

Improving Speaking Skills Through Instruction in Oral Classroom Participation

Wenli Tsou
National University of Tainan

Abstract: *Studies in language learning have addressed the necessity of classroom interaction or students' oral participation in class. However, getting students to respond in a language classroom—especially a foreign language class—is a problem that most language teachers face. This article suggests remedies to language learners' reticence, using Taiwanese students as participants. Instruction about classroom participation was provided to students in the experimental group to see whether this treatment can (a) increase students' oral participation in class, and (b) lead to the improvement of students' speaking proficiency. Both hypotheses are supported by the data of the study. Suggestions for participation instruction in regular foreign language classes are also provided.*

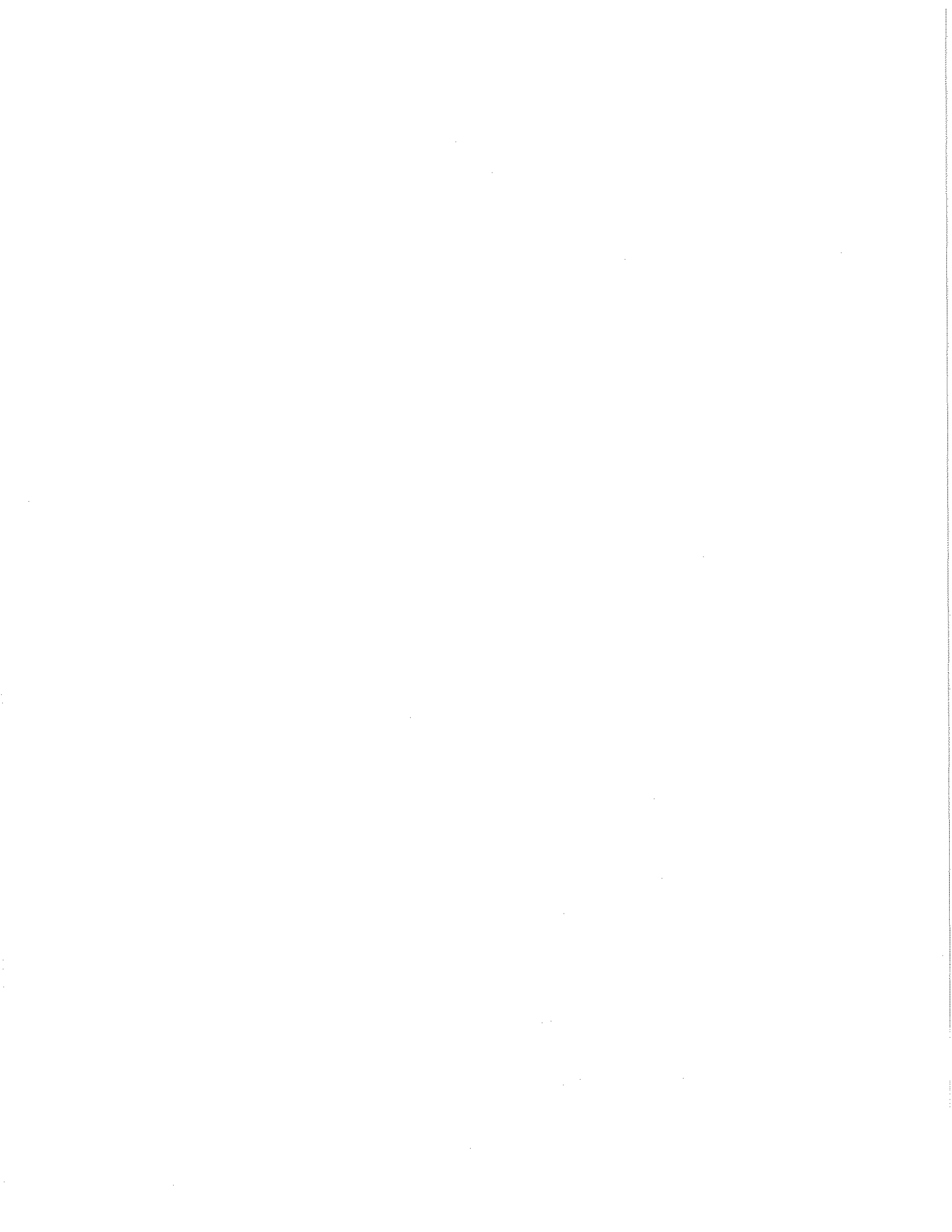
Introduction

Background

The linkage between students' classroom participation and their academic achievement is undeniable (Lim, 1992; Wudong, 1994; Zhou, 1991). Studies have shown that when students participate actively in class, their academic achievement seems to be higher than that of those who are passive in class. Krupa-Kwiatkowski (1998) summarized in her study that "interaction involves participation, personal engagement, and the taking of initiative in some way, activities that in turn are hypothesized to trigger cognitive processes conducive to language learning" (p. 133). Although studies indicate some language learners undergo a "silent period" (Hanania & Gradman, 1977; Krashen, 1982; Rodriguez, 1982) that is considered to be a natural part of second language acquisition (SLA) and may be beneficial to the second language (L2) learning process (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982), there is still some disagreement regarding the contribution that the silent period makes to language learning (Ellis, 1999; Gibbons, 1985). In general, student participation includes many forms of student actions such as speaking, listening, reading, writing, and body language or physical movement. Since oral participation is the most observable behavior, studies in the field of language learning have focused on the significance of students' oral participation (Ellis, 1988, 1993; Ely, 1986; Gomez, 1995; King, 1993; Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1986). Therefore, increased emphasis has been placed on students' interaction or oral participation in the classroom (Ellis, 1988; Long, 1981; Swain, 1985; Tsui, 1992; Wagner-Gough & Hatch, 1975). For example, Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975) argued that conversational interaction forms the basis for the development of syntax, and is not just for practice. In addition, Swain's (1985) "output hypothesis" suggested that learners need the opportunity for meaningful use of their linguistic resources to achieve native-speaker levels of grammatical accuracy.

Given this background, a relatively large number of researchers have conducted empirical studies to examine the relation between language acquisition and classroom interaction (Busch, 1982; Day, 1984; Ellis, 1993; Ely, 1986; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos, & Linnell, 1996; Spada, 1986). For instance, Ely (1986) found that oral correctness was influenced by classroom participation. These studies confirm a positive relationship between language learning and the amount of time devoted to oral interaction inside and outside of the language classroom. In addition, Pica et al. (1996) claimed "participation in verbal interaction offers language learners

Wenli Tsou (PhD, State University of New York at Buffalo) is Associate Professor at the National University of Tainan, Taiwan, R.O.C.



the opportunity to follow up on new words and structures to which they have been exposed during language lessons and to practice them in context" (pp. 59–60).

Encouraging students to respond in a language classroom, however, is a problem that most language teachers face (Beebe, 1983; Katz, 1996; Tsui, 1996; White & Lightbown, 1984). The problem of getting students to respond or participate is particularly salient with East Asian (i.e., Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Taiwanese) students, who are generally considered to be more reserved and reticent than their Western counterparts (Chaudron, 1988; Flowerdew & Miller, 1995; Lucas, 1984; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987; Sato, 1982; Song, 1994; Tomizawa, 1990). Often East Asian students experience extreme anxiety generated simply by the thought of asking a question in class (Song, 1995). The increasing body of evidence seems to paint a largely passive picture of East Asian students. Many suggest that the diverse cultural parameters present in the ESL classroom may make opportunities for interaction difficult to create (e.g., Brophy & Good, 1974; Cazden, John, & Hymes 1972; Laosa, 1979; Malcolm, 1986; Philips, 1972; Sato, 1982). Others claim that students' negative attitudes towards participation, low language proficiency, anxiety, learning style, or lack of practice might be the key factors for East Asian students' reticence in class (Flowerdew & Miller, 1995; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Hofstede, 1986; Hwang, 1987; Song, 1994; Wong, 1984; Yu, Liu, & Littlewood, 1996). If class participation is as important to a language learner as presented in the previous research, how can a researcher or educator help to increase these reticent East Asian students' participation in class and therefore improve their language proficiency? Although East Asian students as a group are more reserved and reticent, there are variations in the degree of their oral classroom participation. For example, based on the researcher's observations in studies across several East Asian populations, East Asians from Hong Kong have a tendency to be somewhat more interactive than students from Japan, Taiwan, or Korea. To avoid overgeneralization of the results, this study focused only on students from one East Asian group (Taiwan) as the subjects.

Purpose

In a pilot study, the researcher noted that Taiwanese students' participation behaviors developing from their previous learning experiences could significantly influence their oral classroom participation behavior in the classroom. Because previous studies have shown the importance of classroom participation, this study sought to reinforce these findings, provide language educators with teaching tools, and study the efficacy of the tools through both quantitative and qualitative inquiry. To further understand this issue and seek methods for improved language-learning outcomes, the researcher introduced an instructional

treatment: participation instruction (PI). PI focuses on applying techniques for changing students' participation behaviors in class and providing communication strategies for participating in discussions, such as taking and/or maintaining the floor, indicating a lack of comprehension, requesting help and/or additional information, checking a point of view, and clarifying as well as inquiring about classroom procedures. If prior experience in class interaction is the main factor influencing Taiwanese students' participation behaviors in English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) classes, changes in students' participation behaviors should increase students' amount of participation. The increase in students' oral classroom participation should contribute to their improvement in English-speaking proficiency. The results of the study could well serve as a basis for the improvement of oral student participation in classes where ethnic reticence is a limiting factor, and indeed might well be extended to other types of student groups. Therefore, the initial hypothesis of this study was: PI will increase Taiwanese students' oral participation in class. According to the aforementioned studies, language learners' nonparticipation can inhibit the development of their oral fluency. With more practice in their oral communication skills, students will feel more comfortable in speaking. This oral practice and confidence in speaking should help to improve their speaking proficiency. Thus, a second hypothesis was: PI will lead to the improvement of Taiwanese students' speaking proficiency.

Significance

Although numerous studies have addressed East Asian students' reticence (Pica et al., 1987; Sato, 1982; Song, 1994; Tomizawa, 1990; Tsou, 1994), only a small number of them attempt to present remedies (Song, 1994; Tsou, 1994). Therefore, in order to convince more educators of second and foreign language teaching, especially those who have contact with East Asian learners, it is necessary to present a descriptive study to both present and evaluate promising instructional methods to help students overcome their reticence.

Methodology

Two EFL freshman English classes participated in this study. Both *t*-test and regression analyses were applied to the scores of the test, questionnaires, and participation turns, to examine both students' classroom participation and improvement in speaking proficiency. The present study includes both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data were collected through questionnaires, tests, and observations; the qualitative data were gathered through passive participant observation, survey responses, and an interview with the EFL teacher. In order to examine differences between the experimental and control groups before the onset of the experiment, prelimi-

nary tests were done. Each student was assessed on four measures: (a) a speaking test¹ (The Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit [SPEAK]); (b) a motivation measure² (questionnaire); (c) a language contact profile³ (LCP) survey; and (d) a measure of "concern for grades" (questionnaire). The SPEAK test was administered at the beginning and end of the semester to see how students' speaking proficiency changed during the course of the experiment.

The conversational turns between the teacher and students, as well as among students themselves, in the full-class, teacher-fronted discussions were calculated based on classroom observation data gathered by a research assistant. Turn taking is one of the most important components in conversation. It could be considered as one indicator of language proficiency. According to Rivers (1987), the student who can handle turn taking better or initiates more turns gets more opportunities to interact in the target language and to practice target language skills. In addition, speakers' turns are easy to differentiate and count. Thus, as in other studies (Allen, Fröhlich, & Spada, 1984; Allwright, 1980), the number of "turns" was chosen as additional quantitative data for this study. Furthermore, the most common learning format in classrooms is the full-class, teacher-fronted discussion, and this is exactly the situation where East Asians tend to be quiet and passive (Tsou, 1994). Therefore, in order to compare students' participation or degree of reticence, students' voluntary participation turns in the full-class, teacher-fronted format were chosen as a major observation variable. A research assistant conducted passive participant observations and tape recorded the entire class period for both classrooms throughout the whole semester. The students were asked to remain in the same seats for the whole semester so that the research assistant could easily record who was saying what at the time. Each time there was student participation, the research assistant quickly wrote down the name(s) of the student(s) and the first few words of each turn and then transcribed field notes and tapes directly after class in order to record as many details as possible. For example, the italicized words on the research assistant's class note were finished after listening to the tape.

Teacher: . . . Any plans for the vacation?

Aileen: I will go to Kenting with my family. For one day.

Teacher: That's great. How . . . Anyone else?

Peggy: Poor me. I have to do lots of homework.

The actual observation period was for one semester of 18 weeks (two hours per week). The introductions of the experimental treatment were during the 4th to the 15th week of the semester. The first three weeks were used to gather the preexperimental data and the last three weeks after the treatment for the postexperimental data.

The "language contact profile (LCP)" and "motivation" were control variables in this study. Previous research (Day,

1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Sato, 1982; Seliger, 1977) studied these variables and produced inconsistent reports about their relationship to L2 learning. In order to look at the effects of only the independent variable, PI, it is necessary to control the effects from other possible variables.

Participants

Students at a university in southern Taiwan were selected from the freshman English class, a required course for all first-year students. Students met with their EFL instructor two hours each week. Seventy freshmen⁴ in two classes (35 per class) in the department of Early Childhood Education were chosen as the subjects of the study. Like all the other EFL classrooms at the university, these two classes consisted of Taiwanese students and a Taiwanese instructor. These two EFL classes had the same instructor and were held on the same day (one in the morning and the other in the afternoon). The instructor was an experienced ESL/EFL teacher. She had lived in the United States for six years and had taught TESOL courses at the graduate level and ESL classes there before she returned to Taiwan. She was a native speaker of Chinese (Mandarin) but was required to conduct her EFL classes in English in the university.

Treatment: Participation Instruction

PI regarding the interaction in the language classroom was the independent variable studied. The PI approach used was based on Triandis's (1972) culture assimilator models, Kraemer's (1973) cultural self-awareness model, and Gudykunst, Hammer, and Wiseman's (1977) PIC (Perspective, Interaction, and Context-Specific) training model. Additional activities borrowed from cultural instruction such as the use of minidramas, fantasy experiences, and comparing/contrasting processes were also included to encourage more oral participation. Furthermore, students tend to be more confident and participate more when the topics are familiar. Therefore, topics about Taiwanese culture were also included as part of the PI instruction. The PI instructor was trained in the techniques and communication strategies of PI instruction prior to the onset of the experiment. The consistency of instruction was also controlled through daily classroom observations. Based on the analysis of the recorded instructional sessions, the researcher and the PI instructor met after every class to evaluate each lesson and modify the lesson plan for the next class. The 12 weeks of PI were divided into the following three phases.

Phase 1 (Two Weeks)

1. Teacher informed students of desired classroom participation behaviors and emphasized the importance of participation in teacher-led discussions. Students were expected to ask questions whenever they were confused and they were allowed to interrupt, question, or even

discuss with teachers in class. For example, in these two weeks of classes, the teacher intentionally paused every 15 minutes to encourage questions and comments from students (e.g., T: "Do you think it is a better way to solve the problem? What would you do if you were he?") She also welcomed students to comment on one another, (e.g. T: "Mary, what do you think about John's suggestion? . . . Is there anybody else who wants to comment on this?")

2. Teacher explained the importance of using small group discussions in the English classes, providing opportunities for practice.
3. Teacher provided evidence from studies (e.g., Sato, 1982; Seliger, 1977) to demonstrate how increased practice results in increased proficiency.
4. Teacher provided instruction on communication strategies for participating in discussions, such as taking and/or maintaining the floor (e.g., claiming turns: "I have something to say"; turn-claim suppression: "Let me finish"; turn signal: "That's all"), indicating a lack of comprehension ("There are what?" "Do you mean two?"), requesting help and/or additional information ("Excuse me!" "Could you write it down?" "Could you explain it?"), checking a point of view ("So you were saying . . ."), clarifying as well as inquiring about classroom procedures ("We have to form a small group and discuss it?"). Teacher presented examples for each category and created situations for students to practice with these communication strategies in both the full-class and small group discussions.

Phase 2 (Two Weeks)

1. The teacher showed an episode from a videotape of an American classroom and asked students to identify and discuss effective participation behaviors.
2. The teacher and students described and discussed East Asian cultures (e.g., Taiwan, China, Japan, Korea) and their expectations about teachers and students' roles.
3. The teacher invited non-East Asian guest speakers⁵ (e.g., American, Canadian) to discuss their observations about East Asian cultures and East Asians' participation behaviors in class. Students discussed cultural differences among themselves in small groups.

Phase 3 (One Week)

Students engaged in role play, minidramas, or discussed incidents from culture assimilator models.

For the remaining weeks, the teacher repeated phases 2 and 3 constantly using a variety of different activities (e.g.

Table 1

INITIAL TEST RESULTS			
	Experimental N = 30 Mean (SD)	Control N = 33 Mean (SD)	t
SPEAK	31.85 (4.7)	32.07 (5.47)	-.17
Concern for Grade	.73 (1.35)	.83 (1.21)	.74
Participation	.39 (.69)	.40 (.90)	-.03
Motivation	6.42 (2.92)	5.37 (2.94)	1.43
LCP	3.08 (6.26)	2.15 (2.08)	.44

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

fantasy experiences). The reason for the repetition was Sadow's (1987) claim that PI activities of this kind "work best when done in a series rather than as an isolated event, for students become more comfortable with the activities after they have done one or two" (p. 27).

During the PI period, language learning occurred when students encountered unfamiliar language expressions used by both their teacher and classmates. The PI instructor stopped from time to time to provide assistance or modify language use for students. The control group did not receive any PI and only experienced the regular EFL instruction.

Results

Preliminary Tests

The researcher finished all the preliminary tests before the experiment started. The results of these preliminary tests are illustrated in Table 1. There were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in terms of their LCP ($t(61) = .77, p = .44$), concern for grades ($t(61) = -.34, p = .74$), classroom participation ($t(61) = -.03, p = .98$), motivation ($t(61) = 1.43, p = .16$) and pre-SPEAK test scores ($t(61) = .17, p = .87$).

Results of *t* test

The results for the differences in SPEAK test between groups before and after the experiment are presented in Table 2. After PI, the differences (posttest-pretest) for each variable between groups indicated that students in the experimental group on average significantly increased scores in motivation ($t(61) = -2.62, p = .01$) and SPEAK ($t(61) = -6.11, p = .00$) than students in the control group. However, the increase in difference between groups in oral classroom participation was not significant ($t(61) = -1.72, p = .09$). These results suggest that PI helped to raise students' learning motivation and SPEAK scores. When students reported higher learning motivation and interest in the coursework, the classroom observer also noted that the

Table 2

RESULTS OF *t* TEST (PRETEST—POSTTEST)

	Experimental N = 30 Mean (SD)	Control N = 33 Mean (SD)	<i>t</i>
SPEAK	7.50 (4.78)	.91 (3.761)	-6.11***
Concern for Grade	.83 (1.12)	.73 (1.35)	1.12
Participation	.78 (2.04)	.13 (.681)	-1.72
Motivation	1.70 (3.78)	-.55 (3.01)	-2.62**
LCP	-.48(1.83)	-1.52 (1.54)	-.84

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Figure 1

CALCULATIONS OF STUDENTS' TURNS
AND WORDS PER TURNThe teacher asked about students' plan
for a possible vacation.

Rachel: I will go to Mt. Tsai to see monkeys.
(Self-selected turn 1, 9 words)

Teacher: Anyone else?

Allen: I will go to Kenting with my family for one day.
(Self-selected turn 1, 11 words)

Teacher: Just one day? How come?

Allen: Because my home is near Kenting. (Responding
turn 2, 6 words)

Teacher: How much time do you need to drive there?

Allen: One hou- hour. (Responding turn 3, 2 words)

Teacher: No wonder. Ok, anyone else? (Pause for a few
seconds) Anyone? (Pause for a few seconds) Gil?

Gil: Maybe about New Year holiday, I will join a club
about Taiwan native and visit the culture of them. If
anyone interests in this activity, join us and come with
us. (Teacher-selected turn)

Teacher: Very good. Anyone wants to join Gil? (Pause
for a few seconds) Well, who else wants to share your
vacation plan?

Snoopy: Maybe I will, will go to club with my family,
just one Sunday. And I will call my senior high school
classmates and talk to them. And I have to do some
homework. (Self-selected turn 1, 32 words)

Note. Only students' self-selected turns and their related responding turns were counted as valid conversational turns. In addition, only complete words were counted. Repetitions, Chinese (when learners do not know the responding English expression), and backchannel words like "um uh," "yes," "uh" . . . etc. were not counted as a word in each turn.

Table 3

STUDENTS' PARTICIPATION CHANGE

Group/ Time	Pre-PI M (SD)	PI period M (SD)	Post PI M (SD)
Experimental	49 (.90)	2.49 (5.21)	1.53 (.67)
Control	39 (.69)	1.53 (1.79)	1.18 (2.85)
<i>t</i> test	$t(61) = -.03$	$t(61) = -1.00$	$t(61) = -.28$

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

classroom atmosphere was warm and relaxed. For instance, in her observation data, she indicated, "In the class, the teacher often smiled and students laughed a lot. I overheard two students' conversation during the break today. They said they wished to have this kind of English class earlier so that they could love English more and their English ability [wouldn't] be this poor." Since the environment was not threatening, students tended to participate more. Increased learning motivation and oral practice in class appear to have contributed to significant improvement in the final SPEAK test. The reason that the oral classroom participation difference⁶ did not reach the .05 level could be because of the short duration of the experiment period. Longer time or smaller class size (e.g., around 20 students in one class) is probably needed for an experiment of this sort to foster significant changes in students' attitudes toward classroom participation. Nevertheless, Table 3 presents students' participation changes over time during the semester. Students in the experimental groups began to participate more during the PI period and they continued to do so until the end of the semester.

In addition to the students' number of voluntary turns, the length of each turn, or words per turn (w/t), was also calculated. (See Figure 1.) Before and after PI, there was no significant difference in the length per turn for students in both experimental and control groups even though the results of paired *t* tests showed a significant increase (post-w/t minus pre-w/t) in students' length per turn for both the control ($t(32) = 2.63$, $p = .00$) and experimental ($t(29) = 3.58$, $p = .01$) groups after one semester of English lessons.

However, when the researcher compared the types of student response between groups, she found that even though the average turns and w/t did not reveal significant differences between groups, the types of teacher's questions and students' responses merited further discussion. The teacher tried to use the same types of questions and encouragement to promote student participation in both groups, however, the observation data collected seems to show an attendance indicating that in the control group, the teacher often needed to modify her questions into simple yes/no questions before she could get any kind of student responses. Therefore, as can be seen in the following excerpt, most

Table 4

MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Dependent Variable: Participation Difference			
Variables	Coefficient	t Statistics	p Value
Constant	-7.003	-4.045	.000
Concern for			
Grade	.362	1.029	.308
LCP	-.159	-1.409	.164
Gender	-1.667	-.775	.441
PI	7.656	6.764	.000
Motivation	-.381	-2.401	.020
Participation	.0298	.079	.937
$R^2 = .477$			
Note. Difference before and after the experiment for each variable was used in the regression			

student responses in the control group tended to follow the pattern "Yes/No . . . Because . . ." and there were also many brief Chinese responses.

T: Do you have any plan for the coming holiday?

Ss: (silent)

T: What is "holiday"?

Ss: Gia-ru (Chinese for holiday)

T: Right. Holiday is the day when you do not need to work or go to school. (pause) So, do you like holidays?

John: No. Because I need to study for my exam.

T: Oh, but you can still take some time off to have some fun. Right everybody?

Min: Yes. I like holidays because I can go shopping.

This phenomenon seems to describe different participation behaviors and degrees of participation between groups but further study needs to be conducted to seek real reasons.

Regressions

Multiple regressions were conducted to investigate which independent variables could significantly predict the dependent variable, SPEAK test difference. These variables were selected because of their importance to language learners' participation, as revealed in previous research. The results of multiple regressions indicated only PI and motivation difference could significantly predict the dependent variable, SPEAK difference (see Table 4). Furthermore, stepwise regression was also applied to find the best predictor of the dependent variable. Of the two significant variables found in the multiple regression modes, PI (coefficient $\beta = 7.445$, $p = .000$) was a better predicting variable than was motivation (coefficient $\beta = -.380$, $p = .017$).

The results from the t test, multiple regression, and stepwise regressions strongly support the second hypothe-

sis of the study. PI can support a significant gain in students' speaking proficiency. Because of the short experimental period and large class size (35 students), the increase in students' oral participation in the EFL class was not as significant (only at .09 level). However, the researcher would like to present the qualitative data of the study to support the first hypothesis of the study—PI will increase Taiwanese students' oral participation in class.

Qualitative Data Analyses and Findings

In order to provide an in-depth discussion about what really happened in the classroom, qualitative data were also collected in this study. The qualitative data provided participants' opinions and a more detailed portrait of classroom interaction patterns. The qualitative data were collected through the following sources: (a) students' self-evaluations of their own improvement in participation and speaking proficiency, (b) students' evaluations of the PI course, and (c) an end-of-course interview with the teacher.

Students' Self-Evaluations

At the end of the semester, a questionnaire with the following three questions (Q1, Q2, and Q3) for the experimental group and two questions (Q1 and Q2) for the control group was also given to these students. They were:

- Q1. What do you think about your spoken English improvement for this semester?
- Q2. What do you think about your classroom participation (a) at the beginning of the semester; (b) at the end of the semester?
- Q3. What do you think about the participation activities in class for this semester?

The descriptive results of these qualitative data show that 25 out of 30 (83%) students in the experimental groups said they participated more at the end of the semester when compared with their performance at the beginning of the semester. Most of the students (78%) in the experimental groups agreed that PI activities were helpful and they enjoyed these activities.

E1: Increase a lot; at least I know it is not a rude action to interrupt the teacher.

E2: In the beginning time of this semester, I didn't know how to participate; therefore, I lost my time so much. But I try to take part in it, always in class.

E3: At the beginning of the semester, I never answered questions freely unless teacher called me. At the end of the semester, I ask or answer questions freely, sometimes voluntarily.

E4: I think they [PI activities] will help me participate more than ever.

E5: It [PI] helped a lot. We've learned what the students are expected to do in classroom. Participate

actively make students improve spoken English faster.

E6: [about PI activities] Excellent organization and very interesting.

Additionally, 88% of them believed their speaking proficiency improved at the end of the semester.

E7: I think I get big improvement in this semester.

E8: Yes. My English improved and I think I learned some techniques which I can use for other classes.

E9: I'm so happy because I know when to interrupt others and I think it is being improved.

E10: Can say "Excuse me. Can I help you" and make longer conversation with foreigners.

E11: Yes, by not afraid of speaking in front of class, even though sometime I still make mistakes.

On the other hand, the statements of students from the control group show that only 6 students out of 33 (18%) believed that they participated more at the end of the semester. The majority of students believed their participation level at the end of the semester did not increase significantly. Students in the control group also had reservations about their speaking proficiency improvement. Only 60% believed their speaking proficiency improved, as compared with 88% of the students from the experimental group.

In sum, students' self reports showed that most of the students in the control group did not think that there was much increase in their degree of participation or in their confidence in their speaking proficiency improvement. In contrast, the students in the experimental groups enjoyed the learning experience and believed that they not only participated more but their speaking proficiency was also improved.

Course Evaluation

At the end of each semester, every student was required to fill out course and teacher evaluation forms. These two completed forms were then analyzed and their average scores were calculated. The experimental group had consistently higher mean scores than the control group. The major differences between the experimental and control groups were in the following categories: interesting (86.2 vs. 60), variety of activities (83.1 vs. 60), and opportunity to participate (86.2 vs. 61.7). In addition to the above evaluation questions, students could also write down their comments. The students in the experimental group wrote comments such as the following in their written evaluation report:

The class activities or exercises that were most helpful were: "speech; the emphasis of participation"; "participation and debate"; "watching videotape which was about participation." The most important skills learned in this course: "a participation in front of a class"; "participation. It helped me in other class-

es also."; "I will participate in class with courage"; "confidence in speaking English"; "take a part in this class"; "I learned how to participate in classes"; "How to participate in class and how to improve my way to speak English."

These kinds of entries, however, did not appear in the evaluations written by the control groups. In general, the experimental group that received PI had positive attitudes toward the class and appreciated having the opportunity for this form of instruction that not only enhanced the variety of classroom activities but also raised their interest in language learning.

Interview with the Teacher

The researcher conducted a 20-minute interview with the instructor after the final exams. The interview questions focused on the comparisons between the classes before and after PI. When asked about students' participation in class, she said that there was no difference between these two classes at the beginning of the semester:

As I just said, I didn't see a change in any of the participation from the first class at the beginning, very little. I think that they were both similar in that they both had students, a range of students, where some are obviously more willing to participate in the class than others but there is not a great—I didn't notice there is a great deal of difference between these two classes.

She found, however, a great improvement in students' participation, as time passed, in the experimental group, but not in the control group. She believed that PI provided to the experimental group made the difference.

I think that, I personally think that the part of the lesson that I gave, help to, help students. When I was there I saw an improvement in participation. As the semester went along, the students became more comfortable in participating in class, and realized the importance of it. I didn't see any change in the earlier class [the control group] as far as participation goes. I don't know how that really relates to the evaluation but there is a definite improvement in participation in the later class [the experimental group].

The teacher said she needed to make a lot of effort to encourage the students' participation in the control group. I really thought the later class [the experimental group] is more talkative. The earlier one, [the control group] I needed to make an effort . . . They just didn't talk. They weren't volunteering as eagerly. I could . . . I don't know. Between the two, I thought the later class was much more spontaneous . . . [for the control group] I felt that I needed to work harder to get them

to relax, and get them to speak. But I felt I had more teacher talk in the earlier class.

As a result, the teacher believed that these two groups started with the same participation level and because of PI, the experimental group apparently improved their level of participation gradually. The experimental group was eager to participate and overall had a positive attitude toward their learning environment, while the control group, even with more teacher effort, did not achieve the same degree of success.

Conclusion

The above qualitative data results are consistent with the results of the quantitative data. If PI can be integrated into regular foreign language teaching, not only will students' speaking proficiency improve, but their attitudes toward class will also become more positive, as shown in the aforementioned students' final course and teaching evaluation reports. PI is especially important to those students who come from a passive classroom participation background, such as the Taiwanese students in this study. PI provides an opportunity for teachers and students to talk about the differences in their classroom expectations and also directs students toward expected classroom participation behaviors. Through PI, the expectations of teachers and students can be aligned and conflicts in expectations can be reduced. Only when this kind of mutual understanding is reached can students feel more comfortable and confident in participating in classroom discussions. Since foreign language teachers do not need special training to learn to implement PI instruction, it would be very easy for them to introduce this type of instruction into their classrooms. Foreign language teachers only have to understand the reasons behind East Asians' reticence and design the kinds of cultural activities used in PI to modify students' perception about class participation as well as to provide ample opportunities for practice. PI instruction can easily be incorporated into their predetermined foreign language curriculum. For example, the culture assimilators model could be used to teach informative and persuasive speeches; the mini-drama could enhance instruction in effective ways to argue a point or make a complaint. Clearly, foreign language teachers do not have to worry about finding extra time for PI since it can be integrated into the existing foreign language classes. In this way, perhaps, the researcher sincerely hopes that the current foreign language learning experience of reticent or passive students can be improved and greater learning outcomes can be achieved.

Notes

1. The SPEAK test used in the present study is the institutional form of the Testing Spoken English (TSE) created by the Educational Testing Service (ETS). Two highly trained, native English-speaking SPEAK test raters, one male and one female, were hired to do the SPEAK test rating independently. The interrater reliability for this study was .91.
2. A modified questionnaire based on Ely's (1986) "strength of motivation" scale was used to measure students' motivation in this study.
3. The LCP measure originally used by Seliger (1977) and adapted by Day (1985) was used as the basis of the self-report questionnaire on informal contact with native speakers outside of the classroom.
4. Because of missing values, the actual number of participants for EFL classes was 63.
5. Since the students were learning American English, one American and one Canadian were invited at the time.
6. "Participation difference" here means students' voluntary turn difference between the pre- and postpassive participation observation periods (voluntary turns of Week 3–5 minus voluntary turns of Week 14–16).

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Classroom Management for Teachers of Japanese and Other Foreign Languages

Elaine K. Horwitz
The University of Texas at Austin

Abstract: *This article describes the classroom management component of the Professional Development of Japanese Teachers of Texas (PDJT), a certification program for teachers of Japanese. In addition, it offers suggestions in classroom management for teachers of Japanese and other foreign languages as well as guidance for teacher trainers to help new teachers develop classroom management skills. Although a classroom management class is required for teacher certification, a generic course would not have met the needs of these teachers. The course needed to build on the maturity, classroom experience, and cultural orientation of the participants. Class time utilized many small-group activities based on the participants' classroom experiences and emphasized the realities of American classrooms. This approach can serve as a model for training programs serving varied groups of teacher-certification candidates.*

Introduction: A Personal Perspective

When I was a college senior taking my foreign language methods class just prior to student teaching, there was no material directed toward classroom management. When another student asked the instructor for some classroom management guidelines, he replied that foreign language teachers did not need to be concerned with classroom management as only "good" kids took foreign languages. When pressed, he stated matter-of-factly that classroom management was all in the presentation of audiolingual drills; a brisk pace accompanied by a drill-sergeant manner would stop all classroom management problems before they got started.

As my first teaching job was in an urban junior high in the midst of court-ordered busing, I soon realized that classroom management was indeed central to my job as a foreign language teacher. In many cases, I could hardly get my classes seated, let alone present briskly paced drills. At this early point in my teaching career, I received two additional pieces of classroom management advice which proved infinitely more useful than my methods instructor's perfunctory words. These were: "Be firm, fair, and consistent," and "You don't need any 13-year old friends." The first piece of advice came from a colleague, a veteran urban teacher. He believed that of the three conditions, consistency was the most important. Students, he felt, would prefer an unfair policy that was enforced consistently over a more fair one applied sporadically with the possibility of seeming preferential.

The advice about friendships with students came from an eighth-grade girl who was not even one of my students. At the age of 21, this piece of advice was the more important one to me. Although I had not intended to establish peer relationships with students, the student's advice reminded me that I was, and had to be, the adult in any interactions with students. By being the adult, I would not always be popular with students, but I understood that the teacher's task was more complex than that of maintaining popularity. Later in my teaching career, I came across Frances Fuller's research on teachers' stages of concern and learned that many if not all beginning teachers are concerned with being liked by their students. Being overly concerned with student acceptance often leads to classroom management problems (Fuller & Bown, 1975).

Elaine K. Horwitz (PhD, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) is Professor of Curriculum and Instruction and Director of the Graduate Program in Foreign Language Education at the University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

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