and write down the information about the pen pal on Work Sheet 4-6.
5. Then, students send messages to their pen pal.

Assessment:

1. The instructor collects Work Sheets 4-3 and 4-6 for evaluation.
2. The instructor evaluates students' participation in the group work.
3. The Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet 4-7 and lets students work on it. Criteria for grades by point value are shown as the following:

51-60	Excellent	A
41-50	Good	B
31-40	Fair	C
21-30	Study harder	D
0-20	Failure (Get help from the teacher)	F

Focus Sheet 4-1

Taboo Game

1. Divides players into two teams (Team A and Team B).
2. Team A chooses one of their players to be their clue-giver, and the player picks one of the cards.
3. Team B's players sit behind Team A's clue-giver and rest of Team A sit opposite their clue-giver (not allowed to see the card!).
4. Within one minute, Team A's clue-giver gives clues and teammates try to answer.
5. After Team A completed their turn, Team B chooses their clue-giver.
6. Teams take turns five times.

Think fast, talk fast and do not say a Taboo word!!!



Source:

Taboo: the Game of Unspeakable Fun

Focus Sheet 4-2

Taboo Cards

Garlic	Media	Sugar
strong	newspaper	sweet
seasoning	television	white
vampire	broadcast	brown
smell	reporter	coffee
bread	journalist	candy
Fight	Subway	Recycle
battle	underground	use
argument	train	bin
boxing	tracks	waste
fist	city	cans
bull	token	paper
Noodle	Notebook	DVD
Spaghetti	write	CD
Chinese	subject	disc
brain	school	music
pasta	lined	digital
macaroni	paper	player

Focus Sheet 4-2 (continued)

Taboo Cards

Spoon	Lifeguard	Pizza
silver	pool	slice
mouth	beach	cheese
fork	swim	crust
tea	drown	pepperoni
table	save	anchovy
Diamond	Mirror	Laugh
baseball	wall	funny
ring	see	Ha-Ha
carats	reflection	chuckle
jewel	looking glass	giggle
engagement	rear-view	joke
Glove	Trumpet	Octopus
hand	brass	tentacles
mitten	instrument	ocean
fingers	bugle	arms
cold	music	eight
baseball	play	squid

Focus Sheet 4-2 (continued)

Taboo Cards

Whisper	Actor	Minutes
speak	performer	sixty
softly	star	seconds
ear	movies	hours
sound	theater	time
shout	television	meeting
Curriculum	Surfboard	Carrot
school	fiberglass	vegetable
course	wood	orange
subject	wave	root
study	hang ten	bugs bunny
learn	stand	eyesight
California	cheesecake	Madonna
movies	dessert	singer
Los Angeles	creamy	ray of light
San Francisco	strawberry	Evita
Hollywood	pie	Like a Virgin
state	New York	Material

Source:
 Taboo: the Game of Unspeakable Fun

Work Sheet 4-3

Writing a Message to a Pen Pal

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, occupying the central portion of the page. It is intended for the student to write a message to a pen pal.

Focus Sheet 4-4

Webpage of Key Pal Lists

Japanese Penpals - Microsoft Internet Explorer

File Edit View Favorites Tools Help

Address http://www.japan-guide.com/penfriend/index_e.php Go

Gender: men and women

Age: 15 to 40

Language: English

Occupation: Any Occupation

Hobby: Baseball

Purpose: Friendship

City: [Click here to search by city/region](#)

Country:

- Tanzania
- Thailand
- Trinidad and Tobago
- Turkey
- Tunisia
- Uganda
- Ukraine
- United Arab Emirates
- United Kingdom
- United States

Hold down the Ctrl key (apple key on Macs) to select or deselect multiple countries.

search

Source:

http://www.japan-guide.com/penfriend/index_e.php

Focus Sheet 4-5

Rule for Finding a Key Pal

Choose as follows:

Gender: Men, Woman, or Men and Women

Age: 15 to 40

Language: English

Occupation: Students

Hobby: Anything you want

Country: United States

Then, click "**search.**"

You can see a lot of information of the key pals. Then, choose one of them and send a message!

Work Sheet 4-6

Pen Pal Information

Pen Pal's Name
Hobbies
Purpose
Others

Assessment Sheet 4-7

Finding a key pal

Q. Write sentences that explain the following words. You must avoid five Taboo words. (60 pts.)

1. fly (insect, airplane, wings, bird, pants)

2. boot (snow, shoe, foot, cowboy, combat)

3. jump (hop, skip, ski, rope, bungee)

4. internet (www., computer, web, dot, e-mail)

5. potato (mashed, baked, chips, spud, Idaho)

6. sandwich (bologna, bread, butter, jelly, slice)

7. video (television, cassette, VCR, movie, rewind)

8. cry (tears, eyes, sad, sob, weep)

Assessment Sheet 4-7 (continued)

Finding a key pal

9. sock (hit, feet, toes, shoes, punch)

10. radar (speed, airplane, detector, police, machine)

11. rodeo (horse, rope, cowboy, show, ride)

12. shark (jaws, teeth, fish, eat, attach)

13. harmonica (mouth, blow, music, play, instrument)

14. radio (AM/FM, music, stereo, listen, DJ)

15. microwave (food, appliance, oven, cook, fast)

Lesson Five

Replying to My Key Pal

Target Level: Intermediate Japanese High School Students

Lesson Purpose: Students will comprehend the history of sending greeting cards in general as well as various kinds of greeting cards in the United States. Students will also send a greeting card to their key pals through the Internet.

Objectives: Students will

1. Understand the history of the greeting card and the various greeting cards in the United States
2. Edit and send E-cards to their key pals

Materials:

Focus Sheet 5-1
Focus Sheet 5-2
Work Sheet 5-3
Focus Sheet 5-4
Peer-Evaluation Sheet 5-5
Self-Evaluation Sheet 5-6
Assessment Sheet 5-7
Computer
Online Webpage:
<http://www.yahoo.americangreetings.com>

Warm-Up: The instructor evokes students' interests by showing several American greeting cards and by asking questions as follows:

1. How many and what kinds of greeting cards are there in Japan?
2. How many and what kinds of greeting cards do you think are there in the United States?

Task Chain 1: Greeting cards in the United States

1. The instructor divides students into groups of five.
2. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 5-1.
3. Students read Focus Sheet 5-1 and the instructor asks students questions about Focus Sheet 5-1.
4. Then, the instructor distributes Focus Sheet 5-2.

5. The instructor explains various sorts of greeting cards in the United States with Focus Sheet 5-2.
6. Students discuss the difference between Japanese greeting cards and American greeting cards. Then, students take notes on Work Sheet 5-3.
7. After students finish group discussion, the instructor calls on each group to present their opinions.

Task Chain 2: Sending E-cards

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 5-4 and explains it.
2. The instructor writes down the webpage address (<http://www.yahoo.americangreetings.com>) on the board.
3. Students open the webpage and start editing their E-cards.
4. After students finish editing their E-cards, students send the E-cards to their key pals.
5. Then, students send another E-card to the instructor. The students who send E-cards to the instructor can receive Assessment Sheet 5-7.

Assessment:

1. The instructor evaluates students' participation in the group activity.
2. The instructor collects Work Sheet 5-3 for evaluation.
3. The instructor evaluates Peer-Evaluation Sheet 5-5 and Self-Evaluation Sheet 5-6.
4. The instructor assesses E-cards sent by students.
5. The instructor sends Assessment Sheet 5-7 to students who sent E-cards to the instructor and lets the students work on it. Criteria for grades by point value is shown as the following:

51-60	Excellent	A
41-50	Good	B
31-40	Fair	C
21-30	Study harder	D
0-20	Failure (Get help from the teacher)	F

Focus Sheet 5-1

History of the Greeting Card

The American Greeting Card

History reveals that people have always had the natural desire to communicate on a sentimental and emotional basis. The Egyptians conveyed their greetings and salutations by means of papyrus scrolls. In the Bible, the Apostle Paul's phrase "Grace to you and Peace" is indicative of man's concern for his friends and loved ones. In the Dark Ages, the exchange of cherished symbols such as gloves, garters and bows was another form of sentimental communication.

The modern custom of sending greeting cards can be traced back through the centuries to the Chinese who celebrated the advent of the New Year with messages of good will and good cheer. In more recent times, the Valentine is considered to be the original ancestor of today's greeting cards. The first known published Christmas card appeared in London in 1843, although the Germans printed New Year's greetings from woodcuts as early as the year 1400.

Today, over 7 billion greeting cards for all occasions are purchased annually in the United States, which clearly indicates the important role that the greeting card plays in American life today.

One person is primarily credited with the start of the greeting card industry in America. Louis Prang was a German immigrant who settled in Boston and founded a small lithographic business there in 1856. Within ten years, he had perfected the lithographic process of color printing to a point where his reproductions of great paintings surpassed those of other graphic arts craftsmen in both Great Britain and the United States. In the early 1870s he began the publication of deluxe editions of Christmas cards which found a ready market in England. In 1875, Prang introduced the first complete line of Christmas cards to the American public.

Focus Sheet 5-1 (continued)

History of the Greeting Card

The Louis Prang greeting cards reached their ascendancy in the early 1890s when foreign competition in the form of cheap, imitative imports flooded the market, causing Prang to abandon his greeting card publishing business. Between 1890 and 1906, there was a marked decline in greeting card production. In the years immediately following 1906, a number of today's leading publishers were founded.

Most of these cards were Christmas cards with little relation to the elaborate creations of Louis Prang. The sentiment or message was predominant and the illustrated portions were incidental. After World War I, many new publishers entered the field and healthy competition produced important innovations in printing processes, art techniques and decorative treatments.

After 1930, more publishers adopted the lithographic process of color reproduction and, since that time, the greeting card industry has enjoyed its greatest growth and expansion.

During World War II, the industry was threatened with a paper shortage and possibly the end of the industry. It was at this time that the industry founded the trade association that today is called the Greeting Card Association. Efforts were made to help the government sell war bonds and provide cards for the soldiers overseas. This period marked the beginning of the close relationship between the greeting card industry and the Post Office, now known as the U.S. Postal Service.

In the 1950s, the studio card was created and promoted - a long card with a short punch line. In the 1980s, alternative cards began to appear - cards not made for a particular holiday or event but as more casual reminders of various relationships.

Focus Sheet 5-1 (continued)

History of the Greeting Card

The industry refers to holiday cards with a particular date as Seasonal cards and the rest as Everyday cards. Within the Everyday category which includes birthdays and anniversaries, the "non-occasion" cards have been the fastest growing card segment in the past twenty years.

The most popular Seasonal cards are Christmas, Valentine's Day, Mother's Day and Easter. Within the Everyday category, the most popular is the Birthday card.

Source:

http://www.greetingcard.org/thegreetingcard_history.html

Focus Sheet 5-2

Greeting Cards in the United States

Holidays	New Year's Day, Martin Luther King Day, Chinese New Year, Valentine's Day, St. Patrick's Day, Easter, Mother's Day, Memorial Day, Father's Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Columbus Day, Halloween, Veterans Day, Thanksgiving, Christmas, etc...
Friendship	Best Friends, Get Together, Hugs, Encourage, Miss you, Smiles, Sorry, Thanks, etc...
Love & Dating	Loving You, Kisses, Funny, Cute, Hugs, Marry Me, Miss You, More Than Friends, Sorry, etc...
Birthday	Anyone, Belated, Family, Funny, Just For Her (Him, Kids, Teens), Love, Co-Workers, Religious, For a Teacher, Pets, etc...
Just Because	Say "Hi," Keep in Touch, Thinking of You, What's up?, Sorry, etc...
Events & Occasion	Anniversary, Announcement, Bridal Shower, Engagement, Congratulations, Good Luck, Good Bye, Graduation, Invitations, wedding, Retirement, etc...
Care & Concern	Get well, Sympathy, Thanks for Support, Smiles, etc...
Thank You	Anytime Thanks, Baby, Babysitter, Family, Hospitality, Teacher, Pet Sitting, Work Place, etc...

...and many more sorts of greeting cards in the U.S.A.!!!

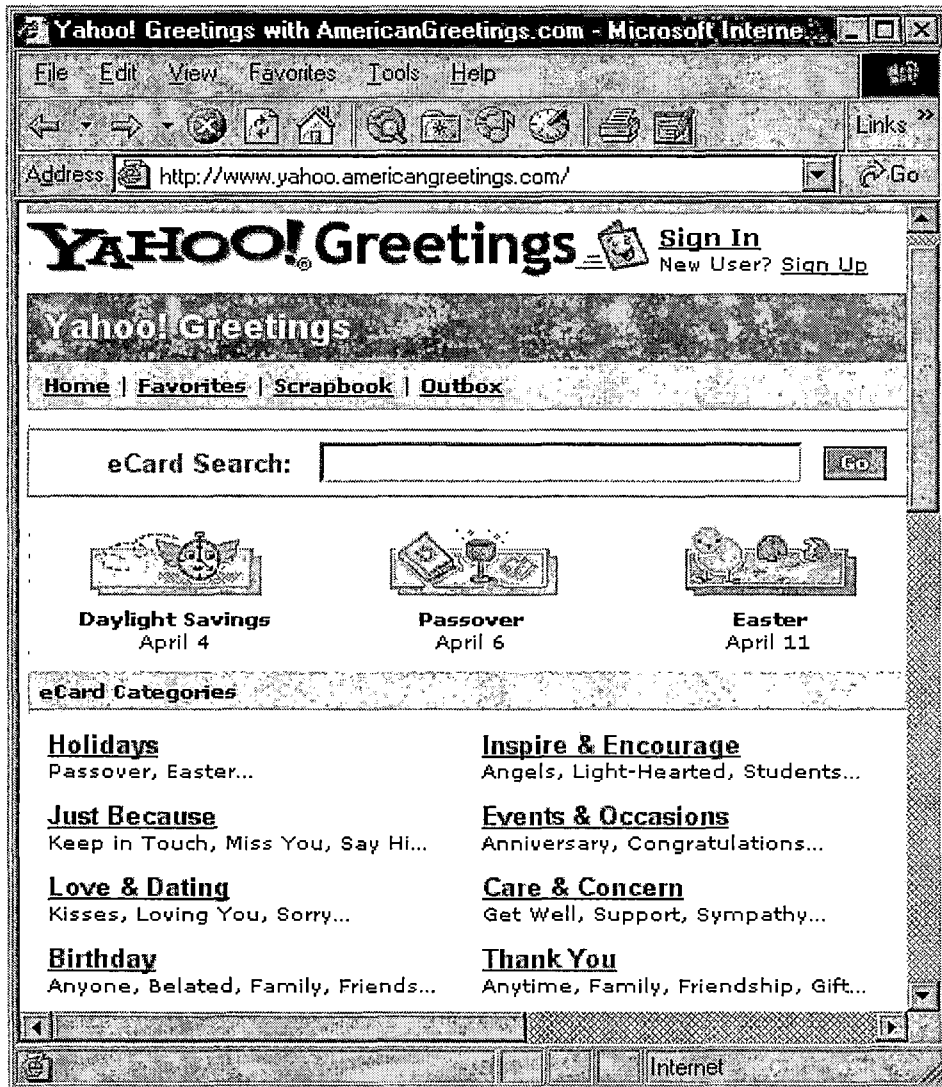
Work Sheet 5-3

Comparing Greeting Cards

Japan	U.S.A.

Focus Sheet 5-4

Webpage of E-cards



Source:
<http://www.yahoo.americangreetings.com/>

Peer-Evaluation Sheet 5-5

Greeting Cards in the United States

1. _____

1. My teammate participates in the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
2. My teammate helps other teammates for making better discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
3. My teammate gives constructive comments during the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My teammate is respectful to others during the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
5. My teammate enjoys the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
Score	/25				

2. _____

1. My teammate participates in the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
2. My teammate helps other teammates for making better discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
3. My teammate gives constructive comments during the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My teammate is respectful to others during the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
5. My teammate enjoys the discussion.	5	4	3	2	1
Score	/25				

Peer-Evaluation Sheet 5-5 (continued)

Greeting Cards in the United States

3. _____

1. My teammate participates in the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
2. My teammate helps other teammates for making better discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
3. My teammate gives constructive comments during the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
4. My teammate is respectful to others during the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
5. My teammate enjoys the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
Score	/25

4. _____

1. My teammate participates in the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
2. My teammate helps other teammates for making better discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
3. My teammate gives constructive comments during the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
4. My teammate is respectful to others during the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
5. My teammate enjoys the discussion.	5 4 3 2 1
Score	/25

Self-Evaluation Sheet 5-6

Replying to My Key Pal

Name _____ Date _____

1. How well did you participate in your group?	5 4 3 2 1
2. Did you cooperate with your other member during the group work?	5 4 3 2 1
3. How well did you understand the history of the greeting card?	5 4 3 2 1
4. Could you send e-cards to your key pal without any problem?	5 4 3 2 1
5. How well did you understand the topic of this lesson?	5 4 3 2 1
Score	/25

5: Excellent

4: Good

3: Fair

2: Passing

1: Need more improvement

Comments

Assessment Sheet 5-7

Replying to My Key Pal

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. Choose the best answer. (15 pts.)

1) The first known published Christmas card appeared in () in 1843.

- a. London
- b. China
- c. the United States
- d. Germany

2) Over () greeting cards for all occasions are purchased annually in the United States

- a. 6 million
- b. 7 million
- c. 6 billion
- d. 7 billion

3) Louis Prang was () who settled in Boston and founded a small lithographic business there in 1856.

- a. a U.S. Postal Service Worker
- b. a philosopher
- c. a magician
- d. a German immigrant

4) During World War II, many greeting cards industries were threatened with ().

- a. appearance of non-occasion cards
- b. a paper shortage
- c. deluxe editions of Christmas cards
- d. sentimental communication

5) The most popular greeting card is ().

- a. Birthday Card
- b. Christmas Card
- c. Easter Card
- d. Valentine's Day Card

1)		2)		3)		4)		5)	
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Assessment Sheet 5-7 (continued)

Replying to My Key Pal

2. Write 3 kinds of greeting cards. (15 pts.)

3. Write 3 characteristics of greeting cards in the United States. (15 pts.)

4. Go to the "<http://www.yahoo.americangreetings.com>" and send an E-card to the instructor. (15 pts.)

Lesson Six

Making a Presentation

Target Level: Intermediate Japanese High School Students

Lesson Purpose: Students will make oral presentation of introduction of their key pals and American culture that their key pals taught them.

Objectives: Students will

1. Gather information about their key pals and American culture based on their exchange of the e-mails.
2. Make a presentation about key pals and American culture in front of the other students.

Materials:

- Focus Sheet 6-1
- Work Sheet 6-2
- Peer-Evaluation Sheet 6-3
- Feedback Sheet 6-4
- Self-Evaluation Sheet 6-5
- Computer

Warm-Up: The instructor evokes students' interest by asking questions as follows:

1. What makes an effective oral presentation?
2. What makes a poor oral presentation?

Task Chain 1: Preparing for the presentation

1. The instructor distributes Focus Sheet 6-1.
2. Students read Focus Sheet 6-1.
3. Then, the instructor distributes Work Sheet 6-2.
4. Students make an outline for the oral presentation on Work Sheet 6-2.
5. Then, students make visual aids if needed and rehearse their presentation.

Task Chain 2: Making a presentation

1. The instructor distributes Peer-Evaluation Sheet 6-3 and asks them to assess the presenters' performance.
2. Students make a presentation in front of class.
3. During the students' presentation, the

instructor and the Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) evaluate their performance using Feedback Sheet 6-4.

4. After every student finishes their presentation, students complete Self-Evaluation Sheet 6-5.

Assessment:

1. The instructor and ALT evaluate students' oral presentation using Feedback Sheet 6-4. Criteria for grades by point value are shown as the below.
2. The instructor also evaluates students' performance using Peer-Evaluation Sheet 6-3.
3. The instructor collects Work Sheet 6-2 and Self-Evaluation Sheet 6-5 for evaluation.

90-100	Excellent	A
80-89	Good	B
70-79	Fair	C
60-69	Study harder	D
0-59	Failure (Get help from the teacher)	F

Focus Sheet 6-1

Key Steps to Effective Oral Presentation

1. Know your subject matter

While this first point may seem obvious, it is very important that you research every nuance of your subject. Read reports and look up information about the subject with the specific purpose of writing a presentation script. When examined in this light, new ideas and alternative ways of thinking often develop. The ability to present a subject with confidence directly affects your audience's impressions and will help keep their attention.

This is especially important when giving a design presentation or proposal since you are in effect "selling" your ideas to the audience. This applies whether the audience is a potential client or your own board of directors.

2. Know your audience

A small amount of research into the makeup of your audience will reap large benefits on presentation day. An engineering presentation in which the audience expects or requires highly detailed technical illustrations and data might be inappropriate when presented to a non-technical group. This would be true even though the basic subject matter is nearly identical.

3. Develop the theme

All presentations, regardless of their complexity, are designed with a single purpose. Whether that purpose is to sell, educate, or for pure entertainment, state that purpose to yourself at the beginning of the development process. Keep this purpose in mind always.

Focus Sheet 6-1 (continued)

Key Steps to Effective Oral Presentation

4. Prepare your script

The script does not necessarily have to be a work of literary excellence. For some, simple notes on 3 x 5 file cards are sufficient. Other presenters and presentations require a carefully composed, professionally developed script. The exact form of the script depends on the formality of the presentation, the make-up of the audience and who will be presenting it. Any presentation script, regardless of complexity, is like any other business correspondence. It should consist of the same four basic parts, an opening, body, summary and closing.

The opening

The opening of the presentation sets the stage for what is to follow. Participants are introduced and the purpose of the presentation is stated. You should also present a VERY BRIEF summary or outline of the points to be covered. This helps keep your audience oriented properly within the framework of your script.

The summary

This portion should be *very brief and simple*. Here is your chance to reinforce the central theme and purpose of your presentation. Briefly emphasize the key points and main ideas of your script in this section.

Question and answer sessions often follow a final summary and are very productive if managed properly. You should encourage questions from the audience if time or format permits, but be prepared to answer them. If you do not know the correct answer to a question, don't try to fake it. You should refer the question to someone who can answer it correctly or make a note to yourself to obtain the answer later. When you do, contact the person or persons who asked it as soon as possible. This makes an excellent door opener for follow up calls.

Focus Sheet 6-1 (continued)

Key Steps to Effective Oral Presentation

The body

This is the part of the script in which the bulk of the subject matter is presented. The body of a long presentation should be separated into smaller, easily assimilated modules. Each module or sub-section should make a single point or convey one idea. These sub-sections should each have their own simple opening, body and summary.

The closing

In a well-structured closing, points raised during the question-and-answer session (if any) are summarized and any handout material that was not required during the presentation is distributed. Handout material which emphasizes each key point or idea permits your audience to review the subject and assures that your words will remain fresh in their minds. *Handout material should not be distributed before a presentation unless it is critical to the theme since it invariably leads to audience distraction.*

5. Select the proper visual aids

With the script developed and the audience research completed, this decision should be simple. A five minute presentation to a three-person audience is probably best made with handout material alone, or even simple flip charts. Larger audiences might be effectively reached by using a few simple overhead transparencies. A half hour training or sales presentation may clearly indicate a 35 millimeter slide show or even video. If the resources are available, dual projector dissolve presentations have a natural continuity and convey a more professional image at an economical price.

The resolution, brightness and availability of LCD Computer/Video projectors continues to improve. Home-brew, laptop-based presentations are becoming very popular. Many speakers, however believe these are a direct substitute for overheads. (Well some of them DO go on an overhead projector, right?)

Focus Sheet 6-1 (continued)

Key Steps to Effective Oral Presentation

Traditional overhead transparencies were great for lighted rooms, where people could take notes. Most LCD Projectors just are not that bright, and might be more aptly used as an alternative to 35mm Slides. Single gun, 400 or 600 lumen projectors are still very expensive. Today, a projector that you can use in a partially lighted room starts at about \$5,000, but then again, there's always tomorrow.

Major presentations at annual meetings, trade shows, sales conferences, and presentations to stockholders or client proposals can dictate an all-out effort with professionally produced special effects, video and all manner of glitz and expense.

Good presentation visuals, however, do not necessarily have to be expensive. When properly planned and produced, simple, well-designed graphics add professionalism and impact to virtually any show. Even presentations working within a limited budget can benefit from images created on a professional graphics system by professional audio-visual designers. The proper use of text images, charts and graphs as well as the correct type of chart or graph to use in various circumstances is the subject of another article in this series. I will, however, touch on a few of the deadly design sins of presentation visuals a bit later.

6. Produce the visual aids

If the previous steps have been carefully followed, this can be the easiest part of preparing your presentation.

With careful, timely planning, the only task remaining is mechanical process of production. The complete and accurate planning that you have done to this point assures a smooth production cycle without the need for unnecessary last minute changes.

Today's computer graphics products permit you to make changes and alterations that could not be accomplished using any other method of production. While last minute changes are possible, avoiding them can still help cut the cost of your presentation by eliminating revision and rush fees.

Focus Sheet 6-1 (continued)

Key Steps to Effective Oral Presentation

7. Rehearse--Rehearse--Rehearse

Your final script and outline or story board permit you to rehearse your presentation even before the visuals are completed. This assures that when your final images are prepared and ready, you will be as well.

If you'd like to really test your mettle, drag out the camcorder and tape your rehearsal. Just keep in mind, no one expects you to be Winston Churchill.

8. Presentation day

On the day of the presentation, arrive and set up early. Have spare projector bulbs and extra copies of the handout material close at hand.

You have your visuals, you are well rehearsed, the room is set up and the participants are all prepared. Speak clearly and with authority. A little humor if tastefully added can help break the tension of the moment. There should be no surprises. Make certain that the audience questions have been addressed, and of course, thank everyone for attending.

9. Follow up

Check back with the attendants and participants to assure that your presentation goals were met. A questionnaire distributed at the end of your presentation can be a source of critical information for follow up calls or future presentations. Encourage the attendants to call or write with any questions that they did not get answered during the presentation.

Source:

<http://www.the-eggman.com/writings/keystep1.html>

Work Sheet 6-2

Oral Presentation Outline

Topic	
Introduction	
Body	
Conclusion	

Feedback Sheet 6-4

Presenter: _____

Date: _____

Components	Comments and Points
1. The presentation was well-organized.	/10
2. The presenter used clear voice, eye contacts, hand gestures and proper facial expression.	/10
3. The presentation was understandable.	/10
4. The presentation included information about the presenter's key pal.	/10
5. The presentation included information about American culture.	/10
6. The presenter used visual aids effectively.	/10
7. The presentation was very creative and interesting.	/10
8. The presentation finished in five minutes.	/10
9. The presenter involved audience in the presentation.	/10
10. The presentation made points.	/10
Score	/100

Self-Evaluation Sheet 6-5

Name: _____

Date: _____

1. I could prepare for the presentation well.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I could make a presentation well.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I used visual aids during the presentation.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I could inform about American culture and my pen pal well.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I really enjoyed this presentation.	5	4	3	2	1

- 5: Excellent
- 4: Good
- 3: Acceptable
- 2: Needs Improvement
- 1: Needs to Get Help

What did I learn in this Unit?

How could I make best use of my experience in the Unit?

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