Walking a Tightrope in Content-Based Language Classes: The Use of Clear Boundaries to Prompt Students to Improve their English

Joseph S. Cravotta, III Wayne K. Johnson

In order to maintain motivation within any class-room it is essential to keep students wanting to learn more. This paper describes several ways to increase and sustain student motivation in the English language classroom. This technique may be used in classes designed to improve English linguistic ability and spoken fluency for the international tourism and international service industry. In addition, this paper further describes a complex participation system that was developed and designed for use in university classes.

The principal components of this pedagogical system are explicit because in the beginning of the term students are clearly told that they will be graded on how much they participate in class and that participation will constitute a large percentage of their course grade. In this context, participation means speaking in English using complete sentences and volunteering to speak out during class. Essentially, volunteering is comprised of raising ones hand to speak, providing answers, guessing, offering suggestions, doing presentations, volunteering opinions, asking questions, being open with ones thoughts, not waiting to be called on by the teacher, furnishing information, and coming to the board to share information. Students are informed that they do not have to speak correctly, however, they must speak English as much as possible. In order to have a discernible, quantitative record of their participation, students must understand the following concepts and execute various procedures.

The most important class principle is that mis-

takes help you learn. In the language learning classroom mistakes are natural. Guessing and using your imagination makes participating easy. If learners take a chance and make a guess they will receive volunteer points. Any time they use a sentence with four words or more while speaking to the teacher or to another student it will count as a positive experience in the language learning process. When learners volunteer at any time points will be given. At the end of each lesson the point total will be counted by the teacher and this will be utilized as a daily participation grade. This volunteer system supports and encourages students to become active and effective participants in oral language classes. This technique is also intended to help teachers who have difficulty developing classes in which inactive students partake in the learning process. The objective of this participation system is:

"... to create an atmosphere in which teachers work with the group mentality from a reverse perspective; that is, to make everyone volunteer and expresses themselves in class. This technique uses students' collective thought to help meet the objective of activating student participation by actually making independence the basis for conformity. In essence, then, the non-participating students become the nails standing out. The system also encourages students to overcome their standard cautious, reserved character in the class while practicing the skills which are necessary to become active classroom

participants: independently interacting with each other, the teacher, and the material" (Johnson, 1996 page 279).

Hopefully, with a higher level of interaction and thus a significantly higher level of communication in the classroom, students' participatory behavior and confidence will be enhanced, increased, and nurtured. One goal of this technique is that the students' increased self-assurance will amplify their motivation to better understand their learning situation and the world around them. As Williams and Burden stated:

"Motivation can be construed as: a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal" (1997 page 120) (also see: Higgins & Tanaka, 1999).

Scarcella and Oxford write that "motivation decides the extent of active personal engagement in learning," and then go on to state that "because motivation is so very important in language learning, instructional activities and materials must be exciting, stimulating, and interesting to learners" (1992, page 52-54). Therefore, within this volunteering framework all of the themes and activities are not only engaging and fulfilling for students, they are accessible and attainable.

To read about language teaching theories or approaches is useful but this may not give readers a visible understanding of what one can do in a classroom in order to move students forward in their learning of language and culture. To obtain a more pragmatic understanding of how to implement this type of participatory volunteer procedure in courses the reader should survey and observe a class in which a lesson is explained and then examine what ensues. This is a useful method for interpreting what occurs in the classroom, as explained by Larsen–Freeman, she writes that:

"... observing a class in this way will give the readers a greater understanding of these particular methods than if they were to simply read a description of it. After observing the lesson we will infer the principles on which the teacher's behavior and techniques are based" (1986, page xii).

Introduction and Intent of the Activity

In all language classes it is essential to create an atmosphere in which students have the opportunity to have focused grammatical practice while maintaining freedom to experiment with the language. The goal is to design activities and tasks which give students the opportunity to discuss content they are familiar with, to be supported by clear time frames, and to have the freedom to express themselves. Students should never be limited to producing a single answer. To begin this activity, the teacher asks students to talk with their partners and write down in English where they would like to work in the future. She gives them a six minute time limit and the pupils easily complete this task. The instructor writes on the board: 'In the future, I want to work at the airport.' She points to the sentence and ask if anyone would like to volunteer to read the sentence. A few assertive pupils raise their hands and the teacher picks a student in the second row. The pupil reads the sentence without difficulty and the instructor reminds her to mark down one point for volunteering and one point for speaking. The teacher then points to the sentence and tells them that the English language has a natural rhythm and pace to it. The students look somewhat confused. She asks if anyone wants to volunteer to tell us the rhythm of the English sentence. A few students volunteer, the teacher chooses one. As the pupil slowly reads with acceptable rhythm and intonation the teacher places marks within the sentence, 'In the future/I want to work/at the airport.' The student marks down her volunteer and speaking points while the instructor asks the entire class to practice the sentence together, telling them they will only work with this for a few minutes. As the group practices, the teacher brings them through the sentence slowly, phrase by phrase, then faster until it resembles natural, melodic speech. She informs the class that they will be volunteering for four minutes and it will be important to participate at this time to get as many points as possible.

The teacher then erases the words 'at the airport,' leaving 'In the future, I want to work at' on the board. She asks them the question again, 'OK, where do you want to work in the future?' All of the students raise their hands and the instructor quickly picks a pupil. The student replies, 'In the future, I want to work at a hotel.' Another student says, 'I want to work at a travel agency.' The teacher quickly asks her, looking at the sentence on the board, 'When?' the student quickly says 'In the future, I want to work at a travel agency.' All of the students have their hands raised, the instructor chooses various pupils, and they give their answers. As time runs down she tells the class that they only have one more minute to volunteer and picks a pupil who spoke previously. The student says, 'Yesterday I worked at a restaurant.' The instructor selects a few more pupils and moves on to another activity in which students brainstorm about their future careers, international tourism, and the international service industry. After their responses are written in their notebooks a time limit is set and the pupils replicate the volunteering process. With ten minutes remaining in the class the teacher informs the students that they are short on time and it is time to take attendance. The students write down, in pen, on their volunteer form how many volunteer and speaking points they have earned today. As she calls each student's name, they report their scores for the day which is then recorded on their attendance cards. This provides a daily record of participation.

Cultural and Teaching Observations of the Lesson

Several important characteristics about the volunteer method and how to work with it can be seen in this activity. The technique uses a quantitative point system to coincide with the students' previous educational socialization process. The environment is safe in that the class moves from working with the group to focusing on individuals. The activity works with the grammar, rhythm, and intonation of the language, has clear time limits, uses a structured attendance procedure, and incorporates student-generated material. To coincide with the structured grading system which students have experienced for many years prior to the university, the technique incorporates a clearly measurable system. It is important to emphasize that during every class students keep a record of their participation in two categories, volunteering and speaking, and report the results to the teacher at the end of each class. Volunteer points are credited when a pupil volunteers in any way. Speaking points are given when a sentence in English is used which contains four or more words. This rule was created to help students overcome the habit of giving one or two word replies. The tendency of giving one or two word replies may be because of their anxiety over making mistakes. The method of using the volunteer point sheet requires students to keep a quantitative account of their progress themselves which shows how they performed last week and how they may have advanced or how they may have regressed.

This technique also creates an atmosphere in which students must take on considerable responsibility. Learners are engaged in the procedure, noting their participation while reflecting on the classroom activity. They are clearly aware that their volunteer points are recorded for every class by the instructor. One of the primary class rules is that pupils must have their volunteer sheet each class or they will be unable to mark their daily grade. To further the concept of individual responsibility during the course, the class progresses by asking students to volunteer more and more, and proceeds to working with opinion statements. The language and the topics are relevant for the use of English for the international tourism and the international service industry. The activities used within the system are organized sequentially by degree of difficulty and they are also organized based on various tourism situations systematically. Bennett's notions that the focus of educational tasks need to vary based on the level of development of the student is taken into consideration (1993, pages 2–3). In this way, as the students get into the habit of openly participating and offering opinions, the topics become progressively more challenging linguistically.

In order to help students become comfortable with volunteering and expressing opinions, one of the main tenets of the technique is to maintain clearly defined time limits during classroom activities. This is advantageous and beneficial because when students have explicit limits they are willing to participate with a higher level of motivation. Volunteering begins to take on the feeling of a game. The learners are able to involve themselves completely with the topic, realizing they will only have to do this activity for a short period of time. It is important to note that even if the entire class is still volunteering after the allotted time, the teacher should conclude the activity. To maintain motivation it is essential to keep the learners wanting more.

Within each time limit in this specific type of volunteering approach, the instructor uses several techniques which allow students to gain more confidence while trying to engage themselves with the material. Initially the class looks at and practices a considerable amount of language in groups because it is important to work in a setting in which students are accustomed to while practicing as a collective whole. The way the class works with the language also has a definite purpose. For example, working with the rhythm and the intonation of proper service English is a powerful tool in bringing out an awareness about another complex meaningful aspect of the language. In contrast to some of their former English language studies, students are not simply focused on grammatically translating or repeating a sentence. The instructor is forcing an awareness of pronunciation, rhythm, intonation, and various nuances of the language that learners might not have experienced previously. By working to improve linguistic competency students gain more realistic and natural control over the material, a control that will further assist in their confidence to participate and finally assist in their ability to work in the international tourism and international service industry using English.

Student-generated material involves the students with the activity for several reasons. The questions are safe, the language is controlled, and the themes are familiar. In this instance, the topic of careers is not a socially complex issue to talk about, and students do not seem to have any reservations about discussing it. Supported by the notion of communicative competence (Canale and Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983), the self generated material that they use is supported by a clearly defined grammatical structure that they are able to practice in the group as well as individually. There is also a realistic connection between them and the content. In addition, the class attendance policy encourages students to participate using a regular activity that incorporates focused grammatical structure or patterns of polite speech necessary for service English. Role call and attendance takes place at the end of each class. The teacher calls a students' name and the student reports her points to the instructor for that specific day using a specific grammatical structure that is written and subsequently erased from the board. As students indicate their scores, everyone in the class is able to listen to each other, thus reinforcing the social pressure to participate. Strain also indicates that "creating conditions in which unity emerges as the natural state of human existence" is a very important factor (1999, page 26). Pupils do not want to stand out by having a low score or a score that greatly differs from their classmates. This process further encourages them to be active. In order to modify the attendance procedure each week, teachers can often change the order of the students or alter the grammatical form. As with all aspects of the technique, the class moves from simple focused structures to longer more involved patterns. In the beginning of the term, in order to give students more of an incentive to speak in class, teachers can ask them to multiply their speaking points by their volunteer points. This process will increase motivation as score

levels may become significantly higher. For example, if a student has five speaking points and fifteen volunteer points she will have a total of seventy-five points for the day. This process stimulates students to speak more because if a student has forty volunteer points while only having zero speaking points her score will be zero; but if a student has fifteen volunteer points and ten speaking points, she will earn a total of 150 points. As the term progresses, instructors can end each class by telling students to write down their points, in pen, on their volunteer sheet, inform the students that she is taking attendance, but will collect the numbers the next class. This will ensure all students maintain regular attendance. At the end of the following lesson she may use and introduce various structures such as 'Last week I had twelve speaking and seven volunteer points and today I have sixteen speaking and twenty volunteer points' or 'Last class I had nine speaking and seven volunteer points but in this lesson I earned eleven speaking and thirty volunteer points.' or 'On October 18, I had six speaking and nineteen volunteer points, but today I have twenty-two speaking and forty volunteer points.' or 'Although I had five points last week, I only have three today.' As the students become more accustomed to interacting and expressing themselves in front of the class in this fashion, teachers should shift the focus from the number of points students earn each class to translating those participation points into daily grades, using the traditional system of A, B, C, D or F. Students could then be encouraged to say, 'Today I deserve a B because I earned eleven speaking points and twenty volunteer points.' or 'Today I should get an A because I gave a lot of information, asked many questions, raised my hand, and participated!' By using such strategies, teachers are helping students practice different styles of language while making them more aware that they alone are ultimately responsible for their own grades. By the end of the term the use of letter grades seems very real to the students and they become aware that they are actually receiving a grade for their actions, not just points per se. In the ongoing guidelines for teachers,

several basic components that are essential for a successful volunteer system need to be reemphasized. Within each lesson, teachers should design activities with explicit time boundaries while attempting to raise students' awareness about various aspects of the language, such as accent, intonation, rhythm, and inflection.

In addition, within this approach, each class maintains the aforementioned attendance policy in order to promote the use of the language while giving a comprehensible indicator of student progress. The quantitative results of the system are valuable to mention to further clarify the interaction within a typical class. Specifically, examining the volunteering component of an activity, such as raising hands, most students participate on a daily basis. Of those who volunteer, there may not be an especially large discrepancy in the amount of points learners earn on a given day; approximately ninety percent of the students should fall within a close range of each other. Although each week the specific number of volunteer points may vary due to different activities, there should not be such a wide range of scores amongst the students. For example, if the high number of points from one class is thirty-five volunteer points, on the average, over ninety percent of the students should be within ten points of this score. Although the volunteer points seem to be somewhat consistent, the speaking points may vary, with the higher-level, less-reserved students scoring higher. The reason for this is twofold. One significant reason is that more-assertive students commonly use longer sentences with four words or more, thus qualifying them for speaking points. The second reason is that during pair or group activities, when the teacher is walking around the room to help and monitor pupils, assertive students often raise their hands and ask clarifying questions about the activity thus qualifying them for even more speaking points.

Recommendations and Suggestions for Teachers Using a Participation– Volunteer System with a Useful Analogy

For teachers who plan to incorporate this system into their teaching and classroom, there are several concepts that are fundamental for its effective use. As this system may conflict with some social or cultural norms regarding the unrestricted articulation of ideas, it should be implemented using a steady, gradual process. In order for this progression to be implemented, it is extremely important to support the students while giving them clear guidelines of what is expected of them. Depending on the students' cultural background, it is important for the teacher to be aware that asking pupils to actively volunteer and participate in front of the group, while expressing their thoughts, does not coincide with their previous socialization process in Japan, and therefore, can be incredibly daunting. Lustig and Koester show that giving students "the conceptual tools for understanding how cultural differences can affect interpersonal communication" (1996, page 4).

Although it may seem like an extreme analogy, there are some important parallels to be made between a teacher who implements this technique in a university setting in Japan and an instructor who teaches a course on how to walk a tightrope. As with teaching both skills (volunteering in class and tightrope walking) students must go through a slow, manageable, escalating process; it is not something to initially leap into without sufficient practice. By examining the process both teachers must experience while teaching such skills, the importance of the systems' development becomes quite clear. On the first day of class, the tightrope instructor does not ask the students to dance across a thin wire, without a net, high above the floor; just as the language teacher, on her first day, should not ask the students to discuss personal opinions about history or current events. These situations could invariably place the students in jeopardy and possibly destroy the students' trust in the teacher. This may also deter stu-

dents from ever attempting to walk the wire or, in the case of the language class, from ever participating again. The high-wire instructor, first, has her students practice walking on a modest balance beam, only inches off the ground, focusing on how to stand straight. She guides students along the perceptible, low beam, asking them to notice where their feet are. When they walk they should recognize how the pressure moves from their heel of their foot, then notice when weight proceeds to the middle toe. After this, students slowly arrange one foot in front of the other, until they manage to walk the full length of the beam. Similarly, the language teacher brings students through a gradual process, allowing them to volunteer, guiding them to change their habits of passivity, while learning about expressing themselves. As each tightrope lesson progresses, the beam they practice on becomes gradually thinner, while at the same time, the teacher is raising it above the floor. After a period of time, students progress, master the beam, and switch to walking on the highwire. At first, it is slightly elevated off of the ground, but students are completely supported by a safety harness and a safety net. Both high wire and language students are exposed and may feel vulnerable, therefore they should also feel that they are being supported. Although students are not able to perform like an accomplished master immediately, and naturally make errors, there are no negative consequences except for some feelings of mild anxiety. As the academic term progresses, the students gain more and more confidence and learn important skills. They are then given the opportunity to attempt more challenging aspects of what they are studying: e.g., walking on higher, thinner wires or (in the language classroom), discussing refined, complex topics, or while studying English to prepare to work in the international tourism and the international service industry. If students manage to perform well at a lower level, the teacher allows them to practice, and gradually will move the standard of the lesson upward. However, if the students cannot accomplish what the instructor has asked, or if the students show signs of inhibition in trying, the level

may easily retreat to a lower, safer level. The teacher's role is to support the students and to allow them to practice at a lower level before expecting them to accomplish what they are too anxious or unable to attempt.

It is very important for teachers to be concerned with what the class is actually capable of, not what they want or think they should be capable of. Teachers may notice that when they devise somewhat complicated activities, in which students need to expose themselves more, volunteering does not work effectively. The students are not able to maintain the self -assurance to work with such high level material initially. As educators, it is important to be aware of this fluid concept, to acknowledge what is occurring with the students, and to revert back to simpler activities when necessary. When implementing a volunteer system instructors must be willing to endorse the significance of this process. Educators must also recognize the students' levels while modifying activities to best serve the situation and to most effectively facilitate learning.

Our Teaching Experiences while Using the Volunteer-Participation System at the University Level

It is important for teachers who use a volunteerparticipation type system to be aware of the time involved in moving students to a level where they may actively participate. It is a slow, but rewarding process. This is very important and Higgins and Tanaka clearly point out that students must "overcome cultural obstacles" and "connect to the power of a deeper motivation" (1999, pp 15-16). We have had several classes that have gone through this process and succeeded in growing accustomed to an open style of participation in a few months. After this time, almost all of the students disregarded the point system entirely, simply chose to participate, and gave themselves a letter grade for each class. We have had other classes in which the majority of the students were unable to reach this level. Although they participated and involved themselves with the course content, they seemed to find security in the structure of the point system, and were not able to progress to the next step. For teachers who plan to incorporate this system we will reiterate another element: within every activity it is essential to maintain clear time limits. If teachers try to extend the amount of time for students to volunteer, beyond the limits originally stated, problems may occur. If students have the chance to volunteer for longer than the allotted period of time, we have found that learners do not always volunteer with as much enthusiasm as they are capable of. This is because students do not feel that they have had any real time limits, and they think they may have to continue to raise their hands indefinitely. This greatly reduces the feelings that participating is a type of game or contest. If teachers inform the class that they are going to be able to volunteer for two minutes, this is exactly what must occur. Even if every student is vaulting from her seat, instructors should stop the volunteer activity when the established time expires. If the motivation level and the energy level is lively and forceful, teachers should simply stop, regroup, slightly modify what they would like the students to do, and give the pupils another opportunity with another set time limit. Succeeding this momentary intermission, teachers should institute a longer time frame in which pupils can participate. By remaining consistent with the rule of time limits, teachers are inciting students to want more. More notably, teachers are being honest and building trust in their relationship with their pupils. This improves the level of rapport in the class and improves the overall classroom atmosphere.

Reviewing the General Guidelines and Approaches For Using The System

Teachers:

1. Teachers provide clear time limits for each activity and maintain these restraints religiously. If the entire class is still volunteering after an allotted time, i.e., four minutes, stop the activity anyway. To sustain and increase motivation

- it is beneficial to keep learners wanting more.
- 2. Teachers constantly address the meaning in the words, stress, rhythm, and intonation of the language.
- 3. Teachers spend minimal time with error correction in the midst of a volunteer activity.
- The instructor observes the students' reactions and energy levels while they are participating and while the students are working with the material.
- 5. Teachers make use of skills students already possess, (i.e., the ability to read) and move on to teaching what they do not know.

Students:

- 1. Students are encouraged to create and use self-generated material whenever possible.
- 2. Students learn or relearn how to correctly raise their hands completely above their heads.
- Students are aware that they are responsible for participating and will be rewarded for their actions in class.
- 4. Students need to take responsibility for their own grades based on their level of participation.

The System:

- 1. The technique uses a consistent, strict attendance policy.
- While using the volunteer-participation method, allow time for focused practice for the whole class, small groups of students, and for pairs of students.
- 3. The interaction within the system is to be thought of as a productive form of competition.
- While using the technique, especially in the early stages, each activity has clear parameters and goals.
- Activities are set up so that students have an alternative choice of answers and they can volunteer more than once.
- The system is part of an ongoing process to be worked with to some extent every class. It is not a technique to be used once or twice and discarded.

Concluding Remarks, Comments, Issues and Questions for Further Study and Intense Research

As teachers, our primary responsibility is to help students learn. In this case about language and culture concerning the international tourism and international service industry. We believe that in order for students to learn about specific notions of culture and language it makes sense for them to do so experientially while being involved in a class setting in which some of the interaction resembles a culturally contrary setting. Notions about intercultural communication, intercultural training, education, ideas related to the relationship of culture, and social reality pointed out by Barnlund, 1989; Condon, 1984; Hofstede, 1997; Stewart & Bennett, 1991; Trompenaars, 1998; Bennett, 1993; Cushner & Brislin, 1996; Gaston, 1992; Kohls, 1996; Kim, 1988; Gudykunst & Nishida, 1985; and Watzlawick, 1984 need to be clearly understood by the educator. In addition, the educational environment that we establish in these classes is not only composed of language and culture, but is also organized to give students the chance to express themselves freely. As we examine the system presented here, we have been questioning how to alter the class design and, basically, how much to provide interactions with the whole group? An important question to consider, is how to modify the system and implement activities in which students can work in pairs or small groups, but still incorporate the participatory, volunteer technique.

We should further ponder about how this participatory behavior will transfer to other EFL/ESL or content based classes in the future. Indeed, we believe that this participatory behavior does raise a powerful level of awareness that students can take to other classes, that is, they know that individually they are capable of this style of interaction. Whether they choose to adapt and embrace an open participatory style of behavior is a choice students will have to ultimately make for themselves. However, as language educators we should recognize that those

sauntering across the participatory high-wire may reap astounding rewards from their capricious journey. Learners may occasionally stumble, but without intelligible guidance, they most certainly will fall.

Sources Cited

Bennett, M. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In R. M. Paige (Ed.) Education for the Intercultural Experience. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Barnlund, D. (1989). Communicative styles of Japanese and Americans: Images and realities. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics 1, 1–47.

Condon, J. (1984). With respect to the Japanese. Yarmouth, MN: Intercultural Press.

Cushner, K. & Brislin, R. (1996). Intercultural Interaction: A practical guide. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Gaston, J. (1992). Cultural awareness teaching techniques. Brattelboro, VT: Pro Lingua Associates.

Gudykunst, W. and Nishida, T. (1989). Theoretical perspectives for studying intercultural communication, in Asante, M. & Gudykunst, W. (Eds) Handbook of International & Intercultural Communication, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Higgins, M. & Tanaka, B. (1999). Empowering ESL students for world citizenship, The Language Teacher, Vol. 23 No. 2, 15–19.

Hofstede, G. (1997). Culture and organization: software of the mind. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Johnson, W. (1996). "Effecting A System To Overcome Cultural Obstacles Within The EFL-Classroom Environment (Part I)," Kiyou (Journal of Kyoto Seika University), 10, p. 271–292.

Kim, Y. (1988). On Theorizing Intercultural Communication, in Kim, Y & Gudykunst W. (Eds), Theories in Intercultural Communication: Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kohls, R. (1996). Survival kit for overseas living: for Americans planning to live and work abroad. Yarmouth, MN: Intercultural Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D., (1986). Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Lustig, M. and Koester, J. (1996). Intercultural competence: Interpersonal communication across cultures. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Savignon, S. J. (1983). Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Scarcella, R. C., & Oxford, R. L. (1992). The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Stewart, E. & Bennett, M. (1991). American cultural patterns. Yarmouth, MN: Intercultural Press.

Strain, J. (1999). So, what's world citizenship?, The Language Teacher, Vol. 23 No. 2, 25-28.

Trompenaars, F. (1998). Riding the waves of culture. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Watzlawick, P. (Ed.) (1984). The invented reality. New York, NY: Norton and Company.

Williams & Burden, R (1997). Psychology for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Acknowledgment: This paper is dedicated to the memory of Yukiko Seto–Johnson. Without her cultural insights and caring support this paper could not have been possible.

Sources Consulted

Agar, M. (1994). Language shock: Understanding the culture of conversation. New York: William Morrow.

Astbury, Valerie (1994). The use of turn-taking resources in a Khmer-Australian English conversation. ARAL series S, 11:173–184.

Aston, G. (1995). Say 'Thank you': Some pragmatic constraints in conversational closings. Applied Linguistics, 16(1), 57–86.

Au, K. H.-P., & Mason, J. M. (1983). Cultural congruence in classroom participation structures: Achieving a balance of rights. Discourse Processes, 6(2), 145–167.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (Eds.). (1995). The construction of discourse by nonnative speakers [Special Issue]. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 17(2).

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1995). Introduction. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 17(2).

- Barraja-Rohan, Anne-Marie. (1994). A very delayed acceptance to an invitation in a French conversation. In R. Gardner (ed.) Spoken Interaction Studies in Australia, Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, Series S, 11: 153–172.
- Barraja-Rohan, Anne-Marie. (1997). Teaching conversation and sociocultural norms with conversation analysis. In A. J. Liddicoat and C. Crozet (eds.) Teaching Language, Teaching Culture. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, series S, 14: 71–88.
- Barraja-Rohan, Anne-Marie. (1999). Teaching Conversation for Intercultural Competence. In J. lo Bianco, A. J. Liddicoat and C. Crozet (eds.) Striving for the Third Place: Intercultural Competence through Language Education. Melbourne: Language Australia, NLLIA.
- Barraja-Rohan, Anne-Marie. (1999). Troubles-talk in Nonnative-Native Interviews. Paper presented to the International Pragmatics Conference, Tel Aviv (Israel) June 14.
- Basso, K. (1972). To give up on words: Silence in Western Apache culture. In P. P. Giglioli (Ed.). Language an social context (pp. 67–86). Middlesex, UK: Penguin. [Originally published in 1970. Southwest Journal of Anthropology 26, 213–230.]
- Bal, C. (1990). Its all in the asking: A perspective on problems of cross-cultural communication between native speakers of French and native speakers of Australian English in the workplace. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, Series S, 7: 66–92.
- Bal, C. (1994). Keeping the peace: A cross-cultural comparison of questions and requests in Australian English and French. Multilingua, 13, 1/2: 35–58.
- Besnier, N. (1989). Information withholding as a manipulative and collusive strategy in Nukulaelae gossip. Language in Society, 18, 315–341.
- Biber, D. (1995). [Review of B. V. Street (Ed.) Cross-cultural approaches to literacy]. Language in Society 24(3), 447–451.
- Blom, J.-P., & Gumperz, J. J. (1972/1986). Social meaning in linguistic structure: Code-switching in Norway. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication, (2nd ed., pp. 407–434). Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Byrnes, H. (1991). Reflections on the development of cross-cultural communicative competence in the foreign language classroom. In B. F. Freed (Ed.), Foreign language acquisition research and the classroom, (pp. 205–218). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics, 1, 1–47.
- Catlett, M., (1992). "The Participation Paper." The Language Teacher, Vol. 19, No. 11, 69.
- Cavalcanti, M. (1996). Collusion, resistance and reflexivity: Indigenous teacher education in Brazil. Linguistics and Education, 8, 175 –188.
- Chick, J. K. (1996). Intercultural communication. In S. L. McKay & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), Sociolinguistics and language teaching, (pp. 329–348). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Clarke, CC, Lipp, GD (1998). Conflict resolution for contrasting cultures. Training and Development, 52: 15.
- Cordella, M. (1990). Apologizing in Chilean Spanish and Australian English: A cross-cultural perspective. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, Series S, 7: 66–92.
- Cordella, M. (1995). Complimenting behaviour in Australian English and Spanish speech. Multilingua, 14, 3: 235–252.
- Coupland, N., Giles, H. and Wiemann, J. M. (1991). "Miscommunication" and Problematic Talk. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Davis, KA and Henze, RC (1998). Applying ethnographic perspectives to issues in cross-cultural pragmatics. Journal of Pragmatics, 30: 399-419.
- Day, Dennis (1998). "Being ascribed and resisting membership of an ethnic group" In C. Antaki & S Widdicombe, Identities in talk, London: Sage.
- Delooper, F. (1988). Toward internationalism readings in cross-cultural communication, 2nd edition. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 12: 75–78.
- Dittmar, N., & von Stutterheim, C. (1985). On the discourse of immigrant workers: Interethnic communication and communication strategies. In T. van Dijk (Ed.), Handbook of discourse analysis: Vol. 4. Discourse analysis in so-

- ciety, (pp. 125-152). New York: Academic Press.
- Erickson, F. (1987). Transformation and school success: The politics and culture of educational achievement. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 18, 335–356.
- Erickson, F. (1997). Culture in society and in educational practice. In J. Banks & C. M. Banks (Eds.), Multicultural education: Issues and perspectives, (3rd ed., pp. 30–60). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Erickson, F., & Mohatt, G. (1982). Cultural organization of participation practices in two classrooms of Indian students. In G. Spindler (Ed.), Doing the ethnography of schooling, (pp. 132–174). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Erickson, F., & Rittenberg, W. (1987). Topic control and person control: A thorny problem for foreign physicians in interaction with American patients. Discourse Processes, 10(4), 401–415.
- Erickson, F., & Shultz, J. (1981). When is a context? Some issues and methods in the analysis of social competence. In J. L. Green & C. Wallat (Eds.), Ethnography and language in educational settings, (pp. 147–160). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Erickson, F., & Shultz, J. (1982). The counselor as gatekeeper: Social interaction in interviews. New York: Academic Press.
- Fetzer, Anita (1996). Preference organization and interactive language teaching. Communicative strategies in a German–English context. IRAL XXXIV/2, 77–93.
- Fetzer, Anita (1997). Negative contextualization: a socio-semiotic approach to language teaching. In Ptz, Martin. ed. The cultural context in foreign language teaching. Frankfurt: Peter Lang. 85–109. Fiksdal, S. (1990). The right time and pace: A microanalysis of cross-cultural gate keeping interviews. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Fiksdal, S. (1995). [Review of G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), Interlanguage pragmatics]. Language in Society 24 (2), 270–273.
- Firth, Alan (1996). The discursive accomplishment of normality: On 'lingua franca' English and conversation analysis. In Wagner, Johannes (Ed): Special issue of Journal of Pragmatics. Vol 26: 237–259.
- Firth, Alan & Johannes Wagner (1997). On Discourse, Communication, and (Some) Fundamental Concepts in SLA. Modern Language Journal, Vol 81.3 285–300. With comments by Joan Kelly Hall, Gabriele Kasper, Anthony Liddicoat, Michael H.Long, Nanda Poulisse, Ben Rampton Pp. 301–333.
- Firth, Alan & Johannes Wagner (1998). SLA Property, No Trespassing! A Response. Modern Language Journal, Vol 82. 1.
- Garcez, P. M. (1998). Invisible culture and cultural variation in language use: Why language educators should care. Linguagem e Ensino, 1(1), 33–86.
- Garcez, P. M. (1997). Microethnography. In N. H. Hornberger & D. Corson (Eds.), The encyclopedia of language and education, (vol. 8, Research methods in language and education, 187–196). Dordrecht/Boston/London: Kluwer.
- Garcez, P. M. (1993). Point-making styles in cross-cultural business negotiation: A microethnographic study. English for Specific Purposes, 12(2), 103–120.
- Gass, S. M., & Varonis, E. M. (1991). Miscommunication in nonnative speaker discourse. In N. Coupland, H. Giles, & J. M. Wiemann (Eds.), "Miscommunication and problematic talk, (pp. 121–145). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Gattegno, C., (1976). The Common Sense of Teaching Foreign Languages. New York: Educational Solutions, Inc.
- Gattegno, C. (1985). The Common Sense of Teaching Reading and Writing. New York: Educational Solutions, Inc.
- Giddens, A. (1996). Introduction to sociology. (2nd ed.). New York/London: WW Norton.
- Graham, J. L. (1983). Brazilian, Japanese, and American business negotiations. Journal of International Business Studies, 14(1), 47–61.
- Grimshaw, A.D. (1992). Research on the discourse of international negotiations a path to understanding international conflict processes. Sociological Forum, 7: 87–119.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1982). Discourse strategies. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1982). Language and social identity. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1982). Fact and inference in courtroom testimony. In J. J. Gumperz (Ed.), Language and social identity, (pp. 163–195). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1986). Interactional sociolinguistics in the study of schooling. In J. Cook–Gumperz (Ed.), The social construction of literacy, (pp. 229–252). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gumperz, J. (1992). Interviewing in intercultural situations. In Drew P. and J. Heritage (eds.) Talk at Work. Cam-

- bridge, Cambridge University Press: 302-327.
- Holtgraves, T (1992). The linguistic realization of face management implications for language production and comprehension, person perception, and cross-cultural communication. Social Psychology Quarterly, 55: 141–159.
- Hopper, R., & Chen, C. H. (1996). Languages, cultures, relationships: telephone openings in Taiwan. Research on Language and Social Interaction, 29(4), 291–313.
- Hopper, R., & Doany, N. K. (1988). Telephone openings and conversational universals. In S. Ting-Toomey & F. Korzenny (Eds.), Language, communication and culture, (pp. 157–179). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1996). Review of Intercultural communication at work: Cultural values in discourse. Language in Society 25(3), 452–456.
- Kasper, G. (1995). Routine and Indirection in Interlanguage Pragmatics. In L. Bouton and Y. Kachru (eds.) Pragmatics and Language Learning, Monograph Series 6.
- Kasper, G. (1997). The role of pragmatics in language teacher education. In K. Bardovi-Harlig and B. Hartford (eds.) Beyond Methods: Components of Second Language Teacher Education. New York: McGraw-Hill, pp. 113–136.
- Kelly, C., (1993). "The Hidden Role of Japanese Universities." In The Guide to Teaching at Japanese Colleges and Universities ed., Paul Waden, Oxford University Press, New York, 172–191.
- Kochman, T. (1981). Black and white styles in conflict. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Koole, Tom & Jan D. ten Thije (1994). The Construction of Intercultural Discourse. Team discussions of educational advisers, Amsterdam/Atlanta: Rodopi.
- Koole, Tom & Jan D. ten Thije (1994). Thematising and unthematising racism in multicultural teams, in Heiner Prschel (ed.) Intercultural Communication, Bern: Peter Lang, 187–216.
- Kramsch, C. (1991). The order of discourse in language teaching. In B. F. Freed (Ed.), Foreign language acquisition research and the classroom, (pp. 191–204). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.
- Krasnick, H. (1988). The culture puzzle cross-cultural communication for English as a 2nd language. TESOL Quarterly, 22: 319–326.
- Labov, W. (1969/1972). The logic of Nonstandard In P. P. Giglioli (Ed.), Language and social context, (pp. 179–215). Middlesex, UK: Penguin.
- Lazaraton, A. (1997). Preference organization in oral proficiency interviews: The case of language ability assessments. Research on Language and Social Interaction, 30, 1: 53–72.
- Li, Xiangling & Tom Koole (1998). Cultural keywords in Chinese–Dutch business negotiations, in Susanne Niemeier, Charles Campbell & Ren Dirven (eds.) The cultural context in business communication, Amsterdam: Benjamins, 185–213.
- Light, T. (1988). Towards understanding readings in cross-cultural communication, 2nd edition. Modern Language Journal, 72: 217–218.
- Maynard, S. K. (1990). Conversation management in contrast: Listener response in Japanese and American English. Journal of Pragmatics, 14: 397–412.
- McDermott, R. P., & Gospodinoff, K. (1981). Social contexts for ethnic borders and school failure. In H. T. Trueba, G. Guthrie, & K. H. Au (Eds.), Culture and the bilingual classroom, (pp. 212–230). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- McGregor, G. (1997). [Review of E. Figueroa Sociolinguistic metatheory]. Language in Society 26(1), 137–143.
- Miller, L. (1994). Japanese and American indirectness. Journal of Asian Pacific Communication, 5(1 & 2), 1-19.
- Moerman, M. (1988). Talking culture: Ethnography and conversation analysis. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Mondada, L. (1999) L'accomplissement de l' "etrangeite" dans et par l'interaction : procedures de categorisation des locuteurs, Langages, 134, 20–34.
- Philips, S. U. (1976). Some sources of cultural variability in the regulation of talk. Language in Society, 6, 81–95.
- Prosser, M. (1980). Perspectives on cross-cultural communication. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 66: 116-117.
- Riggenbach, H. (1991). Toward an understanding of fluency: A microanalysis of nonnative speaker conversations. Discourse Processes, 14: 423–441.
- Roberts, C., Davies, E., & Jupp, T. (1992). Language and discrimination: A study of communication in multi-ethnic workplaces. London/New York: Longman.
- Rogers, EM (1999). Georg Simmel's concept of the stranger and intercultural communication research. Communication Theory, v 9: 58-74.

- Sarangi, S. (1994). Accounting for mismatches in intercultural selection interviews. Multilingua, 13, 1/2: 163-194.
- Sauer, BA (1996). Communicating risk in a cross-cultural context A cross-cultural comparison of rhetorical and social understandings in US and British mine safety training programs. Journal of Business and Technical Communication, 10: 306–329.
- Scollon, R., & Wong-Scollon, S. (1991). Topic confusion in English-Asian discourse. World Englishes, 10(2), 113-125.
- Scollon, R. and S. Scollon. (1994). Face parameters in East–West discourse. In S. Ting–Toomey (ed.) The Challenge of Facework. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press, 133–158.
- Seedhouse, Paul (1998). CA and the analysis of foreign language interaction: A reply to Wagner. Journal of Pragmatics. Vol 30: 85–103.
- Singh, R., Lele, J., & Martohardjono, G. (1988). Communication in a multi-lingual society: Some missed opportunities. Language in Society, 17, 43–59.
- Smith, L.E. (1979). English for cross-cultural communication questions of intelligibility. TESOL Quarterly, 13: 371-380.
- Stubbe, M (1998). Are you listening? Cultural influences on the use of supportive verbal feedback in conversation. Journal of Pragmatics, 29: 257–289.
- Tannen, D. (1984). Conversational style: Analyzing talk among friends. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Tannen, D. (1984). The pragmatics of cross-cultural communication. Applied Linguistics, 5(3), 189-195.
- Tannen, D. (1985). Cross-cultural communication. In T. van Dijk (Ed.), Handbook of discourse analysis: Vol. 4. Discourse analysis in society, (pp. 203–215). London: Academic Press.
- Tannen, D. (1994). Gender and discourse. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tao, H. and S. A. Thompson. (1991). English back channels in Mandarin conversations: A case study of super stratum pragmatic "interference". Journal of Pragmatics, 16: 209–223.
- Terzi, S. B. (1994). O desenvolvimento do letramento em situaes de interao bicultural. Trabalhos em Lingstica Aplicada, 23, 107–120.
- Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. Applied Linguistics, 4 (2), 91-112.
- Tyler, A. (1995). The co-construction of cross-cultural miscommunication: Conflicts in perception, negotiation, and enactment of participant roles and status. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 17, 2: 129–152.
- Ulichny, M. (1997). The mismanagement of misunderstandings in cross-cultural interactions. Journal of Pragmatics, 27: 233-246.
- Verschueren, J. (1984). English for cross-cultural communication. Language in Society, 13: 489-509.
- Wagner, Johannes (1996). Language acquisition through foreign language interaction a critical review of studies on Second Language Acquisition. In Wagner, Johannes (Ed): Special issue of Journal of Pragmatics. Vol. 26: 215–235.
- Watsongegeo, KA (1991). English across cultures cultures across English A reader in cross-cultural communication. Applied Linguistics, 12: 437-439.
- White, S. (1989). Back channels across cultures: A study of Americans and Japanese. Language in Society, 18: 59-76.