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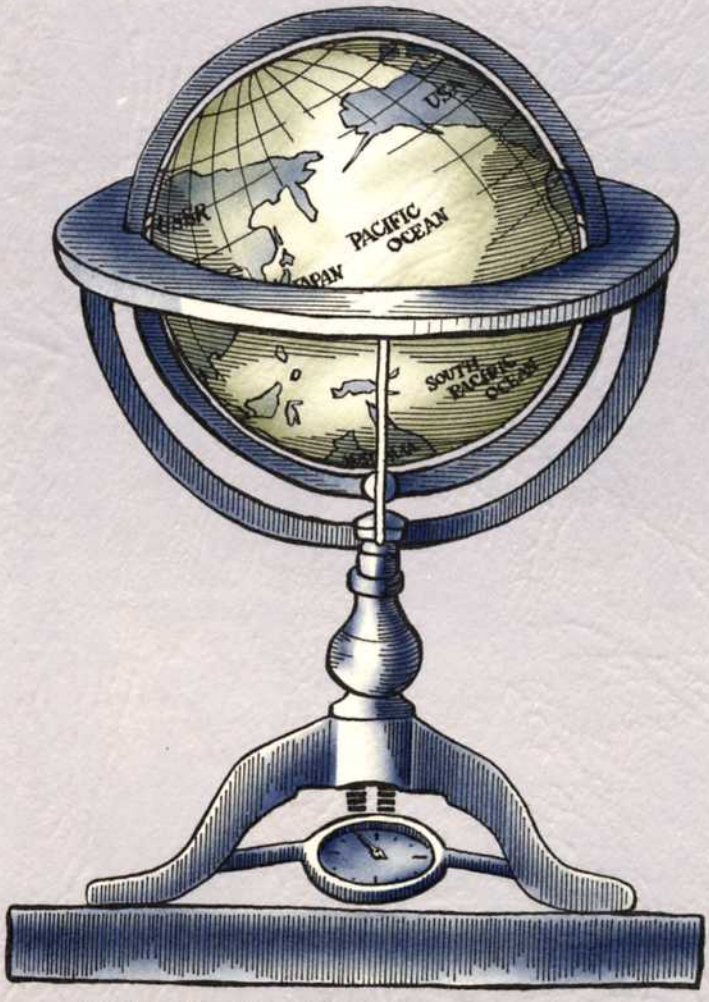

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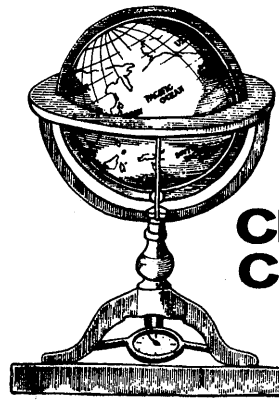

CROSS CURRENTS

Communication/Language/ Cross-cultural Skills
Vol. VI, No. 1, 1979

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a biannual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan, in an effort to contribute to an inter-disciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are interested in articles covering a wide range of concerns, including these specific areas: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Foreign Language, 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan, and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these same areas.

Although a large proportion of our articles deal with Japan and Japanese students, we are also concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture specific. While articles demonstrating solid and thoughful research are greatly appreciated, always kept in mind is the necessity for readability and practicality for our readers, the classroom teachers. We make every effort to balance abstract and theoretical articles with articles directly applicable to the classroom.

All articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double spaced, and in duplicate, with references placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited and page number. Footnotes on substantive matters should appear at the bottom of the page on which the footnote occurs. Please include 1) a paragraph precis of the article, 2) a short biographical sketch and 3) a bibliography which should conform to the M.L.A. Style Sheet. Manuscripts should be from 5–20 pages in length. Authors of articles accepted for publication will receive 20 reprints.

Please direct all correspondence to:

General Editor
Cross Currents
Language Institute of Japan
4-14-1 Shiroyama
Odawara, 250, Japan

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Summaries of the Articles

The Role of Redundancy, Function, and Paraphrase in Listening Comprehension

Michael Rost

聴取理解力を高める為の反復説明、修辞的機能、釈義等の役割

本稿は、聴取理解力を向上させる教授法について論じています。本論で開陳される教授法というのは、主に3項目の原則から成っています。第1の原則は、聴取していることを（自分の言葉で）言い換えることを学ばねばならないということです。即ち会話能力は、聴取能力と平行して開発されねばならないということです。第2の原則は、聴取している様々な事柄についての修辞上の機能、即ち話し手が何を言いたいのか、その意図を明らかにすることを学ばねばなりません。話し手の喋る事柄夫々についてその意図を明らかにすることにより、話を全体として正しく理解する基盤を得ます。第3の原則は、聴取能力開発の為の教材は、第1の原則即ち会話能力と聴取能力とを平行して高めるという原則に適うよう段階的に類別しなくてはなりません。

Case Study: An Exercise in Effective Communication

James B. Brown

事例研究：効果的な意思伝達の為の演習

外国語としての英語教育に於て、「私達はお互いに意思疎通をはかっついる」という肝腎な要素が、カリキュラムからどうも除外され勝ちです。本稿では、「教室英語」と実際の意思伝達活動との懸隔を埋める手順としての事例研究について論じ、その具体例を提示し、逐一分析検討を行なっています。次にグループ活動としての事例が、話題、教材の選択、教師及び学生の役割、最終的な到達目標等の要素について論究されています。

本稿は、実際的な教育目標としての効果的な意思伝達の方途を明示すると同時に、読者に事例研究という方法についての理解を促すことを意図しています。

Communication and Values in the Classroom

Lewis Davis, David Keitges

授業に於ける意思伝達と価値観—言語学習に於ける個人相互間での意思伝達促進に価値観理論を応用することについて

本稿は、価値判断の手法とその過程を、外国語を教えたり、学んだりする際、如何に応用するかを論じたものです。

又、個人相互間での意思伝達を容易ならしめる方法についても、種々の言語活動を導入、奨励することに関連があるので、併せ論じられています。特に聞く、読む、書く練習の延長として、価値観について話がなされるべくその進め方が示してあります。

Japanese English Education: A Rationale for C-L/CLL Research

Keiko Komiya

日本の英語教育：カウンセリング／コミュニティー・ランゲージ・ラーニング調査法の論理的根拠

本論の資料は、日本に於ける英語教育に関し、筆者の観察したこと及び筆者自身の実際的な経験等から得られたものです。

本稿は、日本の英語教育の主たる特色を4項目明示し、日本人が英語を学ぶにあたって当面する問題を幾つか論じています。

又、チャールス・A・カラン博士の案出になるカウンセリング・ラーニング／コミュニティ・ランゲージ・ラーニング・モデルの有用な点について論及しています。

Teaching: What We Assume and What We Do

Donald Freeman

教育：当然視していることと実際に行なっていること

教師として筆者は、教師自身が実際に仕事の中で行なっていることや、語学教育、語学学習について教師自身が当然のことと思っていることが、仕事の中にどう表われているか（矛盾する事、しない事を含めて）等を批判的に考えてみることは滅多にないと指摘しています。本稿では、外国語を学ぶ際の教師自らの経験を綿密に考察することにより、教師自身が一般的に学ぶということについて、どんな考え、当然視している事を持っているかを知ることができると筆者は論じています。教師自身が当然視していることが分ってから、それが教えるということに対してどんな意味を持っているかを考えることができます。

以上の様な検討を進めることで、教師は自らの場合について、当然視していることや教室で行なっている事とそれがどう関連しているかを反省する際に使える一つの方式を得ることができます。

Ten Things I Have Learned About Learning a Foreign Language

Richard Showstack

外国語学習に関する私見10条

語学専門誌に掲載されている記事は、事実上全部語学教師の手になるものか、或いは語学教師の為に書かれたものであり、残念ながら、語学学習者自身の手になるものとか、語学学習者の為に書かれたという記事は、今迄殆どありません。

本稿では、筆者の15年以上に亘る外国語教授及び外国語学習の経験に基づき、外国語学習について筆者自身が学んだ事を、語学学習者の立場から書き、10項目に亘る提案を行っています。

Why "Bread and Butter"?

Ikiko Horiguchi

なぜ「ブレッドアンドバター」？

「英語ではどうして『バターアンドブレッド』と言わないで、『ブレッドアンドバター』と言うのだろう？」これは、英語を母国語としない人達が、外国語としての英語を学ぶ過程で当面する種々の疑問や問題となることの一つで、こうした一対の言葉の組合わせ順序については、困惑してしまいます。

本稿で筆者は、表題にあるような一対の言葉が出来る際に左右すると思われる一定の原則について論究し、音表象、感情移入の程度、意味上の考慮等の原則について検討をしています。

Basic Requirements for In-service Programs in Japanese Industry

Kohei Takubo

日本の企業内語学教育に関する基本的必要条件

日本の企業に於ける社内語学教育計画を立案するにあたっては、日本の企業に特有な事情に、特に留意しなくてはなりません。

カリキュラムは、実際的な教材を用いて、企業の業務遂行上必要な事柄を満たすべきです。初級コースでは、外国の習慣や商慣習に重点が置かれるべきであり、上級コースでは、日本文化や日本の商慣習をカリキュラムに取入れるべきです。

国内外から良い教師を募り、外国人教師の場合、専門知識に加えて、他国での教師としての経験や、日本文化及び日本人への関心度等を考慮して採用を決めるべきです。

本稿で筆者は、日本の企業環境に特有な問題点を強調し、効果的な企業内語学教育計画の立案の仕方を論じています。

Book Reviews

Modern English Letter Writing: A Guide for Japanese Businessmen. Thelma Margolis. Tokyo: NEC Books Ltd., Nichiden-Bekkan Bld. 31-25, 2-chome, Shiba, Minato-ku, 108, 1979.

「現代英文手紙の書き方：日本のビジネスマンの為の指針」

セルマ・マーゴリス氏の近著「現代英文手紙の書きかた」は、明確で効果的な商業文を書かなければいけない日本のビジネスマンにとって、貴重な教科書であるといえます。

本書は、日本語の註釈便覧が付いていて、教室でのテキストとしても、或いは自宅学習の独習用としても使えるよう工夫されています。著者は、日本人が犯し易い一般的な言語上の誤りに留意して、商業通信文の形式と内容について、基準を示しています。さらに本書では、まずい手紙の見本を示し、読者が自分で添削し、手紙書きの実習ができるよう配慮されています。この自分で添削訂正することに重点を置いてあるのは、この本の特色であります。本書は、手紙の形式文でなく英語の文法と用法を含めて説いています。

Beyond Experience: The Experiential Approach to Cross Cultural Education. Donald Batchelder and Elizabeth G. Warner (eds.). Brattleboro: The Experiment Press, Brattleboro, Vermont, 05301, 1977.

書評「経験を超えて異文化交流教育への試み」

イクスペリメント・イン・インターナショナル・リヴィング（日本では、日本国際生活体験協会と呼称している。）が出版した「経験を超えて」は、50有余年に亘る経験を凝縮して示しています。本書は、教育の仕方を扱い、実際に教育に携わってきたイクスペリメントのスタッフが書いたものです。本書は、三部から成っていて、理論、演習、評価に分れています。演習は、教室に於ける模擬演習から、実際場面での言葉の学習、文化についての観察の手法迄を網羅しています。評価の領域では、自己診断評価が強調してあります。本書は、異文化を体験することは、異文化交流・相互理解の過程で一歩を踏み出したに過ぎないことを明らかにしている、含蓄のある表題を与えられていると言えます。

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

As many of our readers know, *Cross Currents* has always attempted to provide an interdisciplinary forum for many aspects of language learning/teaching, cross-cultural communication, and other topics of general interest. A look at our contributors this issue shows that while they come from a variety of disciplines and backgrounds, most have in common extensive teaching and overseas experience.

The first three articles in this issue are of a practical nature and are directly applicable to the classroom. "The Role of Redundancy, Function and Paraphrase in Listening Comprehension," by Michael Rost, presents an approach to teaching listening comprehension based on three main foundations. First, listeners must learn to paraphrase what they hear; speaking (encoding) and hearing (decoding) skills must develop together. The second foundation is that students must learn to identify the rhetorical function of all listening segments. The third foundation is that listening materials must be graded in a way that relates to the encoding-decoding process. A redundancy grading system can accomplish this end.

James Brown presents case study as a procedure which narrows the gap between "classroom English" and actual communicative activity. A concrete case is presented and a step-by-step analysis given. The article is meant to provide the reader with a thorough understanding of case study as well as to clarify the notion of effective communication as a realizable pedagogic goal.

Lewis Davis and David Keitges write about the application of values clarification techniques and procedures to second language teaching and learning. Dimensions of interpersonal communication facilitation and procedures of implementing values-related conversation activities as extensions of listening, reading and writing exercises are presented.

The material for "Japanese English Education: A Rationale for Counseling-Learning/Community Language Learning Research" is based on Keiko Komiya's observations and personal experiences concerning English education in Japan. She identifies four main characteristics of Japanese English education and discusses some of the basic difficulties for students learning English. She also offers

some helpful insights from the C-L/CLL model developed by Charles Curran.

The next two articles are the products of reflection and critical examination of the needs of the language learner. Donald Freeman, in "Teaching: What We Assume and What We Do," argues that by closely examining our experiences learning another language we can recognize what we assume about learning on a broader level. By being aware of our assumptions, we can then consider what they imply for our own teaching.

Most articles in language journals are written by or for language teachers, not language learners. In "Ten Things I Have Learned About Learning a Foreign Language," Richard Showstack shares his experiences from the point of view of a language learner and offers important insights for language teachers.

Non-native speakers often show bewilderment regarding the order in which word pairs occur. Ikiko Horiguchi investigates certain principles that seem to govern the creation of such word pairs. These principles include sound symbolism, degree of empathy, and semantic consideration.

Kohei Takubo, in his article "Basic Requirements for In-service Language Programs in Japanese Industry," describes the process of building effective in-service language programs with particular emphasis on problems peculiar to the Japanese business environment.

Both David Keitges and Kohei Takubo originally presented their articles at the highly successful "Language Teaching in Japan – 1978" conference sponsored last fall by the Japan Association of Language Teachers and the College Women's Association of Japan. James Brown's article was adapted from a workshop which he also presented there.

Our last issue marked the beginning of a book review section. In this issue, we are pleased to publish two original reviews by Trini Yates-Knepp and Irwin Abrams. *Modern English Letter Writing*, by Thelma Margolis, is an invaluable text for Japanese businessmen who must write clear and effective business correspondence and is intended for use in the classroom or for self-study. Margolis offers criteria for the appearance and content of business letters and provides writing practice, using models of poorly written letters for

student correction. This strong focus on student correction distinguishes this book from others. *Beyond Experience: The Experiential Approach to Cross-Cultural Education,* edited by Don Batchelder and Elizabeth Warner, represents a distillation of experiences over almost fifty years. It is concerned with educational methods and was written by the staff members of the Experiment in International Living. There are three sections, covering theory, exercises, and assessment. The exercises range from simulations in the classroom to techniques for learning languages and making cultural observations in the field. In the area of assessment, self evaluation is stressed. The title is well chosen, as the book clearly shows that experiencing another culture is only one step in the process of cross-cultural learning.

We hope there is something for everyone in this issue. In an effort to facilitate open discussion of ideas, experiences and professional concerns and create more of a dialogue between our readers and contributors, *Cross Currents* will begin to publish critical comments and opinions of articles and reviews as space permits. These should be no more than five pages, typed, double spaced. We welcome your contributions. Please submit to Howard Gutow, General Editor.

Cross Currents

The Role of Redundancy, Function, and Paraphrase in Listening Comprehension

Michael Rost *

Developing aural comprehension skills in a second language can be facilitated through the use of taped material if the material is properly sequenced and if the instructor and student expectations about what to do with the material are clearly and realistically aligned. By the same token, the development of aural comprehension skills may be impeded if the taped materials are presented in a random fashion and if the behavioral expectations are unclear and unrealistic. It is the purpose of this article to propose a model for grading listening material as well as to suggest a set of expectations for the teacher and student who are dealing with taped material.

The benefits of using taped materials in the language classroom are obvious: (1) students are generally attentive while a tape is being played; (2) a tape can be replayed easily; (3) a third party is created so that the instructor can act as a mediator rather than the language source; (4) students are able to sample "real world" language; (5) a source of controlled speaking and writing activity is presented. These same benefits can easily blind the instructor to the fact that listening skills are built systematically rather than

*Michael Rost is currently teaching at Athénée Français in Tokyo. Previously he has taught in the U.S. and in West Africa. He is co-author of *Listening in the Real World: Clues to English Conversation* and is currently working on other forthcoming listening materials.

randomly; that inundation and development are scarcely the same thing; that not just any tape will do. It might be best to examine what we are trying to accomplish through the use of tapes before we play another one and expect students to benefit from it.

Measurement of Aural Comprehension

This paper proposes three foundations upon which a classroom approach to taped material might be based. The first foundation concerns the definition of aural comprehension and how to measure it:

> **Aural comprehension takes place when the student is able to produce something new using the oral input.**

In our own language, when we understand what someone says, we generally demonstrate our comprehension by continuing the interaction in a "new" way. As such, continuing an interaction is a clear sign of comprehension: the interaction cannot continue for long unless all parties are using the other speakers' oral input.

There are other ways of knowing about another person's comprehension that are particularly useful for evaluating second language comprehension. One way is "physical response" as outlined by Asher (1974) in which the listener manipulates objects, draws pictures, makes gestures, and so on to demonstrate that he has "followed" what was said. This method is particularly effective for testing directives and various kinds of description. Another method is a written check as encouraged by Morley (1972). Listeners perform calculations and transfer data to appropriate places in their "test book." This is effective for judging problem-solving types of listening tasks and tasks which require attention to details.

A widely used method for testing comprehension is having the students make choices (True-False or multiple choice) or answer "objective" questions. While this method is often convenient for grading, as a way of showing aural comprehension it has definite drawbacks. Especially if the questions or choices are written, a choice question often masks what is being tested: listening memory or test-wiseness. And even if the tests are carefully designed in order

to test listening memory, memory of facts is only one component of listening comprehension.

Another widely used method for checking listening progress is repetition, requiring a written or spoken reproduction of what was said. Dictation and oral reproduction do play an important part in developing hearing faculties (discrimination of phonemes and assimilation boundaries, recognition of grammatical forms and lexical items, etc.), but in themselves are not tests of comprehension in the sense suggested here: producing something *new* using the oral input.

There is another method of checking aural comprehension which is more reliable than interaction, more valid than making choices or written checks, and more practical than physical responses. This method is what might be called the "paraphrase method." In this procedure, the listener is required to paraphrase whatever he hears, that is, segments of at least fifteen or twenty seconds. For example, the student hears (without a script):

> Only two kinds of envelopes are sold at most bookstores. These two kinds are: the white rectangular envelopes that are used for business letters or personal letters and the brown or manilla colored envelopes that are used for sending reports or booklets . . . .

If the student says, as a paraphrase for this segment:

(a) This part of the tape was about envelopes, or
(b) Bookstores sell brown envelopes and white envelopes, or
(c) You can get two types of envelopes at bookstores,

we have workable evidence that some comprehension has taken place. On the other hand, if after hearing the same passage, the student "paraphrases":

(a) ...envelopes...are rectangle...colors..., or
(b) ...only two kinds of envelopes..., or
(c) sending letters and booklets...,

we have some evidence that some aural perception has occurred, but we know very little about any sense of overall meaning that the

student has formed.

A basic difference between the first set of responses and the second set is that the first set are grammatical sentences while the second set are not. Another important difference is that the first set are original statements (not contained in the tape), whereas the second set seem to be attempts at verbatim recall. Hypothetically, the essential difference might be that students in the first set know that the teacher expects original paraphrases, while students in the second set assume that verbatim recall is equivalent to understanding and is the expected classroom response.

Classroom Procedure

If an aural comprehension class adopts this kind of paraphrase procedure, certain kinds of difficulties will arise that do not come up with other, perhaps easier, methods of testing comprehension. The first difficulty lies in convincing the students that a paraphrase is more desirable than a verbatim repetition, even if the students can repeat exactly what they heard. Listening is a cycle, a decoding-encoding process. If a student depends on repeating things, he cannot develop strategies for dealing with partial comprehension—for example, when he is inundated with more than he can possibly repeat. Also, as a "parrot," he cannot learn the differences between an informal speaking level and the more formal language he may hear on tape. To convince students of these principles takes time.

Another difficulty with the paraphrase technique lies in getting the students to operate in "real time." Some students tend to formulate "the perfect response," seemingly unaware that "real time" is a much more critical factor in communication than is ultra-correctness (McGrath, 1975). It is generally best to have students respond within two or three seconds of the stopping of the tape, and to work with correctness only after a "real time" base is firmly established. Letting the students work in pairs or small groups makes it possible for all students to work on quick paraphrases.

A third difficulty lies in shaping the paraphrasing towards accurate rather than general, complete rather than partial. At first and often for several weeks it is necessary to set up the expectation

of students by accepting some paraphrase, any paraphrase, for every fifteen to twenty second segment, regardless of how general the students or instructor feels the paraphrase to be. Only after the students can comfortably give general paraphrases does it seem practical to demand more thoroughness and detail. Grammatical accuracy also needs to be compromised at some point so that students focus on listening development rather than on always-perfect grammar. Of course, from the beginning the class should accept only reasonably well-formed, comprehensible, spoken-style (not ultra-formal) sentences.

If the instructor can anticipate these kinds of difficulties, the paraphrase method can work well as a skill builder. As additional preparation, the instructor usually needs to give students some paraphrase models, such as:

> They were talking about (+noun phrase or noun clause).
> The tape said something about (+noun phrase or noun clause).
> The speaker said that (+verb phrase), but I'm not sure what/how/ etc.

Various useful models come up in class as the students try to formulate what they have understood.

Using Functions

It is generally difficult for a person to paraphrase at the level which he thinks he understands. In addition to being given certain grammatical models for presenting a paraphrase, students need to focus on something basic to the ability to paraphrase and basic to comprehension in general. This base is suggested in the following foundation:

> **Identifying the rhetorical function of an oral input is 50% of the aural comprehension task.**

Rhetorical functions have been described by many linguists, most thoroughly perhaps by Austin (1975) and Wilkins (1976), as "performatives"; that is, what the speaker is trying to accomplish by making an utterance. Up to a hundred common language functions, or performatives, can be described from "introducing"

and "promising" to "complaining" and "insulting."

If the listener can say what the speaker or speakers are doing–in other words, if he can indicate the performative in each utterance–he has in effect understood the passage or exchange. Research by Schank (1975) and Perfetti (1973) indicates that native speakers/observers tend to recall only the performatives of a situation and tend to disagree on what words were actually spoken. This would imply that if the listener/observer can accurately identify the purpose of an utterance, he can fill in the words from what he already knows about this kind of situation; that is, he can fill in from what he expects to hear. "Filling in what you expect to hear" is a normal listening strategy for first and second languages alike.

Of course, there is a paradox in applying this principle to second language learning: one must hear *some* words and have *some* experience in the language in order to identify a function and formulate some expectations. Knowing this, it would seem sensible to start with listening passages in which the performatives are most obvious, in this way building a sense of expectation in the students for less obvious passages.

Short taped conversations seem to work best for building function identification skills. For example, the following conversation from Rost and Stratton (1978: 68) presents a rather obvious set of performatives:

> Customer: I'd like to return this record. It has a scratch on it.
> Clerk: I'm sorry. We can't refund or replace records.
> Customer: But it has a scratch on it!
> Clerk: I'm sorry. That's the store policy.

If after hearing this conversation on tape, the student says, "This conversation was between a customer and a clerk at a record store," he has not yet identified the functions, but he has visualized the situation, and this, according to Brooks (1968) and Paivio (1971) is vital to listening comprehension. If in addition to visualizing the situation (and verbalizing it), the student can say something like:

(a) The customer wants to take back a record that he bought, or
(b) The customer is angry because there is something wrong with

his record, or
(c) The customer and the clerk had a small argument about a record,

we can judge that he has identified the general function of the conversation.

The point here is that by describing the conversation without using the actual words of the conversation, the student develops certain decoding-encoding skills which correlate to an increase in listening capacity.

While conversations are especially amenable to function-identifying and paraphrasing, longer non-fictional exposés (descriptions, processes, narratives, etc.) can also be used. The number of discernable functions in exposés is of course much smaller than in interpersonal events. The most common rhetorical functions in exposés are: explaining, talking about, describing, defining, summarizing, giving examples of something. If one looks closer, other functions can be found: criticizing, comparing, joking, persuading, and so on. For the general ESL listening class, however, using the first set of functions is more than ample for developing ability in the paraphrase activity.

Using the earlier passage about envelopes as part of a class format:

> . . . Only two kinds of envelopes are sold at most bookstores. These two kinds are: the white rectangular envelopes that are used for business letters or personal letters and the brown or manilla colored envelopes that are used for sending reports or booklets . . .

students would be expected to identify the functions before giving an actual paraphrase. For example, the student might say:

(a) This part of the tape talked about envelopes, or
(b) The tape was talking about kinds of envelopes that you can buy.

This kind of activity often seems mundane and obvious to the instructor, but it is precisely the lack of knowing the obvious that is a root of many listening problems.

Redundancy and Information Processing

The suggestions outlined so far really present only the skeleton for developing listening skills in a classroom setting. While these suggestions can work with almost any listening material, they seem to work far better when materials are graded in a way that corresponds closely to the way that the listening process develops.

According to Fodor and Bever (1965) and Cairns (1975), after an adult learner of a second language is familiar with the basic forms of a language and has a passive vocabulary of 500–1000 words, the process of language acquisition becomes much more complex than we can describe in terms of structure and vocabulary. For example, it would seem that a listener should be able to understand any passage that contains only words and structures that he has studied and "mastered" in isolation. But of course this seldom happens. To expect comprehension because of grammar and vocabulary "mastery" is a misguided oversimplification.

Something happens in listening that does not happen in reading (the other major form of language input). In listening, a person does not have time to analyze structures or to isolate vocabulary since he has to be preoccupied with catching ideas. In a typical listening situation such as a short lecture, set of instructions, or conversation exchange, the listener generally need be concerned with recalling ideas and not with reproducing grammatical structures or specific vocabulary. If we use this logic in grading ESL materials, we need to pay more attention to what is happening on the level of ideas. This is the current of the third foundation of the paraphrase approach:

> **The most comprehensive factor in listening ease/difficulty is the amount of redundancy of ideas that a passage contains.**

What this means for the listener is this: If a passage contains some redundancy of ideas, the listener has a greater chance to follow what is happening.

By grading materials according to the redundancy factor–that is, by incorporating a lot of redundancy into early tapes and gradually phasing it out–we are building skills in a fashion that is parallel to the "catching on" process that is central to listening development. To illustrate the redundancy criterion, we can

compare the following two aural comprehension passages:

(a) The first step in the "candle exercise" is to lie on your back with your arms at your sides. Relax and breathe normally. Next, you should raise your legs to a vertical position . . . .

(b) This exercise is called the "candle" and it has four steps. First, lie on the floor on your back. When you are lying flat on the floor, your arms should be at your sides. Your arms and legs should be in a straight line. Relax. None of your muscles should be tight or tense. Breathe normally. Don't take deep breaths. Next, raise your legs vertically, that is, straight up. Your toes should point toward the ceiling. Your back should still be on the ground. So your body makes a shape like the letter "L" . . . .

These two passages (actually segments) contain the same basic information, so we might expect similar paraphrases for each passage within a classroom exercise. In an ESL class, it turns out that the second passage is much easier to listen to (i.e. paraphrase) than the first passage.

The basic reason for the relative ease of passage *b* is that *b* is highly redundant: the listener has more than one chance to catch the turns of event. In passage *a* each point is presented only once. If the listener misses a single turning point, he is usually irretrievably lost. Very little progress takes place during "lost periods."

Selecting Taped Materials

Like all classroom training experiences, playing "redundant tapes" is to a degree artificial (i.e. not like the language students will encounter outside the classroom). However, the alternative methods of building comprehension have far more loopholes.

The basic alternatives to presenting redundant materials are (1) to prime the students with vocabulary and structure and even ideas *before* the tape is played, or (2) to analyze the tape literally inch by inch so that the students can visually reconstruct it. Both alternatives will eventually lead to a comprehension of the contents, but in the first approach the comprehension takes place before the listening experience and in the second approach comprehension

takes place in bits and pieces long *after* the listening experience is finished. By comparison, using materials suitably redundant to the students' level requires no priming or inch by inch analysis. Any and all progress that takes place, takes place during the listening experience itself and immediately afterward in the paraphrase session.

A rule of thumb for deciding the appropriateness of material is that the students can listen to a twenty second segment of the tape and reconstruct it in their own words with some degree of accuracy. If the students can paraphrase with almost complete accuracy, the tape might be too easy. If the students cannot show any accuracy, or cannot even identify the topic and functions of a segment, then the segment is inappropriate in the sense suggested here. If the students cannot come up with a reasonably complete paraphrase after hearing a twenty second segment three times, the tape is also inappropriate. Thus, the selection (or construction) of taped material is very important in using the "paraphrase method."

One technical drawback of using redundancy graded materials is that more materials are required since the students generally need only two or three trials before they reach an adequate understanding. Thus, a typical class might need one three-minute tape for each thirty-minute listening session.

An efficient method for composing redundant tapes is first to make a list of ideas, points, classifications, or steps that you will expect the students to recall and paraphrase. For example, in the previous passage about how to do a certain exercise, you might list:

Candle Exercise

Steps:
1. lie on back, arms at side, relax
2. raise legs vertically
3. lift hips upward, put hands on lower back, shift weight to shoulders, point toes to ceiling.
4. lower toes over head to touch floor, keep shoulders on floor.

Here, we have listed four major steps including ten individual points

that we would expect the students to recount.

If we expect an intermediate group of students to understand the passage after two or three playings of the tape (with no preparation) we will have to do more than merely read the steps. For more intermediate students the resultant passage would be too difficult:

> To do the candle exercise, first lie on your back with your arms at your side. Relax. Then raise your legs vertically. Next lift your hips upward by putting your hands on your lower back. Shift your weight to your shoulders. Your toes should point toward the ceiling...

The ideas move quickly. To understand this passage, an average student might need slow analysis or considerable preparation. These are unnecessary props that the redundancy-paraphrase approach tries to avoid.

To make the same passage redundant, the script writer reinforces, rewords, reconnects, and recapitulates important ideas. In this way the flow of ideas moves more slowly and the student is more likely to follow the narrative.

It is possible to use a scale in grading aural comprehension passages according to redundancy. For example, the ideas could be listed and assigned a redundancy factor; that is, an idea which was reworded once and recapitulated once would have a redundancy factor of 3:1 (the student has three chances to catch one idea); an idea which was reworded, reconnected (repeated in another context), and reinforced with an example would have a redundancy factor of 4:1, and so on.

In this way passages with few ideas but lots of redundancy (reinforced by example, reworded within the passage itself, reconnected in other contexts, and later summarized) would be considered easy tapes. Tapes with less of this redundancy would be more difficult.

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Case Study: An Exercise in Effective Communication

James B. Brown *

"I teach English." Pressed for an explanation of what they actually do, a great many teachers would refer to those aspects of the English language which have been most studied and abstracted, namely, the "four skills" and the associated areas of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. It is true that a major role of the teacher is to provide this type of knowledge, but it is equally true that vital social aspects of language are rarely found in the teaching curriculum.

There is, nevertheless, a growing understanding that language is, before all else, a form of social behavior. Each instance of language in use can be seen as a particular manifestation of, "I'm communicating with you," with the full range of complex relations between the speaker and the person(s) spoken to (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 125).

Given this emphasis on language as behavior, English teaching will be placed in a broader perspective. Highly codified knowledge such as grammar and phonetic description will be seen as

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constituting only one element amongst many in the teaching of what can be referred to as effective communication. Yet if communication is accepted as the primary pedagogical goal, several extremely difficult questions arise. How can this be taught? What is to be taught? Grammar books abound, pattern drills are commonplace, pronunciation courses readily available. There are no books neatly setting out patterns of effective communication.

A corollary of the view that language is essentially social in nature is that language teaching is also a social activity, which leads to another question: What are we doing? This critical stance must be the foundation of any productive pedagogy, yet in challenging the tried and tested techniques and methods, it places the teacher in an uncomfortable position. "What am I doing?" can become a debilitating question, calling as it does for even greater skill and sophistication in teaching. What is needed is a repertoire, a collection of techniques and procedures which are fully understood in terms of their rationale and application, as well as in their effect. In short, we must have procedures which will let us confidently answer our question by saying, "I'm teaching language," and which will enable our students to say, "I'm talking to you, and you understand me."

CASE STUDY

Case study is such a procedure. It was first instigated by the Harvard Business School around 1920 in response to criticisms from industry that young graduates knew the theory, but were unable to apply it in concrete situations. In order to eliminate this lack of practical ability, students were presented with studies of actual business situations dealing with such things as labor management, marketing, etc. Each situation, or case, was presented in the form of a problem, demanding analysis and emphasizing definition of the problem and elaboration of solution.[1]

Case study as a language teaching procedure is meant to achieve a similar result, that is, the narrowing of the gap between those

[1]Commercially prepared business cases are available, some of which can be adapted for English teaching. BACIE publishes such cases: British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education, 16 Park Crescent, London W1N 4AP, England.

linguistic activities which characterize "classroom English" and those which occur in real-life situations.

In the following, a concrete case will be discussed as an example. After presentation of the study, the procedure will be analyzed in more abstract terms so as to provide a more thorough understanding of the nature and potential of case study.

As you read, please keep in mind that the case used as exemplification here is a rather long one, carried out with advanced students. Case study is not, however, limited to advanced classes, nor need it involve such a long period of time. In addition, try to adopt a critical stance in reading this and try to discern what is being done at all levels.

"DOLPHINS"

In February, 1978, some one thousand dolphins were killed by the fishermen of Iki Island (Nagasaki Prefecture, Japan) in an attempt to protect the community's fishing waters. The repercussions were tremendous: the international news media focused on the incident, Japanese embassies abroad received phone calls and letters of protest, and environmental groups in several countries organized protests and boycotts of Japanese products.

Thanks to the several English-language newspapers in Japan, more than adequate materials were available on which to base a study. I chose to undertake a study with third-year university students, a total of eight two-hour class periods being needed to complete the project. In the following, the study is set out step by step, but without reference to specific class times.

(1) On a single page, I reproduced five newspaper clippings and handed this out for home reading. Included was the photo of the dolphin-strewn Iki Island beach which, when shown abroad, caused such strong protest.

(2) In class, I briefly explained that we were going to study this incident and its implications, saying that this would involve reading, writing and considerable group discussion.

(3) The class was divided into smaller groups. Each group was given one of the clippings handed out earlier and asked to formulate three explicit and five implicit questions based on it. The students

understood that it was not necessary to have an answer to each question. Examples of the questions produced are:

> Will the fishermen be able to stop killing dolphins in the future?
> What opinions do most Japanese have of this situation?
> Do foreign protesters understand the life of the fishermen on Iki Island?

(4) I collected these questions and typed them up, adding some questions which had not been asked, e.g.:

> "Dolphin lovers": who are such people? Why should they love dolphins?
> Why should killing 1,000 dolphins be an unacceptable act for an industrially developed nation, as many protesters claim?

(5) A classroom question-answer discussion followed, based on our list of questions. Strict, delimited answers were not the goal here. Instead, students were prompted to add other questions, to offer opinions, and to give information. This session brought out several points, which I wrote on the blackboard as an intermediary finding of the study.

(6) As homework, the students were asked to arrange the questions on the list (step 4) according to topic. In class, four students wrote their arrangements on the board. These ranged from a list of some fourteen topics to a more succinct division,

> Fishing: fishermen / dolphins / economy
> Reaction: foreign / Japanese people / Japanese government.

(7) At this point, it was important for me to summarize what had been accomplished so far. The initial question formulation had helped to differentiate fact from opinion and to bring out both explicit and implicit information. Most importantly, the initial orientation of the study had come from the students themselves, by way of their questions.

Recognition of the groups involved and specification of the various topics were the first steps in defining the problem. Very importantly, the students had offered their own tentative defini-

tions through the medium of English. One vital role of the teacher in case study is to point out to the students that they are using English, that they are successfully communicating, and that the concrete proof of this is that the study is progressing, thanks to the efforts of the group.

In short, what I tried to provide here was a period of reflection during which we could synthesize and assimilate what had gone before (La Forge, 1978). Interestingly, it was during this discussion that the group realized more information was needed, especially as concerned the situation of the fishermen.

(8) A student was asked to talk to a fisherman of her acquaintance about his opinion of the issue, and especially about his view of dolphins. Also, as the group had not grasped the central role of the dolphin itself, particularly as perceived in those countries protesting most strongly, I asked a student to refer to an encyclopedia (in English) and report back to the group. My aim here was to stimulate more individual participation as well as to bring in information which would help the study to develop.

(9) A second page of clippings was handed out for home reading, along with an outline of critical reading. The outline was discussed in terms of the first page of readings with which the group was now familiar.

CRITICAL READING

Description: What is given (explicit) in the text? What are the facts? What are the opinions expressed and whose opinions are these?

Interpretation: What can be inferred? These inferences may be further facts and opinions, but they may also be suggestions of a possible problem or a vaguely indicated opinion. This information should be enough to let you formulate interesting questions, even though you may not be able to answer them.

Criticism: Are the facts important? Are they relevant to the case? Are some facts given too much emphasis? Are the opinions supported and well argued? What are they based on—true facts, facts of questionable truth, other opinions, myth? Is the overall presentation one sided?

> *Your own opinion*: What is your reaction? Are you able to actively accept some things, while rejecting others? Is what is being said in the text trivial, or of real importance? Do you need to think about it, or is it of little interest to you?

(10) The group now had considerable information with which to work, and so as to organize this into a more usable form, the students were asked to write a rather extensive summary of the study to date, using the outline of critical reading as a guide. I asked them to express an opinion if they felt they had enough information to do so.

(11) These written summaries were collected and I in turn presented the group with a spoken summation of this work.

The student summary work was an integral part of the study in that it produced a further delineation of the problems of the case and led each student to at least a provisory personal opinion.

(12) A concrete goal was now set: the group was told that at the end of the study, we would write a letter to the editor.

(13) I had prepared a two-minute tape, the content of which was based on material already read by the group and which would thus constitute a review. This was in the form of an interview on a radio newscast. I played the interviewer, with another native speaker as a spokeswoman for an American environmental organization. A point of view highly critical of the dolphin killing was presented. Before listening to the tape, the group was asked to concentrate on the arguments given by the woman. Afterward, these arguments were paraphrased by the group and written on the blackboard. For example,

> Like whales, dolphins are being driven to extinction.
>
> Whose home is the ocean? Man is the intruder.
>
> Dolphins cannot be compared to domestic animals, such as cattle, raised purposely as food. Dolphins are wild animals.

(14) A third page of clippings was given out, but this time with a change of orientation. We had recognized most of the groups involved in the controversy, so I now asked the group to try to see

more clearly how these groups had reacted to the incident.

This demonstrates how the teacher is able to direct the study through selecting material. By providing material which emphasized opinion more than fact (editorials, letters to the editor), I led the group into a consideration of the causes of the controversy and to the realization that such controversy is much less a question of objective fact than a situation of conflicting interpretations of fact.

(15) A group discussion was held with the aim of isolating and succinctly stating the arguments expressed in the third page of clippings. One student was chosen to act as secretary and wrote the arguments on the board as they were given. My own function was to aid the group in expressing these arguments in a brief, clear manner.

(16) *The Japan Times* had published three lengthy articles which gave considerable information in support of the Iki Island fishermen. Rather than assign these for reading by the whole group, a jigsaw technique was used (Geddes and Sturtridge, 1978): three pairs of students were each given one of the articles and asked to prepare a summary to be presented to the group. This was a new type of activity in which the group depended wholly on the students presenting the summaries for important information. For this reason, during the summary reports, I prompted the group to ask for repetitions ("Sorry, I didn't catch that") and clarifications, especially of vocabulary. I particularly tried to get the group to ask for further details when they felt that the summary was incomplete.

(17) The students were reminded that we would soon be drafting a letter to the editor. In preparation for this, I assigned to each student a specific clipping for re-reading, asking that special attention be paid to key words (those recurring words which were the conceptual moorings of arguments and opinions expressed in the clippings). A list was made of the key words found during the re-reading and, as a group, we reduced this to essential items:

rational / irrational	brutality
emotional issue	hypocrisy
political issue	prejudice
food	misunderstanding
natural order	rights
environment: human, total	bilateral problem

(18) A second tape was given, again prepared on the model of an interview. The interviewee was the spokesman of the Katsumoto Fishery Cooperative (Iki Island) and in order to maintain credibility, the part was recorded by a Japanese speaker of English. The tape provided a synthesis of much of the information in the articles summarized earlier by students (step 16), and included arguments in support of the fishermen and counterarguments to many of the assertions heard in the first tape (step 13).

The two tapes together mirrored, on a smaller scale, the controversial nature of the dolphin problem, and served to create a debate-like atmosphere which was useful in stimulating discussion.

(19) The time had now come for the group to draft the letters to the editor. Several letters were written, the work being undertaken in groups of five or six. I tried to place together students whose opinions had been revealed as at least somewhat similar in nature. First an outline was produced, then the finished letters.

(20) The study was at this point almost complete. One vital step remained, however, this being a follow-up discussion. The students had participated and deserved the opportunity to express their feelings about what had been done. Prior to discussion, I asked the members of the group to answer, in writing and anonymously, a series of questions which together were to constitute an evaluation of the study. These concerned the amount of time spent, the choice of topic, organization of the study and information given. The final question was, "What did you learn?" As the students were writing their answers, I too sat down and replied to the questions.

Student evaluations represent valuable feedback and can show weak points in a study. In addition, the teacher should take brief notes of the development of the study, for such notes will allow for a better overall picture of the procedure.

(21) As a final step, I reminded the students of what they had accomplished: "We've been talking to each other for several weeks and it's only because we have been successfully communicating that we've been able to understand 'Dolphins.' "

Not only did this case study produce communication in the classroom, but the students also developed a new attitude toward their use of English. As one student wrote in reply to one of the

evaluation questions, "If we had more chances to argue with each other, the case could have been more interesting and productive."

Although not explicitly mentioned above, the basic work of English teaching went on throughout the study—correcting pronunciation, suggesting appropriate phrases such as those used in the expression of agreement or disagreement, and so forth. In addition, case study provides a wealth of opportunities for linguistic analysis. In "Dolphins," the block language typically used in newspaper headlines was discussed and the syntactic idiosyncracies of this style of English pointed out. Bias words, those verbal signposts of a speaker's attitude, were also analyzed. The arguments presented by protesters and even press descriptions were colored by the use of such words as "massacre," "murder," "mass graves," and "innocent dolphins."

A UNIFIED GROUP ACTIVITY

The above description has yielded a somewhat analytic, step-by-step picture of case study. However, to fully understand the procedure and its potential, it is necessary to see it as a unified, coordinated group activity consisting of selection of topic and materials, teacher and student roles in the activity itself, and the final specific goals needed to make the case study meaningful.

Selection of Topic and Materials

Selection of the case: There must of course be adequate material available on which to build the case. Secondly, the make-up of the group must be carefully considered, for a good case will be one which interests the group members. If you are considering a case for study, it is best to go through the initial step of question formulation ("Dolphins" step 3). On the basis of the implicit questions which can be derived from the material, you should be able to see whether or not the case will lead to further activity and continued student interest.

Thirdly, you should ask yourself, "Will the topic lend itself to extensive discussion and debate?" According to a Gallup poll, the most widely followed news event of 1978 was the Jonestown story, the deaths of some nine hundred members of the People's Temple

religious sect in Guyana. This would seem to be a promising case, with adequate material available and the sensational nature of the story generating considerable interest. However, if one thinks about this, there is no evident underlying problem to be defined, all the more since students and teacher will have little or no experience with such religious cults. The incident is more or less a *fait accompli,* leaving little room for opinion. On the other hand, "Dolphins" exemplifies a high degree of conflict or controversy, especially centered on identifiable social groups. Such situations are open ended and the underlying problems are not amenable to a "yes-no" treatment.

A good case, then, is one which will allow students to form an opinion. However, an opinion perforce occurs within a given culture and is very much a product of the system of values inherent in that milieu (Condon and Yousef, 1975). The upshot of this is that a good case must be culturally relevant.

However, the notion of cultural relevance allows considerable latitude, and it would be a mistake to assume that in a group of Japanese students, for example, only cases based on Japan should be studied. A not insignificant product of case study is an extension of cultural perspective, which can be attained through a variation of case study known as "cultural transposition." A few years ago, the Sierra Club, a well-known American environmental organization, published a book entitled *Slickrock.* The purpose of the book was to inform the public of the existence of a virgin wilderness area, "almost as it was before man began to tinker with the land," in southern Utah, and of the threat posed to that area by a proposed highway. The major reason for the road was an economic one of developing tourism. I elaborated a case based on this book. The problem was complex, for the heart of the controversy was more fundamental than simply the highway project, as indicated by the Sierra Club position: "There is, we submit, already more than enough chrome-plated scenery in Utah to satisfy the needs and wants of those who cannot—or will not—leave their cars behind." The case was presented as an American situation, and the group was not asked to offer opinions or solutions, but only to try to see what the underlying problems and points of controversy might be. The material was designed to aid in this. The group was then asked to

look for parallel situations in their own culture, which is a process of cultural transposition. In Japan, such problems would be: the controversial new Shinkansen, or "bullet train," lines; chrome-plated scenery, such as the many mountain areas now accessible by car; the exploding number of privately owned passenger cars. When parallel problems have been recognized, the students themselves prepare a case for study, compiling material, organizing information, making presentations. It is in this case, then, drawn from the students' own culture, that opinions and solutions will be sought. The problem for the teacher in this type of case study is to choose an initial case which will allow for cultural transposition.

Choice of medium: Case study is a multi-media technique, easily incorporating the use of slides, strip films, video, cartoons, maps, tapes, texts, graphs, and so on. The best guideline is that the use of the various media should be pedagogically justified, not being merely for show (often the danger with video).

Selection of information: Although a good case will be one in which considerable information is available, this can also be a problem. It is rarely possible to present all the material at hand, and an objective selection is necessary so as to avoid inadvertently introducing any information bias or prejudice.

Presentation of information: This is a question of how much and when. Taking into account the need for summary, synthesis and review during the study, too much information is worse than too little. Information should always be thought of in terms of usable proportions. Presentation of information is the main means of pacing the study, so that in supplying new information, its effect on the overall development of the study should be kept in mind.

Activity

Evaluation of the case study procedure will, in large part, be an examination of all those factors which facilitate as well as those which hinder communication among group members. The primary rule in any teaching is "Help the student succeed," simple yet exceedingly complex in its implications. The following two sections will deal with not only specific roles of the teacher and students in a case study, but also with ways of preparing students for a new type of classroom behavior.

The Teacher's Role: In a lecture class, the teacher is the center of activity and appropriate student participation means simply listening and asking a polite question from time to time. In the EFL class, however, with its *raison d'etre* being that the members are there to learn to use the English language, participation and communication become one and the same thing. The procedure of case study is one means by which the student is placed in a situation in which active participation is the appropriate behavior, that participation being realized through an effective use of English. For the teacher, therefore, the ability to abandon that central, omnipotent, omniscient role which so rigidly structures the traditional classroom is of the utmost importance in helping students to communicate.[2]

What is called for, then, are types of activities which are not teacher centered. To begin with, if students are going to successfully participate in a group activity, then the actual communication channels linking the participants must be open. It is not possible to speak to the back of someone's head, which the student is forced to do when attempting to address a fellow student in a traditional, row-by-row classroom arrangement. A circular or semi-circular configuration which allows face-to-face interaction is therefore much preferable.

Yet even the most conscientious teacher, having moved the group into a circular form, has still experienced the tenacity with which students will avoid student-student exchanges, insisting on only the teacher-student exchanges to which they are most accustomed. The problem is one of developing full group communication and stimulating student-student exchanges, but without being placed in the authoritative position of having to pose questions or give directives each time.

On the physical plane, this involves recognizing that there is almost always a position in the room designated as the "teacher's seat." When students are involved in activities of communication, it is best to move out of this position, e.g., to another seat, sometimes placing yourself slightly outside the group. It is surprising how this

[2]It is interesting to note that the legendary timidity of Japanese students is an ephemeral phenomenon, entering the classroom with the *sensei* (whether Japanese or non-Japanese), and exiting on the heels of this same person.

removes a certain tension, giving students the feeling that they are not under evaluation by the teacher. In "Dolphins," whenever students were writing on the blackboard or giving summaries to the group, or whenever a discussion gained momentum, I was always certain to leave the "teacher's seat" empty.

Another way of moving out of the center, so to speak, is to effectively use the group leader. In every group there will always be at least one member who is most willing to speak out, to offer suggestions, to give an opinion. This is the person who will be the first to initiate student-student exchanges. In using this natural leader, the teacher is able to become much more non-directive.

One must be extremely cautious in expressing an opinion or in judging the students' opinions. Anything the teacher says will have immediate effect on the group, especially as students have unfortunately learned to react to what the teacher says as a statement *ex cathedra.*

Exasperated by silence, the teacher will often resort to direct questions in order to get students to talk. Unfortunately, this again is a teacher-student exchange, and even triangle questioning—directing one student to ask another student a question—is still a teacher dominated activity. The alternative is to use the silence. Do not ask questions, nor even prompt with a "Well?" Let the silence do the work. After twenty seconds (which seems much, much longer), someone will say something to fill the vacuum, and with that act, the group will have taken the first step in accepting the responsibility for participation.

Such activities, then, allow the students to learn the type of behavior which is most productive in a language classroom and constitute a type of pre-training for work involving group discussion.

In reference to case study, the teacher has a definite role in relation to the group. S/he must ensure that the group does exist, for this is a pre-requisite to any study. A simple collection of people is not necessarily a group, and a successful study means that the members have an awareness of belonging to a group, an awareness that they are members. The main function of the teacher vis-à-vis the group is to maintain this awareness throughout the study, something which can be accomplished by pointing out from time to

time that the group is doing, as a group, what the individual could not.

Prior to "Dolphins," my students and I had undertaken several activities designed to increase group cohesion and to prepare for group participation. Such activities include introductions, games and drama techniques.[3] Most students have never learned how to listen to other students, and games such as "20 Questions" are useful in teaching this ability.[4] In addition, the teacher can employ a technique developed in group therapy: after a student has said something, a second student is asked, "What did s/he say?" or "Could you restate that for us?" Not only does this focus the students' attention on what each person has to say—which is of course important in case study—but it also gives valuable practice in paraphrasing.

The teacher also has several functions in relation to the study itself. S/he initiates the study by choosing the topic and also sets the end of the study by establishing an appropriate goal. There are in addition several things which must be done throughout the study:

– Making sure that the group does not go off on tangents: The goal must be kept clearly in mind.

– Pointing out intermediary findings or conclusions: This keeps the groups informed of the various opinions which have been offered by members, of new facts, analyses, etc. The value of this is that the output of the group becomes subsequent input, stimulating further discussion, analysis and progress in the study.

– Indicating progress made by the group: The group should always be aware of what it is doing. Intermediary summaries of progress throughout the case study period are helpful (see "Dol-

[3]On introductions, along with other techniques drawn from a Japanese cultural background, see La Forge, 1978. Dickinson et al., 1975, suggests how to use drama techniques and gives other useful advice on dealing with groups in the language classroom. Also on drama: Via, 1976.

[4]In the basic form of this game, a person thinks of any object in the room, large or small, and is asked questions which can only be answered by "yes" or "no." The group is allowed twenty questions in order to guess the object. Other variations involve thinking of anything in the world, including species or types, e.g., a polar bear, a famous person, where you were last Tuesday at 2 p.m., etc. By varying the object, different types of questions will be asked. Students must listen to each other's questions so as to be able to guess the object.

phins" step 7, for example). The final evaluation period is important in allowing the group to grasp the overall activity and, as in "Dolphins" step 21, the teacher should point out what it means to have carried out such a study.

– Filling gaps: The group often overlooks important points, as in "Dolphins" when many important implicit questions were left unasked and the image of the dolphin was not recognized. In contributing in this way, the teacher acts as a member of the group.

– Ensuring maximum comprehension: It is necessary for every member to understand what is said in the group, and for this reason the teacher often needs to ask for repetition or clarification of a question or statement. Students hesitate to ask for repetition or clarification themselves and the teacher should encourage this type of activity ("Dolphins" step 16).

We have seen, then, that the teacher has specific functions in relation to both the group and the study. There is an additional role relating to individual group members. This entails the realization that speaking out in a group is not easy for most speakers, including those operating in their own native language. Speaking out in a case study means that you can be challenged or questioned; in short, that you have tacitly agreed to enter into a communicative exchange. Inordinate fear of such an exchange can be a severe obstacle in learning a foreign language.

A supportive attitude on the part of the teacher can be a real help in overcoming such fear. In giving the students the understanding that what they say is of real importance to you as well as to the group, the most important step toward motivating communication has been taken.

Help is manifested in other ways. In prompting a student to express an opinion, do not simply ask, "What do you think? ", a question which does nothing more than set the student afloat without a rudder. Imagine an instance in which Ms. Sato gives her thoughts on the American reaction to the dolphin incident. If I immediately ask Mr. Suzuki for his reaction, I am forgetting that I myself, in reply to such a question, would probably say, "Just a minute, let me think." It would be better for me to be specific, pointing out how Ms. Sato's opinion relates to something another student said, or how it sheds light on an aspect of the problem, and

then ask Mr. Suzuki for his comment. Given a moment for reflection, he is in a much better position to answer.

Know how to balance group activity and individual contributions. This involves effective use of strong students and assigning tasks to individual members (as in "Dolphins" step 8 and the jigsaw listening exercise in 16).

The primary pedagogical goal is of course the learning of English, and in leading students to the attainment of this, the teacher will have to correct lexical choice, grammar and pronunciation. However, correction at the cost of communication is not productive. Rather than interrupt with corrections, it is best to look for natural segments in the activity. For example, if a student is giving a summary which takes five minutes, note down the important points while s/he is speaking, wait for the natural break at the end of the summary, and then correct. In sum, the notion of correctness must be understood in light of the reasons for which case study is undertaken in the first place.

The Student: Still under the rubric of "activity," the various aspects of student participation can now be described.

– Seeking information: The initial step of question formulation in "Dolphins" produced concrete questions and also served to set a stance for each member, that of actively asking for information. This is important throughout each phase of the study, with students asking one another for information, evaluating the pertinence of the information acquired, and relating it to the problem.

– Contributing information: Ideally, members of the group will volunteer any knowledge they have which has bearing on the case. More realistically, the teacher will need to ask directly for such information or assign individuals to find out certain information for the group.

– Expressing one's own opinion: It is a good idea to get a written statement of opinion ("Dolphins" step 10). An attempt to orally elicit an opinion from each member generally results in a surprisingly uniform result–"Oh, I think the same thing as s/he does." Progress in a case study is based largely on diversity of opinion.

– Evaluation of group activity: As explained in step 20 of

"Dolphins," it is important to allow the group the opportunity to reflect on and evaluate what they have accomplished. Such a session at the end of a study focuses on what has been done. Another student role is to evaluate what the group is in the process of doing, which helps to direct the group. A corollary is evaluation by the students of their own participation in the activity. Such reflection is the foundation of learning to judge whether or not one's own communication is effective, whether one's use of language is accomplishing what one wants it to. One major responsibility of the teacher to the student is to help to cultivate this type of positive self-evaluation.

Students, then, participate in these various ways. Case study places them in a situation calling for a variety of linguistic activities and an emphasis on meaningful communication.

It should be clear now how tightly linked are the roles of the teacher and those of the students, and how an understanding of case study reveals the teaching of English in its full complexity.

Final Goals

Every study needs an explicit goal as its final output, which will serve both as a motivation for the study and as a point around which the group forms itself.

There are many types of activities which can serve as goals, depending upon the complexity of the case, the competence of the group, and the language skills being emphasized. Debates and panel hearings, involving extended role play, are especially valuable in cases which suggest these types of institutionalized conflict. Radio or television interviews can be enacted by the group, centering on characters drawn from the material of the study (e.g., the fishing cooperative spokesman and ecology group spokeswoman in "Dolphins"). In less complex studies, the final goals will be simpler.

In addition to the ultimate goal of the study, there are all the intermediary goals, such as question formulation, topic arrangement, and summary.

FLEXIBILITY

Case study is not limited to elaborate cases such as "Dolphins."

As a teaching procedure, it is extremely flexible and can be adapted to the type of group, class size, limitations of time and level of the students. The emphasis can be on integrated skills or on individual skills.

Concerning different levels, the rudiments of the procedure can be applied to work with children, centering on a school conflict, the choice of one toy amongst an attractive collection, and so forth. With intermediate students, or for shorter cases at advanced levels, the study can take the form of problem solving. A difficult situation is described in a paragraph or two, or presented orally, and the students are asked to suggest a solution or judge which of various possible decisions is best. For example: Mr. Nakamura has won a ten-million yen lottery. His wife is overjoyed, for now they can buy that long dreamed-of house. But his colleagues at work seem unhappy, even jealous. What should he do? [5]

An additional aspect of the flexibility of case study is that any useful technique can be introduced as an activity. As mentioned before, techniques such as role play, jigsaw listening, exploitation of images, etc., can be used. From a different vantage point, case study itself is but one procedure amongst many which are being evolved in modern language teaching and makes a valuable addition to any teacher's repertoire.

AN EXERCISE IN EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

Let us return for a moment to the business schools in which case study was first used. The graduates of such schools were judged as being effective or not in their performance within a concrete industrial context. Likewise, their teachers were able to evaluate classroom performance against the background of a concrete business case study. What should be noticed here is that case study eliminated many of the differences which had existed between in-class performance and activities and what was expected of students in real-life situations outside the classroom. In addition,

[5]Cf. a *Japan Times* article of Jan. 18, 1979; " '¥10 Mil.'s Worth of Trouble' Disappears in a Puff of Smoke." On problem solving, see Knepler, 1978. Pifer and Mutoh, 1977, is a valuable collection of short case studies, making use of problem solving and analysis.

teachers were able to effect a type of evaluation much more reflective of the realities which their students would be facing in industry.

The same applies to the teaching of effective communication. The development of a study provides a concrete context within which communication can be evaluated as effective or not. In "Dolphins," I was able to judge whether the students were listening effectively during my oral summaries, as they needed the information in order to continue the study. In fact, given the context of the study, I was easily able to evaluate all of the students' activities, including reading, writing, vocabulary acquisition, etc. Effectiveness is not something which can be taught in isolation, for it is a transactional quality of communication. Only in a given context, in which definite needs make it clear what I want to do with my language, will my use of language be judged as effective or not. With this observation, we have answered one of our initial questions, "How can effective communication be taught? "

There still remains the other question, however: "What is to be taught? " This again takes us to the dichotomy of "classroom/outside the classroom." The situations for which American business schools were preparing their students were far from vague, and industry was there to say just what those situations were. This is the point at which the analogy with language teaching is weakest, for in the teaching of English, and most notably in countries such as Japan, the great majority of students are supposedly being prepared for vague, future "real-life" situations. Of course, it is possible in some instances to recognize needs and situations and to teach the appropriate language, as in the area of English for Special Purposes. Cases can be easily based on content-oriented topics for business, law, medicine, and so on. Yet even in such specific situations, apart from apparent differences, much of the language behavior learned will be the same as that which has been described in the preceding sections.

What is actually taught in a case study?

- How to ask questions so as to elicit information and to differentiate fact and opinion.
- How to listen to others.

- How to organize information and adopt a critical stance so as to arrive at a measured opinion.
- How to express an opinion which is clear and relevant to the situation at hand.
- How to participate in a group, that participation being mainly linguistic, in a manner which will help move the group toward a goal.

These are basic skills within that huge area of linguistic behavior delimited as "the English language." Together they will take a speaker a considerable ways toward being able to say, "I am communicating with you."

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Communication and Values in the Classroom

Lewis Davis, David Keitges *

Both teachers and students of English as a foreign language (EFL)[1] in Japan are becoming increasingly concerned with the performance aspects of language learning. It is fairly safe to say that few, if any, teachers or learners object to the desirability of facilitating the development of more able speakers and hearers. Why, then, has there not been more active development of performance-oriented methodology? One reason is that teachers and learners are both ultimately judged on the basis of grammar and

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[1]We use the phrase "EFL" only because it is current and is distinct from English as a Second/Alternate Language where the language has a communicative function in the culture. It would have been more precise to say English as an International Auxiliary Language (EIAL). We assume that the language teacher and modeler is a non-native speaker. The target communication is that in which a Japanese person is speaking English with someone who is not a native English speaker, as in the case of a Japanese person and a Chinese person conversing in English.

to a lesser extent reading and writing competence as measured by college entrance examinations. There is a reluctance to depart from the tradition of grammar education.

This reluctance is for good reason. Grammar competence and oral performance involve different skills. Grammatical analysis can be done independent of the way speakers of a language actually use that language. Effective communicative performance, on the other hand, requires that grammatical patterning occur on the subconscious level. With grammar, the focus is on form. In communication, the emphasis is on the degree to which one understands and is understood in situations varying from rituals to highly unpredictable interaction. Also emphasis on oral performance must be supported by development of methods, procedures and techniques to facilitate appropriate classroom activity. Both teachers and students must learn how to use new methods, and this requires time and effort.

We wish to argue for, and demonstrate the merits of, a means of including meaningful interpersonal communication in the foreign language learning situation. Our intention is not to de-emphasize grammar but to reinforce grammatical patterns in communication situations and to help learners view English as a useful and enjoyable means to increased awareness. We advance nothing new. We have only combined some contemporary notions in a way we have found useful. We have introduced some of these ideas in classes at Nanzan University and Nagoya University. Student feedback has been sufficiently encouraging to merit further refinement and presentation.

We will demonstrate ways to engender interpersonal communication in the language learning situation—in English. We will show that ordinary classroom activities can be adapted to include meaningful oral activities. In section I, we clarify our biases on the literature of values clarification which we have chosen as an extralinguistic objective. Also we explain and discuss our particular use of the terms interpersonal communication and facilitation. In section II, we present suggestions for building social and psychological environments essential to this activity. Section III is description and explanation of several activities with specific techniques for their presentation. Section IV is a reminder of some of the

limitations relevant to this sort of learning situation.

I

> Every day, every one of us meets life situations which call for thought, opinion-making, decision-making and action. Some of our experiences are familiar, some are novel: some are casual, some of extreme importance. Everything we do, every decision we make and course of action we take, is based on our consciously or unconsciously held beliefs, attitudes and values. (Simon, Howe, Kirschenbaum, 1972: 13)

The above summarizes the value of values in our daily lives. We would argue that values clarification, or the determination of what we value, and values processing, which refers to how our values come to be held and how they change, closely simulate social interaction. Ordinary conversations are taken up with our attempts to check our sense of social reality with each other. We wonder what and how one another thinks and feels about everyday life questions. Occasionally, we wonder how much our thoughts and feelings have changed with time. How far have we drifted from one another? How close have we come to one another? This exchange of views is characteristic of human communication.

We believe that values themes are the aim and outcome of much social interaction which is, in turn, a major aim of language learning. In implementing values clarification in the language learning situation, teachers are attending to their higher role as educators.

For our present purposes, interpersonal communication is taken to be a process wherein persons interact meaningfully (in English). We can place interaction on a continuum between an act and a transaction. An act occurs, for example, when the elevator girl asks you which floor you want. Your answer is a reaction. Reunion with a dear friend after a period of separation might be called transactional. Actions and reactions are usually impersonal. Transactions have considerable affective significance for the participants. Interpersonal interaction focuses on the midrange between an elevator ride and an emotional reunion.

For such interaction to be "meaningful" there must be an element of risk involved. Traditional cultural conventions follow a prescribed set of rituals. In rituals, the method and the outcome are

both predictable. When two persons exchange commentary on the discomfort felt on a hot day, each participant knows there is no room for argument. When I guard against your discovery of my personal self and my discovery of yours, I escape the bonds of trust. When you guard against my discovery of your personal self and your discovery of mine, you escape the bonds of trust. Risk in interpersonal interaction means that we do not know how the encounter will turn out. We may well end up disagreeing, but we have faith in the good intentions of one another. Uncertainty, potential disagreement, and trust characterize risk which, in turn, is a feature of meaningful communication.

Traditional classroom communication would not satisfy this definition. Classroom activity tends to be predictable, with almost no arguments. There may or may not be trust, but lack of trust does not necessarily cause the class to break down. In addition, the teacher occupies a position of power wherein messages tend to flow in one direction. Student responses to the teacher are rather like reactions in the elevator.

This is a time-honored form of communication as transmission of information: passing along things that can be taught. We can teach the rules of grammar. We can teach the sounds of a language. We can teach denotative and sometimes connotative meanings. It is even possible to teach the rules of creating and delivering an effective speech. But what about the sort of interaction defined above?

Communication theorists and sociolinguists are beginning to provide us with information about the structure of conversation. However, there are very few reliable rules, especially in the case of participants who are not speaking their mother tongue. What we know about this sort of interaction is most unimpressive. We do know that people learn how to take part in this kind of interaction by doing.

Thus, there are substantial changes of role for the teacher and students who, as a class, make the transition from skill acquisition to participation in interpersonal communication. These role changes are demanded by the fact that this transition is from things that can be taught to things that cannot be taught. For this reason we define the teacher's role as facilitator in the encourage-

ment of meaningful communication.

The role of facilitator is a delicate one to fulfill. In order to initiate communication activity, the teacher must exercise power. In order for the activity to evolve naturally, the teacher must share power with the students. With this shared power, of course, also goes shared responsibility. During the time of the interpersonal communication activity, the teacher is not the captain of the ship but a member of the crew. It is not easy for the teacher to first exercise power and then withdraw from it at the right time and in the right way. Nor is it easy for students to learn how to accept the shared power, not to mention the responsibility.

II

It would be unthinkable for us in the large society to discuss our private preferences, needs, and goals with complete or nearly-complete strangers. Therefore, before using values clarification strategies to encourage students to talk with each other about their beliefs and feelings, we need to foster a sense of community among the student-participants and the teacher. Under ordinary conditions in the normal classroom, this sense of community occasionally develops, but it is certainly not an inevitable outcome of normal classroom activities. There are specific techniques which, if used regularly, will help bring about a classroom environment appropriate to oral performance. These exercises are especially effective in lowering the level of communication apprehension and decreasing shyness.

Some students will demonstrate an early readiness for interpersonal communication. Others will need individual attention to overcome their apprehensions. Communication apprehension has been defined as "a person's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated talk with one or more persons" (Klopf, 1978: 1). Such apprehension will usually first show itself in the participant's use of the native language. In such cases, the student should be counseled in the native language before entering into activities in the target language. Klopf specifies several activities that are appropriate for lowering apprehension among students. He suggests that with highly apprehensive students the teacher should

regularly try to reduce their anxieties by giving them opportunities to speak in familiar surroundings. The student should begin with person-to-person dialogues and then expand into small group talk and later practice various conversational skills. These include the asking of open-ended questions, the using of "free" information disclosed by conversational partners, self-disclosure, conversational topic-changing, and the skills of joining a conversation, telling stories and ending conversations (Klopf, 1978: 5). Activities which are done in the students' native language, are designed to aid highly apprehensive students in taking part in conversations.

For most students, however, such measures are not necessary, since the students are apprehensive solely toward the use of the target language, and fear making mistakes.[2] These concerns can only be allayed by giving the students opportunities to make mistakes and discover that it's okay. The discovery that there are trade-offs between linguistic excellence and communicative effectiveness will take them a long way toward open and meaningful interactions.

Apprehension can be reduced through warm-up activities which introduce low-risk values-oriented exercises to the students. Some activities are better accomplished, at least initially, in small group situations while others work better with the class as a whole.

Activities emphasizing personal introductions are always good means of bringing classes together. One of these activities is a "profile questionnaire" which should be filled out by all of the students and then passed to fellow students in small groups (Hawley, Hawley, 1975: 63). These introductions can be turned into game-playing situations. One technique is to specify different kinds of personal information to be written on a notebook-sized piece of paper. After the personal "billboards" have been completed, the students are asked to pin them on their shirts or blouses and circulate about the room discovering their classmates' secrets and revealing their own. A further adaptation of this activity is to

[2]Definition of a mistake and attitude toward error in general is a significant influence on communication. Although we cannot take up problems of attitude toward error or non-native English here, it should be obvious that with learners performing in usually unsupervised small groups, errors will occur. Teachers and students must come to accept the fact that error production is a natural part of the learning process.

set up two lines of chairs facing one another and then limit the amount of time the two students facing one another can ask or answer questions about the information on the "billboard."

A second kind of exercise is "values voting" (Simon, Howe, Kirschenbaum, 1972: 38). This involves posing a variety of statements that the students are asked to vote on as a class. Students are asked to agree, disagree or express no comment on the statements by various physical gestures. Possible statements for this kind of activity are as follows:

Nagoya is a pleasant place to live.
Playing the piano is more important than playing baseball.
There are too many tests in high school.
Smoking cigarettes is a bad habit.
Married women should not have outside jobs.
Students can teach themselves how to speak English.

Statements like these will help students see themselves as unique and will set up possibilities for later use of values-oriented activities.

A third activity is sentence-completion. With lower level classes, the unfinished sentences can be written on the board first. One important feature of this activity is that responses are spontaneous so students should not be given too much time to complete the sentences. Possible examples are as follows:

Today
- I realized that I ...
- I discovered that ...
- I decided that ...
- I wonder if ...
- I wonder about ...
- I think my parents ...
- I believe ...
- I am best at ...

Sentence-completion is only one variation of what is often referred to as clozentropy. These exercises, where learners predict or hypothesize missing elements of a message, are useful in eliciting values and also in expanding the learners' ability to envision and anticipate the content of messages. Learners develop a sense of how previous information (the beginning of the sentence) restricts the

new information to follow.

These warm-up activities are tried and tested. Others can be found in numerous handbooks.[3] In addition, teachers and students will discover, create and fall into novel exercises as they become familiar with the technique. Exercises like these are not just fun. They are helpful in turning a room full of people into a language learning community. The exercises must be used regularly before more involved values-oriented activities can be successfully undertaken.

III

Up to this point we have been concerned with making our intentions clear and agreeing on some definitions. In the preceding section, we identified some of the ways in which to help students attain affective readiness for interpersonal interaction. We now introduce some techniques of presenting more complex situations we have worked with and found useful. They may be useful as they are, but our main purpose is to suggest the tone and emphasis of interaction guided by values. Techniques of facilitating this sort of experience will take on aspects of the teacher's personality, the composite personality of the class, and the nature of the contract between teacher and students. We use "contract" in the sense of La Forge and his interpretation of Egan and Curran.[4]

Teachers and learners have long used pictures to bring some semblance of real life into the classroom. Pictures have been used to facilitate questioning and answering, enlarge vocabulary, offer opportunities for descriptive speech, teach culture, and many other things. For the most part, however, the use of pictures has tended to be only paper-deep. Little attempt has been made to "go beyond" the lines on the paper. Visual aids called Picture Squares, however, are now beginning to offer a way of making pictures more useful (Sasaki, 1977: 1). Picture Squares can be used for many purposes. Simple pronunciation problems as well as verb tense can be

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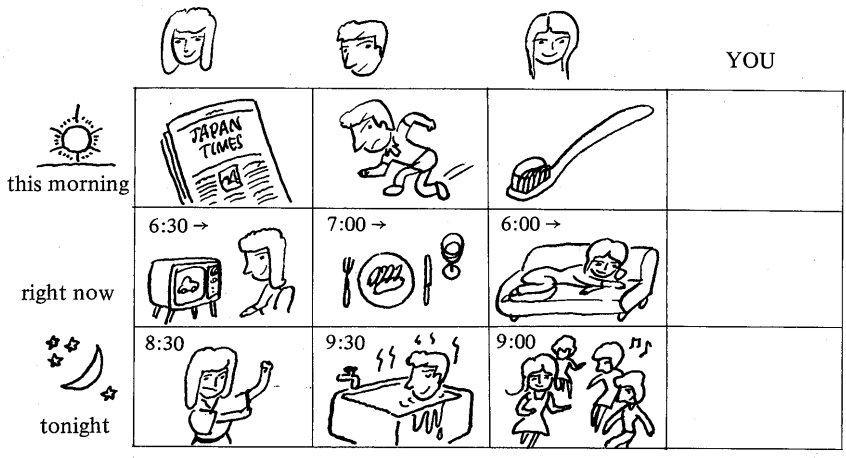
[3] See especially Simon, Howe, Kirschenbaum and Hawley and Hawley.

[4] See "Community Language Learning: The Japanese Case" in *Current Issues in Sociolinguistics*, Fred C. Peng (ed.), Tokyo: University of Tokyo Press, 1975.

practiced. Complex stories that unravel through the questioning of students can be created. The Picture Square below (Sasaki 1977: 7) was devised for the purpose of contrasting verb tenses.



This square can be used to contrast the present perfect, the simple past, the "going to" forms of verbs, present continuous, and present perfect continuous, as well as prepositions of time. It can also be used to motivate some values-oriented interaction. By following the general patterns of instruction first presented at the Language Institute of Japan, the teacher can give his students much practice in these forms. First, the basic sentences are presented to the students orally.

This morning, Bev read the newspaper.
Now Bev is watching television.
Tonight she's going to practice karate.

This morning, Bob went jogging.
Now Bob is eating dinner.
Tonight he's going to take a bath.

This morning, Kathy brushed her teeth.
Now Kathy is taking a nap.
Tonight she's going to go to a party.

After the sentences have been presented, the teacher can engage the students in practicing the tenses. Such questions as "Has Bev

read the paper yet?" and "When did she read it?" give students the opportunity to practice using the first row of squares. After the present perfect, the simple past and the "going to" forms have been practiced, the teacher can proceed to the other tenses.

After this component of the lesson plan has been completed, the teacher can advance to the communication phase. In this phase, the students are asked to answer a number of values-oriented questions that are presented in written form. Then they form small groups to share their answers with their classmates. These written questions and answers act as a visual referent. There are many possible question types.

Fill-in and short answer

Which of these persons would you most like to meet? Why?
Which do you think is probably the happiest? Why?
Which of these persons do you think you are most like?
Most unlike? Why?
Which do you think is probably lonely? Why?

Forced-choice

Which of these would you prefer to do tomorrow morning at 7:00 o'clock?
(A) read the newspaper
(B) go jogging
(C) watch television

Which of these would you prefer to do at 9:00 o'clock on Saturday night?
(A) practice karate
(B) take a bath
(C) go to a party

How can you best learn about the news?
(A) by watching television
(B) by listening to your friends
(C) by reading the newspaper

Which of these persons would you most like to spend tomorrow with?
(A) Bev
(B) Bob
(C) Kathy

Draw-in the blank
Add your personal activities in the blank boxes. Draw pictures to illustrate the activities that you would like to do tomorrow.

In the small groups, the students share their answers. The students should also be encouraged to ask other values-oriented questions concerning the drawing and the activities it suggests. In this way, pictures can be used to aid the student in expressing his own preferences and views about everyday life.

"Twenty Things I Love To Do" is a personal values inventory (Simon, Howe, Kirschenbaum, 1972: 30). Students complete a form like the following by filling in as many "I love to . . ." statements as they can think of. After the lists have been completed, the teacher supplies coding information for the columns on the right.

"Twenty Things I Love to Do" Listing

ACTIVITY OR THING	1	2	3	4	5
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
18					
19					
20					

Column 1: For each of the things you love to do, write *A* if you prefer to do the activity alone and *O* if you prefer to do it with others.

Column 2: Write *Y* for each item that costs more than one thousand yen each time you do it. For example, down-hill skiing costs over one thousand yen each time you do it. Cross-country skiing costs over one thousand yen the first time (for the purchase of equipment) but nothing after the initial expenditure.

Column 3: Write a minus (–) sign for any item that you expect to be missing from your list five years from now.

Column 4: Write *P* for each item that you think would occur on one of your parent's lists.

Column 5: Check each item that you have done during the past week.

Finally, circle any item that you have not done during the last year.

Both parts of the exercise are necessary, i.e. making the list and completing the right hand columns. The exercise can be shortened to ten or five statements. Teachers and students can add to, substract from, or modify tasks in the columns. The exercise becomes more useful if repeated several times during a semester or year. Either teacher or students can save each inventory sheet for comparison with successive writings.

Students should not be required to share or trade their lists with one another. They may be apprehensive about revealing their lists the first time or two. If there is general resistance, it is better to put it aside and take it up again later. Each student decides what parts of the values inventory he will share, if any. What the students will do with the lists is not very predictable. Whether they address the values questions directly or not, they are expressing values and using the language purposefully.

There are many strategies similar to this one in the references noted in the bibliography. Specifically, we would recommend the teaching manuals by Simon et al. and the Hawleys. Other exercises come to mind easily after some experience with the technique.

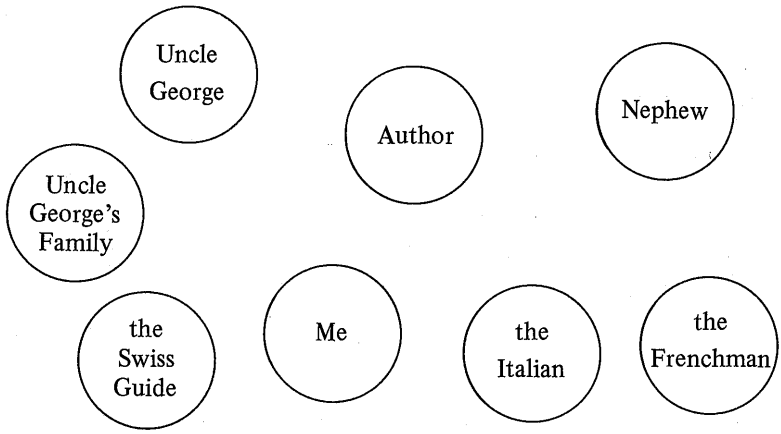
From Reading to Values Communication

Reading materials are the dominant means in Japan of introducing, reintroducing, and reinforcing grammar as well as working on the reading skill itself. Following the act of reading, the teacher usually asks questions of members of the class individually. Responses are written or oral. Reading selections typically have true/false and "wh" questions at the end of each lesson. These traditional questions are not, strictly speaking, comprehension questions but rather attempts to verify that the student read the selection.

Learner response to such elicitations does not necessarily indicate how well the learner understood the reading. There are students whose memory bank on numbers, dates, times and places is not all that good but who can infer meaning from a reading passage with remarkable understanding. Conversely, there are students who have a knack for storing proper nouns and numbers but who do not know what they read. In such cases, the good reader usually scores poorly and the poor reader scores well.

If the reading component of a lesson plan is to become the referent of interpersonal interaction, we need only append the lesson with visual and written cues that call for reflection and evaluation of the reading object individually and as a group. The following examples show how we would adapt a reading lesson. We have selected a Ministry of Education-approved text used in the sophomore year of high school entitled *New Vision English Readers* (Tachibana, Sato, Tabe, Hayakawa). For convenience, the specific lessons have been included in Appendix B.

"Pictures of Switzerland"
The Characters



Draw lines to the people who know each other or know of each other.
In your opinion, who would or would not like each other?
Which possible relationships do we know nothing about?
Make a list of all the people in this story. Write the names of those you like the most first (Rank-order).

Forced-choice

Which of the following activities would you most like to do? Which would you least like to do?

1. (A) climb mountains in the Swiss Alps
   (B) take pictures of mountains
   (C) ride the train up Jungfrau

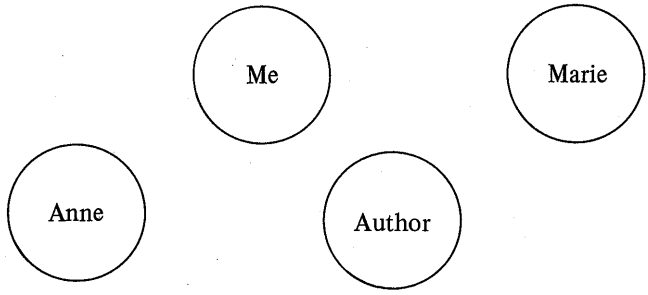
2. (A) stay in a hotel on the shore of Lake Thun
   (B) ride a steamer on Lake Thun
   (C) swim in Lake Thun

3. (A) work for a firm in Switzerland
   (B) take a vacation in Switzerland
   (C) be told about life in Switzerland

Which of the following people would you like to travel and stay with for a summer?

(A) the Swiss guide
(B) the Italian
(C) the Frenchman

"A Letter From London"
The Characters



List in the following table the French and English characteristics mentioned in the story.
(Ordinarily we would ask the students to search for the characteristics, but we have included a few here.)

CHARACTERISTICS	F/E	MARIE	YOU
Waiting to say Thank you until it's time to go home			
Domestic husbands			
Sunday drives in the country			
Sidewalk cafes			
Tea shops			

In the second column, place an F if the characteristic is French and an E if it is English. In the third column, labeled Marie, note whether she likes (L), dislikes (D) or has no opinion (N). In the fourth column, note your own position. Check your position with Marie's and with your group.

Forced-choice

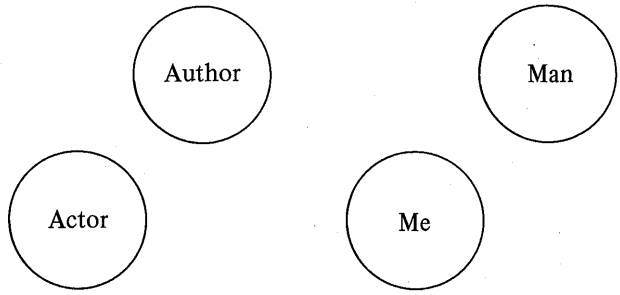
If you wanted to know where to get something to drink, who would you ask?
(A) a policeman
(B) a passerby
(C) a telephone operator

While on a trip away from home, how do you keep in contact with family and friends?
(A) by writing letters
(B) by sending postcards
(C) by telephoning

What does the author want you to think about Englishmen?
(A) they are all very domestic
(B) they are not so polite
(C) they enjoy the countryside

If you were a little lonely, which of these things would you most likely do? Which would you least likely do?
(A) listen to a radio program by yourself
(B) go out to a nice restaurant alone
(C) go window-shopping by yourself

"A Citizen of the World"
The Characters



Identify the verb phrases in the story and list them in the table below. (For purposes of illustration, we have already done so here.) Place an X in the appropriate column if the verb phrase applies to Charlie Chaplin the man, Charlie Chaplin the actor, or YOU.

	MAN	ACTOR	YOU
fight with bigger men			
faint			
want to find work			
make mistakes			
wrote and directed movies			
had few friends			
believe in himself			

Discuss the two Charlie Chaplins with your classmates. Share your own feelings about the verb phrases that sometimes apply to you.

From Listening to Interpersonal Interaction

Listening practice can be adapted to facilitate oral performance by presenting listening cues in such a way as to give rise to different points of view. By asking learners to complete a writing task while they are listening, the teacher provides a built-in visual aid from which to initiate small group interaction.

There are numerous materials on listening comprehension that can be adapted to help learners: transition from ear-training to oral

interaction. Joan Morley's materials, which are widely used in the United States, are particularly adaptable (Morley, 1972). As an example of how to make the transition from listening comprehension to student-created visual aid to oral interaction, we have re-constructed one of Morley's exercises for illustration. The adapted lesson is shown in Tables 1 and 2 (see Appendix A).

After the listening exercise is completed, the students will want to check their diagrams with each other to be certain they are accurate. After the students have compared diagrams, the facilitator introduces additional cues and asks the groups to come to decisions regarding the cues. In particular, consensus decisions are elicited. Here are some of the cues we have used. They are given at intervals.

Cue 1: Each person has one and only one friend in the apartment building. Who is it? Why do you think so?
Cue 2: Three of the students are women.
Cue 3: Each person in the apartment building is getting married to a person in the same building. Who is marrying who? Why do you think so?
Cue 4: One of the marriages will end in a divorce. Which one is it? Why do you think so?

In this situation, the students must deal with values explicitly regarding culture, language, sex, age, field of study, probable socio-economic status, interests, and the age-old problem of stereotyping. Secondly, the students necessarily imply a values hierarchy in their choices. The values themselves usually become apparent in the small group discussion. The hierarchy of values usually does not. Thus, the high point often comes when group spokespersons describe and justify their group's choices. As each group discovers that other groups arrived at different conclusions based on different hierarchies of values, an atmosphere of second thoughts may become pervasive.

From Writing to Talking to Others

Customarily, students write in class or as homework for the teacher. The teacher later returns the assignment to the student with corrections. This exchange is usually personal and private. We suggest that writing assignments can provide a natural preparation

for group interaction.

For writing assignments to be useful oral stimuli, they should satisfy certain conditions. The assignment should go beyond pure description or references to socially accepted facts. The assignment should not elicit things everyone knows, or things about which no one cares. Such assignments bear little resemblance to any potential language-using situation. Here are a couple of writing stimuli we used to elicit useful writing exercises and subsequent oral interaction.

> Cue: Tomorrow, you will be a tour guide for a foreigner in Nagoya. You will want to take your guest to the nicest places in the city. You will need to arrange lunch. Please write your plans for the day.

Our students have enjoyed discovering that everyone envisioned a different, stereotyped foreigner. It is also a revelation to discover that there is considerable difference of opinion on where to go and what to eat in Nagoya. For the students who plan to take their guest to a pachinko parlor in the morning, to Shakey's Pizza Parlor for lunch and to a baseball game in the afternoon, it is significant to discover that the world they would create for others is only their own.

> Cue: In your opinion, what are the three most important issues/problems facing Japan today? Rank-order the issues/problems and explain your choices in writing.

What constitutes an issue is dependably arguable. Rank-ordering becomes arguable in discussion. Even the notion of the world "today" turns out to be taken in several ways. For some persons, today means "this date," for others, today means "nowadays." For some, an issue is defined by the media while for others it is defined by their personal life.

After the papers have been corrected and returned, they can become the visual referent for oral interaction. The facilitator may wish to guide the initial activity with suggestions like the following as well as to report to the students summarizing the results of their writing assignment as shown in Table 3 (see Appendix A).

Cue: Please share (with members of your group) your opinions about the problems facing Japan. Discuss with each other the similarities and differences in your opinions.

More advanced classes can be given hypothetical cues, such as the following:

Cues: Which of the issues/problems would have been on your list last year?
Which of these problems will probably still be on your list next year?
How do people differ in their views of national and/or cultural issues?
How do/can these issues affect you personally?
What issues on the list surprise you?
How does your perception of the issues compare with the views of the other persons?
Which issues on this list were also critical ten years ago?
Which of the listed issues is most important to you personally? To your mother? To your grandfather?

Such discussion questions as these are designed to bring forth the student's feelings about the subject at hand. The presence of the rating sheet for each student has been found to be a good stimuli to the discussion. Thus, by giving the students the chance to write, either in paragraph, composition, or rating-sheet form, they are also able to express those things that they most wish to say.

From Grammar to the Expression of Values

In anticipation of criticism that our suggestions fail to maintain an emphasis on grammar, we plead guilty to some extent. As we said in the beginning, grammar is a matter of intellectual competence. Communication is an expressive art form. Strictly speaking, grammar has little necessarily to do with becoming an effective participant in communication. Communicative interaction, on the other hand, does reinforce grammar. For information and reference, we have listed some of the high frequency verbs, nouns, and patterns that occur in values-oriented interaction.

VERBS

be	feel	prefer
approve of	love	respect
disapprove of	hate	want
have	hope for	wish for
believe in	like	worry about
choose	dislike	should
enjoy	need	ought to
favor	oppose	would

NOUNS (Rokeach, 1968: 156)

ambition	intellect	beauty
broadmindedness	logic	equality
capability	love	security
cheerfulness	obedience	freedom
cleanliness	politeness	happiness
courageousness	responsibility	harmony
forgiveness	self-control	pleasure
helpfulness	comfort	salvation
honesty	excitement	self-respect
imagination	accomplishment	recognition
independence	peace	friendship

PATTERNS

1. Subject – Verb – Object
   I like ice cream.
2. Subject – Verb – Complement
   Compliments are nice.
3. Subject – Verb – Infinitive
   He lives to eat.
   He eats to live.
   He works to live.
   He lives to work.
4. Subject – Verb – "WH" + Sentence
   I wonder why I study so much.
5. Subject – Verb + Comparison Phrase
   I like candy better than beer.
6. Subject – Verb – That + Sentence
   Today I discovered that I have not looked closely at a flower for a long time.
7. Subject – Verb + "If" + Sentence
   I wonder if I should go to college.

The lexicon and patterns noted here indicate that value themes tend to be expressed with predictable lexical families and with particular structures. The selection of a theme leads to specific verb families. Selection of a verb limits the available grammatical patterns. It is fruitless, however, to attempt to confine interpersonal interaction to the reinforcement of specific grammar rules. Ordinarily, people do not think first of a rule and then try to discover a message to exercise the rule. They select appropriate rules through which to express messages which are on the tip of the tongue. When we facilitate interpersonal interaction, we give the learner an opportunity to exercise all the rules he or she knows.

IV

It is perhaps appropriate to emphasize some of the limitations of these activities. In addition to the obvious constraint that the activity should somehow conform to the shape of the lesson, important limitations include: 1) age and level of maturity, 2) the suitability of material/topics, and 3) the flexibility of the physical environment (movable desks and chairs, etc.).

Age and maturity level influence the choice of the activity attempted and the length of time spent pursuing the communication goal of the lesson. In addition to the shorter attention span, younger students cannot be expected to appreciate and succeed in tasks that require a high level of introspection. As their inventory of experiences is not as large, younger students find it difficult to make complex choices between alternate courses of action. Older students, however, are able to succeed in tasks that require introspection and a certain amount of hypothesizing. Younger students should be given tasks that are relatively "closed," primarily those that involve the stating of concrete preferences and needs. Older students can take part in open-ended activities. As the intention of values clarification is to help students become aware of their own ideas, feelings and beliefs, they should be encouraged to act out their roles to as great an extent as possible.

A second factor to be considered is the suitability of the material and topics to be used in the interpersonal activity. The

materials and topics selected must be within the general experience of the student-participants, especially in the case of younger students. Materials and topics are most successful when they relate directly to the lives of the students. Asking students to react to situations that they have never experienced or are unlikely to experience is not only inappropriate but doomed.

The physical environment is a factor which seems apparent but which is often ignored. Viewing the class as a miniature society, we will often want to move the desks and chairs around the room to enhance the feeling of community among the participants. Also, it is often necessary to remove the desks that hold the textbooks to the perimeter of the classroom to signal to the students that the performance opportunity in the class has arrived. Desks which are bolted to the floor, or values of teachers or administrators that preclude classroom rearrangement, are factors which make interpersonal communication strategies difficult to implement. The language learning situation must be flexible enough to respond to the creativity of the participants.

In addition to the above limitations, it is important to stress that these activities do not work for every teacher, in every class, every time. Teachers have to work with what works best for them. Individual learners and individual classes vary significantly. There are good days and bad days. As every teacher knows, what worked yesterday may not work today and vice versa. And, if there is a strong commitment to traditional concepts of language education, the activities may not work at all.

Throughout this paper, we have assumed that performance activities in the language learning situation are valuable. The theme of values and values clarification is a frequent focus of human interaction in the larger society. Viewing the classroom as a miniature society (albeit one with more structure than the larger society) it seems only natural that we exercise patterns of behavior similar to those that might occur outside classroom walls.

Such a miniature society arises as a result of activities like the ones presented and discussed herein. It is a benevolent society in which we can interact and make mistakes free-of-charge. It is one created by the participants and which in turn provides a vehicle for their learning and recreation.

There are as many themes from which to choose as there are fields of inquiry and walks of life. As for specific techniques, except for the fact that we have tried each of the preceding ourselves, our selections for this paper were almost arbitrary. The teacher will want to select and modify techniques to suit his personality and class.

It can reasonably be expected that these activities will reinforce previously learned material, clarify the learner's sense of self and the world or provide a recreational moment. If all goes well, the participants will get all three: language learning reinforcement, values clarification and diversion.

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APPENDIX A

TABLE 1

SPACE PUZZLE[a]

Six students from six different countries were studying English in the United States. They lived in six adjoining apartments. They planned to study in six different fields of study. They drove six different cars, they enjoyed six different sports and they were six different ages.

The teacher will give you the countries, fields, cars, sports, and ages. Listen carefully. Write the information in the correct column.

	Green Apt.	Red Apt.	Blue Apt.	Yellow Apt.	Black Apt.	Pink Apt.
Country						
Field						
Car						
Sport						
Age						

COUNTRY	FIELD	CAR	SPORT	AGE
Korea	mathematics	Cadillac	baseball	19
China	biology	Mercedes	bicycling	18
Japan	history	Ford	golf	20
Vietnam	literature	Toyota	pingpong	27
Thailand	medicine	Volkswagen	swimming	29
India	physics	Volvo	tennis	36

[a] Adapted from Joan Morley, *Improving Aural Comprehension, Student's Workbook* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1972), p. 139. Reprinted with the kind permission of the publisher.

TABLE 2

SPACE PUZZLE[a]

(Dictation)
Look at the vocabulary below the diagram. Repeat after me. (Oral practice) Now, look at the diagram. Notice on the left side of the diagram you find country, field, car, sport, age. Notice that across the top you find the apartments labeled Green, Red, Blue, Yellow, Black and Pink. This is a difficult lesson. Listen carefully, think, and then write. This is an especially good exercise for memory.

1. The student from China lives in the apartment on the far right and drives a Volkswagen (VW). (Repeat)
2. The student from India lives in the apartment on the extreme left and likes bicycling. (Repeat)
3. The student from Vietnam, who is 19, lives next to the student from China. (Repeat)
4. The student from Korea lives between the student from Thailand on his left and the student from Japan on his right. Three things to remember. The student from Korea lives between the student from Thailand on his left and the student from Japan on his right. (Repeat)
5. The Thai student is in medicine and the Korean student is in literature. (Repeat)
6. The Japanese student is 36 years old and drives a Cadillac. (Repeat)
7. The student in biology drives a Mercedes, and lives next door to the student from China. (Repeat)
8. Again, three things to remember. The student in the Green apartment is in physics, the student in the yellow apartment is in history and the student in the Pink apartment is in mathematics. (Repeat)
9. The Indian student drives a Volvo and the Korean student drives a Ford. (Repeat)
10. The Thai student is 29 and plays golf. (Repeat)
11. The Korean student is 27 and plays baseball. (Repeat)
12. The student in the Yellow apartment likes pingpong and the student in the Pink apartment likes swimming. (Repeat)

And last, the student who lives on the far right is 20 years old. (Repeat)

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[a]Adapted from Japan Morley, *Improving Aural Comprehension, Teacher's Book of Readings* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1972), p. 78. Reprinted with the kind permission of the publisher.

TABLE 3

Nanzan and Nagoya University Student Survey
The Three Most Important Issues Facing Japan Today

July, 1978

Issue/Problem	*Most Important*	*Second*	*Third*
1. Yen Appreciation	80	16	5
2. Narita	8	18	14
3. Excessive Exports	20	9	6
4. Air and Water Pollution	8	18	7
5. Japan-China Friendship Treaty	8	16	5
6. Inflation/Stagflation	6	9	7
7. Educational System	2	14	5
8. Coming Earthquake in Tokyo	-	7	6
9. Senior Citizen Welfare	2	2	6
10. Short Rainy Season	1	3	6
11. Negative Attitudes Toward Atomic Energy	-	4	4
12. Radicals and Terrorists	2	2	4
13. Lack of Cultural Consciousness	2	1	4
14. Coming Food Crisis	-	4	3
15. Prime Minister Fukuda	1	1	5
16. Lack of Natural Resources	1	1	4
17. Traffic Accidents	2	1	3
18. Entrance Exam Hell	2	-	3
19. Population	1	2	2
20. Implications of Lockheed Trial	3	1	1

Other Issues/Problems Receiving Two or More Votes

fishing regulations
positive attitude toward atomic energy
smoking
rice prices
youth suicides
unemployment
JNR's poor management
coming elections
increasing military
gap between rich and poor

APPENDIX B

Selected Readings from *New Vision English Readers*[a]

Lesson 1: Picture of Switzerland

1

"Uncle George works for a big firm in Switzerland. He is very happy there, because he can climb mountains on holidays. And he likes taking pictures of those beautiful mountains, too.

Now he is back in England for his Easter vacation. He came to see us the other day, and told us a lot of things about Switzerland. His talk was very interesting. He brought a lot of pictures and some maps with him, and showed them to us. He kindly gave me some of them.

I want to go to Switzerland myself during the coming summer vacation. Now I can use those pictures and maps to make a good plan for my vacation."

2

"One of the pictures shows a fine big house. It is a hotel in Interlaken. Many people use this hotel when they go to climb Jungfrau. I, too, will stay there this summer.

Interlaken lies between two lakes. One of them, on the west, is the Lake of Thun. My uncle is going to spend a few days on its shores next month. The Lake of Thun is at its best in spring.

There is a picture of a train. The train goes up Jungfrau. People get off at the end of the line and climb the rest of the way to the top. Another picture shows a pretty steamer. It is on the Lake of Thun. I am interested in a group of three men on the steamer."

3

"The three men on the steamer are smiling. They are an Italian, a Frenchman, and a Swiss guide. My uncle met them last spring.

The Italian and the Frenchman were planning to climb some mountains in the Swiss Alps. This picture was taken when the guide joined them. They

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[a] S. Tachibana, T. Sato, S. Tabe and H. Hayakawa, *New Vision English Readers,* rev. ed. (Kairyudo Publishing Company). Date and place of publication unnoted. Lesson 6 originally published in Carol Christian, *Great People of Our Time* (London: MacMillan Press), 1973. Reprinted with the kind permission of the publisher.

went around the lake in the steamer to have a day's rest before they started.

Uncle George has climbed more than ten mountains in Switzerland. He is planning to climb a few more this summer. He will take me with him then, and we are both looking forward to it. His firm has already decided that he can have a week's vacation in July."

Lesson 3: A Letter From London

1

106 Victoria Road
London, N. W. 6
April 20, 1979

"Dear Anne,

I am going to write this letter in English. It will be good practice for my study of this language.

I have been staying in England for two weeks. I have learned much about this country and its way of life. I will not tell you about London. There are a lot of books and pictures of this city, and you can see them in Paris. I think you will be more interested in life here."

2

"Some of the customs here are quite new and interesting to me. Some people here do not try to shake hands as often as we do in France. When some Englishmen go to their friends' houses for a meal, they do not say 'Thank you' at the end of the meal. They wait till they leave to go home. Then they say 'Thank you' for the invitation.

Some Englishmen are very sweet to their wives. I often see them helping their wives in many ways. They clean the windows when they are at home on Saturday afternoons. They often wash the dishes after supper in the evening. They really seem quite at home with housework. I think I will marry an Englishman!"

3

"Sunday is a very quiet day in London. Almost all the shops are closed. Most of the theaters are closed, too. Londoners like to get out of town on Sundays. There are thousands of cars going into the country. The sea is only fifty or sixty miles away, and people like to go down there. Last Sunday I went to Brighton with some of my friends. I enjoyed the drive very much, because the air was fresh and the scenery was so beautiful.

There are few outdoor cafes here, because the weather changes so quickly. I think our French custom of sitting outdoors with a cup of coffee is a very good one. Yesterday afternoon, I said to a policeman on the street, "Please tell me where to go to get something to drink." Then he told me to go to a tea shop. Here in England, people like tea better than coffee."

4

"Everybody here is very kind to me, but sometimes I think of home and feel a little lonely. Then I turn on the radio and listen to the programs from Paris in French.

When I get tired of English cooking, I go to Soho. It is a part of London, but there are almost all kinds of restaurants there—French, German, Italian, Russian, and many more. There are so many restaurants that sometimes I don't know which one to enter.

Well, I will stop here now. It is still difficult for me to write a letter in English. I hope you will write back to me in English. This is a good way for us to practice our English.

Love,
Marie"

Lesson 6: A Citizen of The World

1

"Everybody knows what to expect from the little man named Charles Chaplin.

He goes quickly from one accident to the next. He tries hard to walk through snow, and jumps from bridges. He fights with men much bigger than he, and falls in love with beautiful women. He lifts his black eyebrows or rolls his eyes. He straightens his coat or swings his walking stick.

He hides behind a big lady or moves along under a table to get away from enemies. He tries to be brave, but he faints away on the floor. He pretends to be a rich, important man.

All those things make us laugh. They are the secrets of Chaplin's success."

2

"Charles Chaplin could sing and dance very well even when he was young. He wanted to find work in show business. He traveled in rags for a while with a song-and-dance act entitled 'The Eight Lancashire Lads.' At first he played the part of a dog.

His father died from drinking too much. His mother was often mentally sick and had to be sent to a hospital. She was not really able to look after him. Her illness made him very sad.

When Charles could not find any work, he walked about the city streets. He found food and warmth where he could. Once he was sent away to an orphanage. He did not like it because the people there were not very kind to him."

3

"About the age of thirty, Chaplin was the greatest comedian in the world. He became the king of the movies.

About the year 1930, he could talk with kings. Many famous people were glad to come and see him. Some of them invited him. He kept friends with such men as Churchill, Einstein, and Ghandi.

Forming his own company, he wrote and directed his own movies. He was welcomed by his fans. But he worked very hard, and had few close friends to talk with about his personal matters. He always felt lonely. The sad side of his life showed up more clearly in his later movies."

4

"Chaplin found the character of 'the little tramp' by accident.

The poor tramp makes all kinds of mistakes. He is always in trouble. We are made to laugh at his crazy attempts to free himself from his unhappy life.

The little tramp always has a round black hat and too large shoes on. He wears a tight coat and baggy trousers. Such pieces of clothing make him look both comic and sad. They are Chaplin's trademarks.

At first Chaplin's movies were full of action without much story. In later years, he developed them to have much more of a story. Thus his later movies make you think after you laugh."

5

"Chaplin once said, 'You have to believe in yourself. That's the secret.'

Remember that it was necessary for him to live in the orphanage. He had to walk up and down the streets to find something to eat. Even then he thought of himself as the greatest actor in the world. Having this strong belief in himself, Chaplin did not give in to despair.

As he got older, Chaplin began to want something more than food and a place to live. This something was love. For example, 'The Gold Rush,' one of his most famous movies, makes us think about true love.

After living in America for forty years, Chaplin moved to Switzerland with his large family. He is said to be a citizen of the world rather than of any particular country."

Japanese English Education: A Rationale for C-L/CLL Research

Keiko Komiya *

The material for this article is based on my observations and personal experiences concerning English education in Japan. I will identify four main characteristics and discuss some of the basic difficulties for Japanese students in learning English. Since much of my language background centers around Counseling-Learning/ Community Language Learning (C-L/CLL), I will first present briefly some of its basic philosophy.

C-L/CLL is a model for whole-person education developed by Charles A. Curran, Ph.D. Research Professor of Human Relations and Professor of Clinical Psychology at Loyola University of Chicago since 1955. This method is becoming widely recognized in the fields of adult basic education, bilingual education, English as a second language, and foreign language learning.

The C-L/CLL model shifts the focus of learning—while not neglecting the "what" that a teacher teaches or a learner learns—to the "who," the person who is trying to integrate the "what" he is learning. This shift in focus contributes to the unique quality of the

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*Keiko Komiya is an associate of Counseling-Learning Institute. She was a research assistant for Dr. Charles A. Curran at Loyola University of Chicago.

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counseling-learning model.[1]

The reasons for the acceptance of C-L/CLL are numerous. Many learners are learning more material not only with less stress for both themselves and their teachers, but also with an enhanced sense of creativity for both. In some instances, noticeable personality changes, not only in the classroom but in relationships outside the classroom, have been reported.

In terms of Japanese English education, two major problems can be discerned. First, in most instances, the learners' knowledge of English is passive; that is, their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary is good but they are unable to communicate effectively. Second, because of negative or unpleasant experiences in English classrooms, the learners are discouraged from remaining "open" to understanding and appreciating the English language and culture. The second difficulty is something which merits a closer look. As long as the learners maintain their enthusiasm and openness in the learning situation, hope is still there. But once they close their minds to "English language," we are facing a more complicated situation.

Let us enumerate four salient characteristics of Japanese English education and in the process, hopefully, come to understand the problems more fully.

Characteristic 1: The Desire to Learn

There is a great interest among Japanese, ranging from children in kindergarden to housewives, in learning "how to speak" English. (This often surprises foreign visitors to Japan.) Depending on their degree of interest and time, some of them listen to radio programs, watch T.V. programs, or attend English conversation schools. And every year, increasing numbers of Japanese visit the United States in the form of two to three week "English tours" which combine sightseeing and "intensive" English learning.

This first characteristic needs to be examined carefully. Japanese are not so much interested in learning English grammar at this

[1]For those who are interested in learning more about C-L/CLL, *Counseling-Learning in Second Languages* (Apple River Press, 1976) and *Counseling-Learning: A Whole Person Model for Education* (Grune & Stratton, Inc., 1972), both by Charles A. Curran, contain detailed explanations of the C-L/CLL theories and methods.

point as in "speaking" English. The distinction between "writing/reading" English and "speaking" English is crucial. As I have pointed out earlier, the majority of Japanese who have taken English at school have rather sufficient grammatical knowledge for daily conversation in English. The difficulty has been that they have not been able to transform their knowledge into actual communication. So, when I mention "a great interest among Japanese" concerning English, I am not referring to "writing/reading" English but to "speaking" English.

Keeping this first characteristic in mind, let us go on to the second characteristic.

Characteristic 2: The Use of the Language Laboratory

Juxtaposed with the interest in speaking English is the increased use of language laboratories in schools. This development is an effort by educators to improve the learners' listening and speaking abilities. The main objectives in using a language laboratory are to provide listening practice with tapes usually recorded by native speakers, repetition drill, pattern practice, and pronunciation practice. An increasing number of schools are investing in modern equipment for a foreign language learning laboratory. As I observed these language laboratories in colleges, universities and language schools, some facilities were quite impressive.

The influence of a modern technology is evident. For example, one of the language laboratories I have visited was equipped with a small t.v. set, a cassette tape recorder, and headphones in individual booths. In this setting, learners are able to see a videotape accompanied by an English explanation.

Earlier, in research at Loyola University, Curran (1976, Ch. 4) saw a constructive use of depersonalization. That is, the great advantage of a machine is that it never laughs at whoever is operating it. The machine will repeat the material exactly the way the learner needs to hear it. In short, the machine can remove all the embarrassment and self-deprecation from the learner.

Curran is applying Eric Gill's principle here: "Whatever a machine can do as well or better than a man is unworthy of a man's labor." Laborious drills or pattern practice can be, therefore, substituted for efficiently and effectively by machines. However, at

the same time, teachers have to be quite aware that while they can depend on the machines in some areas, their relationships with the learners in the classroom should not be substituted for by machines. One reason for using machines for learning can be, as Curran suggests, "...to make it increasingly possible for teachers and others to be freed for more attention to the personalized tasks of the educative process" (1976: 61).

A language laboratory should be used, therefore, in conjunction with classroom learning. Pattern practice and drills become more meaningful for the learners only after they have had positive experiences in the classroom. The role of the teacher, then, becomes very significant not only for imparting his knowledge to the learners but also for preparing them to be eager and ready to use a language laboratory.

In C-L/CLL, this relationship between the teacher and learners is considered essential in any kind of learning situation. The teacher needs to be "free to teach and learners need to be free to learn."[2] And in order to make this workable, counseling skills and the understanding attitude of a teacher become very helpful. This is to facilitate creating a "secure and non-threatening" atmosphere so that the learners are able to engage themselves in actual language learning without building up defense mechanisms. Furthermore, as the name "Community Language Learning" well suggests, "community" is fostered rather than a spirit of individualistic competition.

In this secure atmosphere, learners start genuine and spontaneous "communication" with their peer-learners and with the teacher in a foreign language. Mounting rigidly memorized, stereotyped sentences in a stilted manner, inevitably, becomes out of place. Supporting the significance of this "secure and non-threatening" atmosphere for spontaneous communication in a foreign language, Wilga Rivers proposes:

> [I]n order to provide the best possible setting for the development of spontaneous communication in the language, . . . the atmosphere should be relaxed and there must be no tensions between student and teacher, or

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[2]From an informal conversation with Dr. Jenny Rardin, Associate Director of the Counseling Learning Institute. Also see her article "The Language Teacher as Facilitator," in *TESOL Quarterly*, 11, No. 4 (December, 1977).

> student and student, if the spontaneous use of the language is not to be prohibited. (1964: 157)

In our own language, communicating in an insecure atmosphere is difficult. It is not hard, therefore, to see the necessity of a secure setting for foreign language learners.

There is a certain advantage to equipping a language laboratory with expensive machines; however, it becomes self-defeating unless teachers are quite aware of how and when to use them. Unless teachers are able to create secure and positive experiences with learners first, then the time and energy that learners spend in the language laboratory becomes rather useless.

To continue focusing on the dynamics between teacher and learner in a classroom, I would like to examine what kind of methodology has been commonly used and what kind of effect it can have on learners.

Characteristic 3: The Audio-Lingual Method

Japanese pedagogies still seem to be emphasizing the importance of so called "mental discipline" by loading students with an overwhelming amount of memorizations. As a matter of fact, the Audio-Lingual method which emphasizes "drills," "pattern practice" and "memorization" as a process of "habit formation" is one of the most familiar methodologies which has been applied to English teaching in Japan.

Originally, the concept of "habit formation" or "conditioning" was developed by psychologist B.F. Skinner. He conceived of language as a form of human behavior which he calls "verbal behavior." According to Skinner, "We have no reasons to assume . . . that verbal behavior differs in any fundamental respect from non-verbal behavior, or that any new principles must be involved to account for it" (1948: 10).

This verbal behavior occurs in a unit of stimulus-response. Pattern practices and drills, therefore, become quite effective tools to form "linguistic habits." In his *Introduction to the Language Laboratory*, J.D. Turner says:

> The purpose of structural drills is to give the pupil so much practice in using particular structures that he can employ them naturally whenever he needs

> to do so, reacting mechanically to language stimuli and filling the forms, which have been learned, with his own meaning. (1965: 52)

Skinner's concept, stimulus-response or habit formation, is obviously employed here. Learners are "drilled" with "so much practice" until they are able to give the right response "mechanically" to a particular stimulus. Certainly these pattern drills are helpful for learners to have an immediate association of sentence structures, negative, interrogative forms, and tense sequences which are rather uniquely characterized in different languages. And the sooner these linguistic elements are autonomized, the closer the learners move to their linguistic independence.

Contrasted with Skinner's point of view about the similarities between "verbal behavior" and "non-verbal behavior," Curran gives us a humanistic psychologist's point of view:

> In contrast to ruling out individuality, isolating and particularizing and passively conditioning the animal, human learning, while using drill and its corresponding conditioning neural process, must do much more. It must further personal individuality and the total engaging of the insight and commitment of the person. Only in this way is "adequate" human learning acquired. (1976: 83)

Curran's point is clear. "Adequate" human learning occurs only when a learner is engaged in a learning situation as a whole person, a psychosomatic being. Otherwise, the time and energy he spends may just result in "inadequate" learning.

Let us explore a little further what Curran means by "inadequate" learning. Since I learned English through the Audio-Lingual method in Japan, I would like to share the effects of my "inadequate" learning experiences here in the United States.

As most Japanese do, I studied English for three years in junior high school and three years in high school. And in my case, I studied English two more years in college. After eight years of English in Japan, I was able to get along in English without too much difficulty when I first came to the United States. So one might say that my training in the Audio-Lingual method was successful. As a matter of fact, I was in agreement with that method until I had one "unexpected" experience which made me reflect on my English learning history, especially the weaknesses in habit formation or conditioning.

About three months after I came to the United States as a student, an American student came up to me and said, "Hi, Keiko, what's new?" I still remember vividly the panic and confusion I experienced because I did not know how I should answer her. I kept repeating in my head, "What's new? What's new?" hoping that I had learned how to respond to her question in my pattern practice class.

But unfortunately, no answer came to my mind. Consequently, I decided to ask her what she meant by that. She explained to me kindly that it is a less formal way of asking, "How are you?" I said, "Of course, I know how to answer that. I practiced many times in class. The right answer is, "Fine, thank you. And you?"[3]

The implication of my personal experience here manifests clearly that my habit (an acquired response), "Fine, thank you..." functioned only when there was a relevant stimulus, that is, "How are you?" In the language classroom, how many times have learners experienced that responses in textbooks were often learned in connection with unreal and irrelevant stimuli?

In other words, habit formation does not help to develop the learner's ability to speak in an unstructured situation where the learned stimulus does not appear exactly as it did in the structured situation and where new and unpracticed responses are appropriate. It is still necessary at an early stage to learn how to say, "This is a pen and this is a book," through pattern practice and drill when the framework of common association must be established. But if this is carried on too long, it can cause a lack of spontaneity in the learner's speech.

Later, I had a similar experience. I was on the phone just starting a conversation. Suddenly with embarrassment, I caught myself answering, "Fine, thank you, and you?" when the person on the other end of the line did not even ask me, "How are you?" It was embarrassing but at the same time, I was disturbed by the "habit" I was getting into. Even before the conversation started, in my mind, I had predicted what the other person was going to say.

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[3]Editor's Note: An even better response might have been, "Not much. What's new with you?" Nonetheless, the point is clear that there is not always an appropriate programmed response that can be fallen back on automatically.

This seems to be a rather common attitude observed in those learners who had Audio-Lingual training. In an ordinary conversation, they are busy setting up "stereotyped" responses in their minds, instead of moving smoothly with the flow of a conversation.

Consequently, this kind of conversation becomes rather rigid and artificial, but the learner often does not know why this is so. Thus, my experiences were not so unusual as a learner trained in the Audio-Lingual method. Bloomfield talks about predictability of response from the Audio-Lingual point of view.

> Language is the rigid system of patterns of contrastive features through which the individual speech acts of a speaker become effective substitute stimuli (signals) for a hearer. With this rigid system of patterns, *we can predict the regular responses* of the members of a linguistic community, when they are effectively stimulated by one of the patterns of the system. [italics mine] (Fries, 1961: 221)

If we accept this statement totally, there will be no space for spontaneity or mystery in human communication. Granting that the Audio-Lingual method has some advantages for teaching basic structures of English, its effect on learners should be examined very carefully. My own experiences indicate that over-dependency on drills, pattern practice and memorization seem to cause learners to speak a foreign language in a rigid and stilted manner because the learners are insecure once they are out of the familiar structure.

On the contrary, the warm, sensitive attitude of a language counselor (teacher) in the C-L/CLL model can immediately put learners in a very secure state. The research at Loyola University indicates that this psychological security has a tremendous impact on the learners' ability to speak a foreign language. Thus, only when the learners' fear, anxiety and embarrassment (the affective elements) are understood by a language counselor, can learners start communicating spontaneously and freely in a foreign language.

In the fourth characteristic of Japanese English education, I would like to deal with the learner's self-concept related to foreign language learning.

Characteristic 4: Self-Concept and Language Learning

The majority of Japanese are exposed to English learning in the

first year of junior high school. Some are exposed even earlier. One significant issue that teachers tend to overlook in actual teaching is that they are dealing with adolescents who have already established a self-concept or self-identity in their mother tongue (in our case in Japanese). But how often have we heard the statement, "Be like a small child, if you want to master a foreign language!" This statement has been used quite commonly for foreign language acquisition by many language teachers.

The relationship between learners' self-concept and foreign language acquisition was not previously considered too carefully in Japanese English education. This psychological awareness is rather new for many language teachers. But, increasingly, linguists and psychologists are claiming that this relationship is one of the most crucial variables in foreign language learning. Guiora, for example, proposes the notion of "language ego" by saying:

> The task of learning a second language poses a challenge to the integrity of basic identifications. To engage in learning a second language is to step into a new world. This act of extending the self so as to take a new identity is an important factor in second language learning. (1972: 112)

What exactly does this mean? The following example illustrates the idea of taking on a new identity: A young Welsh schoolboy describes his experience reciting a page of French dialogue. In the course of the conversation it is revealed that he has eaten frogs. He decides to enlarge upon his part and after uttering the line, "J'ai mangé des grenouilles?" he clutches his stomach and flees from the room to the accompaniment of the hoped-for laughter of his classmates. His subsequent comment on the scene illustrates well the idea of a person assuming the look of a new identity:

> In my first part, as a Welsh schoolboy impersonating a London schoolboy talking French, I had brought the house down. If this public test of nerve—to break through the dangerous glass of my own self-consciousness—had been attempted as myself, say in a humorous debate, I would have failed ignominiously; *but I had been disguised behind a new language, and that worked the miracle. For ten seconds, I had become another boy.* [italics mine] (Williams, 1961: 135–136)

From this boy's experience, we can clearly see that he was a completely different person in French. He could disguise a

self-conscious self in English and cleanly plunge into his French self.

Here is another example of a Japanese man who enjoys having a different self in English. He says:

> Even I, as a pure Japanese, have a strong sensation that I am another man when I give a speech in English. I feel like Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde, as if somehow I have put on a disguise. And yet expressing myself in a foreign language I also feel something akin to the enjoyment of wearing a mask. (Kunihiro, 1976: 275)

Regardless of nationalities, one can take a different "self" in a foreign language.

Adult's Identity Conflict Between One's Mother Tongue and the Foreign Language

Guiora emphasizes the importance of taking a new identity in a foreign language. The two illustrations show the two men who succeeded in assuming new identities. Brown also prepares us to face the difficulty when it is actually to be achieved. He says, "Any language acquisition proves that results in meaningful learning for communication involves some degree of identity conflict" (1973: 231).

Some adolescents or adults may also be able to identify themselves with a "new identity" without too much difficulty. Unfortunately, however, most adults or adolescents have to go through some kind of conflict in the process of making a bridge between their mother-tongue self and a foreign-language self. If we accept this fact, then, what are the psychological subtleties which impede adults (including adolescents) from learning a foreign language?

Like a Small Child?

When a foreign language teacher directs the statement, "Be like a small child . . . " to adults, the teacher is asking the learner to regress into a helpless, dependent and immature stage which the learner has already been through in his mother tongue. For thirteen or fourteen years he has been encouraged to be independent and "mature." Now he is asked to imitate a small child with a total dependency on the teacher. The material he learns to read is often

too simple and childish in context, but on the other hand, the strange sounds of a foreign language are threatening. Because of his limited vocabulary in a foreign language, he cannot express himself freely. Anxiety creeps into him with the possibility of his making a fool of himself if he really lets his "ego boundaries" go.

Various emotional variables such as frustration, threat and anxiety are involved when an adult tries to learn a foreign language. His already fixed self-concept in his mother tongue impedes him from taking on a new identity. Distortion of sounds, therefore, can be explained partially as the result of "identity conflict" for an adult learner. An example of this is an adult speaking a foreign language with an accent. Because of the familiar sound patterns, he can still maintain his own security in his mother tongue. Thus, it becomes easier to understand why a small child can learn foreign languages so easily and without an accent. He does not have a fixed self-concept nor has he nurtured an identity with his mother tongue yet. He can plunge totally into the new world of a foreign language (see Curran, 1976).

In 1970, Guiora did some studies on inhibition in relation to second language learning. Claiming that the notion of ego boundaries is crucial to the language learning task, Guiora designed an experiment using small quantities of alcohol to induce temporary states of less than normal inhibition in an experimental group of subjects. As a result, the performance of the alcohol-induced subjects on a pronunciation test in Thai was significantly better than the performance of a control group. Guiora concluded that a relationship existed between inhibition (a component of language ego) and pronunciation ability in a second language (in Brown, 1973: 233).

Learn to Speak as an Adult

If self-boundaries and emotions are influential variables for an adult learner, the teacher of a foreign language must be aware of these facts in dealing with an adult learner in the classroom. The adult learner needs to be helped to reduce anxiety and threat. He needs to be helped to reduce his ego boundaries so that he can engage himself more directly in the language learning.

Linguists have been emphasizing the important role emotion

plays in a child's learning of his native language. In *How Children Learn to Speak,* M.M. Lewis says:

> [T]he child learns his early words in a complicated and intricate pattern of experience, where the expressive behavior of the speaker (usually the mother he loves,) and the rich diversity and intricacy of the situation play important roles.... The word comes to him charged with emotion, as much a part of his experience of the mother at this moment as her physical presence.... So that when ... the phonetic pattern of the words comes to stand out for him in this experience, it carries for him a richness of emotional experience, in addition to the expressiveness lent to it by her voice. (1957: 13)

The point Lewis makes is quite convincing. A "richness" of emotional experience such as a warm and loving atmosphere, is crucial for the small child in order to master his mother tongue. Through this security and encouragement from his mother and other adults, the child can grow with his mother tongue and internalize it gradually.

The student in a foreign language class needs to experience the same security and encouragement from the teacher, and even more so if the student is in a threatened state. The student needs to feel security and warmth from the teacher in order to identify with the foreign language which the teacher symbolizes. The role of a language teacher has to be changed from a somewhat removed authoritarian figure to a warm and accepting mother/fatherlike figure. Simply being a linguistic resource is not sufficient if the teacher is to facilitate the student's being engaged in foreign language learning.

In "The Foreign Language Teacher as a Learner in the Seventies," Edward D. Allen states that:

> The image of the foreign language teacher is rapidly changing. In the 60's he was expected to follow directives almost slavishly. By contrast, the teacher of the 70's will be expected to diagnose linguistic and emotional problems, organize learning activities for individuals as well as large and small groups.
>
> [T]he teacher of the 70's will be a creative individual with far more responsibility than ever before. (1971: 203)

Thus, as Allen contends, the language teacher is now expected to deal with the emotional aspects of the student as well as the cognitive aspects.

Counseling Skills Adapted for Foreign Language Learning

The skill of understanding the student's affective domain seems to relate to a psychological counselor's skill in relating to a client. Curran (1961) drew attention to this in the earlier phases of his research by saying that the problems that a student (especially an adult) faces in the process of learning a foreign language are similar to the problems a psychological client faces in a counseling process. Such affective variables as anxiety, threat and frustration can be equally recognized in both the student of a foreign language and the psychological client. Recognizing these facts, Curran therefore conceptualizes the student as a language client in a similar situation as a psychological client.

> As the psychological client is moved more or less strongly in the direction of a personal solution and at the same time frustrated by his confusion, the language client is anxious to speak the language and is at the same time equally frustrated by his lack of linguistic tools. Both seem also in conflicting emotional states of wishing to be independent on the one side, and to have someone else solve their problems; and on the other, feeling hostile and resistant to such dependency, in their own urges to find an independent self-directed solution. (Curran, 1961: 3)

The strong need of being independent and of answering one's ego is one of the characteristics of an adult language learner. An oversolicitous attitude or, on the contrary, a judgmental attitude on the part of the counselor often causes hostility and resistance from the client. A psychological counselor, therefore, has to begin by communicating his sympathy. Deep understanding and an acceptance of the client's feelings as he expresses them are crucial in the counseling relationship. Through this understanding relationship with the counselor, the client begins to experience a feeling of security. He moves slowly from a "microscopic world" to a "telescopic world" and discovers a better way to cope with his problems.

Curran applies these basic factors in the language counselor-client relationship. In order to have a fruitful relationship, he proposes that the language counselor has to have not only linguistic knowledge but also counseling skill and, particularly, a warm, accepting, understanding attitude. Through these skills, the language counselor is able to aid the language client in developing his

independence in a foreign language. Curran has developed diagrams (see Appendix) to demonstrate the development of the language counselor-client relationship.

There are many psychological subtleties in these developmental stages to be discussed further. However, through the diagrams, we are beginning to see Curran's focus on the sensitive relationship between the language counselor and the client. The core of this relationship is to make the language counselor alert to various affective variables of the language client. In this way, the language client for the first time is able to engage himself genuinely in foreign language learning.

The following comments from a Stage I client and the counselor after their language experience are taken from Curran's *Counseling-Learning: A Whole-Person Model for Education.*

Stage I Client Reaction

> I surprised myself because of the overwhelming sense of relaxation. Instead of saying something like, "It is a nice day," I suddenly found myself responding to the others. I was in it. A complicated thing I never would have attempted. It didn't seem like beginning a language. It seemed like living a language. (Curran, 1972: 130)

Here, our attention should be focused on the client's "overwhelming sense of relaxation" contrasted with the anxiety and panic which the student might experience in an ordinary language classroom. Further, the client found herself speaking spontaneously and naturally in a foreign language. This is certainly a different experience from that which an Audio-Lingual method might produce.

Counselor's Reaction

> Yes ... [t]he thing that most struck me was the quality in the pronunciation of my counselee; the trust and relaxation I felt immediately. It was very good to hear communication happening right away. (Curran, 1972: 140)

This counselor's comment is very striking. She is saying that the authenticity of the client's pronunciation seems to be related to his

trust and relaxation. This seems to demonstrate that the language counselor's skills are far more subtle and convincing than, for example, Guiora's use of alcohol to reduce ego boundaries in foreign language learning.

Many psychological aspects are deeply related in foreign language learning. And they are intensified in adult foreign language learning. It is, therefore, extremely important for Japanese English teachers who are dealing with adolescents to be fully aware of these aspects. This kind of awareness will bring not only rich experiences in learning relationships but also in relating to learners individually.

Conclusion

I have tried to explicate some of the characteristics of Japanese English education based on my own observation and experience. As we can see, the C-L/CLL model can contribute to bridging the gap between the two kinds of knowledge—passive and active—by adding psychological awareness and skills to the learning process. It is my contention that teaching a foreign language should not merely produce learners whose every utterance is carefully controlled. It should begin with mutual engagement between the language teacher and the learner. The teacher extends himself toward the learner in order to understand the various emotional conflicts that the learner is in. The learner, on the other hand, recognizing this teacher's efforts to help him, takes a risk of leaping from the secure world of his mother tongue to the strange and unfamiliar world of a foreign language. How can the internalization of a foreign language possibly emerge if the learner does not trust the teacher and constantly resists him?

I would like to clarify here, however, that the C-L/CLL model is not totally exclusive of other methodologies which have been applied in Japan. It can be effectively used in conjunction with other linguistic approaches such as the Audio-Lingual method. Especially for Japanese students who already have sufficient English grammar but have some psychological blockage in speaking English, the psychological awareness which C-L/CLL can offer will be quite helpful in removing this blockage. In the C-L/CLL model, we try to bring those helpful elements to a conscious level so that an increasing number of English teachers in Japan, for example, will be

able to learn from them.

I was personally helped very much by the C-L/CLL model in improving my English. Through such a warm and understanding atmosphere, I could remove my rigid and stilted way of speaking English and begin to speak more spontaneously and naturally. Having had this experience, therefore, I feel an obligation to introduce it to English teachers and those who are seriously interested in improving Japanese English education in the future.

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APPENDIX

DIAGRAM 1[a]

Stage I. The client is completely dependent on the language counselor.

1. First, he expresses *only* to the counselor and *in English* what he wishes to say to the group. Each group member overhears this English exchange, but is not involved in it.

2. The counselor then reflects these ideas back to the client *in the foreign language* in a warm, accepting tone, in simple language, especially of cognates, in phrases of five or six words.

3. The client turns to the group and presents his ideas *in the foreign language!* He has the counselor's aid if he mispronounces or hesitates on a word or phrase.

This is the client's *maximum security stage.*

Stage II. Same as above (1).

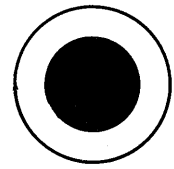
2. The client turns and begins to speak the *foreign language* directly to the group.

3. The counselor aids only as the client hesitates or turns for help. These small independent steps are signs of positive confidence and hope.

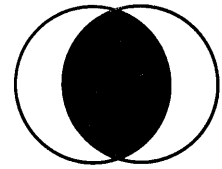
Stage III.

1. The client speaks directly to the group *in the foreign language.* This presumes that the group has now acquired the ability to understand his simple phrases.

The actual progress towards independent speaking of the foreign language was designed this way:



I. Total dependence on language counselor. Idea said in English, then said to group in foreign language, as counselor slowly and sensitively gives each word to the client.



II. Beginning courage to make some attempts to speak in the foreign language as words and phrases are picked up and retained.

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[a]Charles A. Curran, *Counseling-Learning: A Whole Person Model for Education* (New York: Grune-Stratton, Inc., 1972) pp. 136–137.

DIAGRAM 1—Continued

2. Same as (3) above. This presumes the client's greater confidence, independence, and proportionate insight into the relationship of phrases, grammar, and ideas. Translation given only when a group member desires it.

Stage IV

1. The client is now speaking freely and complexly *in the foreign language.* Presumes group's understanding.

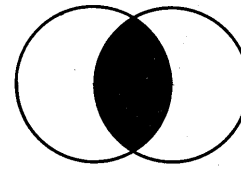
2. The counselor directly intervenes in grammatical error, mispronunciation, or where aid in complex expression is needed. The client is sufficiently secure to take correction.

Stage V.

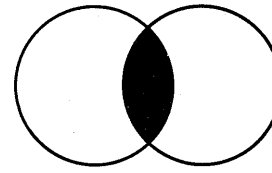
1. Same as IV.

2. Counselor intervenes not only to offer correction but to add idioms and more elegant constructions.

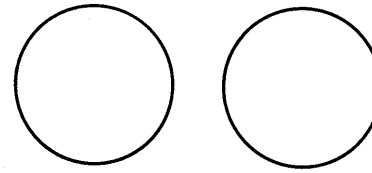
3. At this stage, the client can become counselor to group in Stages I, II, and III.



III. Growing independence with mistakes that are immediately corrected by counselor.



IV. Needing counselor now only for idioms and more subtle expressions and grammar.



V. Independent and free communication in the foreign language. Counselor's *silent* presence reinforces correctness of grammar and pronunciation.

Teaching: What We Assume and What We Do

Donald Freeman *

In an interview, Caleb Gattegno (1977) commented that, as a teacher he had seen so many failures in his classes that he could not continue to blame his students for not learning.[1] Indeed he had to look elsewhere. So his career as a "good" teacher began when he admitted that he was doing something wrong. The truth of this anecdote lies, it seems to me, in what is self-evident: that as teachers, we rarely look at what we are doing and whether the students' failure could be our responsibility; instead we tend to search out other aspects of the situation–"motivation," materials, students' "ability" and so on.

In this article, I would like to return the focus to us as teachers, to begin to examine the assumptions from which we work. What assumptions do we bring to our teaching? How does what we do support or contradict these assumptions? We are consistent in what we do–in our way of working–to the degree that we make ourselves aware of our assumptions about teaching and learning.

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[1] In a video-taped interview, conducted by Alan Rozelle, on the Silent Way Video Tape Series (New York, 1977).

We can look in either of two directions to begin this process of recognizing our own assumptions. We can take a detached, "objective" approach: What do our students do with a certain text or in a certain exercise; what phonological or syntactic areas differ between Japanese and English and therefore might cause difficulties; or what phrases or gambits should our students know in order to buy a bus ticket to New York or disagree in an argument.

In a certain respect, each of these approaches misses the point, for they all deal with aspects of the teaching/learning situation which are essentially beyond the realm of our own experience. Whether it be the psychology of second language acquisition, contrastive analysis, or a situational or notional/functional approach to presenting the language, any external "objective" approach must, by its own definition, originate outside the process which it is examining. Yet its objectivity is virtually, if not logically, impossible. As Heisenberg recognized in what he called the "Uncertainty Principle," any observation regardless of its scientific formulation takes into account the observer who makes it; it is a synergism of the observer and the thing observed: "Natural science does not simply describe and explain nature; it is part of the interplay between nature and ourselves; it describes nature as exposed to our method of questioning" (Heisenberg, 1958: 81).

So we are left like the proverbial blind men standing around an elephant of second language learning, each defending the truth of our "objective" observations while refusing to recognize their inherent limitations and essential relativity. We don't therefore directly confront the whole beast itself.

The alternative is to look at ourselves. Rather than assuming an external perspective, whose point of origin must always be obscure, we can begin with our own experience as language learners. By making an empirical examination of what we do as we learn another language, we are starting from something which is inherently true, that is, our own experience.

In looking at our own experience as language learners, it seems to me that the first thing we do is to work on sounds. Whether consciously or not, we first have had to develop some sort of control over the sounds of the new language in order to be able to work with it, and to use it. To develop that control, or mastery, we

have to do three things: (1) we have to recognize and integrate the sounds in the new language which exist in the language(s) we already know; (2) we have to recognize the sounds which we can arrive at by way of the languages we have already learned, through modifying a familiar sound to create a sound in the new language; and (3) we have to recognize and create the few sounds which are totally new to us—those which are outside the sounds of our own language. So there are three distinct processes in achieving a mastery of the sounds of the new language: conservation of sounds from our own language to the new language; modification of sounds in our own language to arrive at those in the new; and creation of those totally new sounds in the new language.

On the level of syntax and grammar, some of the same observations hold true. We have to work with differing ways of describing or experiencing the same reality; we have to accept the fact of gender in learning a Romance language or the fact of particles or post-positions in learning Japanese, for example. We inhibit ourselves in our learning to the degree that we insist on our own language and its way of describing those realities. Conversely, when we can let go of what is known and familiar to us, in order to accept and work on what is new and seems strange, we see ourselves making progress in the new language.

The same applies on a sociolinguistic level, although perhaps more subtly. To begin to distinguish the "appropriate" from the "inappropriate" in using the new language, we have to observe how the language is used around us and attempt to do likewise—accepting and learning from our mistakes and overgeneralizations.

At this level perhaps most of all, we encounter what de Saussure (1966) called "the arbitrary nature of language"—that each language has characteristics and facts which are as particular to it as they are unexplainable. Why, for instance, do people in one culture say *Bon appetit* before a meal, while those in another say *Itadakimasu?* There can be, fundamentally, no reason for these facts, because they are as arbitrary as the sounds of language. To make explanations generally becomes more cumbersome and involved than the facts themselves.

Thus, when we consider these three levels of sound, of syntax/grammar, and of sociolinguistic "appropriateness," we can

glean some principles from them. On each level, we begin with what we know—what is part of us through our own language—and we work on it (transfer it, alter it, reject it) to build our sense of and criteria for the new language. To put this principle more generally, it seems that to use another language, we must act on what we are, on what we do in our own language, to change it according to the demands of the new language and its culture.

The process which we have distilled here seems so simple and basic as to be a truism. Indeed, we have worked in this way and continue to do so without reflecting, so that the process is in a sense second nature to us. Yet if we look closely at the assumption which underlies this process, there seem to be definite implications, particularly for our teaching. In order to act on what we are to make it into something new, we assume that we have the capability to change ourselves; that is, to see what we are doing and to do it differently, to a greater or lesser degree depending on the situation.

This power to change oneself has been described in various ways in the literature of language teaching/learning. Chomsky (1968) and the transformational grammarians have referred to "the generative capacity of language": that from a finite set of elements, a virtually infinite number and variety of utterances (or surface structures) can be produced. The capacity to generate utterances is, in a sense, the ability to change what we have into what we want to say.

Curran (1976) argues that the same capacity which allows us to learn can at the same time cause insecurity: that we must change our familiar, known self into a "new language self," which puts us temporarily in a dependent, childlike state as we work to gain the cognitive skills in the new language to express our affective selves. Curran further distinguishes between adult (after puberty) and child learning on the basis that the former involves a challenge to the learner's self/identity while the latter does not. This is perhaps because children are still in the process of solidifying that sense of who they are and are, therefore, more flexible about incorporating new input and information.

Gattegno (1963) makes a similar observation, saying that adult learners need to recapture that openness or affectivity for the unknown which children have and use to learn so economically and effectively. Successful learning depends on working with the new or

unknown to build new criteria, rather than reducing it to the old criteria of the known. So, from different perspectives, both Curran and Gattegno have observed the relative ease with which children seem to work on themselves to affect change, as compared with the insecurity or fear of the unknown which often hampers adult learners.

An individual's ability to change himself must, however, be preceded by an awareness that that ability exists within him. If he is not aware of that ability, and does not accept the responsibility for it (in a certain sense "own" it), then, for all intents and purposes, it does not exist for him. Throughout his learning, he will be faced by the choice to learn, that is, to accept the demands of the new language. He will need to make changes in himself in order to accomodate those demands. Insofar as he acts on himself to make those changes, he will be successful at mastering the demands of the new language.

Earl Stevick[2] related an anecdote which provides a graphic example of this process. He tells of a Foreign Service officer who, as she was learning Japanese, refused to master certain forms and honorifics because she felt that they were undemocratic and prejudicial to women. While this behavior could be explained in terms of "resistance," "incomplete motivation," or "cultural insensitivity," the basic fact remains that the woman did not, for whatever reason, change herself to meet the demands of Japanese, in this case, and could not master the language as a result.

To summarize up to this point, we have said that to learn another language, a person must change certain aspects of himself—his production of sounds, his perception of grammar and organization, his sense of what is "normal" behavior in various situations—in order to respond to the demands and requirements of the new language and to execute them acceptably. We have said further that at the base of this idea of change, there are four assumptions: (1) that a person has the capability to change himself, but (2) that he must become aware of that capability within himself, and (3) that while he is learning, he will continually be faced with the choice to change himself on some level, and thus to accept the demands of

[2]Earl Stevick, 1976, in a personal exchange, Brattleboro, Vermont.

the new language, and (4) that his success in learning will depend on his changing to meet those demands.

Taking these assumptions as our basis, what then do they imply about our teaching and our way of working in particular? The first point is that of responsibility. If we accept that a student must change some aspects of himself in the process of learning, then we must also recognize that we cannot make those changes for him. We must grant him the responsibility for that change, be it the power to recognize and correct his mistakes (as distinct from the errors he makes because he has not yet met those aspects of the language)[3] or the power to recognize consistency in the language and how that relates to the world which language describes (Gattegno, 1977).

To engage the question of responsibility in our teaching, we need to become aware ourselves of what we do which clearly compels our students to make those changes required by the new language. In our teaching, are we giving them what they know (by virtue of speaking one language as intelligent beings) and therefore do we reinforce their complacency and passivity? Or do we let them work with what they know and/or can see in the situation, to realize what they don't know and need to have supplied to them?

Reckoning with responsibility implies choice. Responsibility for change is demonstrated through successive choice: to speak or not to speak, to pay attention or to daydream, to listen to others or to ignore them and so on. No choice is inherently right or wrong; yet each will have its unique consequences for each individual within each situation. In a sense, the accumulation of those choices—the process of choosing and its outcome—are his learning. Our teaching can raise that issue by elevating the choice to a more conscious and reflective level: what situations, assignments, exercises or whatever do we present in our classes which make the fact of choice, and its implications for change, clear?[4]

This process of changing aspects of ourself, which is learning, is neither random nor haphazard. At each point, we seem to have an idea of what is right or correct—criteria, rules or whatever—which

[3]For a discussion of this distinction, see "On Mistakes," *Educational Solutions Newsletter,* 6, Nos. 2–3 (December 1976–February 1977).

[4]For an extensive discussion of choice and investment in learning see Carl Rogers, *Freedom to Learn* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969).

we can revise at will. Thus our students use the language based on their awareness and knowledge of it, yet at each point they can modify and, thus, expand that awareness.

Throughout their use of the language, students have the opportunity to revise and expand their sense of it, their criteria for its use, if we grant them the responsibility to choose to do so. If, however, we as teachers constantly assume the role of corrector, providing the judgment of what is right or wrong in the class, then we foreclose on the possibility of his developing these criteria for himself; our criteria should be the limit, not the standard, in the class.

I have presented three areas which we can work on, as teachers, to make our activity in the classroom reflect our underlying assumptions. Our teaching can present students with the choice to take the responsibility to change themselves to meet the demands of the new language. Throughout that process of change, we establish limits—always distinguishing between what our students can know or do for themselves and what they have no way of knowing. Within these limits, they will develop their own criteria, rules, or sense of the language based on their experience with it.

In this article I have set out a progression, beginning with what it seems we do to learn another language; I have examined the assumptions which lie behind that activity; and, finally, I have considered what those assumptions imply for work in the classroom. If this progression and its conclusions ring true, each of us is faced with the constant challenge of responding to change in our students in the most effective way we can. Their changing response to the language will compel us to shift our strategies, so that we can meet them at every point. So our work is based on constant reflection, on what our students do and on how we respond to and encourage it.

By separating the process which we have gone through from its content and conclusions, a model becomes clear. Any teacher can think about what he does to learn, then look at the underlying assumptions or principles that he has observed. Finally, and most importantly, he can apply those principles actively in his own teaching. The goal is the same: that what we do as teachers with our students supports what we know is true of learning from our own

observations and knowledge of ourselves as learners.

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Ten Things I Have Learned About Learning a Foreign Language

Richard Showstack *

There are now many fine professional journals containing articles by and for language teachers about language learning. Unfortunately, however, there are rarely any articles printed by and for language learners about language learning.

In the process of studying three foreign languages over a period of eleven years in five countries, and of teaching English as a foreign language for five years in three different countries, I believe I have learned some valuable things about learning a foreign language. Therefore, from the point of view of a language learner, I would like to pass some of these ideas on to other foreign language learners and teachers.

1. Studying a language is not the same thing as learning a language.

There are millions of people all over the world who study foreign languages but there are very few who actually learn to use a foreign language. The reason for this is that most people study a foreign language the way a geologist studies a rock: they try to crack it open and break it into smaller and smaller pieces until they

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are left with a handful of dust and little else.

Unfortunately, many language teachers do not know the difference between studying and learning a foreign language, for it is far easier to help a student to study than to make sure a student learns. The primary goal of language education should be to help students to learn to use the foreign language, not only to help them to study it.

2. Most people do not know how to learn a foreign language.

Since most people study at most one foreign language, it is not surprising that most language students are not experienced in how to learn a foreign language.

For example, most language students fall into the trap of assuming that all that is necessary to learn a foreign language is to do what the teacher assigns. Or they fall into other learning patterns that are not really useful in improving their language ability.

All beginning language students should be given training in how to learn a foreign language.

3. Most people do not know how to teach a language.

Here I am not referring to people employed as language teachers but rather to "people" in general. When confronted with someone who does not understand what he is saying, the layman will adopt one of the following strategies:

a) He will repeat what he has just said again, exactly as he said it the first time.
b) He will repeat what he has just said, but more slowly or more loudly than the first time.
c) He will repeat what he has just said, but will rephrase it in the simplest possible way.
d) He will try to communicate the same idea using completely different words.
e) He will give up attempting to communicate completely.

From the point of view of a person trying to improve his ability in the foreign language, none of these strategies is as helpful as the last alternative:

f) He will say the same thing again but will explain the second time, what he was saying and how it means what he is trying

to communicate.

If this last way were the way most people reacted to someone who does not know their language well, foreign language learning would be much easier. However, most people do not have the time or the sensitivity to react this way.

4. Presentation of content should be in as many modes as possible.

Different students learn things in different ways. And each student needs to learn some things in one way, other things in other ways. The language teacher should try to "bombard" the student with language experiences from as many different directions as possible.

For example, to teach new vocabulary to students, they should be exposed to it in reading, writing, listening and speaking practice as well as in posters, films, etc. And even though two books may teach the "same thing," different books teach the "same thing" in different ways.

If he is exposed to the "same thing" in many different ways, the language student has a better chance of getting a permanent mental "hook" on the content which will fix it in his mind forever.

5. It's easier to learn labels for meanings than meanings for labels.

Essentially, words are only labels for bundles of meanings. If a student already has the understanding of a certain meaning in his head, it is relatively easy for him to learn one way, or several ways, this "meaning" is labeled in a foreign language.

Unfortunately, most foreign language teaching is done in exactly the opposite way: a student is presented with new vocabulary or structures which seem completely arbitrary to him, and then he is asked to associate several meanings with these vocabulary words or structures.

This latter method is by far the easier way to teach a language but it is not necessarily the better way to learn a foreign language.

6. The actual process of learning a language is invisible.

Learning takes place when a new and invisible connection is made in the brain which establishes a relationship in the brain between two previously unrelated external pieces of information.

These connections have already been made for one's first language but new connections must be forged for a foreign language.

What we normally recognize as language learning is only the observable external evidence of this learning. Because language learning is invisible, a teacher cannot directly "force" a student to learn. And, likewise, a language teacher should not be satisfied merely with leading the students to exhibit "language-like" behavior.

Rather, the teacher should design activities that force the students to make these new connections in the brain, the one thing in learning a language which a student cannot do for himself. For example, the student should be led to experience things which force him to think in the foreign language, to relate things together which he has previously not related with each other.

Of course, this is a much more strenuous process for the language student than merely repeating what a teacher says or filling in blanks, but it is also a much more effective way of learning a foreign language.

7. **Many short exposures are better than a few long exposures to new information.**

When you are exposed to something new, your brain has two reactions: first, it realizes that you have been exposed to something new; then it tries to analyze what the new thing is. In order to "learn" something, these two processes must become automatic and effortless.

If you are exposed to something ten times for a short period, then your brain tries to do both of these processes ten times. If you are exposed to the same information only a few times but for a longer period each time, your brain has more time to analyze it but gets less practice in connecting the two processes, and whatever "learning" that takes place is likely to be less permanent.

Therefore, the teacher should try to give the students as much language exposure and practice as possible without worrying so much at each point whether the students are "learning" each specific new piece of information. The brain is a marvelous organ which, if given enough exposure, can process enormous amounts of new information. Language teachers should take advantage of this

ability as well as the brain's ability to analyze selected bits of new information.

One more point which language teachers should constantly remind themselves of: most people can learn much faster than most people can teach. Therefore, the language teacher should try to keep up with the students' ability to learn rather than force the students to slow down to the pace of the teacher's ability to teach.

8. A student who does not use the language is no different from a student who cannot use it.

Imagine a person who practices piano for ten years but never performs for anyone else's ears.

Likewise, imagine two language students. One has studied a foreign language for ten years, "knows" it perfectly, but never uses it. The other has studied it for two years, constantly makes mistakes, and uses it daily. Which one is the better language learner? Which one is the kind of language user a language program should try to produce?

Too many language students are led to believe that a language is something to be used in the language classroom, but not in real life. In the final analysis, however, the language classroom is only a practice area, and practicing a language is less important than actually using it.

9. You'll never play better in the real game than you do in practice.

Football coaches know this. So do orchestra conductors.

Unfortunately, however, too many language students (and teachers) are content with "almost" learning something in class, and assume that the student will perform up to his ability when he needs to use the language in real life. This rarely is the case, however. If a student performs something 90% well in the structured, comfortable, sympathetic environment of the classroom, he will surely perform no better than this (and will probably perform worse) in real life.

Therefore, the language must, in a sense, be "overlearned" in class if it is to be used correctly and comfortably in real life.

10. Learning a foreign language is usually not the most important thing in a person's life.

Language teachers too often forget that language learners are people first and students second. They have other things on their minds besides language learning, such as paying the rent, eating, drinking, sleeping, and loving.

This mistake is easy to make, however, for the only time the language teacher normally comes in contact with the language learner is in the classroom. Therefore, the language teacher tends to see the students only in their role as language learners, and, of course, a language barrier between the teacher and the students does nothing to break down this misconception.

Also, the language teacher most likely has committed his life to language teaching whereas most language students want to get over with the tortuous task of learning a foreign language as quickly, and with as little effort, as possible. This difference of perspective should be kept in mind.

In conclusion, let me reiterate that I think that more emphasis should be placed in the future on studying language learning from the student's point of view rather than merely from the teacher's point of view. I hope that this article will serve that end.

Why "Bread and Butter"?

Ikiko Horiguchi *

Why do we say *bread and butter* instead of *butter and bread?* This paper will investigate certain principles that underlie these expressions in English. It is interesting to notice that certain patterns emerge even from the description of phenomena expressed in two or three words. This is because speakers by and large take a certain vantage point in describing the state of affairs, or show different degrees of empathy towards the one or the other, and thus unconsciously reveal priority of preferences. In the course of time, the amalgamation of such expressions becomes established as word pairs whose preferred order is not easily reversible.

Phonological Observations

More than people commonly realize, sound symbolism is preferred in the creation of word pairs. The most obvious case deals with onomatopoeia exemplified by echoic words like *tweet-tweet, pe(e)-wee, ding-dong, tick-tock, hush-hush, hiss-hiss, bow-wow,* and *bang-bang.* The imitative sound of the birds' chirp is represented by *tweet-tweet,* and *pe(e)-wee,* the [iy] and [i] sounds of which convey somewhat sharp sounds in contrast to the [aw] and [ae]

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sound in *bow-wow* and *bang-bang* which convey more solid and resounding sounds. Some sounds are associative of certain meanings independently from what a word means. The [i] and [iy] sounds are suggestive of tininess or slightness. The [iy] sound as shown in a contrast between *tiny* and *teeney*, a child's word for *tiny*. Similarly, *tittle-tattle* used for the description of a petty gossip, and *pitter-patter* for the description of a rapid series of light, tapping sounds are further illustrations of what the [i] sound stands for. *Hush-hush* connotes an element of secrecy as in "His mission is very hush-hush," which gives the impression that the nature of it is either not known or should not be discussed. *Hush,* on the other hand, indicates the cessation of noise by the [š] sound as compared to a smashing or rustling sound represented by the final [š] sound in *dash, smash* and *slash.* Hence, the sounds that represent a shared meaning are known as sound symbolism or phonestheme.

In sound symbolism it is often the case that the imitation of sound is expressed by iterative forms consisting of completely identical repetitions as in *tweet-tweet.* Non-onomatopoeic words like *neck and neck* used to describe an even state in a race bear analogy to the creation of onomatopoeic iterative formation. Other onomatopoeic iterative forms may consist of partially identical repetitions except for an ablaut-like alternation of vowel sounds as seen in *tick-tock, zig-zag,* and *ding-dong.* In these the first element is meaningful, whereas the second, meaningless.

Some word pairs are not of an onomatopoeic origin but of a rhyming and jingling formation. A state of utter disorder or confusion is informally described as *higgledy-piggledy;* arrogance or pomposity as *hoity-toity* (or its variant *highty-tighty*) or *high and mighty;* irresponsibility as *harum-scarum;* disorder or haphazard haste as *helter-skelter;* a feeling of uneasiness or nervousness as *heebie-jeebies;* nonsense words used by conjurers as *hocus-pocus.* Some expressions like *hither-thither* (*hither and yon*) retain Middle English forms, while others like *highways and byways* are of relatively modern formation. It is strikingly noticeable that many set expressions begin with the [h] sound as exemplified above.

Rhyme words may have identical consonant clusters initially which may be associated with certain meanings. A swindle is informally described as *flim-flam;* the movement or sound of

repeated flapping as *flip-flop.* The consonant cluster of [fl-] has a symbolic association of an awkward kind of movement as similarly illustrated in words like *fling, flurry, flounce* and *flump.* A neat and clean state is described as *spick and span,* while a similar meaning of orderliness is described as *shipshape* as in "Mary's room is spick and span but her brother's study is rarely shipshape." The latter expression is usually used in connection with males. When the intial consonant clusters are alike, it is the vowels that shift from high to low as in *flim-flam,* high front to mid back as in *flip-flop.*

Assonance is shown in word pairs which have a partial rhyme consisting of identical accented vowels preceded or followed by different consonants. A state of helplessness of ships and others, and an invitation for a party are described as *high and dry,* and *wine and dine,* respectively, with the shared [ay] sound; a product for coating flour as *Shake and Bake* with the shared [ey] sound; a portable radio as *walky-talky* (or *walkie-talkie*) with the shared [ɔh] sound.

Alliteration is found with word pairs which begin with identical consonants as in the description of upside-down as *topsy-turvy*; of being tolerant as *live and let live*; advice for children as *live and learn*; an earnest plea as *beg and beseech*; an emphatic expression of a basic part of essential function as *part and parcel*; popular music as *rock and roll* (or *rock 'n' roll*).

Semantic Observations

There seems to be a certain order of precedence with respect to the way in which two elements are conjoined in a word pair. The order of precedence in *he, she, it* rather than **it, she, he* indicates the priority of a [+human] feature over a [−human] feature perceived by the speakers and established as such for many years. Elements in word pairs may indicate a contrast by semantic features opposing each other, or an expansion of ideas by similar, if not identical, features.

If the sense of a word broken down into components of minimal distinctive features is shared by the second element except for one semantic opposition, the contrast is termed a binary opposition. One of the characteristics of binary oppositions is the absolute boundary of the pairs since they do not allow for the

middle ground. For example, it is possible to say "John is either alive or dead" whereas it is not possible to say "*John is neither alive nor dead" without a contradiction. In binary oppositions what is crucially important precedes the one that is regarded as less important as in *life and death* but not **death and life.*

In contrast to binary oppositions, polar oppositions have a grading scale of evaluative measures ranging from the highest to the lowest. Polar oppositions are characterized as having a norm, whereas binary oppositions are not. For example, a norm can shift its position on the scale according to how adjectives such as *hot (and cold)* are premodified as in "The soup is hot/rather hot/ technically hot/sort of hot/very hot." With the adjectives of binary oppositions such as *(alive and) dead,* however, not all of these premodifications are acceptable, as seen in "He is dead/*rather dead/technically dead/*sort of dead/*very dead." Polar oppositions have one feature at one positive pole, the other at one negative pole, but there is a middle ground as well as inbetween evaluative points. Hence, it is possible to say "He is tall for a Japanese but short for an American," but not "*He is alive as a Japanese but dead as an American," as a factual statement. In describing polar oppositions, it is often the case that positive values, whether moral or otherwise, precede negative values as in *good and bad, right and wrong, truth and error, pros and cons, plus and minus*, and *for and against*.

Word pairs frequently reflect a social hierarchy in which compounds are created. Words referring to the higher degree of power seem to have precedence over the ones that refer to the lesser degree of power as seen in *ruler and subjects, the rich and the poor, teachers and students,* and *bishops and priests.*

If word pairs ever reflect fights between feminists and chauvinists, the latter are on the winning side since English word pairs are permeated with chauvinism, as exemplified by *men and women, boys and girls, male and female, his and hers, masculine and feminine, brothers and sisters, he and she, lords and ladies,* and *priests and nuns.* Feminists, on the other hand, would come up with counterexamples like *ladies and gentlemen, bride and bridegroom* which reflect the respect for ladies as a knightly virtue shown during the medieval period.

Oppositions may refer to a transfer of things as in *buy and sell;* a compromise as in *give and take;* a shift of hegemony as *rise and fall.* Some oppositions are disjunctive rather than conjunctive. The conjunction *or* serves as a device to establish disjunctive relationship as in *laugh or cry, sink or swim, publish or perish,* and *rain or shine.*

It is particularly rare to find pairs with synonymous elements since two different words hardly share identical dimensions of semantic features. What is closer to synonymy is an extension of semantic dimensions in the second element as seen in *might and main, heart and soul, whole and entire, give and bequeath, pain and sorrow, far and wide, stall and crawl.* The result, then, gives a sense of intensification.

It is interesting to observe that some word pairs incorporate negation in the second element as in *hob-nob* and *willy-nilly.* The former is derived from Middle English *habban,* to have, reduplicated by *nabban,* not to have, while the latter is derived from *will I, nill I,* whether I will or will not.

Some word pairs are hybrids composed of elements derived from native and foreign origin. Their existence indicates how French interpenetrated the native element far more intimately than any of the other languages including Latin or Greek. The entire collection or lot, for example, is informally described as *the whole kit and caboodle,* a hybrid of ME *kitt* and MF *caboodle;* the state of dawdling as *dilly-dally* derived from ME *dalyen* and Anglo French *dalier;* a corner as *nook and cranny* from ME *nok(e)* + MF *coin;* assistance as *aid and abet* derived from ME *eyden* + MF *abeter;* a kind of legal declaration as *will and testament* derived from OE *wille* + *testamentum.*

What is reflected in word pairs is also the way people dissect spatial dimensions regarding height, length, and size. In a vertical dimension, it is the top that gets the attention first as in *heads and tails, high and low, up and down, top and bottom.* Tallness receives more empathy than shortness as in *tall and short:* fastness rather than slowness as in *fast and slow;* longness more than shortness as in the description of the gist as *the long and (the) short* as in "The long and short of it is that they won." With location empathy begins with the place nearer to the speaker as in *near and far, here and there, hither and thither.* With direction empathy often begins

with the direction towards rather than away from the speaker as in *come and go, in and out,* and *comings and goings.*

In describing a chain of actions, word pairs often incorporate a chronological order in which a series of actions takes place as in *eat and run, hit and run, wash and dry, lock and bolt, shoot and kill, question and answer, sunrise and sunset, day and night, the beginning and ending.* With words pertaining to food, the main thing is put first, the accessory second as in *bread and butter, ham and egg, chicken and rice, cream and sugar, apple pie and cheese, cup and saucer,* and *meat and potatoes.*

To conclude then, the English language is replete with sound symbolism seen in rhyme words rhyming with initial, medial or final sounds. At the same time, English is a language that describes evaluative values positively and a chain of actions logically.

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Basic Requirements for In-Service Programs in Japanese Industry

Kohei Takubo *

I have been with Nippon Electric Company for 30 years. I started as a junior accountant and gradually rose in position to senior accountant responsible for overseas dealings, to translator and contract negotiator, to General Manager of our in-service Language Study Center.

I cite this background not to give you my biography, but to explain by way of example some of the significant differences and contrasts which exist between Japanese and Western industry. These are differences which every teacher of English within Japanese industry should be aware of. The purpose of this paper is to explain some of these differences and in light of them, to outline from the point of view of management what our language training needs are.

Why Education Programs Are Important in Industry

Japanese industry depends on life-time employment. It has a highly developed seniority system starting with the recruitment of fresh university graduates. Had I been born an American and begun

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as a junior accountant for an American company, I would probably still be an accountant today. Instead of changing my profession three times, I would have moved from company to company. I would not, however, have changed professions. In the Western mold, one is inclined to change employers rather than profession. The opposite is true of Japan.

The implications of this are very important, and are all too often misunderstood by both sides. Because of its life-long employment system, Japanese industry spends more money on employee education than do major companies in any other country in the world. I would like to quote some statistics here to show you exactly what I mean. According to a recent survey conducted by the American Management Association, the average U.S. company spends approximately $90.00 per employee per year on education. The survey also showed that the highest amount of money spent on education tends to be spent by utility companies. A New York metropolitan area utility company, for example, spent $180 per head in 1976. This, however, compares with a major Japanese utility company, which spent $220 per head in 1976. Finally, NEC that year spent more than $300 per employee.

Education and training programs vie with Research and Development for the most powerful non-profit-making divisions within Japanese industry. From the point of view of personnel administration, training programs bolster group strength and morale, and at the same time improve the climate for business growth. They are also considered a major employee benefit.

In-company education has played a very important role in my career as well. NEC trained me both as an accountant and as an English translator for business negotiations. They even sent me to Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania for a year of post-graduate study. They did this at a time when, during the post-war period, the demand for English-speaking accountants far outstripped supply. Today, of course, there are many English speakers more qualified than I am. Still my case is not unusual.

Please think about this for a minute. If employees are expected to stay with the same company for their entire working lives, re-education and professional change become imperative pre-requisites for promotion. As market and technological conditions

change, it becomes the responsibility of the company to re-educate its employees.

Needs of Language Training Programs

Language training is no small part of this process of in-company education. We are Japanese with few natural resources except our people. We have tapped that resource and, with it, made an industrialized nation envied by all. But in tapping this human resource, our greatest weakness has been in the area of language training. This training is necessary because both the purchase of raw materials and the sale of finished products require going overseas. Yet, unlike English, Japanese spoken loud enough will not be understood throughout the world. A country such as ours, which is so dependent upon overseas markets, requires its businessmen and technicians to be proficient in at least one international trade language. Without this proficiency, we are at a major disadvantage.

I would like to cite some statistics here which I think will show that the need for language training programs is actually increasing at a fairly rapid rate. While these statistics relate to NEC's situation, I believe that they reflect the general trend industry-wide. In 1966, the export ratio of total sales of NEC products stood at 11%. By 1973, this figure had jumped to 22%. This year, exports are expected to top 31%. Meanwhile, the number of NEC employees who are sent abroad has shown a marked increase, from 500 in 1965, to 1,400 in 1970, to 3,500 last year. At the same time, the number of NEC representatives stationed overseas is expected to rise from last year's figure of 250, to around 600 by 1980.

In contrast with these statistics, however, NEC conducted a recent survey of the language skills of its employees. Forty percent of the male employees questioned reported that they could speak some foreign language. Ten percent of them responded that they were nearly fluent in that language. Yet subsequent testing showed that among this higher level group, there was a 6-to-1 differential in terms of written English proficiency as opposed to proficiency in the spoken language. This disparity is quite significant, because it is in the area of spoken English skills that our needs are the greatest.

Not too long ago, a number of scientists from one of the more famous research laboratories in the U.S. commented that while the

level of NEC research and development was very high, the communication skills of its employees were very low. They claimed that language problems made it difficult to exchange information on the results of technical research and development. Some of the U.S. scientists, in fact, complained that they developed headaches after talking to NEC people for a long time.

Without going into further details on the specifics of our language teaching needs at this point the thing that I would like to stress here is that there is such a real need, and that this need involves spoken English skills more than written English ones. I will come back to this point later in the paper, and attempt to elaborate more specifically on the kinds of curriculum requirements with which we are faced.

Historical Background of Language Programs

At this point, however, I would like to supply you with some much needed historical background, since language teaching has not always been an integral part of in-service training programs. It is, in fact, a rather recent development on an industry-wide level. I would first like to briefly describe the development of our in-service training programs. In this respect, I think that NEC may be reflective of the general developmental trends within Japanese industry.

The first stage of our education program started immediately after World War II, and continued for fifteen years until the period of rapid economic growth which began around 1960. During this early period, the primary emphasis was on introducing American management theory and technology. The main foreign resources for this input came from the U.S. military and the Japan Productivity Center. The latter brought many highly placed foreign business teams and consultants from the U.S. and Europe, and sent many management teams to overseas industries for on-the-spot studies. In our case, an I.T. & T. representative came to train us in U.S. accounting practices.

In 1956, NEC opened its Technical Training School for junior high school graduates. This school continues to this day, but offers no language training. By 1959, in-company training became important enough to separate it from the Personnel Administration

Division. It was at this time that the Education and Training Division was created. There were still, however, no language training programs within the company.

The following year, the NEC Institute of Technology was organized for high school graduates. It was at this point in 1960, that the first language courses were introduced. The emphasis on language training, however, was very minimal, and existed only within this school as an elective subject.

However, with the gradual shift toward Japan as a world economic competitor, the need for some kind of in-house language training became clear. In 1966, NEC initiated a volunteer program of after hours English language teaching. This company wide in-service program was the first attempt to seriously introduce language teaching into the overall training program. This was followed in 1969 by the introduction of a special language program for prospective overseas assignees.

Still, language teaching had not reached its present state of importance within the training programs of Japan's industry. This final stage followed the so-called "oil shock" of 1973. It was at this point that the vulnerability of Japanese industry was clearly brought home. And it was also at this point that the economic benefit of language training—be it Arabic or English—became very clear.

In 1972, NEC organized the Language Study Center. This center, of which I am now General Manager, took over the responsibility for all language programs previously supervised by the Education and Training Division. We are now responsible for training in six languages—English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Chinese and Korean. I would like to note here that NEC is an exception in this area. In most Japanese industries, language programs are still supervised by either the Personnel Division or the Labor Division.

The development of these language training programs is a vital part of our overseas activities. Without them we could not survive as a serious competitor in the international market. The management of NEC has thus placed primary importance on the development of language training programs as a means of expanding overseas sales. I believe also that this same general goal is viewed as being the prime

reason for the increase in language programs throughout Japanese industry.

Goal Setting of Language Programs

To meet the above requirements, however, a good deal of planning and goal setting is necessary. It is not enough to merely decide to start a language program as a means of aiding overseas business expansion. Specific problems and needs must be examined first.

I made reference earlier to a survey NEC conducted of its male employees which showed that spoken English skills were much weaker than written ones. We followed this survey up with a series of questionnaires to determine the exact kinds of problems NEC employees were having.

One of the earlier questionnaires was sent to NEC employees with low English proficiency levels who had traveled overseas. They reported that the major language difficulties they encountered involved situations where they had to take taxis, talk on the telephone, and make hotel and airplane reservations. As a result of this, we have designed a set of "Survival English" handouts and manuals which meet their needs. I might add that the manuals include a good deal of NEC-specific material, such as actual place names, airline and public transportation fares and schedules, etc., which relate directly to both function and location of most overseas NEC assignments.

In 1969, we organized a project team to compile an NEC Listening Comprehension manual with tapes. Previous tests had shown that listening comprehension was a major weak point among Japanese, and one which needed work. We wanted the content, however, to be as NEC-specific as possible. Again, we sent out a questionnaire. This one went to 190 people who had been working closely with overseas business. Of the 87 responses which were obtained, the following areas were listed as being problematic:

TABLE 1

Problem Areas in English

1.	Telephone English	75%
2.	NEC products and their technical specifications	71%
3.	Outlining NEC corporate history and activities	66%
4.	Giving tours of NEC plants	57%
5.	Technical negotiations with customers	54%
6.	Explaining the present status of NEC domestic and overseas business	46%
7.	Explaining Japanese culture to foreigners	45%
8.	Explaining Japanese politics, economy and society	43%
9.	Explaining NEC pricing policy	37%
10.	Bidding and contract negotiations	37%

On the basis of this information, in 1970 we published *Hello NEC,* an intermediate to advanced level listening comprehension text with cassette tapes, and sold 3,000 copies to company employees. The content of the book not only covers the areas mentioned above, but also includes a situation on international conventions, and some of the "Survival English" areas touched on earlier.

Cross-cultural Problems

Another series of questionnaires which we have sent out goes beyond the question of language per se, and attempts also to deal with cross-cultural problems. This is another area in which not just NEC, but the Japanese industrial community in general, is becoming increasingly concerned.

These questionnaires were sent to NEC representatives stationed overseas. Generally such representatives receive assignments of up to five years in any one of the more than 100 countries where NEC does business. They are more susceptible to severe culture shock than are the employees who are sent abroad for short periods of time and, as such, need cross-cultural as well as language training. Responses to these questionnaires are as follows:

TABLE 2

Cross-cultural Problem Areas

I.	The most important thing that you should study before leaving for overseas positions:	
	1. Local and international business knowledge	50%
	2. Local language	28%
	3. English	28%
	4. Local culture	6%
II.	What are the major problems which you have encountered?	
	1. Isolation from local community	61%
	2. Depression	46%
	3. Loss of confidence	38%
	4. Racial discrimination	27%
	5. Homesickness	27%
	6. Loss of appetite	10%
III.	What do you feel have been the major causes of your problems?	
	1. Language	35%
	2. Racial Problems	30%
	3. Weather	15%
	4. Different concept of time	10%
	5. Food	5%
	6. Religion	5%

IV. What kinds of people have you associated with?	*Frequently*	*Occasionally*
1. Local employees	35%	39%
2. Local supervisors	36%	36%
3. Japanese residents	22%	28%
4. Local customers	45%	9%

Ten percent of our overseas representatives reported that they had neither been invited to dinner by local people nor taken it upon themselves to invite local residents to dinner.

While the results of this last series of questionnaires are still being analyzed, efforts are already underway to introduce a cross-cultural component into our in-service language training program.

I should like to add at this point that all of the data cited above are specific to the kinds of problems which exist within Japanese

industry, and, as I mentioned in the beginning of my paper, are therefore problems and differences of which you should be aware. A good example of what I mean is that 45% of the respondents to our 1971 survey stated that explaining Japanese culture to foreigners was a problem. This, then, is obviously an area for curriculum developers and language teachers to concentrate on. Unfortunately, however, it is an area which has all too often been ignored.

Curriculum Development for In-service Language Programs

Let me now turn to some specific features of in-service language training programs which relate more directly to curriculum development. There has been a general trend in recent years away from General English programs. These are gradually being replaced by programs which are goal and performance specific. Otherwise known as English for Special Purposes, or ESP, they aim to teach specific tasks by limiting performance goals. Some examples of what NEC has done in this area include a manual of "Survival English" business situations for low level speakers of English, a telephone manual for those who are primarily involved in this type of business communication, business letter writing, technical writing, speed reading and management training. We feel that it is necessary for individual industries to develop their own specific curricula based on the types of job assignments which their employees can reasonably be expected to perform at each language proficiency level.

Since 1972, NEC has gradually modified its language programs to respond to these requirements. Initially, four four-week intensive courses of 140 hours in length were organized in 1972 and 1973. These courses taught only general English, relying heavily on the use of commercial texts. In 1974, the number of these courses increased and, in 1975, a special low level course was added. In 1977, we added semi-intensive courses for those who could not leave their work for four weeks. Semi-intensive courses meet two days per week for five weeks, for a total of 70 hours, and have become very popular. Over the past two years, the content of both the intensive and the semi-intensive courses has shifted in emphasis from general English to ESP. We are now also considering the

addition of what we call "Mini-Courses," of 35 to 70 hours in length which will teach only special skills.

Three Stages of Language Training

What we at NEC have done, then, has been to proceed from research aimed at determining actual in-service language training requirements to the gradual implementation of programs which meet these requirements, by developing our own curricula. This, however, is only one part of the picture. In addition to research and curriculum development, careful attention also has to be paid to management cooperation, selection of the proper kind of program for each stage of development, and the hiring of an instructional staff. I would like to treat each of these points in order.

First, in organizing any in-service language program, Japanese management conditions must be taken into consideration. Generally, in Japanese management, group decision is most effective. Human relations and management by consensus is considered important. Thus, when the Language Study Center was organized in 1972, initial briefings were made at the monthly general managers conferences, chaired by the company president. We also sought the support of division and department managers, and asked them to take the initiative in recommending their people for participation in the programs. Feedback service to managers is also considered important.

Next, selection of the proper kind of program for each stage of development is of crucial importance in building a successful program. This is particularly true for companies which are just beginning their programs.

At the very earliest stage, it is probably best for management to send their employees to commercial language schools. I might also recommend this for small companies where the number of trainees is small. While sending employees to commercial schools usually means that they will receive general English training, the company is not faced with the initial burden of hiring teachers and designing its own curriculum. Commercial schools should be selected on the basis of general reputation. For long-term contracts, however, Japanese management requires both quality instruction and quantifiable results.

The second stage of language training becomes necessary as the total number of trainees increases. Here, it is to the advantage of the company to organize classes at a company site. Such classes are usually taught by the same instructors sent from commercial language institutes on a contract basis. In such classes, management expects that the teacher-student relationship will become closer, and also that a better curriculum can be adopted to meet specific requirements.

The third stage becomes necessary when there is both an increase in the number of trainees and the types of required training programs. At this point, the company should seriously consider setting up its own in-service language programs, staffed with instructors and curriculum developers who are actually hired by the company.

We at NEC, are now between the second and third stages. That is to say, we have had a core staff of instructors, curriculum developers and methodologists since 1973, but at the same time, we continue to contract with certain companies for specific courses. These contracts are usually for courses which are offered on an infrequent basis. They currently include our language training in Korean, Chinese and French, but not Portuguese, Spanish or English.

Hiring of Qualified Staff

Probably one of the most difficult problems in terms of setting up an in-service language program involves the hiring of qualified staff. This is a problem for both management and teachers.

As I mentioned at the outset of this paper, significant differences exist between Japanese and Western industry. These are differences of which teachers should be aware. For one thing, because of the life employment system in Japan, managers are generally reluctant to fire teachers who prove to be either unqualified or unable to adjust to Japanese standards. Because of this conservatism, many managers have preferred to rely on commercial institutions. In such cases, the commercial school can simply replace teachers who are not to the company's liking by shifting them to another company. Nevertheless, because of the increasing need for custom-tailored language training programs, many companies are now looking for full-time instructors; thus

hiring standards need to be set. At NEC, selection of instructors is based on the following set of standards:

TABLE 3

NEC Standards for Hiring Instructors

1. Professionally trained and experienced instructors with degrees in Linguistics or TEFL/TESL.
2. Instructors with a warm personality who have a strong interest in Japanese culture and people.
3. Instructors who either have experience living in Japan or who are familiar with and can adjust to Japanese living conditions.
4. Preference for instructors who have some knowledge of the Japanese language.

Some Aspects of Language Teaching in Japan

I would now like to touch on some aspects of language teaching in Japan which relate both to the standards we have set for instructor selection, and to the problems of cultural differences which I discussed earlier.

Inexperienced teachers sometimes become embarrassed by the silence of their Japanese students. I know of one female American instructor who began to cry after becoming impatient with the lack of response to questions in her classroom. The problem here is that what many foreign teachers consider to be very easy questions are in fact for Japanese the most difficult. Questions such as "Tell me about your hobby," or "Tell me about your family," are not ordinarily the subjects of Japanese conversations. Assuming that the problem is cultural and not linguistic—as it was in this case—a question such as "Tell me what your name means in English," would have elicited an immediate response. It would not have been an area for potential embarassment, resulting in classroom silence.

There is, however, another side to this coin which is equally important. As you will recall, I noted earlier that in a survey we took, 45% of the respondents claimed that being able to explain Japanese culture to foreigners was a problem. I would suggest that not being able to answer questions such as "Tell me about your family," are reflections of this problem. Very simply, because these are the types of questions that Japanese are likely to be asked at a

cocktail party or over dinner on a foreign business trip, they should be taught in the classroom. And while I don't pretend to be a methodologist, it seems more sensible to me to practice these questions within the context of a real situation such as a cocktail or dinner party, rather than during a so-called free conversation hour. The latter, in fact, might even have a detrimental effect, since talking about one's family in a free conversation hour might sound more like a formalized Japanese speech, and lack the informality and spontaneity which Westerners generally equate with honesty and confidence.

What we are looking for, then, is more than simple awareness of cultural differences. We want creative language teachers who can act upon these differences and teach them in class in an imaginative language learning environment. In our NEC managers course, for example, we discuss this kind of problem and attempt to find solutions by leveling the difference in language skills between English and Japanese. Some of the confidence-building techniques which have come out of this problem-solving course include the following:

TABLE 4

Confidence-building Techniques for Japanese

1. Always remember that when you meet someone who cannot communicate in Japanese, there could be no communication if it were not for your ability. Thus, it is your skill, not his, that allows the communication to take place.
2. When functioning in English, remember your expressive ability is limited, but your thinking capacity is enlarged.
3. Learn to use the richness of your native language to offset the imbalance of your expressive ability.
4. When you feel at a disadvantage, remind them, but don't apologize for trying to function in their language.
5. No matter what happens, use each cross cultural encounter to increase your understanding of the language and the culture.
6. Learn to use expressions such as, "We have a word in Japanese that expresses what I want to say, but I can't think of a good equivalent in English," or, "I want to say... ."

The advantages of these techniques are that you can use leveling

to fill in the pauses and the silence to decrease tension and make up for a limited vocabulary. You can also show English speakers some of the beauty of the Japanese language and the Japanese way of thinking. In so doing, you can help increase their awareness of your culture.

The above are just a few of the techniques which have come out of our advanced level NEC managers course. They may be of help to teachers in helping to build students' confidence and in showing that they, the teachers, are culturally aware.

Finally, I would like to list a few cultural guidelines which I think may help to improve understanding in the classroom. These relate primarily to the self-image that the Japanese businessman wants to create for himself, and why he is in a language training program.

1. Good Japanese businessmen are those who are international in their ability to communicate, but retain their sense of Japanese culture. This is what the term "International Man" really means.
2. The Japanese businessman wants to be able to express his opinion, not change his value system. This, by the way, may be different from what some young students want today.
3. Proficiency in communication should not mean native speaker fluency. Having the confidence to keep a "yes/no" attitude, and never being shy in the presence of foreigners, is much more important.

While language education in Japan has achieved considerable success in terms of our ability to translate English works into written Japanese, oral communication skills have all too often been hindered by different cultural backgrounds. I hope that this paper will in some way help to bridge that gap.

Book Reviews

MODERN ENGLISH LETTER WRITING: A GUIDE FOR JAPANESE BUSINESSMEN. Thelma Margolis. Tokyo, Japan: NEC Books Ltd., 1979, Pp. vii + 310.

Thelma Margolis's text, *Modern English Letter Writing: A Guide for Japanese Businessmen,* is written with a clearly defined and well-executed goal: to enable Japanese businessmen to produce effective and well-written business correspondence. This text will be invaluable to teachers working with students who need to transact business in English, as it is written with clarity, directness, and simplicity. The book is directed specifically to the needs and problems of students who must use English in matters of international trade and economics. Considering Japan's position in the import-export world, a large number of people must use English to convey clear and effective business information on a daily basis. Margolis has written the text so that it exemplifies the writing elements she propounds: it is easily read, the meaning is immediately understood, it is well-organized, and the instructions cannot be misunderstood (p. 55). The book is intended for use in the classroom or for self-study (there is a key to the manual in Japanese). However, I believe this book can be best utilized in a classroom setting where group discussion and correction of writing samples can lead students to "discover" the elements of effective letter writing.

The text is divided into two major sections: (1) writing readiness, or preparing to write, and (2) writing practice, using models to exemplify the qualities of effectively written business correspondence. The first part, writing readiness, discusses the appearance, mechanics, and content of business letters and aims to give students the criteria to evaluate their writings in terms of:

Appearance:	Does the written message create a good image by making a favorable first impression?
Mechanics:	Does the written message follow acceptable layout and punctuation form?
Content:	Does the written message convey its purpose in courteous, clear, concise, and correct English? (p.iii)

Appearance, or creating a favorable impression, is explained and illustrated in the first chapter, which discusses considerations in letterhead and stationery choice and the proper placement of the letter on the page.

The book contains two chapters on mechanics; the first is concerned with layout form, or the mechanics of style, and the second with grammar and punctuation. Chapter 2, "Mechanics (1): Layout Form," discusses in detail the parts of the letter, semi-block form, spacing, indentation, and punctuation. Each aspect of letter format is presented simply and directly and is accompanied by examples and models which demonstrate proper layout. This chapter includes a great deal of basic information which many teachers might erroneously assume to be self-evident; for example, instructions are given on folding and inserting the letter into the envelope, addressing the envelope, and the various salutations used in business correspondence.

Chapter 3 deals with the mechanics of grammar, punctuation, and spelling and is oriented to the specific problems of Japanese students. Although this chapter includes a short review of grammar and some exercises designed to check students' basic understanding of grammatical rules, it is here that the teacher may want to backtrack or supplement the materials according to student needs. The exercises illustrate common errors in students' writings: subject-verb agreement, pronoun usage, noun plurals, negatives, etc. I believe that the approach Margolis has taken in her text toward working with grammatical weaknesses is the most efficient for leading students to develop their own criteria of correctness. That is, the text provides writing samples which demonstrate high-frequency errors in grammar and usage and allows the students to correct the errors themselves. This process of student correction, which seems to occur most effectively in small groups, leads students to develop an ability to proofread and self-edit their own writings. Student correction places the teacher in the background in a consultative role and allows careful observation of problem areas where students lack the criteria to make necessary corrections. At this point, the teacher can provide the needed practice and/or explanation. Students seem to gain confidence in their skill to detect and correct errors, and consequently, in their own ability to

write well. Indeed, what distinguishes this text from others which deal with business writing is its strong focus on student correction; it provides extensive practice in the revision of poorly or incorrectly written letters and sentences demonstrating the kinds of errors Japanese students most frequently make. This practice builds the students' ability to write and proofread independently. This approach is the strong point of the book, as it addresses the special problems of Japanese students who must write business correspondence in English and who must deal not only with the format of letter writing but also with problems of grammar and usage.

Chapter 4, "Letter Content: Manipulating the Language," discusses the more difficult areas of tone, conciseness, and precision. Margolis's message to students is clear: keep it simple. The language of business is simple and straightforward, so students best avoid waste and confusion by keeping it that way. She encourages students to use words that are natural, specific, and familiar and to write sentences that are short and simple. A number of outdated expressions (which everyone will recognize) are listed next to their simplified equivalent. This is followed by exercises in revision and reduction of overworked and wordy phrases.

For non-native speakers, manipulating the tone and attitude of business correspondence is a monumental task involving an awareness of subtle features of the language that few students possess. Evaluating trite or tactless language is certainly a difficult assignment from a student's point of view. Nevertheless, Margolis approaches the problem both directly, by presenting some guidelines for conveying a positive attitude, and indirectly, through the use of well-written model letters which demonstrate the ways in which native speakers express themselves. Achieving a positive tone is especially difficult when writing complaint and claim letters. For example, imagine a student trying to evaluate the difference in tone between the following sentences.

Ineffective:	We could have shipped your order by now, but you did not include shipping instructions.
Effective:	Your order will be shipped just as soon as we receive your shipping instructions. (p. 45)

Reading and studying the language of business letters can give students insight into the foggy area of tone and can increase their awareness of the ways in which tone and attitude are adjusted by native speakers.

As Margolis states in the introduction, Japanese students seem particularly amenable to working with models (p. iv). If one is teaching expository writing, such a technique might be questionable. However, business writing is relatively standardized; there are a number of expressions which recur frequently that can be of benefit to students and facilitate their ability to express themselves clearly in writing. The second section of the text, "Writing Practice," utilizes model letters to guide students toward writing their own letters. Learning to write is a sequential process for which Margolis recommends the following:

> 1. Copy well-written, modern model letters. Reproduce them in simple form with minor changes in names and places.
> 2. Adapt model letters. Reproduce them but substitute business situations likely to occur in the student's company. Students should never copy a model letter to be used in their company. To adapt means to revise to fit the company's requirements.
> 3. Write original letters using free expression related to students' companies. Increase the difficulty of the situations. Continue to use the checklist for final copy. (p. 52)

The checklist referred to in the above quotation presents all the points to be considered in writing a business letter and condenses the guidelines and suggestions presented in the narrative of the text.

Chapters 6 and 7 present examples of model letters which fall into two categories: (1) letters dealing with the social aspects of business, such as invitations, thank you letters and letters recognizing excellence; and (2) letters which are written in the course of transacting business. Chapter 7 includes sample letters of inquiry and quotation, letters requesting credit information, replies to requests for credit information, order letters, complaint letters, etc. A typical response to each type of letter is included. These two chapters provide excellent examples of the kinds of letters that Japanese businessmen are called upon to write in the course of conducting international business affairs. In addition to the model

letters, checklists and guidelines are provided indicating the type of information which should be included with each kind of letter.

The two chapters of well-written model letters are followed by a chapter which includes letters written by Japanese businessmen who were studying business letter writing. Each letter is printed twice. Student samples appear in their original form with notations and corrections, and, on the facing page, a proposed revision is printed. Margolis suggests that students attempt several revisions of the same letter and emphasizes that there are several ways to transmit the same message (p. 129). The sample letters were chosen to illustrate the most common mistakes in Japanese students' writing; that is, problems with subject-verb agreement, use of prepositions, articles, verb tense, etc.

The final chapter deals with information concerning international trade: procedures in international trade pertaining to buying and selling goods, shipping, and billing; an outline of Japanese import-export procedures; and a glossary of terms and abbreviations related to international trade, credit, currency and foreign exchange. This section is a useful reference for businessmen who work in an area with a great deal of specialized vocabulary which must be used precisely in order to conduct matters of trade efficiently.

After reading Thelma Margolis's text, looking through the eyes of a teacher and trying to look through the eyes of a learner, it is apparent that she knows her business. That is, she knows the world of business, its forms and language, but perhaps more importantly she knows the business of her students, the purposes for which they need English, their language needs and weak points, and the best means for guiding them toward more effective written correspondence. Her text exemplifies what she is teaching—it is clear, understandable, and readable. It begins by preparing students to write, but here she has left room for teachers to work with the varying levels and capabilities of their students while providing guidelines on what she has found to be the best method for dealing with linguistic problems. Also, the text does not require that students have an advanced level of ability in English in order to improve their letter writing ability; it is flexible enough so that students with a relatively limited range of structure and vocabulary

can produce effective letters.

This is certainly the most clearly presented text I have seen on business letter writing. It emphasizes using models with student correction of poorly written samples. This is a technique which I have found effective in writing classes and seems to lead students to autonomy as writers and proofreaders. Teachers working with business correspondence and individual students who want to advance their writing skill should take a look at this text.

—*Triny Yates-Knepp* *

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BEYOND EXPERIENCE: THE EXPERIENTIAL APPROACH TO CROSS-CULTURAL EDUCATION.
Edited by Donald Batchelder and Elizabeth G. Warner. Brattleboro, Vermont, U.S.A.: The Experiment Press. 1977. Pp. 196.

Cross-cultural education still wears the mantle of novelty among educators, but the Experiment in International Living (EIL) has been doing it for almost half a century. The Experiment has indeed come a long way since that far off summer in 1932 when a young YMCA and university counselor named Donald Watt took a small band of young men from the United States to Switzerland to learn about the world by sharing experiences with young Europeans. These experiences included camp life, hiking and bicycling. It was only in the following summer that the family homestay became the "laboratory" of the international living experiment and the hallmark of the EIL.

In its first twenty-five years Donald Watt's Experiment spread to almost forty countries and even weathered the disruptions of the Second World War. Every summer hundreds of young men and women from all over the world packed their bags and back-packs to experiment with living in another country, becoming for a time a member of a family in the foreign culture. The homestay was designed, as Donald Watt put it, "as a controlled human situation which would produce understanding and friendliness between people of different cultures in a limited period of time."[1] This spirit of high idealism has characterized the Experiment throughout its existence.

It was in the next twenty-five years that the Experiment became a recognized educational institution. First, American higher education had to extend recognition to experiential education. I remember how, after I joined the faculty of Antioch College with its work-study plan in 1947, I would be chided at professional historical meetings and asked whether I had brought my work kit along, like the shoemaker sticking with his last. But as colleges and universities began to establish study programs overseas for their

[1] Quoted in Ted Gochenour, "The Homestay," (1978). The story of the Experiment is told in Peters (1957), Watt (1967) and Watt and Walker (1977).

undergraduates in the 'fifties in circumstances where the classroom lost its central role in learning, when they began to glimpse the implications of their task-oriented training in the 'sixties of Peace Corps volunteers, when affective learning came to join cognitive learning among educational goals, when higher education began to serve other populations aside from teenagers and to take account of life experience–then the kind of learning that the Experimenters were doing was finally tendered recognition as a legitimate occupation at centers of "higher" learning.[2]

Meanwhile, the Experiment itself was expanding its programs. In the late 'fifties it began to cooperate with universities and colleges in planning projects for academic credit. In the 'sixties the Experiment undertook the training of almost fifty groups of Peace Corps volunteers, and in 1964 it established the School for International Training (SIT) as an academic institution, which in due time met the tests of accreditation. The School for International Training offers the Master of Arts degree to graduates preparing for international careers as well as an upper level undergraduate program. It also teaches English to international students, a variety of foreign languages to Americans, and it conducts training programs for many different groups preparing to move into new cultures.

Today the Experiment is one of the foremost institutions in the world that is involved in cross-cultural education, and the book under consideration, published in cooperation with the Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research, represents a distillation of experience over almost fifty years. The articles are written by staff members who have been doing the teaching.

There are three sections, covering theory, exercises, and assessment.

For intercultural trainers, the exercises alone are worth the price of admission. They range from simulations in the classroom to techniques for learning languages and making cultural observations

[2] In 1971 this movement gained national importance with the creation of the Commission on Non-Traditional Study, headed by Samuel Gould. In 1974 the project for the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning (CAEL) was established, later taking on the form of the Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning (still CAEL), with Morris Keeton as Executive Director. See Keeton and Associates (1976) and Keeton and Tate (1978).

in the field. Some, like the "Albatross" simulation, which is almost guaranteed to shake up the ethnocentric, have long been shared with other trainers and educators. Others, like the "Drop-Off" technique, where the student is dropped off for a brief sojourn in a nearby environment to gather cultural observations, have been developed also by other institutions, although perhaps nowhere with such thoroughness and sophistication. Many will be new to the reader. All will prove exceptionally useful.

The sections on concepts and assessment will be of special interest to educators. The book's subtitle announces that it will deal with "the experiential approach to cross-cultural education." We are concerned, therefore, with two kinds of learning, experiential and cross-cultural. Experiential learning has been defined as "learning in which the learner is directly in touch with the realities being studied" (Keeton and Tate, 1978: 2). It is a form of learning in which experiencing the subject of study plays the central role, in distinction to the form of learning which emphasizes listening to lectures and reading books about the subject. In *cross-cultural* experiential learning, the reality which the learner directly encounters is a culture or sub-culture different from the learner's own. The student is a participant-observer, seeking to learn about the host culture by taking part in its everyday life and by reflecting upon the meanings of this experience.

Beyond Experience is a well chosen title. As the book makes clear, experience of another culture is only one step in the process of cross-cultural learning. This process is a kind of spiral, with experience leading to reflection that produces concepts that are tested by further experience that in turn leads to a refining of those concepts, and so on. Experience is no end in itself; it only provides the raw data for intellectual examination.

The authors insist that an intercultural training program must go beyond books and facts. They feel that "the greatest weakness in cross-cultural training programs has been the emphasis placed on acquiring information about another culture *per se,* rather than on the individual entering that culture" (p. 15). Their own emphasis is squarely upon the individual, who is to be equipped first of all with a sense of identity, both as an individual and as a member of a particular culture. They confront the trainee with five basic

questions to be asked: Who am I? Where do I come from? Where am I going? What for? What am I willing to consider attempting? (p. 59). Researchers have found that in predicting the impact of field experience upon students nothing is more important than information about the students themselves: "knowledge of who they are, why they came, and what they expect" (McHugo and Jernstedt, 1979). The Experiment trainers seek to assure more beneficial learning outcomes by making sure that the students themselves seriously consider these matters.

In the area of assessment, also, self-evaluation is heavily stressed. "Evaluation is seen as not only a definitive statement about what has been learned, but as a tool to help learners identify what still needs to be learned. . ." (p.143). As one reads through the many detailed forms that have been developed to help the students evaluate their own learning, it almost seems as though the plant is being dug up to see how it is doing before it flowers. But it was with just such measures of assessment of student learning that the School for International Training passed its own tests set by the accreditation teams. As happens to those who choose not to follow the path of some conventional wisdom, the SIT staff had to chart their own goals. Consequently, they were able to present the visiting teams with a clearer set of educational objectives than most institutions under examination, and they were able to offer the assessment results to indicate what the students had achieved on the way to those goals.

The Experiment has had its own researchers looking into educational outcomes, but this book is concerned rather with educational methods. Donald Watt had a simple test for success: the feeling of happiness that an Experimenter had about the experience. This may seem naive, but we should remember that a whole generation of American social scientists studied international students in the United States to find out how they were adjusting, not how they were learning. Today's Experiment leaders have indeed developed measures of success in learning. Would they agree with the early statement of Donald Watts that the homestay was designed "as a controlled human situation which would produce understanding and friendliness between people of different cultures in a limited period of time"? The homestay is rarely as controlled as

program directors might wish, and in some situations it can produce both misunderstanding and unfriendliness. Homestay is a simple word that conceals a multitude of complicated interactions. Ray Gorden's classic study of homestays in Bogota found that goodwill, intelligence, and even fluency in foreign language are not enough in themselves to produce happy outcomes: "Under some circumstances the more fluent the language the more misunderstanding is produced; and . . . seemingly trivial misunderstandings often lead to basic mutual misperceptions and generate hostility or alienation" (Gorden, n.d., 2–3).

A recent homestay study suggests that things are even more complicated than we supposed: Bady and Dold (1977) found "the experience was more distressful or upsetting for the men than it was for the women." There seemed to be sex differences in role categories and learning styles that produced varying degrees of stress.

To be sure, as a recent survey demonstrates, there needs to be much more research on the impact of field experience of all types (McHugo and Jernstedt, 1979). We need a more carefully formulated learning theory, especially for cross-cultural experiential learning; we need clearer concepts of success and failure; and we need personality studies related to different kinds of projects. All the same there can be no question that the homestay is a powerful vehicle for cross-cultural learning. At the heart of the Experiment's design, it is an unrivalled point of entry to foreign culture. And the Experiment has gone on to develop a whole array of pedagogical devices to prepare participants for the cross-cultural encounter, not just to cope, but to draw the greatest educational profit from the experience.

Thomas Aquinas used to say that all his philosophical writings were but a straw, compared to the divine inspiration that moved him. I wonder if Donald Watt, contemplating all the Experiment's educational treasures here displayed, which represent such a welcome addition to the all too sparse literature of cross-cultural education, might feel somewhat the same: that all this would be as nothing without that original inspiration which continues to provide the motivation for all the Experiment's good works, that drive to go forth and build a better multi-cultural world.

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