

Language Teaching Methodology

Uncertainty Avoidance in Japan / Assignment LT/06/07

Brown (Principles of Language Learning and Teaching 2000:192) suggests various ways in which the values inherent in ‘collectivist’ and ‘individualist’ societies might affect student-student and teacher-student interactions. Choose from either ‘uncertainty avoidance’ or ‘power distance’ and list how your choice of dimension might affect student-student and teacher-student interaction in your work setting. Discuss how items on your list might affect the methodology you adopt.

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Introduction

Uncertainty avoidance plays a larger role in the classroom than instructors may realize. Brown cites Hofstede's definition about **uncertainty avoidance** as a part of a culture which "defines the extent to which people within a culture are made nervous" (2000:190) in situations that they perceive as uncomfortable. In this assignment, I will evaluate the issue of uncertainty avoidance (UA) and analyze the consequences of UA in the ESL classroom in Japan. I will also compare the differences between collectivist and individualist societies along with how this affects my experience teaching English to Japanese students.

A Westerner in Japan comes from a different culture than the students and "misunderstandings may at times be unavoidable"(Richards and Lockhart 1996:108). It would be very helpful to the teacher to understand the significance of UA to reduce misunderstandings. In section one of this assignment, I will define uncertainty avoidance (UA), discuss the significance of weak UA and strong UA as well as present a list how UA affects interaction in the classroom. In section 2, I will analyze UA and relate it to teaching methodologies that I have adopted. In section 3, I will further discuss the affects of UA on student-student interaction and teacher-student interaction followed by a conclusion.

Table 1 below shows differences between weak UA societies and strong UA societies (Adapted from Hofstede 2005: 176,181).

Weak uncertainty avoidance	Strong uncertainty avoidance
1. Uncertainty is a normal feature of life, and each day is accepted as it comes. 2. Low stress and low anxiety. 3. Comfortable in ambiguous situations and with unfamiliar risks. 4. Students are comfortable with open-ended learning situations and concerned with good discussions.	1. The uncertainty inherent in life is a continuous threat that must be fought. 2. High stress and high anxiety. 3. Acceptance of familiar risks; fear of ambiguous situations and of unfamiliar risks. 4. Students are comfortable in structured learning situations and concerned with the right answers.

5. What is different is curious.	5. What is different is dangerous.
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Many English language teaching methodologies as well as materials have been imported from Britain and North America to other countries where English is taught as a foreign language. In some cases, these imported methodologies “do not match local conditions”(McDonough and McDonough1997:234) and in various situations do not coincide with “cultural attitudes to certain kinds of activities”(ibid). Knowing the different traits listed in **Table 1**, can help in being certain when to use teaching methods that work well with a strong UA audience.

1.1 Uncertainty Avoidance – What is it? What is the meaning of weak uncertainty avoidance and strong uncertainty avoidance?

Because uncertainty avoidance is the aspect of a culture which makes people uncomfortable or even nervous, people from a strong level UA society try to avoid this tenseness “by maintaining strict codes of behavior” (Hofstede cited in Brown 2000:190). Cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance tend to be security seeking while weak uncertainty cultures tend to be more accepting of risks. Hofstede lists seventy-four countries with different levels of UA and the USA is ranked at 62 while Japan is ranked at 11(2005:168-169). If Japan is a very strong UA country and the USA is a weak UA country, an American English teacher like myself, may want to have structured lessons that students in Japan feel comfortable with. Because Japanese students view uncertainty as a threat that needs to be fought with, I find myself trying to teach lessons so that students will most likely take risks and feel secure. Christopher writes that “Americans have no idea how Japanese think and feel” (1983:21) and an American English teacher may feel more comfortable in ambiguous situations than the Japanese students but may not realize that the students feel the complete antithesis. Christopher mentions that “the Japanese as a people distrust and shun straightforward verbal communication”(ibid:39) which could be a reason why there is a strong level of UA in ESL classrooms in Japan.

Western cultures tend to be more expressive and the “Japanese generally behave unemotionally in Western eyes” (Hofstede 2005:171). I have witnessed this unemotional attitude from my own experience. Teachers from the West in Japan may want to adjust to the students’ level of UA in order to have ample interaction in the classroom.

1.2 How uncertainty avoidance affects interaction

In this section I will list how my choice of dimension might affect my work setting.

There are different expectations from teachers and students; furthermore, the level of UA affects my teaching methodology largely because of these expectations. The potential influences of uncertainty avoidance on interaction in my classroom, where the teacher is from a low uncertainty avoidance culture, America, and students from a high uncertainty avoidance culture, Japan, are outlined in **Table 2** below.

Table 2: Uncertainty avoidance and its influence upon interaction in the classroom

Influence	Interaction-type	Teacher expectations	Student expectations
When students don’t understand or have difficulty relating to the material.	Teacher-student	Teacher expects students to question when they don’t understand the class content.	Students feel they may look foolish if they question the teacher.
When students are shy and hesitate to speak.	Teacher-student Student-student	Teacher expects students to take risk in pair and group exercises.	Students will not take risks unless they feel familiar with the material. They also want to be respected by their peers.
When students choose not to learn new things or relate to new methods.	Teacher-student	Teacher assumes the students to be enthused to learn something new.	Students greet new things with anxiety and choose activities that are security seeking.

When students have difficulty relating to life-like situations.	Teacher-student Student-student	Teacher expects the student to appreciate a real life situation (i.e. a news broadcast) and discuss it.	Students are more willing to discuss situations that they have experience with.
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The following sections of this assignment will expand upon the information presented in the table above.

2.1 Understanding material and combating shyness

In order for a teacher to reach out to students with strong UA, it is valuable for the teacher to help learners achieve control over their knowledge by making sure that the students feel familiar with the material so learners will take risk. From my experience in Japan, I have found using a textbook with the use of initiation-response-feedback exchange (IRF) to be a good way in assisting shy students with class participation. Van Lier describes IRF as an approach to language learning in which the teacher moves the direction of the lesson and the pattern is only revealed gradually to the student (2001:95). Here is an example from a lesson that I did with two ten year old Japanese boys, who were often shy.

(Borrowed from Fazier et al 2000: 42)

The sun is shining. Ann is wearing shorts and a T-shirt. She is climbing a tree.

I first read this aloud and instructed the students to repeat after me. After the choral drill, I then had each boy read the dialog individually. Following this, there was an exercise in the textbook with a question, “What is Ann wearing?”(ibid). After pointing to the textbook, both boys read the answer “Ann is wearing shorts and a T-shirt”(ibid). The students were then assigned a pair task, in which one student was to ask the question and the other student was to answer. I had the boys do this several times and even switch roles while looking at the textbook. At the end of the lesson, I had the students do the dialog without using the textbook. Although the communication in this lesson was at a

trivial level, I found this method to be a good way to combat shyness in the classroom and get the students ready for more difficult lessons. Allwright writes “materials may contribute in some way, but they cannot determine goals” (1982:7). Textbooks can help me as a teacher but I need to have “the interpersonal skills to make classrooms good places to learn in” (ibid:6). By initiating questions that follow model examples, I was able to increase participation. Brown writes that the teacher needs to “create an atmosphere in the classroom that encourages students to try out language” (2001:63) and modeling examples followed by pair dialogue gives the students more confidence to take risk. Moreover, this relates to the point listed in the second column and second row of **Table 2**, when students are shy and hesitate to speak. In the students’ expectations column of the same row, it mentions of students not taking risks unless they feel familiar with the material. The increase of risk taking after gaining familiarity is exemplified from the example presented above. As a teacher from a weak UA society, I expected the students to take risks but the students did not take risks until they knew the material.

2.2 Familiar concepts and teaching encouragement

When students have difficulty relating to the material, the teacher can be the encouraging force to students who are afraid of something new. **Table 1** lists that students from a strong UA society tend to view things that are different as **dangerous**. A Westerner in Japan may ask “Why are people learning English?” if learning something different is considered dangerous. Richards and Rogers write that “the purpose may be academic, vocational, social, or recreational” (2001:208) and that students learn successfully when “they use the language as a means of acquiring information” (ibid:207). At the Maizuru National College of Technology (MNCT) where I currently teach, students are required to study English. One of the courses that I teach, uses the book, **Basic English for Computing**, which has the goal “to develop students’ language skills in the context of computing and information”(Glendinning and McEwan 2003:1) in English; the book takes a “broadly communicative approach” (ibid 2004:4). Because of the strong level of UA, I found myself struggling to get the students to participate. Edwards and Shortall mention that a textbook “design often implies that the group will learn together as a cohesive unit” (2000:52). Learners from collectivist societies, like Japan, prefer to learn

cohesively with a guided structure, which textbooks are used to contribute to. In terms of the technical questions about computers, the students were able to answer them quickly because the students already had familiar knowledge of computers. However, the students had difficulty with various activities when assigned open discussion tasks, a challenge for a strong UA audience. This correlates to what is mentioned in **Table 2** about students not being comfortable with new tasks and students even greeting new tasks with anxiety. In order to have the students feel more comfortable with learning new tasks, I have used the grammar translation method mixed with new material (please refer to section **2.2.1**) in order to adjust to a strong UA audience. By relating familiar topics to the students, in this case, computers, along with encouragement I was able to increase participation.

2.2.1 Old methods and new material

Students from a strong UA society view new methods with anxiety and they are most likely not going to greet new tasks or methods with enthusiasm. Although it is considered old fashioned, I used the Grammar Translation method in order to make the students feel more comfortable before using other methods. Kelly writes that one characteristic of this method is “devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language” (cited in Richards and Rogers 2001:6). In the **Basic English for Computing** course mentioned in **2.2**, I used readings from Beth Rothke’s book(2004) about computer security (please see an example from Appendix 1), which has collections of articles in English about computers with a Japanese translation on the facing side. First, I read out a sentence from the article and then everyone repeated it chorally. Then, I wrote some vocabulary from the reading on the board and the students matched the meaning of the vocabulary from the Japanese translation. Finally, I called on students and I got them to participate in discussions. In Japan, “Grammar-Translation has traditionally been the favored method in high schools”(Edwards and Shortall 2000:56). When teaching younger children, I have used a point system that is used in Japanese elementary schools. The students’ names are on the board and when the students get the correct answers they are rewarded with points. I often showed pictures and the pupils called out the correct answers to get rewarded with points. This relates to point four from **Table 1**, which lists that students from a strong UA

society are more concerned with learning the right answers. It also connects to what Hofstede mentions to how students from strong UA societies “liked situations in which there was one correct answer that they could find” (2005:178). From using old methods, I was able to teach new material, encourage risk taking and gradually introduce communicative tasks.

2.3 Real life situations and risk taking

Discussing life like situations is a challenge for the teacher-student relationship with a strong UA audience. I have found students in Japan to feel ill at ease when relating to real life situations that they are not familiar with. As a Westerner, I tend to feel more comfortable with free conversation activities than my Japanese students while learners from collectivist societies prefer to learn cohesively. O’Neill writes about an English Teacher at a shipyard in Germany who refused to use a textbook because it lacked creativity in the lesson (1982:105); however, when I taught at the Zosen Universal shipyard in Maizuru, Japan, I was required by my supervisor to use a specific textbook in order to maintain a guided structure. O’Neill encourages the use of textbooks for groups when he mentions that “textbooks made it possible for the group to look ahead at what they were going to do”(ibid). I found the students from the shipyard to be extrinsically motivated because there was “anticipation of a reward from outside”(Brown 2000:164) the classroom, like using English with their clients. Moreover during the lessons, the students seemed enthused about participating in the group activities because some of the tasks were customer service based similar to what they have experienced and they were able to talk about the material comfortably. This relates to **Table 2** in column four, row four, where it is written that students are more willing to discuss situations that they have experience with. Hofstede writes that students from strong UA societies “favored structured learning situations” (2005:178). At a private school I worked at, I had some complaints from students in classes that did not use textbooks. They complained of not having enough to talk about or that I chose subjects that were uncomfortable for them. Because I did not have a textbook with those students I was not able to come up with structured lessons or familiar situations to combat the strong level of UA.

2.4 Security seeking students and student-student relationships

Students often choose items during the lesson as they fight uncertainty and protect their security in the classroom when the teacher attempts different methods. I have tried aspects from the Natural approach to conform to “the principles of naturalistic language learning in young children”(Richards and Rodgers 2001:179). Krashen and Terrell suggest some of the goals in the Natural Approach would be learning about real life situations such as listening to public announcements or even listening to a lecture (ibid: 184). With junior high school students, I have used the **Get Together** textbook with natural life like situations such as listening to a news broadcast. The book helps “students learn how formal language works in social contexts” (Donnini and Weigel 2002:vii) and the life like stories encourage the students to talk about what they hear. The stories might catch an interest of some junior high school students but I think that the presentation of the textbook plays more of an important role in Japan than Westerners realize. Students “pay a great deal of attention to the artwork in texts” (Valle 1995:113) and illustrations in classroom books “primarily from Japan” (ibid). Brown comments that when using the natural approach the teacher is to “be reminded that sometimes we insist that students speak much too soon, thereby raising anxiety” (Brown 2000:108) and that using this method could cause nervousness. To reduce the anxiety, I asked the students to talk about the pictures in the book first and then proceed to the real life situation. Among some students, I think they may like the book because of its illustrations mixed with its use of natural situations. Because the students seemed concerned with peer relations, I tried to improve their self-esteem by “avoiding embarrassment of students at all costs”(Brown 2001:92). After asking students to talk about the pictures in the book, I was able to get direct answers from them and then I asked the students to talk amongst themselves about the material so this helped assist student-student interaction. Hofstede writes that strong uncertainty avoidance students are “security seeking” (1986:308) and therefore students in Japan are willing to participate in interactive activities that guarantee security and help develop good relations with their peers.

3.1 Constraints and interaction in the classroom

Constraints in the classroom with a strong UA audience might be caused by how students view the purpose of the lesson. Although the Audiolingual method (ALM) method has materials “that come from realia rather than textbooks” (Brown 2001:35), I have used textbooks with audiolingual concepts. For example, I have used the textbook, **Gear Up**, at two separate public institutions, Maizuru National College of Technology (MNCT) and The Japan Coast Guard Academy (JCGA), with students of the same age. In terms of doing the choral drills, substitution drills and set dialogs, it was not difficult to get the students to participate. I found the students in these activities to show an intrinsic motive because there was no “apparent reward except the activity itself” (Brown 2000:164). The challenges came later on in the lesson.

Here is part of a dialog from the textbook that I used at both schools:
(from Gershon and Mares 2005:8)

Tim: Do you keep in touch with any of your old school friends?

Anna: Just one, Megan. She’s still my best friend.

I used several ALM characteristics such as repetitive drills with a Japanese audience because “pattern drilling is likely to be more acceptable in cultures where collectivism is valued”(Edwards and Shortall 2000:90). The students were then assigned into pairs to repeat the same dialog they saw in their textbooks. Ellis writes that learners who already know “how to perform a structure are more likely to try”(1988:33) but “learners who are uncertain are more likely to hold back”(ibid). I felt that with constant drilling that the students would gain familiarity with structures. I noticed at both public institutions that there were few problems with participation in group drilling; however, I noticed that the students had difficulty in creating their own conversations when the students were required to discuss about their own school friends. Miura describes such activities as a self-express activity in which students can have a “conversation on topics related to themselves” (cited in Edwards and Shortall 2000:57). Richards and Lockhart write about a Japanese EFL teacher who mentions of students frowning upon open ended communication activities and that the students felt that the teacher did not have much

planned for the lesson and that the teacher is “just filling in time”(1996: 108). A language lesson classroom is used for two purposes: “it serves both as the subject matter of the lesson, and as the medium of instruction” (Willis 1987:1). If the classroom is used for these purposes, then students from a strong UA society will turn to the teacher “because students from strong avoidance countries expect their teachers to be experts who know all the answers” (Hofstede 2005:179). Constraints in a strong UA classroom stand a better chance of being reduced if the teacher guides the students with controlled activities.

3.2 Effective Learning– relating to student-student interaction

In order for a teacher to effectively relate to the student, the teacher needs to be aware of the ability of the students and the environment that they have grown up in. A common problem that I have in Japan is developing an understanding of the students’ cognitive abilities and that they “are rooted in the total pattern of a society” (Hofstede 1986:305). I find it useful as an ESL instructor in Japan to realize that “school and society are homogenized” (Christopher 1983:83) and that Japanese teachers in public schools constantly reinforce “the overriding importance of the individual’s responsibility to the group”(ibid). However, by “encouraging learners to become active explorers of language” (Nunan 1999:137), students can possibly relate to each other better. As long as the Western instructor knows that the Japanese student does not want to be embarrassed in front of his peers and that students in Japan come from a society that has “retained considerable collectivism in spite of industrialization” (Hofstede 2005:110), then the instructor can be more effective if the students are encouraged to take risks and that the rewards are worth the risks. Initially, I perceived non-verbal interaction as introversion but as Brown notes, in Japan, this introversion may simply be a reflection of “respect and politeness” (2000:156). The students may not only be trying to respect the teacher but they may also be trying to respect each other. My awareness of students trying to avoid rudeness helps me reconsider how to plan my lesson so that students can have a good relationship towards each other.

3.3 Teacher-learner strategies and the clash between two cultures

Both the teacher and student come from different cultures with different values. Western instructors working in Japan come from a weak UA culture and people who are raised in such a culture generally believe that new things arouse curiosity while Japanese students coming from a strong UA culture tend to view new things as dangerous(Hofstede 2005: 176). If an instructor notices that the students in the classroom view new information as dangerous than the teacher needs to be even more friendly and more relaxed than in the west to “break the ice” in this culture clash. A language teacher can easily notice and correct errors but the instructor needs to give effective praise in making sure that the learner will learn effectively. Although “some errors are due to the influence of the first language”(Mitchell and Myes 2001:18), building the bridge between the Western world and Japan is what will get the students to perform better. In various classes at public schools where I have worked, giving short articles about weather reports was an encouraging way to begin the lesson; moreover, I have also given short pieces of information about life in North America even though the stories were separate from the set curriculum and the students showed an interest in what they were reading. Learning English should not simply be drills and practicing conversation. It should also be a chance for student to “familiarize the students with the target language culture” (Brown 2001:81). By introducing students to my culture, I was able to improve teacher-student interaction.

3.4 Research, students’ attitudes and interaction

Research is often used to analyze both teacher-student and student-student interaction. McDonough mentions that “there are many questions about language learning and teaching that can only be answered by investigations” (McDonough 1997: 40). Research about the attitudes of language learners in the United States and Japan shows in terms of knowledge acquisition that “the U.S. students ranking group processes highest and the Japanese ranking passive approaches at the high end of the scale” (Kelly et al2001:124). The high scale of passive approach may be a reflection of the level of UA in Japan. I did some research by conducting a survey, borrowed directly from Brown (2000:136) among forty-one students from the Japan Coast Guard Academy (refer to Appendix 2). The survey asks the students to indicate their beliefs about learning. The students were given

a Japanese translation of the questionnaire (refer to Appendix 3). **Table 3** below shows the results of how students marked their views on specific questions.

Table 3: Results from forty one students surveyed

Point # in the survey	A or B	C	D or E
#1	22	9	10
#3	9	7	25
#5	23	11	7
#7	12	16	13
#10	28	8	5

Although a majority of the students claimed that they find ways to continue learning language outside of the classroom by marking A or B in point ten, an overwhelming majority of the students marked D or E in point three, strongly stating that they feel quite uncertain about their abilities. This could be a reflection of the strong level of uncertainty avoidance but at the same time the students show a strong desire to learn. I also believe that the results from point ten are related to how Kelly discusses about research that showed how students from both the USA and Japan “chose active learning methods for developing interpersonal skills” (Kelly 2001:124). The results in point five show the students’ learning preferences. Twenty three, a solid majority of the students, favored group learning. This seems to be a reflection of the collectivism in Japanese society and relating to the group as an issue of serious concern for student-student interaction in the classroom. In point one, twenty two students marked that they don’t mind being laughed at when they speak so this may relate to Brown’s advice that a good teacher-student connection is to laugh with the students and not laugh at them(2001:203). Twelve of the students in point seven, strongly felt that in order to master a language they need to take things “one step at a time”(Brown 2000:136), while thirteen expressed that they were annoyed by an abundance of material and sixteen showed indifference by marking the

letter, C. A possible way to enhance teacher-student interaction would be to cautiously introduce material gradually to relate to the level of UA.

Conclusion

In this assignment, I have explained what uncertainty avoidance (UA) is and compared the levels of weak and strong UA. I have also listed various issues ranging from shyness in the classroom, learning new things, having difficulty relating to material to discussing real-life situations and how it relates to this dimension in **Table 2**. The sections following the table expand on these issues and relate to the methodologies that I adopted. The struggle of two societies in the classroom has been exemplified as to how I used different teaching methods such as Grammar Translation, Audiolingualism and the Natural Approach to find a comfortable mode for the students. In section three of this assignment I discussed student-student and teacher-student interaction. I have also researched my own students in order to understand my learner's beliefs as discussed in section **3.4**. By knowing the differences between my students' collectivist society and my own individualist society while understanding what risks students are willing to take, I can employ a stronger more effective methodology in the Japanese ESL classroom. Despite the attempts that I have made in trying to adjust to the dimension of UA, it still is "no exaggeration to say that language teaching methods do not exist" (Long 2001:180) and that I am constantly finding out new ways to approach this dimension. Although I feel that I have been able to tackle the issue of UA, I feel that I am reluctant to accept the concept that "for every complicated problem there is an answer that is short simple and wrong" (Mencken cited in Brown 2001:72). Despite the fact that Japan is consistently a collectivist society, it has recently "experienced a shift towards individualism" (Hofstede 2005:114) and that in years to come that the levels of UA may possibly change. I am still struggling as a teacher to relate to my students but by understanding the dimension of UA I can improve my teaching performance in Japan.

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Appendix 1

7

☒ Assume e-mail is safe

☒ Know the risks associated with e-mail

The best way to learn how to deal with e-mail attachments is to watch the bomb squad. While most suspicious bombs turn out to be duds; the potential that they are real requires that they be treated with the utmost caution.

E-mail, to a degree, is no different. While most e-mail is not hazardous to your corporate health; there are sufficient potential dangers to be aware of in its handling.

Years ago, e-mail was simply text messages and nothing more. Now, e-mail software is quite advanced, and with those advancements comes security risks. It used to be that floppy disks were the primary source of virus infestations. Now its e-mail attachments that are the main mechanism used in the spread of viruses.

It's important to know how to safely deal with e-mail attachments to prevent viruses. Executable attachments, those with an ".exe" file extension, are a quick way for viruses to penetrate an internal corporate network, with significant and costly side effects.

When it comes to opening e-mail attachments, don't do it unless you know they're from a known and reputable party. Even then, given that many e-mail viruses use the address book to propagate themselves, they may often come from someone you know who has you in their e-mail address book. If you did not expect an e-mail or an attachment from this person, don't open it, as this may loose a virus onto your hard drive that can do serious damage to your files and end up on the computers of colleagues. So don't assume that because it seems to come from someone you know, this person actually sent it intentionally.

Furthermore, protecting against malicious attachments requires that you keep your anti-virus software up-to-date. Typically, your internal IT staff will make sure the anti-virus

講座

7

☒ Eメールは安全だと決め込む

☒ Eメールに関するリスクを理解する

Eメールの取り扱いを学ぶ最良の方法は、爆弾処理班を観察することである。多くの爆弾は二セ物である。しかし本物であるという可能性もあるため、最大限の注意を払って取り扱うことが求められる。

Eメールに関してもある程度同じことが言える。多くのEメールは企業の健全性に害をもたらすものではないのだが、その取り扱いには十分な危険が潜んでいる。

何年も前には、Eメールはただのテキストメッセージで、それ以上のものではなかった。現在のEメールソフトは格段に進歩しており、その進歩にともなってセキュリティ上のリスクがもたらされる。昔はウイルスの侵入の主な原因はフロッピーディスクであった。現在は、主にEメールの添付ファイルがウイルスの拡散に使われる。

Eメール添付ファイルの安全な取り扱い方を知り、ウイルスを防ぐことが重要である。「.exe」というファイル拡張子が付いた添付ファイルは、ウイルスを企業内ネットワークに侵入させる最短の方法で、重大で犠牲の大きい副作用をもたらす。

Eメールの添付ファイルは、すでに知っていて信頼のおける相手からであることが分かるまでは開かないこと。その場合でも、多くのウイルスがEメールアドレス帳を利用して増殖することを考えると、アドレス帳にあなたを登録している知人からきたという可能性もある。もしその人物からメールやファイルがくることを予期していない場合は開かない。あなたのファイルに重大なダメージを与えるかもしれないウイルスがハードドライブに入り込み、最終的には同僚たちのコンピュータにも入り込むことになる。よって、知人から送られてきたからといって、あなたに意図してメールを送ったのだと推測しないことだ。

さらに、悪質な添付ファイルから身を守るためには、アンチウイルス・ソフトをアップデートしておくことが求められる。通常は、内部のIT部門のスタッフが、ソフトが最新のものであるかどうかを確認してくれるだろう。しかし、定期的にチェックしておくのは良いことである。

Scanned item : Borrowed from Rothke (2004:38). The above item is mentioned in section 2.2.1.

Appendix 2/ Scanned item: Borrowed from Brown (2000: 136).

Figure 5.2. Check one box in each item that best describes you. Boxes A and E would indicate that the sentence is very much like you. Boxes B and D would indicate that the sentence is somewhat descriptive of you. Box C would indicate that you have no inclination one way or another.

	A	B	C	D	E	
1. I don't mind if people laugh at me when I speak.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I get embarrassed if people laugh at me when I speak.
2. I like to try out new words and structures that I'm not completely sure of.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I like to use only language that I am certain is correct.
3. I feel very confident in my ability to succeed in learning this language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I feel quite uncertain about my ability to succeed in learning this language.
4. I want to learn this language because of what I can personally gain from it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I am learning this language only because someone else is requiring it.
5. I really enjoy working with other people in groups.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I would much rather work alone than with other people.
6. I like to "absorb" language and get the general "gist" of what is said or written.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I like to analyze the many details of language and understand exactly what is said or written.
7. If there is an abundance of language to master, I just try to take things one step at a time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I am very annoyed by an abundance of language material presented all at once.
8. I am not overly conscious of myself when I speak.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I "monitor" myself very closely and consciously when I speak.
9. When I make mistakes, I try to use them to learn something about the language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	When I make a mistake, it annoys me because that's a symbol of how poor my performance is.
10. I find ways to continue learning language outside of the classroom.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	I look to the teacher and the classroom activities for everything I need to be successful.

Table
Teac

1.
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3

Appendix 3: Translation of survey in Appendix 2.

10/27 授業時に提出して下さい。提出するのは英語版のみです。

アンケート記入方法

必ず英語の方に回答を記入すること！！

例)

- 1 英語を話すとき人に 英語を話すとき人に笑われたら
笑われても気にならない。 A B C D E 恥ずかしい。
” 気にならない “程度を A から E の 5 レベルで自己判断して□に○を入れてください。
E へ行くほど” 恥ずかしい “ということになります。2 以下も同様です。
- 2 よくわからない単語でも A B C D E 合っている自信のある言葉でな
新しい言葉は努めて使ってみたい。 いと使いたくない。
(表現)
- 3 英語を習う上で自分の能力に 自信を持っている (できると信じている) この先英語を習っていくのに
能力的に不安。
- 4 英語は学習していきたい、なぜなら 英語は学習する、なぜなら、
個人的に得るものがあるから。 やれと言われているから。
- 5 グループ活動を通して学ぶのが好きだ。 他人とやるより一人で学習したい
- 6 英語を見聞きして、そのまま英語で 見聞きした英語は逐一分析して
大体の概念をつかむのが好き。 理解していくのが好き。
- 7 言語習得のために学習事項がたくさん あるとしても、私はスモールステップを 一度にたくさん学習事項を
踏んでやっていく。 出されたら閉口してしまい、
いらつく。
- 8 英語を話す時、過度に自分を意識しない。 英語を話すときは常に自分を自
分でモニターしてしまうほど意
識している。
- 9 間違いをしても、そこから学べると思う。 間違いをするのはとても不快、
いかに自分の実力がないかを示
しているから。
- 10 授業以外でも英語を学習する機会を 英語ができるようになるには、
見つけようとする。 授業でやっている活動で全て事
足りると期待している。
授業時間のみ

