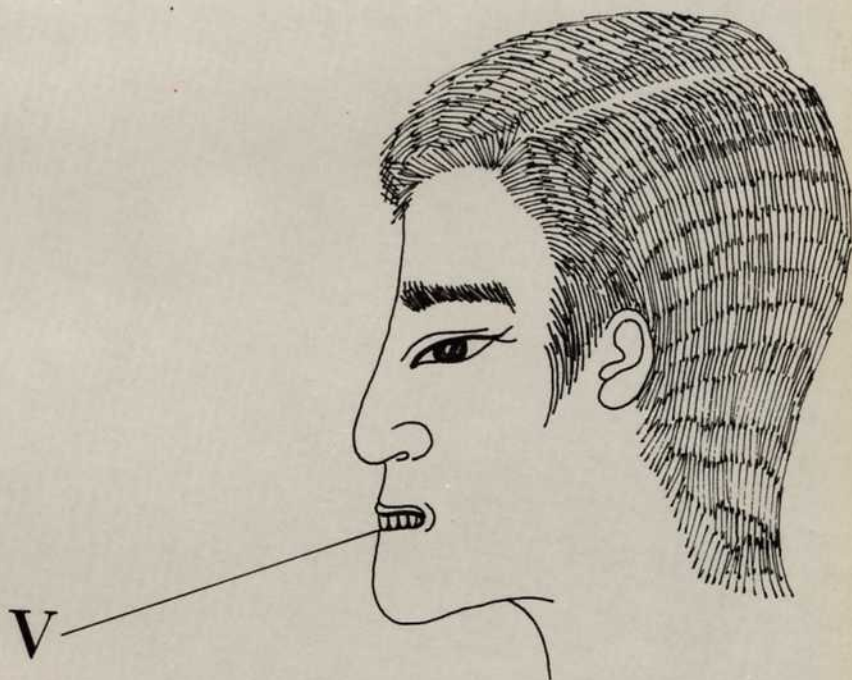


CROSS 音韻 CURRENTS

LIOJ JOURNAL, SPRING 1974

^{ヴィー}
「Vの字は日本人の發音に苦む所なり此は上齒を下唇に接し發音すべし。之を圖解
せは下の如し」

FROM "CONVERSATIONAL ENGLISH" (MID-MEIJi PERIOD)



LIOJ JOURNAL SPRING 1974

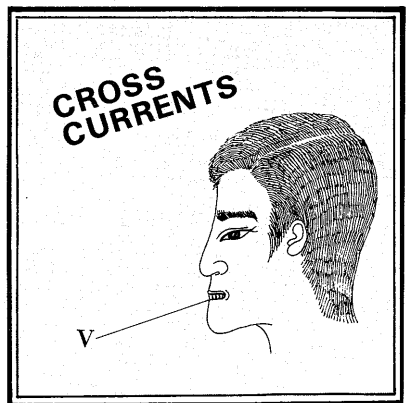


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Foreword

Our cover illustration for this issue of *Cross Currents* has been taken from an undated English conversation book printed in Japan. From material in the introduction of that book, it would appear that it was printed sometime shortly before the turn of the century. As our cover indicates, many of the problems that face teachers of English today are not so dissimilar from those of seventy or eighty years ago. Countless numbers of students and teachers have struggled and will continue to struggle with the problem of “v” and “b” discrimination.

Likewise, the necessity of learning and teaching foreign languages has not changed. The following are some of the comments that Dr. Eastlake, the initiator of the old conversation book, made in the introduction to his textbook:

“How important the study of English is to the Japanese people, need not be here particularized. With the foreign trade of Japan annually on the increase and the indubitable fact that the revision of the Treaties will bring with it an influx of Accidental (sic) visitors, it is patent that a thorough knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon idiom is of the first importance to every Japanese citizen who would wish to see his country take the position which is its unquestioned due”

Many of the foreign teachers here in Japan might find some echo of their own feelings in this further declaration of Dr. Eastlake:

“Although an American born and proud of my birthright in that Great Republic, I am deeply and sincerely attached to Japan, where I have not been idle for more than a dozen years; and for the sake of whose fame I have written countless reams of paper, so that the world at large might know this country as I have found it progressive, zealous, cordial, temperate, hospitable and as true as bright steel of a Masamune blade.”

In these two passages, we can see that Dr. Eastlake saw himself as a part of a cultural cross current. By teaching a language that would increase intercultural communication in Japan and by “writing reams of paper” that would bring modern Japan to the attention of the West, he sought to bring the two closer together. The task is still before us. In this issue of *Cross Currents* we hope that the following articles will aid the progress of that understanding.

In his article reflecting upon his work with Japanese businessmen at LIOJ, “Toward a Bigger Bridge of Understanding”, Dr. Fujimoto shows how English can be one tool for intercultural communication. On the other hand Dr. Solomon of Iowa State University writes of how Asia in general and Japan in particular are now contributing to the changing religious scene in the United States.

Other of our articles in this issue relate specifically to problems and techniques in teaching English. For example, in “A Brief Survey of Japanese Teachers of English”, Toneko Kimura has compiled and interpreted some of the statistics resulting from tests carried out at LIOJ during the last four years of workshops for Japanese teachers of English. These statistics plus a current sample of entrance examinations for Japanese universities, interviews with Japanese teachers, essays from those teachers and some current letters to the editors of national English language newspapers, give an interesting picture of the current state of English teaching and learning in Japan. Her research indicates that the problems inherent in English teaching in Dr. Eastlake’s time are still with us.

Mr. Freeman Twaddell, Professor Emeritus at Brown University,

has been kind enough to contribute an article on "Vocabulary Expansion in the ESOL Classroom." A complementary article on building vocabulary has come to us through the experience of Kenneth Elchert here in the classrooms of LIOJ. Another valued foreign contributor for this issue is Mrs. Rosella Bernstein of the University of Southern California, who has been involved in teaching ESL through typewriting. Finally two other LIOJ teachers, Elizabeth Harmon and Jane Partridge, have contributed articles on teaching techniques; the first on the value and use of games in teaching and the second on asking questions in the classroom.

We hope that our reading audience will find this issue of use and interest. It is our further hope that this journal will in some way continue the work begun by Dr. Eastlake and others like him. It would be fitting to close this introduction with a further comment from Dr. Eastlake:

"It falls to my share to teach the members of the Association the difficulties of conversational English; to make clear that which is dark and to gradually accustom one and all to the fluent use of the English tongue. This task is by no means a light one, and the responsibility devolving upon me in the manner of its fulfilment, is one that I fully recognise. Let me say in conclusion that I shall always be pleased to reply to any questions addressed by letter, to me personally."

We at *Cross Currents* would also be glad to hear from our readers. Correspondence and manuscripts submitted for consideration may be sent to us c/o Language Institute of Japan, P.O. Box 37, Odawara, 250 Japan.

Cross Currents



“まえがき”

本 号の表紙は、古い英会話の教科書から採録したものです。内容からみると、この本は19世紀末、日清戦争の終わったところに出版されたもののようによわれます。そして表紙の写真が示すように我国に於る英語教育の問題点は7、80年もたった現在とあまり違ってないようです。VとBの区別について何千、何万という生徒や教師が苦しんで来ましたが、これからも苦しみ続ける事でしょう。

また、英語を教え、学ぶ事の必要性も変わっていません。日本における英語教育の先覚者として有名なEastlake博士は、この本の序文の中で次のように述べています。

「日本人に取りて英語の必要なること今更喋々するを要せず。日本の外国貿易は日に月に進歩したる条約改正実施の暁には東洋第一位の文明国なる日本に外人の

渡来するもの非常に多かるべく従って英語会話の必要を感じるに至るは云ふ迄もなきことなり。」

そして現在日本にいる多くの外人英語教師達は、Eastlake博士の次の言葉に多大の共感を感じることでしょう。

「余は亜米利加人なり乃ち我本国を尊ぶは無論なりと雖も日本に渡来せしより茲に十有二年恰も第二の故郷たる観あり故に常に筆紙の力を藉り世上に日本の真相＝進歩的熱心・信実・温和・懇切及び彼の名刀正宗の如く凜烈正実なる日本人＝を紹介したること実に少々に非らざりし。」

これらの文章からみて、Eastlake博士が自分自身を、cultural cross currentの一環と考えていた事がよくわかります。異質の文化との対話を促進する手段としての「言葉」を教える事、そして又「常に筆紙の力を藉り」、「日本の真相」を西洋に知らせることによって彼は2つの文化を近づけるための

努力を続けました。その仕事は今でも続いています。本号所載の論文やエッセイがその頃から綿々と続いている異った文化の相互理解という目的に資する事を希望しています。

Dr. Fujimoto は、「理解の橋を広げるために」というエッセイの中で、L I O J に於る企業人クラスとの接触を通じて、日本人が東西文化の相互的な理解を深めるためにどんな点について努力するべきかについて述べておられます。一方 Iowa State University の Solomon 教授は、アジア一般、なかんずく日本が、現代アメリカにおける宗教意識の変革にいかなる影響を与えているかを説明されます。

その他の論文は、主として英語の教え方とその問題点について書かれています。木村利根子氏は「A Brief Survey of Japanese Teachers of English」の中で過去4年間L I O J に於て英語教師、学生、企業人を対象として行った英語の能力テストの結果を分析されました。その結果を大学の入学試験問題、現場の先生とのインタビューなどと対照してみると、現在の日本の英語教育の実体が、Dr. Eastlake の時代とほとんど変わっていない事がはっきりとわかります。

Brown University の Freeman Twaddell 名誉教授は、「Vocabulary Expansion in the ESOL Classroom」という論文を寄稿して下さいました。また現在L I O J で教えているKenneth

Elchert 氏は、教室での体験を通じて同じ問題について論じています。一方南カリフォルニア大学の Ms. Rosella Bernstein はタイプライターを通しての英語教育について興味深い論説を寄せられました。Ms. Elizabeth Harmon と Ms. Jane Partridge は、英語教育におけるゲームの利用法、及び教室に於る質問の仕方について興味深い見解を述べています。

本号が色々な意味で読者の皆様のお役に立つ事を心から期待しています。そして、Cross Current が Dr. Eastlake やその他の先覚者達によって始められた仕事をさらに続け、且つ発展させて行くよすがのひとつとなる事を望んでいます。終りに Dr. Eastlake の文章をもう一つ引用して結びとしたいと思います。

「余は英語学の教授を囑託せられたれば漸次懇ろに教授し遂に諸君をして自由に会話通信等を為し得る様力むべし。此英語学たる一朝一夕にして学び終へるべきものに非ず、又其教授の方法も通常のものに比し却て困難なることは余の覚悟する所にして共に相励み相勉め以て其目的を達せんことを期す。終に臨み一言す諸君の内質義の事あらば余に宛て書簡を送らるへし出来得る限り応答の 労 を 執 ら ん。」

博士の故智に習って私たちもまた皆様からの御質問や御意見を歓迎いたします。(送り先は小田原市私書箱37, L I O J Cross Current 係)

“日本の英語教育について”

—英語教育者を対象とする若干の調査—

木 村 利 根 子

日 本人が英語がヘタだというのはもはや世界の通説となっています。最近よくきかれる「反日」や「日本批判」の問題にしても、言葉の不自由さが原因となっていることが多いようです。

しかも実際問題としては日本人のほとんどすべてが中学から高校、大学と、青春の大部分を通じて毎週5時間、8時間とイヤでも英語を勉強させられて来ているのです。日本の英語教育にはなにか根本的な問題があるにちがいないと思います。

LIOJ では毎年夏になると全国の英語教育者のための workshop を開催いたします。北海道から沖縄まで各地の先生方が毎年 200 名参加されます。この方たちは大学入試の圧力の中で、なんとかして「生きた英語」を教えたいと日夜苦心して居られます。そうした現場の苦しみや問題点を、interview の結果や感想文を通して、先生自身の言葉を借りて御紹介してみたいと思います。

Workshopの開講に際しては、Place-

ment Testを行います、その結果を分析して大学生、企業人グループなどと比転してみました。

私どもの努力が、なんらかの形で日本の英語教育の向上に役立ち、日本人が将来「地球社会」の一員として立派に生きてゆけるよう、多少とも貢献できれば幸いだと思っています。



Toneko Kimura is a Japanese born English teacher with a wide international background. She has recently returned to Japan after study at the University of Southern California. She is currently Director of Studies at LIOJ.

English Education in Japan: A Brief Survey of Japanese Teachers of English

Toneko Kimura

For the last four years, the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) in Odawara has sponsored Summer Workshops for Japanese teachers of English to which about two hundred teachers have participated each year. Some have come from the uppermost island of Hokkaido while others have even come from the small islands scattered near Okinawa. They all have had common goals: to better their own English and to discover new ideas on teaching methods. Upon arrival, they were given Placement Tests to determine their English levels so they could be assigned to proper classes. Some of the results of these tests have been kept and now it may be timely to review them in perspective.

Year by year voices are raised about the quality of English teaching in Japan. Methods are questioned and alternatives are suggested, but nothing drastic has happened so far; furthermore, it is unlikely that anything revolutionary will happen in the near future. It will probably be a gradual and painful process toward reform.

HISTORY OF ENGLISH IN JAPAN

In order to understand the unique English teaching system in Japan, it may be helpful to go back a bit into the history of this country. Although a fact well-known to Japanese, the arrival of Commodore Matthew C. Perry with his "Black Ships" in 1853 was the beginning of the end of Japan's policy of isolation from the West. Until 1853, the Dutch in Nagasaki were the only foreigners allowed to touch these shores and the Dutch language was the sole Western language studied (often secretly and at the risk of one's life). For 250 years Japan had shut its eyes, ears AND mouth to the world. When finally the Emperor was reinstated and the country reluctantly opened its rusty doors in 1868, the Japanese realized that they had to quickly absorb Western knowledge in order to catch up with the rest of the world. At that time the study of foreign books was the only means by which modern knowledge could be obtained. Learning a foreign language, therefore, meant its translation into Japanese. This attitude toward languages continued for a long time. As the years rolled on Japan made great leaps forward but the teaching methods lagged far behind. The emphasis was still on transposing each sentence from one language to another, memorizing complicated grammatical rules, and learning archaic phrases. Language learning was a matter of formulas and memorization rather than application. Students tortured themselves leafing through vocabulary cards, puzzling out complicated sentence structures, and placing translated English words in an order that fits Japanese sentence structures.

Even now, this type of classroom procedure continues. A teacher faces a group of forty to sixty students. He calls on one of them to read a paragraph in the original English and another to translate it into Japanese. More often than not, a student has a copy of an "answer book" and as one student finishes, it is quickly and quietly passed on to another student under the table. The teacher will comment on the passage just worked upon and then go on to its grammatical points. Nothing creative, original or practical is demanded or given in class. It is no wonder that after years of study

— at least three in junior high school and three in senior high school — a student is heard to say, “I have studied English for six years but I can’t speak it.” It is no wonder, too, that so many young people begin to hate English.

UNIVERSITY ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS

The teachers who come to the Workshops at LIOJ are sincere and eager. They are keenly aware of their inadequacies and they know the times demand something more from them. Some of them are worried that unless they catch up with all the newest teaching methods they will be left behind. This, of course, is not necessarily true. Some of the “newest teaching methods” are neither new nor effective. They only sound impressive in terminology and approach. The English teachers in Japan are trying hard but they face insurmountable obstacles, of which the greatest is their students’ preparation for the university entrance examinations. For this the students must prepare and for this the teachers must teach English. Should this be the ultimate aim in language learning?

There is a thick book published each year called “The Thorough Study of English Examinations in Universities”. It contains the English tests given by 110 main universities in Japan for that year. Opening the book at random, the following are samples of the kind of tests given in 1973. (Errors in the original text have been retained.)

Example 1. Translate the underlined part into Japanese.

(1) When our individual interests and prospects do not seem worth living for, we are in desperate need of something apart from us to live for. (2) All forms of dedication, devotion, loyalty and self-surrender are in essence a desperate clinging to something which might give worth and meaning to our futile, spoiled lives. Hence the embracing of a substitute will necessarily be passionate and extreme. We can have qualified confidence in ourselves, but the faith we have in our nation, religion, race or holy cause has to be extravagant and uncompromising. (3) A substitute embraced in moderation cannot replace the self we want to forget. We cannot be sure that we have something worth living for unless we are ready to die for it.

Example 2. Pick out one sentence from each group in which the underlined word has a different grammatical use from others.

- a (1) The trees having cast their leaves, we are now on the verge of winter.
(2) On seeing this, he was much surprised.
(3) He is inside reading some book on history.
(4) I admire the grounds and trees surrounding the house.
(5) We saw him fighting a hard battle.
- b (1) The proud person takes it for granted that he is superior to others.
(2) We are together now, and it is unknown how long we shall be so.
(3) It is none of my business why he goes to San Francisco.
(4) The night was not dark, for though it was cloudy the moon was full.
(5) It was odd what a strange feeling it gave her to know that.
- c (1) You will find it difficult to keep the secret to yourself.
(2) As I had a great of time, I decided to explore the city.
(3) There was nothing for it but to give up.
(4) I cannot afford to buy such a high-priced fountain pen.
(5) There is no reason to believe that he will resign.
- d (1) What have I done that he should be angry with me?

- (2) The simplest emotion that we discover in the human mind is curiosity.
- (3) This is all that matters.
- (4) This is the hotel that we stopped at last time.
- (5) The last few men that remained on the ship were rescued on the following day.

Example 3. Write out one of the homonymn (shown in phonetics) to complete the sentence.

[kɔ:s]

- (a) The material was so (1) that it irritated the baby's skin.
- (b) What (2) should we take in the face of these difficulties?

[máinə]

- (a) The coal (3) was trapped in the pit for three days.
- (b) Since he was a (4), Bob couldn't vote.

[sait]

- (a) Mr. Johnson bought the (5) near the lake.
- (b) The mountains are a beautiful (6) in spring.

[steəz]

- (a) The flight of (7) was poorly lit at night.
- (b) I felt (8) of people on the street.

[weist]

- (a) The liquid (9) was thrown into the sink.
- (b) Bend from the (10), please.

Example 4. Pick one word from each group that has an incorrect stress mark.

- | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| (1) (ア) ab-hór-rence | (イ) pól-i-tics | (ウ) mís-chie-vous |
| (エ) mech-á-nism | (オ) cón-se-crate | |
| (2) (ア) in-dús-tri-al | (イ) ad-vén-ture | (ウ) trāns-act |
| (エ) par-ti-cíp-i-al | (オ) ac-quáint-ance | |
| (3) (ア) in-dí-vid-u-al | (イ) ín-tri-cate | (ウ) vol-un-téer |
| (エ) ge-ni-ál-i-ty | (オ) méd-i-ta-tive | |

- (4) (ア) rí-dí-cule (イ) rév-er-ence (ウ) éf-fort
 (エ) de-mánd (オ) del-í-ca-cy
- (5) (ア) i-dé-a (イ) op-er-á-tor (ウ) ád-e-quate
 (エ) phe-nóm-enon (オ) ne-cés-sity

Example 5. Rewrite the second sentence so that it contains the same meaning as the first.

- a. (1) The number of the stars in the sky is innumerable.
 (2) The stars in the sky are too many to ().
- b. (1) I did not know of your intentions.
 (2) I had no () of your intentions.
- c. (1) The man sought advice from his doctor.
 (2) The man () his doctor.
- d. (1) Many people attended the meeting.
 (2) There was a good () at the meeting.
- e. (1) The boy said he would not pay for the damage.
 (2) The boy () to pay for the damage.
- f. (1) The student said he was sorry about the mistake.
 (2) The student said he () the mistake.
- g. (1) Mr. Smith always looked on the dark side of things.
 (2) Mr. Smith was a ().
- h. (1) Bill often telephones his brother.
 (2) Bill often calls () his brother.
- i. (1) Ten young girls served the customers.
 (2) Ten young girls waited () the customers.
- j. (1) Will the police look into the accident?
 (2) Will the police () the accident?

Some universities include a hearing test where a short story is read and then questions are asked. Some also give dictations. All in all, these tests are quite difficult for the average 17 and 18 year-old student. The difference between what they get in high school and what they are expected to know for the university entrance examination is so great that some high schools cram three years of study into two and spend the last year doing nothing but preparing their students for tests of this kind. Unlike the American high school graduate who can go right on to a state university (half of them may be dropped by the end of the first year, however), the Japanese students must pass a stiff examination in order to get into any university.

In Japan where compulsory schooling is fixed at nine years, many more junior high school graduates are going on to high schools. According to The Japan Times (Dec. 2, 1973), 96.6 per cent advanced to high school in Tokyo in 1973, and even one of the most backward prefecture, Okinawa, showed a respectably high rate of 74.4 per cent. Beyond high school many more are going on to the college level — 32.2 per cent by nationwide average and 56.4 per cent for Tokyo alone. To accomodate this increase, the Ministry of Education is considering the addition of 220 new universities to the 403 existing ones. One reason for this trend may be due to the improved economic situation in Japan which permits these people to go on to institutions of higher learning rather than getting jobs. The other reason may be more practical: admittance into one of the better-known universities becomes the passport to success. It assures graduates of a well-paying, permanent and promising position. Therefore, those who fail to get into one of the “escalator” high schools (high schools connected with universities) will stake everything on trying for a university. With all this pressure upon them, it is no wonder that students, teachers, and parents alike all work themselves into a frenzy, especially as the examination day nears. In the prestigious universities, the rate of acceptance is one out of thirty. Therefore admission to a university becomes a life-and-death matter, so much so that the suicide rate among young people in Japan is the highest in the world.

JAPANESE HIGH SCHOOLS

In order to assure admission to a good university, students must vie to get into one of the better high schools which are more difficult to enter than the universities. Even more competitive than the high schools are the junior high schools connected to these high schools. Picture these young boys and girls, who hardly see the light of day hurrying to school and scurrying back again, cramming their heads full of facts and figures, much of which they promptly forget once their aim is achieved.

English is a required subject and is at the top of the list of requirements for entrance into every high school. It is said that for a junior high school student to pass these tests he must already have the ability of a second year high school student. The nature of the tests, therefore, determines the level and content of English taught in schools. All these factors force the teachers who might want to do otherwise to give their students "test" English in class. Otherwise they would not be doing their duty and otherwise the parents would not rest.

THE WORKSHOPS FOR JAPANESE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Under these circumstances, Japanese teachers of English have their hands tied. Even if they want to try something more practical and beneficial for students, they must be responsible for those TESTS that loom up before them. What can be done? The Workshops for the Japanese teachers of English at LIOJ may only be the first step in the journey of a thousand miles, but they are definitely a start.

To give a general picture of the nature of these Workshops, a classroom schedule for last summer is presented on the next page (see chart). Participants were divided into ten groups based on the results of the Placements Tests given on the first day. The groups were given letters A-J. The A-E groups were divided into two larger groups P and R, and F-J groups into X and Y for lectures and demonstrations. All Participants had four periods for drill classes and the other periods for learning teaching techniques. The P-R and X-Y programs included demonstration teaching using fifty model junior and senior high school students, lectures on Western customs and cultures, discussions on recent trends in teaching techniques, classroom methods and materials for teaching English as a second language, and special lectures in English by guest speakers. Other activities included bus trips, beach parties, daily informal discussions, special situation classes, movie programs, and a formal dinner party. All these activities were aimed to give the Workshop Participants a chance to live in as near a Western situation as possible, and to try out their English on native speakers.

LIOJ – Summer Workshop for Teachers of English
Room Schedule – August 4 to 8, 1973

	Room "B"	Room "C"	Room "D"	Room "E"	Room "G"	Room "H"	Hakone Room	Library	LL	Coffee Shop
8:30	F	G	H		I	J smw	P	R	J St	
9:10										
9:20	F smw	G smw	H		I	J	R	P	FG St	
10:00										
10:10	F	G	H smw		I smw	J	PR		HI St	
10:50										
11:00	F	G	H	P-s	I	J	R-sSt P-mw	P-St R-mw		
11:40										
11:50			R-St P-mw	p-sSt R-smw			XY			
12:30										
1:30	<u>L U N C H</u>									
2:10	A	B	C	XY s	D	E	Y-St X-mw	X-St Y-mw		
2:20										
3:00	A	B	C smw	X-sSt Y-mw	D smw	E	X-mw Y-sSt		CD St	
3:10										
3:50	A smw	B smw	C		D	E	X	Y	AB St	
4:00										
4:40	A sSmw	B sSmw	C sSmw		D sSmw	F smw	Y smtw	X smtw	E S	
5:00										
6:00										
7:00	<u>D I N N E R</u>									
7:40							X-st Y-sSt	X-S		PR sSt
7:50										
8:30	A-t	B-t	C-t	D-t			PR-sS		E t	XY sSt

ABCDE = English language
FGHIJ = study groups
PRXY = lecture groups

s = Saturday
S = Sunday
m = Monday
t = Tuesday
w = Wednesday

Monday evening there will be a beach party for all groups.

Wednesday evening there will be discussion groups. The form of these will be announced later.

Sunday afternoon at 4:00 there will be a bus trip for XY and on Tuesday for PR.

Along with thirty or so of young American, Canadian and British teachers who were on the teaching staff, the lecturers for 1973 included:

Dr. Sumako Kimizuka

Professor, Department of Asian Languages and Cultures,
University of Southern California (initiator of the LIOJ
Workshops for the Japanese teachers of English)

Dr. Laurence Thompson

Chairman, Department of Asian Languages and Cultures,
U.S.C.

Dr. William Beachum Lee

Anthropology, U.C.L.A.

Dr. Mary Elizabeth Lee

TESOL Consultant, U.C.L.A.

Mrs. Roger Harmon

MS-Education, TESOL Teaching Certificate State of Cali-
fornia, U.S.C.

Mr. Sen Nishiyama

Senior Advisor on International Affairs, Sony Corporation.

Mr. Masao Kunihiro

Lecturer on Cultural Anthropology

As the Participants frankly shared their problems in the free discussion periods, they were encouraged and stimulated to know that they were not alone. The following compositions written as a part of the Placement Test reveal much of their thoughts. The teachers here will speak for themselves:

“HOW TO GO OVER THE HIGH WALLS BEFORE ME”

“When it comes to speaking English, we teachers of English are all thumbs. There are a good many scholars and professors who can translate into good Japanese a mountain of famous English and American stories, but it is quite thousand pities that there should be a few who are capable of putting into English our famous old stories. This is one-sided”

* * * * *

“They say Japanese people are very weak in speaking English. Even though They’ve studied it about 10 years at school they can’t speak it fluently. There are many reasons of it. One of them is that most of the teachers are not good at it, so they don’t train their students in that point. Teachers teach students how to translate Japanese sentences into English and grammar. Another reason is that most of the students go to universities and colleges. They have to pass difficult entrance examination. Usually professors give the entrance examination about grammar.”

* * * * *

“I have been teaching English for more than 15 years, five years in a senior high school and ten years in junior high school. All this while I have been thinking that it is the difficult task to teach the second language. In Japan “English teaching” has special difficulties. for example

1. Isolation from the western world.
2. Structural difference between English and Japanese.
3. Entrance examination.
4. Large number of the students in one class.

On account of these difficulties, class-room activities are restricted in the translation only. But, recently, the importance of speaking and listening English has been admitted. I hope that seven days in this institute will give me some keys to improve my daily class-room activities.”

* * * * *

“I have been an English teacher for more than 20 years, but I am very poor at speaking and hearing English. I am very much ashamed of it. How can I speak English very fluently and how can I understand English spoken by native speakers? I have made efforts to master English for a long time. Often I have a desperate feeling that I had better give up being an English teacher”

* * * * *

“While I was at college, I was very much interested in English. I think I studied English very hard. But when I was a college student, too much importance was placed on translation and grammar, I am sorry to say. They didn't give me enough practice in speaking. After I graduated from college, I became a teacher of English. Almost twenty years has passed since I began to teach English, but still I am a poor speaker of English. Why? My effort was concentrated only on reading and writing. That's why. I must acquire speaking ability of English, if I want to be a better teacher of English at this age when English is an international language.

* * * * *

“The most difficult problem we have today is the problem of communication. As an English teacher at school, I teach my students how to read, write, listen and speak English. Students study hard, I think. But they have never thought of English as an means of communication. They take it as only another subject asked by the teachers or school. And it is natural, because they are never given a chance to experience English as an means of communication. They seldom speak with westerners. Very few had a chance to go abroad. I have the same difficulty, too. I want to know how to go over the high walls before me.”

* * * * *

“Japanese English teachers have a lot of programs. [problems (?)] The worst one is that the teachers of English cannot speak English. It is a great pity for them and their pupils. Why is it so? One reason is that the way to teach English in older age was bad. Old teacher have not take a good, effective education in English. They can read and write difficult English, but they can't hear and speak even easy English. What shall we do? I think we have to begin to teach first of all English teachers and to improve their ability of hearing and speaking English. So they can give a good, real, effective education their pupils.”

“I was brought up in southern part of Kyushu, Kagoshima. It was in my second grade when the World War II ended at last. I was only eight years old. During the war I happened to see a Japanese plane and an American plane fight in the sky. Because there was an air base. Then after the war, some American soldiers came through my own part of the country. A Japanese interpreter and an American soldier were talking. It was for the first time for me to see a foreigner there. I just thought what an interesting and difficult language they spoke. Every sound they uttered was almost all the same sound. Then I was interested in English a little. Five years passed away before I entered a junior high school. High school at

those time didn't have qualified English teacher. We studied it from a music teacher. Three years passed away quickly without getting any knowledge of English. After finishing the high school I came up to Tokyo. Almost all of my classmate in Tokyo could read, write far better than I could. I was surprised and shocked to them studying English hard. Then I made up my mind to study much harder than they did. I studied it and liked it very much. This was why I went to English department at university, and become a teacher. But still sounds spoken by American are almost the same. How do I deepen by hearing ability?"

* * * * *

"I live in a small island named Mikura, the smallest one of the Izu Seven Islands. The population there is under 200. I am only one English teacher of Junior High School, We have no senior High School. My students are eleven in all, 6 boys and 5 girls. They have never seen English-speaking people except on TV. But we had a chance to see English speaking people, American school students in Chofu, Tokyo this June. The students and their biology teacher visited our island to study about plants and animals' life for one week. We welcomed them and one of those days invitated some of them to our small classroom. My student seemed to be surprised to see foreigners for the first time."

* * * * *

"I live in Shiga-Prefecture now and teach at school. My school is a part-time senior high school, only girls. Most of students learn at school half day and work at the company half day. They have to learn at school for four years. It's long time to stay at school to them. They want to graduate there early. To my sorry, there are many students who have no fight to learn everything at school. They have no desire to do anything in future. It's very hard to teach them English. Students have no interests in learning English. They won't review the lesson and also won't prepare for next lesson. This matter does not always depent on students. It's not only students responsibility. I, a teacher of English, have problems to teach them. I want to get confidence in teaching and learning English and want to become a better teacher. I want to learn English more and more."

"WAY OF THE STUDY OF ENGLISH"

"We teachers of English in Japan have many various problems in teaching English. For example, main problems are how to teach and what to teach. Many teaching methods have been introduced to us in Japan. Harold, E, Palmer's 'Oral method' and Charls, C, Fries' 'Oral Approach' have been adopted in our schools in Japan. Current issues discussed among us can be summarized into three. One of them is 'language activities' which take place for 'learning activities'. And the next is the number of the language classes per week. Up to last year, we have had four or five classes per week. Up to last year, we have had four or five classes a week, while from this year it would be reduced to only three classes a week in some prefectures. We are afraid that we will not be able to teach pupils complete English."

* * * * *

"Must all the students study English? I work for a commercial high school. Most of the students will work after they leave school. Most of them will not have a chance to use English, because our town is a rural one and we have few chances to "see foreign people." The lack of speaking or hearing ability in English has been pointed out by many people, but I don't think it is always necessary for our all the students to have a command of English. I think that the English language is a means of logical training. So I would like to teach English as a thought. I don't think learning English is getting a skill. I think it's perfectly all right for the students to appreciate and enjoy English language."

* * * * *

"I graduated a university last year. I once was a member of the E.S.S. I spent 4 years in the atmosphere of "English-Speaking", but now I live among the students who hate English. Almost one year has passed since I began to teach English to them, they, however, don't seem to be interested in my class nor English itself. I don't know the way to make the use of my experience of the E.S.S. To my students, English is a subject of "memory"; but not to memorize words or sentences, but to learn the translation by heart so that they can get good marks in the examinations. Such is the way of the study of English to my students"

"IT IS VERY HARD JOY"

"To tell the truth I don't like English. But I must do my best to learn English. OK. I'll tell you about the reason. I'm a teacher of English now, but at the first time when I became a teacher I was not a teacher of English. I was a teacher of social study. I had no license teaching English. One day the principal said to me, "In our school there are many teachers of social study and there are very few the teachers of English. If you help the classes of English, I'll thank you very much. (If not . . .) I understood all at once. I loved my students very much and I couldn't imagine to say Good-by to them."

* * * * *

"I became a teacher ten years ago. It is very hard joy but I love this job. I usually work from eight in the morning till six o'clock. We junior high teacher not only teach but must do many things — Our school is located in very convenient place so many meeting is held. We must serve tea or coffee to the guest. Usually, I am very busy, so summer vacation is the only season I can study."

* * * * *

"I am teaching English now and I want to teach them good English. But we have too many things to do and too many hours to teach and too many students to teach for me. So I don't have enough time to brush up my English . . ."

"A EXPERIENCE FOR LIVING IN A FOREIGN COUNTRIES"

"I want to go abroad in the near future, before getting too old. It's necessary for us Japanese teachers to go abroad to have a experience for living in a foreign countries. But unfortunately Japanese teachers nowadays don't have enough time to travel. We're too busy in our usual life. In summer, students have much free time, but we teachers have little."

* * * * *

"I hear that in England those who intend to be foreign language-teachers must have some experiences in the country where the language is spoken. Japan, is, as you know, a very poor country in understanding culture, I mean language-study. I believe all the teachers of English in Japan should be abroad at least six months. The period of six months won't be sufficient but that experience will give teachers much courage and more different point of view than before. I wish such a nice day would come and all the teachers

would be able to hear and speak English as freely as they speak Japanese. I'll do my best to improve myself in my English. Thank you.

* * * * *

"I have been studying English for more than ten years. But I can't speak English. Japanese education for English is wrong. I want to speak English well. Someday I'll go abroad. I hope to travel foreign countries with my family"

"I FAVORITE ENGLISH"

"I am now 30 years old, Nowaday I think I have a daughter of good father, My wife come to send me a picture daughter yesterday morning in Kyushu I feel that It's become return home to see this picture at once, when I especially a good view place forth floor, When I saw a train, It's become return home right away, But I have one trouble (worry). What think about you? It's a English language, Nowaday I'm junior highschool teacher Now I teaches and a teacher of Japanese and a teacher of English in my school. But In that case of Japanese, They are, living language because I have not mistaken, But in case of a foreign language, coustum of living life? and consist language all of. the opposite direction, I can't one by one very very such a things remember, I come stay here so reason, I favorite English, But I can speak a little English, I hope I want to speak English, But I think I can nothing come out language, I want to regret. what shall I do."

PLACEMENT TEST RESULTS

The statistics offered here are neither very sophisticated nor thorough. They are merely a comparison of the test scores, and may not prove anything spectacular. However, they may reveal some interesting facts about Japanese teachers of English, especially when compared with scores of the other groups of people who also took the same tests.

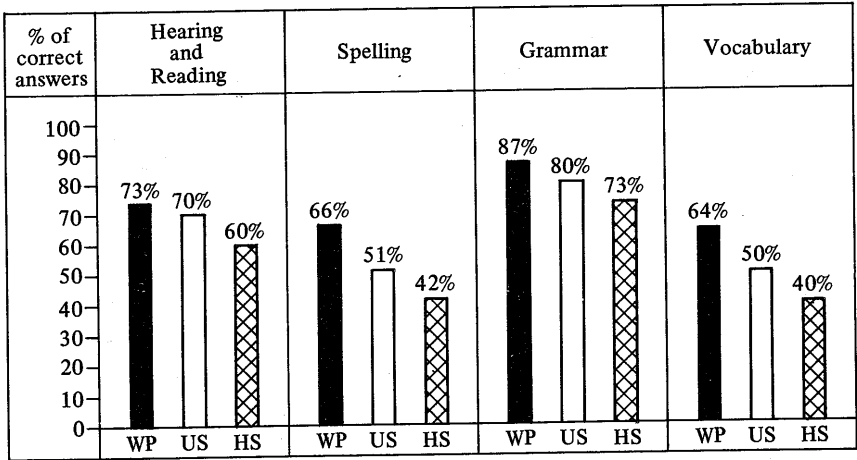
No other institution in Japan has had such diverse groups together at one time. In 1973 alone there were Workshop Participants from all but two prefectures, students from 91 universities, and businessmen from 65 different companies. This offered a rare opportunity for an overall and first-hand study of the situation of English study in this country.

Except for slight changes each year, the tests have basically remained the same. They have roughly covered hearing and reading, spelling, grammar, vocabulary, and writing, and take about two hours to administer. With smaller groups, individual interviews were also given, but it was impossible to do so with the Workshop Participants who were too large in number.

During the summer vacations, special courses for students and businessmen were also offered. The charts in the following pages show the scores from the Placement Tests of each group in relation to the others.

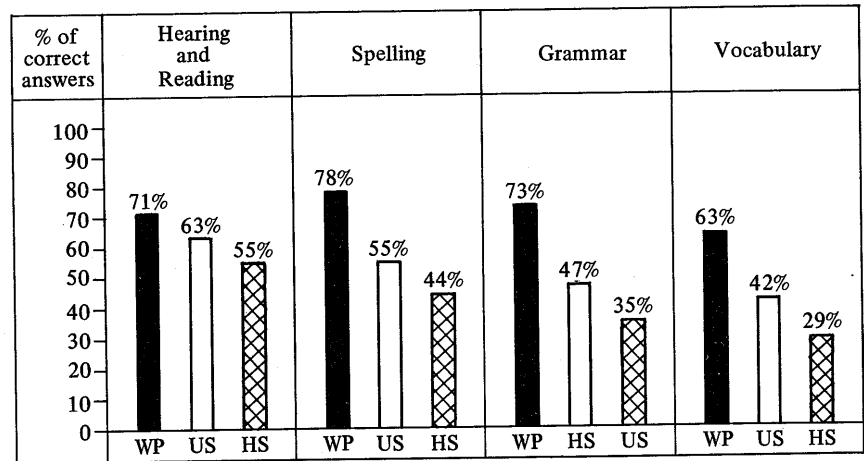
RESULT OF PLACEMENT TEST – SUMMER, 1970

Total Number of Workshop Participants	(WP)	162
Total Number of University Students	(US)	320
Total Number of High School Students	(HS)	38



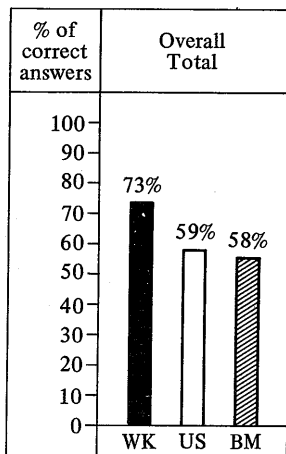
RESULT OF PLACEMENT TEST – SUMMER, 1971

Total Number of Workshop Participants	113
Total Number of University Students	170
Total Number of High School Students	61



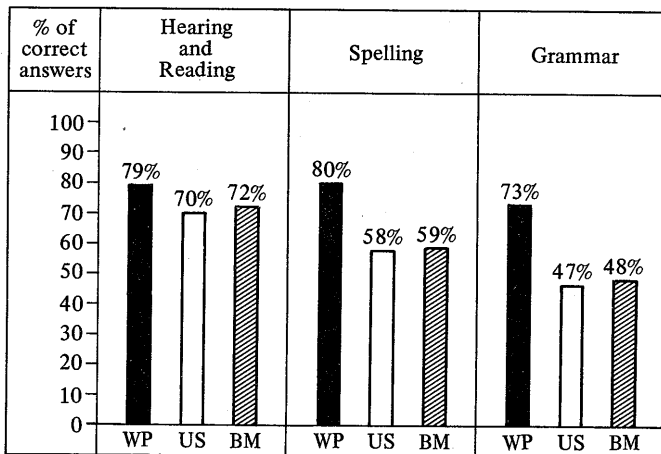
RESULT OF PLACEMENT TEST – SUMMER, 1972

Total Number of Workshop Participants 192
 Total Number of University Students 320
 Total Number of Businessman (BM) 22
 (In 1972 businessmen's classes were added to the summer courses.)

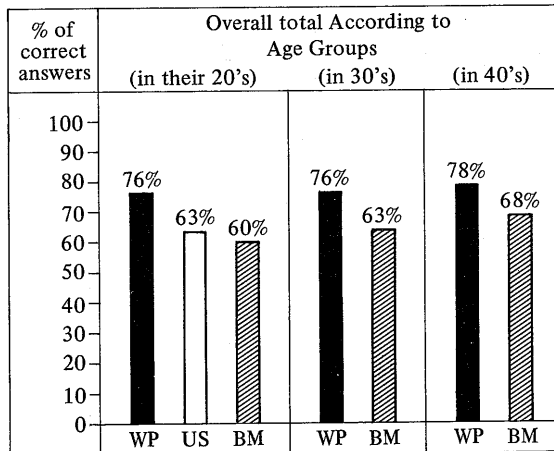
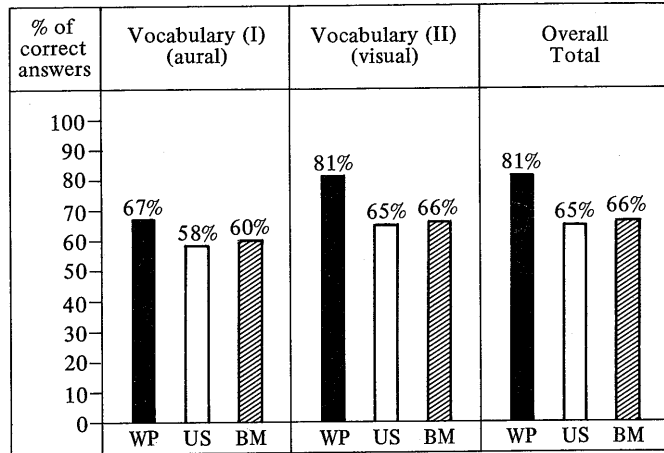


RESULT OF PLACEMENT TEST – 1973

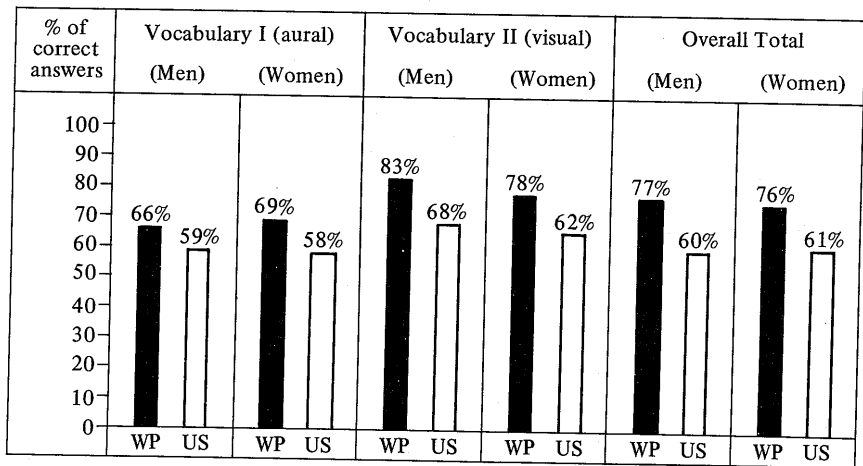
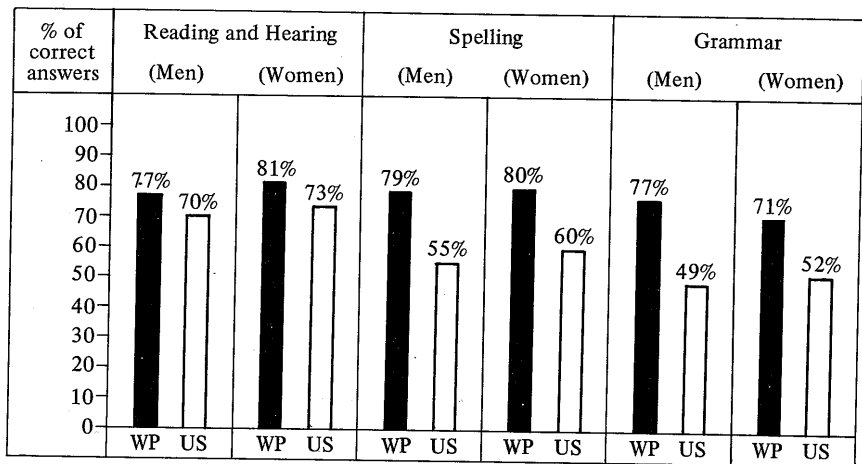
Total Number of Workshop Participants 200
 Total Number of University Students 198
 Total Number of Businessmen 178



RESULT OF PLACEMENT TEST – 1973 (continued)



RESULT OF PLACEMENT TEST – 1973 (continued)



The charts show that although the Workshop Participants had a higher average than those of other groups, the differences are very slight. Among the Participants the individual scores were very close whereas, in the case of the businessmen, a few with exceptionally low scores brought the average down considerably. This meant that in many cases the businessmen had much higher scores than the Workshop Participants who were professional English teachers.

It is also interesting to note that those in their 40's (Workshop Participants and businessmen alike) did better than those in the younger age groups. There is no clear explanation for this however, with the times being what they were, probably those in their 40's did not study much English during their schooling.

There seemed to be no outstanding discrimination between the men and women, although the women tended to do slightly better in the aural and the men in the visual parts of the tests. In 1973 an international touch was added with the participation of six fine Korean teachers of English. They found they shared many common problems with the Japanese participants. Their scores are not included here.

THOUGHTS OF ONE ENGLISH TEACHER

This Workshop Participant kindly provided the following answers. Opinions among teachers may vary, but the observations made here by one may be representative of many. This young teacher works in a Prefectural high school.

1. Q: How many years have you been teaching English?
A: Three years.
2. Q: How many classes a week do you teach?
A: Seventeen regular classes and three supplementary classes.
3. Q: How many different textbooks do you use?

- A: Ten altogether.
4. Q: How many students are there in each class?
A: Forty-five (the number of boys and girls are about the same).
5. Q: What activities other than teaching English are you involved in that take up your time?
A: Correcting tests given periodically for every class, preparing for classes from ten different textbooks, advising ESS (English Speaking Society) and the Soft Ball Club, homeroom teacher responsibilities, personal interviews, etc.
6. Q: How long are your vacations?
A: Forty-eights days in all, including fourteen days in the winter and fourteen days in the spring. (Out of forty days of summer holidays, the first and last ten days are taken up for giving supplementary studies.)
7. Q: How much was your starting salary?
A: ¥42,000 a month (basic salary).
8. Q: How much is your present salary?
A: ¥72,000 (basic salary), but after tax decuctions, etc., the actual income is less than ¥60,000 (about \$200).
9. Q: What do you feel about opportunities needed for English teachers to go abroad?
A: Every English teacher should have the opportunity of going on a study tour to England or America for at least a month. If this is impossible, then those who pass some kind of a test should be allowed to study abroad for a few months. This would give incentive to many teachers, and consequently change the conditions of English education. Also, those who wish to study for one or two years abroad (without pay) should be guaranteed their

former positions upon return. The present system which does not allow this makes it difficult for those with families to take this step.

11. Q: What prevents them from going abroad?
A: The biggest obstacle is financial. A teacher's salary is not enough to make this sort of thing possible. The other factor may be the trouble it would cause the school in getting a substitute teacher during his absence.
12. Q: How do you think the university entrance examinations for English should be changed?
A: Fundamentally, Japan should adopt the American system of selection by high school transcripts, and make the entrance requirements easier. English would then be freed from the pressures of entrance examinations, and real language education could be given the students. Another possibility would be if the university examinations were to be changed to the TOEFL-type where everything is on tape: the nature of high school English would then be forced to change considerably. The students would also benefit more if the first year high school level English could be taught thoroughly in a three-year period, and the rest covered in the universities. Then high school English could concentrate more on understanding easy English sentences and their practical use. This would be one way of freeing them from "test" English.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

These are letters to the Editor which appeared in the "Readers in Council" column of THE JAPAN TIMES (by permission).

Teaching English

To The Editor:

I am one of the many foreigners who are in Japan teaching English. Unlike most, I have formal training and was brought to Japan from America for the sole purpose of teaching. For over a year now I have wondered why it is that so many intelligent Japanese I know could study a language for 8 or 10 years and never achieve proficiency. I think I have some answers, and I am interested in hearing the opinions of others.

1. There are too many people studying English in Japan. People who have no interest or talent in languages, along with those who will never be required to use English are all forced to learn. It is not in a company's interest, or in a university's interest to impose English on all its executives or students. It is wasteful for those who won't learn or use the language, and it works to the detriment of those who might opt for another foreign language if they had the chance and choice.

2. The method of English instruction in Japanese schools is perhaps the most confounding of anomalies in a country renowned for keeping in tune with the most modern technological and scientific advances.

A. The overwhelming stress on written as opposed to spoken English in the school system is contrary to everything I know about modern language theory and practice. Scientists in the U.S. who desire only a reading knowledge of Russian or German are now taught to speak first; it has been proven that this is the fastest and most efficient way to teach them to read. The systematic bias for written English, with its cornerstones at the high school and college entrance exams, drives serious students to the private conversation institutes, providing they are lucky enough to have the time and money.

B. Learning a language is not the same as memorizing its dictionary, or an endless list of idiomatic expressions. It is rather the mastery of basic sentence patterns and their use in a natural and free way. Perhaps the most outstanding and tragic feature of Japanese education is the mistaken assumption that memory is equivalent to intelligence or knowledge. Nowhere are the results more disheartening than in the field of language. So many times I have read over exams testing a student's knowledge of some colloquial expression like "It's a snap," when the students are not able to say a basic pattern like "I eat hamburgers" in regular conversation. Idiomatic phrases often do not fit into regular patterns, which is why they are classified separately, and why they may offer great confusion to the beginner. They are often out-of-date before the student will have a chance to use them anyway.

3. There is an unnecessary lack of qualified English teachers in Japan, both in foreign and national ranks. As far as foreign instructors go, I am confident to speak out. Most of them are not qualified language teachers, and many are transients hired on short-term, their only recommendation being that they are native speakers; in that way the school employing them can charge its students an inflated tuition. These people are then made to read their lessons out of a text, which naturally leads to a dull and undynamic language class. There are hundreds or thousands of American language and education students, even at the graduate level, who would jump at the chance to teach in Japan for a couple of years. One cause of the present lamentable situation is the negligence of Japanese educators. A simple letter to the dean of the language department of any American university would bring them a drove of applicants to choose from.

As for Japanese teachers of English, I know only that many of them are not fluent in English or competent to teach. I'm not sure if this is a result of improper training or hit-and-miss hiring, but it's too bad because many of the girls serving hamburgers at MacDonald's speak better English than junior high school and high school instructors.

I become impatient when Japanese tell me they are just bad at foreign languages, period. Nothing could be farther from the truth. There are an unbelievably large number of Japanese who speak good English in spite of all the above. The corresponding percentage of Americans who speak a difficult foreign language is certainly far less. Languages are not easy for anybody. Those Japanese who don't believe me should drop by Naganuma some afternoon and see for themselves. It's just a shame that those who have no interest are coerced to learn, and that all are taught by such antiquated methods. That no government or higher education group has managed to do something about this massive problem is a real tragedy. Where to start? A new English entrance exam for the national universities is now being written at Hiroshima University. Will the press, the observers, and the students, the sufferers, take action? It's time for a change.

GREGORY KASZA

Tokyo
November 18, 1973

Entrance Exams

To The Editor:

Once again the dreadful season for college entrance exams is here. Though the gates to places for high learning will be a little wider open this spring, to enter first class colleges and universities state-run or private is as hard a job as ever. In the field of teaching English here, the current elimination system has been a real headache. Students are compelled to cram insipid items of grammar, isolated words and phrases, in short Juken Eigo or English for entrance exams inside and outside the classroom for the sole purpose of passing them successfully. English education in high schools has been thoroughly distorted by this exam-centered way of teaching the teachers are forced to employ.

Since questions are set at entrance exams to mercilessly eliminate incompetent examinees rather than evaluate their understanding of English in accordance with the course of study provided by the Ministry of Education, they tend to be too difficult and sometimes even tricky or ambiguous.

In this connection, I remember an NHK English conversation program telecast the other day, in which some undesirable questions were criticized and the present controversial elimination system was discussed. The following is a sample taken up on that occasion from among entrance exam questions. Neither you nor I (am, are) responsible for it. Which is right, "am" or "are" here? Most students at secondary school level will choose the latter without hesitation because it is one of the absolute rules they are taught in the schoolroom. Grammatically speaking, "am" is the right answer here. But in everyday life, where colloquialism is everything, "are" is more frequently used because "neither you nor I" has nearly the same meaning of "neither of us." Then both are passable answers, I believe. "To be or not to be, that is the question," has so far been translated into Japanese in many ways by scholars and writers. The same can safely be said with Japanese-English translation. There can be a number of passable solutions to a question under this category.

Strange enough, no colleges and universities have published up to now the correct answers to the entrance exam questions of their own. Some publishing companies of reference books for the use of high school students publish a series of books containing "reliable solutions" to veiled questions made by leading colleges and universities throughout the country every year. Students, paying exam-fees, have the right to get the right answers given by examiners to the very questions they sit for, so that they can know where they

are right and where they are wrong. Considering the fact that over 90 per cent of junior high graduates enter senior high schools, the solution to the problems of what kind of English should be taught there and what entrance exam questions should be like will be found from the practical not academic point of view. In this respect, the examination system by STEP (the Society for Testing English Proficiency) should be made much more use of by college and university authorities and even senior high schools as well.

MASAHITO ARAI

Gunma Prefecture
February 14, 1974

CONCLUSION

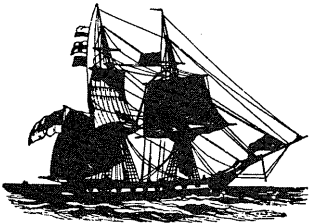
Whatever one may say or think, English is definitely the language of world communication in the 20th century. In the next century, some other language may take its place or a common language may be adopted. But until then we must make the best of this situation and strive for some drastic and permanent changes.

1. How can the universities be moved to change the content of their English examinations?
2. Is it possible for English teachers to get a higher salary so that it becomes a coveted position and only those who qualify are hired?
3. What can be done so that more English teachers can get time off to go abroad? Can the government offer financial aid for such study tours?
4. What should be done so that teachers can be freed from pressures of extra work so they can devote more time to English?
5. Would some universities and colleges in English-speaking countries offer special scholarships for Japanese teachers of English so that more of them could study abroad?
6. Will high schools allow English teachers to resume their posts after they return from studies abroad? (It is more beneficial for a teacher to learn teaching methods after having had some experience. They then know what they don't know, and what

they want to absorb.)

7. What if the TV and radio English programs pioneered the way for more ideal English lessons?
8. What if companies decided to hire men who had “usable” English rather than just those with good grades?

The answers to these and many more questions are left up to each reader and what initiative he or she will take, however small. It is the culmination of decisions made by everyone that will move mountains, for this is too complex a problem for any one individual or any one organization. The reform is in the hands of the student, the teacher, the parent, the industries, the general public and the government — all must be responsible and take positive action.



“タイプライターによる 英語の学習”

ロセラ・バーンスタイン

タイプライターを打つ事は、アメリカに於ける職業教育の基本として、又学生が論文を書く時の不可欠の技術として多くの人が練習しています。Bernstein 夫人は、タイプライターを使うことが外国人に英語を教えるための方法として大変役に立つことを発見されました。以下先生の主張をそのまま紹介します。先生は南カリフォルニア大学のAmerican Language Instituteに於てこの方法により多大の成功をおさめて来られました。



Ms. Rosella Bernstein teaches in the American Language Institute at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles. Her specialization is teaching foreign students through the use of the typewriter. Ms. Bernstein has a BS in Business Management, with special emphasis in English and a Master of Science Degree in Education.

The Typewriter and Language Learning

Rosella Bernstein

The teaching of English as a second or foreign language has been the subject of much study and applied methodology for many years. Psychologists, linguists, and language teachers have for the most part worked towards a viable theoretical understanding that could support new and important insights in second language acquisition; however, there has been a learning tool available that encompasses portions of each discipline simultaneously which has never been adequately incorporated into language teaching programs. That tool is the typewriter. The “wonderful writing machine” of the nineteenth century revolutionized the world of business and communications and effected the spread of English as a commercial language throughout the world.¹ The typewriter is an ever expanding source of global cross cultural interaction that creates a “paper diplomat” in the form of the business letter. Without question the familiar typewriter is a basic part of business education and a boon to students for personal use. However, few people are aware of the pedagogical aspects or applications of the typewriter as a learning instrument in language acquisition or improvement.

The educational and psychological foundations for using learning tools in the classroom have been recognized for many years. Educators and psychologists have for some time advocated the

plural use of the senses in learning. Retrospectively, William James noted that "if a topic awakens no spontaneous attention it must borrow an interest from elsewhere." He stated that the interest must "be derived from something that the teacher associates with the task." His theory suggested a learning advantage to be gained when one can "actively re-echo" the words heard or read.² The typewriter can be the "something the teacher associates with the task", namely, the instrument of "active re-echo." A tool that automatically causes the student to rekindle and increase attention to the subject at hand permits greater capacity for learning and comprehension of the subject.

In the United States of America the typewriter already has a long but little known history as an educational tool. The first recorded suggestion that the typewriter be used as a language learning "device" was made in an advertisement in the December 15, 1875 issue of *The Nation*, a well-known and respected nineteenth century publication. The assertion was made that "there is no device comparable to it for teaching children to spell and punctuate."³ In 1923 another surge of interest was created by the introduction of the *portable* typewriter. Again, it was stated that the typewriter was of "incomparable value as an educational implement" in the teaching of reading, writing, spelling, and composition.⁴

The next decade (1930–1940) produced a rash of experimentation with the typewriter as a learning aid. One notable example of the experimentation that took place during that period was a study by Dr. Ben D. Wood of Columbia University and Dr. Frank N. Freeman of the University of Chicago on the educational influences of the typewriter.⁵ The purpose of this scientific inquiry was to discover the form and extent of the educational influence of the typewriter when used as a regular part of elementary classroom equipment.⁶ The scope of this experiment was extraordinary as nearly 15,000 children and 400 teachers were involved in the experimental and control groups. This study included eight public school systems and five private schools from as far east as New York to as far west as New Mexico.⁷ Students in the experimental group who used typewriters as learning tools and those students who did not use the typewriters were given periodic achievement

tests on all their subjects from language usage to arithmetic. The results of this two-year investigation gave definite evidence that the experimental group (those students using typewriters) made more progress and scored higher on the tests than the control group (those students not using typewriters).⁸

Studies of this kind were supported by the typewriter manufacturers; however, with increased typewriter sales, the use of educational experimental projects testifying to the pedagogical importance of the typewriter were no longer necessary. Further, the advent of the depression (of the 1930's) made the costly investment in typewriter experimentation no longer financially expedient. Nevertheless, there continued to be significant studies made on the use of the typewriter as a learning aid. This learning theory unobtrusively but repeatedly surfaced at different times in different parts of the United States and related to different levels and subject areas of education. It was through the many dissertations and projects presented to various schools of education over the last fifty years that the idea of using the typewriter as a pedagogical tool has continued to be recognized. These studies have been mostly experimental in nature and have been conducted at all levels of education dealing with the measurement of incidental learning of spelling, reading, vocabulary, grammar, and composition in conjunction with learning to typewrite. These studies indicate significant gains in English language skills as a consequence of learning to typewrite.⁹

Examples of some of the studies dealing with the use of the typewriter include *An Experimental Study of the Use of the Typewriter on Beginning Reading* by Cecelia E. Unzicker in 1934, in which ten first grade classes were observed. A small but consistent academic superiority was evidenced by those pupils who used typewriters.¹⁰ During 1936 in Tacoma, Washington, a statistical comparison was made between seventh grade students that studied English grammar in conjunction with the typewriter and those that studied English grammar by conventional methods. The compared test results showed a greater overall increase in English proficiency for the typewriting group than for the non-typewriting group.¹¹ M. W. Tate employed the typewriter for

remedial reading and language improvement in 1943.¹² In 1958 Wayne Baty was able to demonstrate a significant improvement in vocabulary for students in beginning typewriting classes.¹³ And Cecil W. Williams reported on his successful experiences while teaching English and Typewriting in Bolivia in 1959–60.¹⁴

A more recent research project — one relating to foreign students at the university level — was conducted at San Francisco State College in 1964. *The Cooperative Research Project No. S-040* was supported by the Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and was conducted by Doris McLeod and Ramona First. The study was designed to discover how the typewriter helped in the learning of English as a second/foreign language. This study was generated because teachers in the School of Business noticed that foreign students taking an elective typewriting class that was offered there showed more progress in English than those students who did not take such a class. The results of this experiment were statistically tabulated and indicated that the English learning which took place was significantly greater for the experimental typewriting group.

In 1970 two ninth grade classes in the District of Columbia (Washington D.C.) were selected by the school district and George Washington University to illustrate the use of the typewriter as an effective tool in developing language skill. Students whose native language was not English as well as native speakers were included in this study. Again, test results confirmed what teachers had previously observed; that is, there was greater improvement in spelling, vocabulary, reading, comprehension, and composition for those students using the typewriter.¹⁵

Based on the documentation accumulated through the years verifying the educational value of the using of the typewriter in language learning, the University of Southern California instituted a typewriting class as part of the intensive English as a Second Language Program under the auspices of the American Language Institute (formerly known as the English Communication Program for Foreign Students) directed by Dr. Charles W. Gay. Dr. Gay in cooperation with Dr. Robert B. Kaplan, former Director of ECPFS and presently Associate Dean of the College of Continuing

Education at the University of Southern California, and Ron D. Schoesler of Oregon State University, developed and published a textbook for use in teaching English as a second Language, *Learning English Through Typewriting*. *

In addition to the textual material that is used to incorporate the typewriter into an English as a second/foreign language class, it is advantageous for the teacher to understand the typewriting learning stages as well as the various stages of language acquisition. For example, phonological and lexical aspects of language are best learned at the initial alphabet (key) learning phase; syntactic variations are possible only as more of the keyboard is learned; still other areas of language acquisition, such as paragraph construction and logical internal structuring, are best left until the students are rather advanced in their typewriting proficiency; and some aspects of language acquisition such as spelling or speed reading can be taught at all typewriting learning stages.

As an illustration, when students are learning the keyboard, their concentration on the details of the material which they are typewriting is at its greatest. This is perhaps the best time to work on vocabulary and spoken drills, and to introduce sentence word order. At this point the teacher can also develop exercises for special problems in spelling and reading. It is advantageous if the students stop their typewriting periodically and learn to pronounce the words they are typewriting. In this way they will "re-echo" the words; that is, they will say them correctly to themselves as they practice typewriting those words. Students can be taught to become visually aware of phonological differences. They can, for the most part, type words that sound alike for them but which are pronounced differently in spoken English. The "r" and the "l" substitution is a prototypal instance. The following exercise is helpful to Japanese students who have difficulty in comprehending and reproducing the phonological difference between the "r" and the "l" sounds.

ride died lied side fried ride lied side reside fried

aid fade laid jade raid aide aid fade laid raid jade

* English Language Services. A Division of Washington Educational Research Associates, Inc., Washington D.C., 1969.

A special exercise extracting the minimal pairs with the “r” and “l” sounds could provide extra practice for Japanese students.

ride lied ride ride lied lied ride lied ride ride
raid laid raid laid ride lied ride raid laid raid

Vocabulary work started at the initial key learning stage will help students to become aware of the many meanings of an individual word through class discussion and through typewriting the word in context in blank spaces left for them. The following is a somewhat limited example presented to illustrate a vocabulary exercise with the word *fall*. In class discussion some of the definitions for *fall* would be found to indicate another word for autumn, or a tumble or drop to a lower level, or it could mean “not happen” when used with the particle *through*. The typewriting lesson would then include the following:

fall fall fall fall fall fall fall fall fall

In the _____ the leaves _____ to the ground.

The stock prices could _____ to a new low tomorrow.

His _____ from power was expected.

They thought the new stock merger would _____ through.

It should be noted, however, that a complete exercise of this kind would include more than one vocabulary word at a time in order to elicit thoughtful rather than automatic responses.

At a later stage when the students’ skill has improved to the more automatic level, the material to be typed and learned can include the mechanics of grammar, punctuation, capitalization and letter and report writing. These grammatical aspects can be taught in terms of orientation to American customs and habits, since learning the appropriate style and form of letter writing is an important key to the culture of the people and the way they conduct their business affairs. Concurrently, in combination with any other type of instruction, training in speed reading can be incorporated with any exercise by taking a few minutes a day to proofread typewritten material in a manner consistent with the methods of learning speed reading.

The above illustrations are only a few of the many possibilities

for the utilization of the typewriter in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language. The typewriter is, indeed, an educational tool that is flexible in nature with limits delineated only by the creativity of the teacher and the eclecticism of the methodology.

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“Vocabulary の拡充について”

フリーマン・トワッデル

い つ、いかにして、大量のvocabulary を自分のものにするかは、外国語を学ぶ場合誰もが知りたいところです。単語帳を作って無理に暗記するという方法が労多くして効少ない事はやってみた人が皆思い知らされるところでしょう。文章の中に知らない言葉が出て来た時、全体の流れの中からその意味を推測出来る能力を身につける事が、vocabulary の増加のためもっ

とも必要であると Twaddell 教授は主張されます。

Mr. Freeman Twaddell is Professor Emeritus of Linguistics at Brown University.

Vocabulary Expansion in the TESOL Classroom

Freeman Twaddell

Learning an adequate vocabulary is a phase of foreign language (FL) acquisition that has been, and will be, one of the major problems of any practical FL program. There is probably no aspect of FL instruction which involves as many difficulties, because of the inherent complexities of the task and also the great differences of attitude of learners and teachers and the designers of programs.

Nowadays we have some pretty well-established and fairly successful ways to start a learner off on a program of acquiring a useful command of a FL. We have fairly clear ideas about the teaching of pronunciation, and some fairly clear ideas, too, about how close an approximation to native-like pronunciation can and should be aimed at during the various stages of FL acquisition. We also have ways to establish usable control of basic patterns of

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This article originally appeared in the *TESOL Quarterly* Volume 7, Number 1, March 1973 and is reprinted here with their kind permission and with that of the author.

phrase and sentence structure and some insight into the relative importance of various aspects of the grammatical structure. As to the relation between the oral and the visual forms of the target language, there is necessarily considerable divergence of principles and procedures, both as to timing and as to technique, because of the very great differences among languages with respect to the match between pronunciation and spelling.

But vocabulary control is one very important component of language mastery about which there is more agreement in discouragement than in any constructive proposals for effective techniques. In all honesty, we have to admit that somehow some learners do acquire an ability to understand and use a satisfactory repertory of words in the FL. But although some learners learn it, we can't really teach it.

It is not for lack of trying or ingenuity or diligence. There are probably more varied "methods" for teaching vocabulary than for any other aspect of language teaching. But so far no one method seems to have gained general acceptance. The pathetically slow reading pace of people who have studied a FL for several hundred hours, and their continual flight to dictionary or end-vocabulary, give evidence of something very deficient in their ability to extract meaning from sentences consisting of words in the FL.

It is easy to understand why there is no consensus among teachers as to vocabulary teaching — except for the general conviction that our students learn vocabulary control slowly and erratically. There is the inherent difficulty of mastering an adequate vocabulary in any language, including one's native language. And for learning a FL, there is also a major difficulty deriving from some basic misconceptions as to the nature of a vocabulary and vocabularies.

The unsophisticated language learner has some ideas about FL study that are natural, I suppose, but are certainly wrong and certainly are counter-productive so far as efficient language learning is concerned. He is sure to exaggerate the importance of learning at once "what the words mean." So far as he is concerned, a FL is a perverse cryptogram, in which the sensible and natural words of his native language are replaced by strange and arbitrary words in the

FL. So if he can learn how each of his native-language words is encoded in the FL, he has learned the FL. We who teach FLs to American pupils are all too familiar with the student who complains that he hasn't yet had the word for *do*; how can he ask questions or make negative sentences without *do*? This is only an extreme example of the natural misconception of the naive monolingual: namely, that the way his language classifies things and events is the way in which reality has to be perceived, and of course any FL must be merely another set of words for those classifications of things and events. If he ever learns those FL words, he thinks, his job will be done.

Of course this is a gross over-simplification of the task of learning to use a FL. But it is also of course not entirely a mistake. The partial truth is often confirmed by some of the learner's experiences, and the times when there is a breakdown of the semantic parallel between native and foreign vocabularies are all the more frustrating.

The reverse doctrine — that vocabulary is a relatively minor aspect of language structure — can be harmful to FL teaching and learning. In part this down-grading of vocabulary by teachers and theoreticians is a reaction against the naive learner's exaggeration of vocabulary learning. In part it is a result of a teacher's enthusiasm for the formal structural facts about a language. FL teachers are — or ought to be — people who are genuinely fascinated by language as language, grammar as grammar, pronunciation as phonetic performance. Inevitably such teachers are tempted to share with their pupils the delights of tenses and cases and auxiliaries and word-order and rounded front vowels. And textbook writers are under pressure, from within themselves and from their colleagues, to organize learning materials around structural topics. That means, of course, that they will treat vocabulary as just the vehicle for the illustration of grammatical topics rather than as a set of counters with a communicative value in themselves.

In the recent past a much more sophisticated apportionment of emphasis has emerged. It has been recognized that the most habitual parts of language use — pronunciation, phrase-patterns and sentence-patterns — need to be practiced and established as early as

possible, in order to minimize the undesirable carry-over of some structural habits from the native to the foreign language. This objective has necessarily called for a limitation of vocabulary expansion during the very early stages of FL learning, in order to avoid over-burdening the tasks of memorizing, and also to avoid the temptation for the learner to be prematurely creative at the expense of accurate performance of the basic pronunciation and grammatical habits. Hence the principle of strict limitation of vocabulary during the first several dozens or scores of hours of FL study.

There is a solid basis for this general doctrine. Undeniably it is the fundamentals of the FL — its pronunciation and basic grammatical patterns — which have to be confirmed in the very first stages of FL learning. For these purposes the chief virtue of a vocabulary item is its versatility and its usefulness in a variety of grammatical constructions, and as an additional advantage its usefulness in practice of the characteristic phonetic features of the FL. In the beginning approaches to FL learning, one vocabulary item which performs a number of such pedagogical purposes is better than several which together would perform the same purposes.

There are two important variables in the phrase “limitation of vocabulary during the early stages of FL learning”: How limited? And how long do the early stages last? Obviously the proper length of the period of limitation is greatest for the youngest learners. And the definition of “limitation” depends on the kind of FL proficiency which is required: General conversational ability or general reading ability or both? Reading ability in a defined field? Oral communication and comprehension in foreseeable situations? As always, a general pedagogical principle has to be applied with common sense.

But within general bounds, the principle does hold: Initial focus on habit formation of the fundamentals of pronunciation and basic grammatical structures, with vocabulary expansion coming after those habits are well enough established so that new vocabulary can be assimilated into the FL patterns. But just as important, the expansion of vocabulary is the indispensable intermediate stage of FL acquisition.

The transition from the beginning to the intermediate stage is inherently a gradual one, like the transition from the opening game to the middle game in chess. There is no abrupt end to practice of pronunciation, and no sudden shift of focus and format from the initial habit-forming to the intermediate vocabulary building.

If a curriculum is set up in blocks or modules, there can be the advantage of a perceptible though gradual shifting of emphasis, to give the learners a sense of progress and the satisfaction of a bit of adventure. The placement of such a curricular shift has to be a compromise between administrative requirements and the specific problems of adding FL B to native language A. Such compromises are the universe of teachers; those who best learn to live with them ingeniously and productively are the least frustrated.

Whatever the timing of the transition from beginning to intermediate, some things can be assumed: The learner is fairly familiar with several dozen important grammatical patterns of the FL. There are several hundred words (in their various grammatical forms) that the learner understands directly, with no need to remember a native-language "equivalent." Perhaps there are a thousand or so words that are becoming familiar and meaningful, in varying degrees. Obviously, these resources are nowhere near sufficient for anything like real use of the FL.

On the grammatical side, the learner is still a long way from a complete and unconscious ability to use grammatical clues in listening and reading, and until he can do that, his understanding of speech and print will be inaccurate and slow. His speaking and writing will of course be even more inaccurate and slower. Like a vocabulary item, a grammatical pattern is first met as an unanalyzed part of a sentence. Later it may be understood on the intellectual or cognitive level, first as a statement or a "rule," then grasped as the principle exemplified in many sentences and sentence parts, then increasingly taken for granted, and finally used without conscious effort in interpreting the structure of sentences, clauses, and phrases.

Vocabulary is a more complex problem. At the transition into the intermediate stage, the learner has a truly tiny vocabulary; any normal child of six has a vocabulary many times larger. And this is

the persistent problem of learning and teaching on the intermediate level: an infantile vocabulary and an adult mentality.

There is no really satisfactory quick solution. Anything that such a learner could read or listen to would have to be so childish as to be an insult to his maturity. Anything that would be interesting and worth reading or listening to would require a much larger vocabulary than is available, so that a tremendous sacrifice in either speed or comprehension would have to be made.

Since one or both of these sacrifices cannot be avoided, the program has to try to minimize them. The materials and methods have to be designed to build up the learner's skill in using his present small vocabulary resources and at the same time increase those resources.

The first step in working out a strategy of massive expansion of vocabulary control is to be clear about the complex nature of the problem itself. Quite apart from the learner's misconceptions or the teacher's pet enthusiasms, the very nature of the vocabulary side of language involves difficulties in learning and teaching.

There are two aspects to these difficulties, qualitative and quantitative.

The qualitative aspect involves the relation between words and meanings. There is a familiar slogan: "Words don't have meanings; people have meanings for words." In any language the relation between a word or a grammatical structure and its meaning is arbitrary: it is simply a matter of habitual conventional association between that linguistic signal and something meaningful in the situation where it is used.

For our purposes, we can expand the slogan: "People don't have a meaning for a word; people have meanings for words." Take the two sentences: "She looked at the table and decided it wouldn't go well with her other furniture" and "She looked at the table and quickly found the square root." We have no trouble in having meanings for *table*, and also *go*, *well*, *square*, *root*. The phenomenon of quite different meanings for a word is POLYSEMY — many-meaningness. It is a normal phenomenon in language. And not only does one person have varied meanings for a word; different persons may have quite different meanings for a word. (Try the

word *gumption* on a dozen of your friends who are native speakers of English.)

Just as important for our purposes is the fact that there is rarely a one-to-one correspondence between the meanings that speakers of Language A have for one of their words and the meanings that speakers of Language B have for any one of theirs. I present an example from the language pair, English and German, with which I have teaching experience: There is an English word *swim*, and there is a German word *schwimmen*. But that word in German is also applied to the behavior of a cork on the surface of water. English has *float* for this meaning. But English *float* can mean either being motionless because something is less dense than a surrounding fluid, or moving along with a current in that fluid. German does not use *schwimmen* in the latter sense; for it, the word is *treiben*. *Treiben* also has a meaning like English *drive*, but never in the sense of driving a car; for that, the word is *fahren*. But *fahren* also has the meaning of *travel*, provided the traveling is done in a vehicle or on a bicycle (but not on a horse). No doubt every FL teacher could multiply examples from languages he knows.

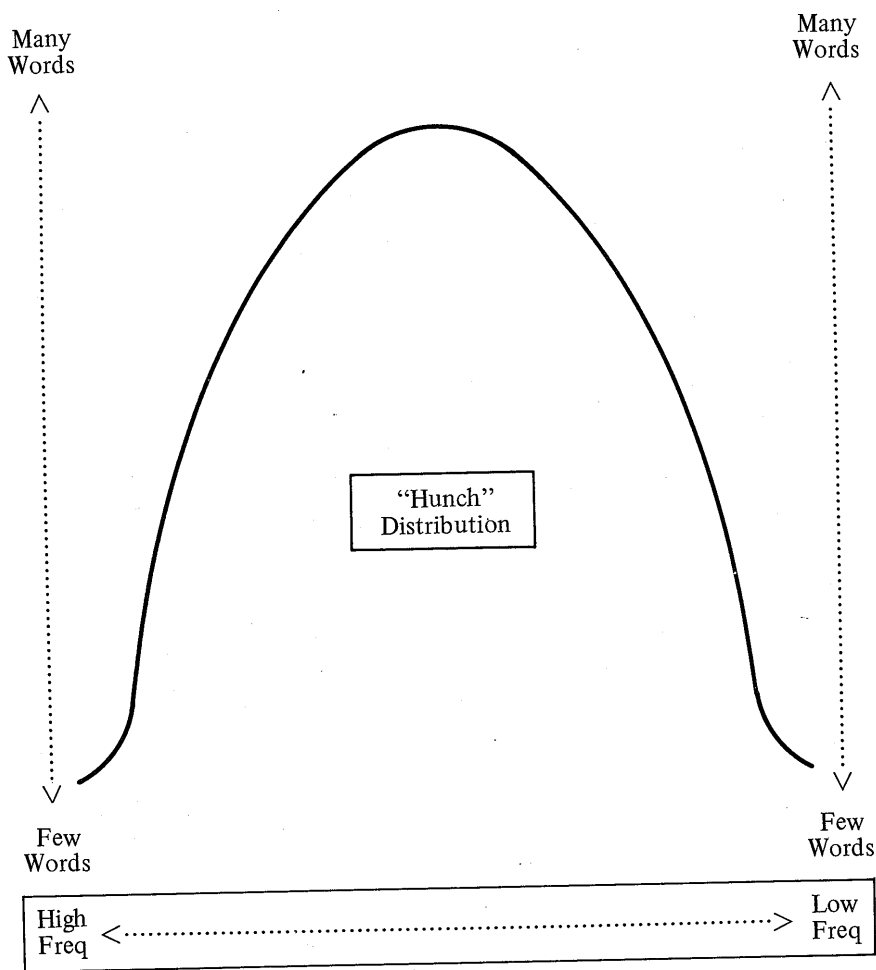
This phenomenon might be called HETEROSEMY, parallel to the term POLYSEMY. It demonstrates that memorizing matched pairs of words in two languages is an educational atrocity, inhibiting the development of reading and speaking, and of use only as a preparation for tests designed to check on the preparation for such tests.

Yet there seems to be no complete escape from the device of glossing — supplying a word or words in a familiar language as a quick guide to understanding a passage in a less familiar language. This glossing may be in the form of a marginal or footnote gloss, or in an alphabetical end-vocabulary or a bilingual dictionary. In any case it is an emergency aid in comprehending a phrase or a sentence, and at most a beginning of the learner's developing a meaning for a word. A gloss is better than nothing, but it is no more than a starting point. The least valuable information about a word is one word in another language. To treat pair-matching as a learning objective or as a testing device violates what we know about polysemy and differences among languages.

Less familiar to language teachers than these qualitative aspects is the quantitative structure of a vocabulary. At one time or another, there has been considerable professional interest in frequency lists as guides to pedagogical procedures. Almost invariably that interest has been directed toward the upper end of the frequency list: those words or stems or roots which occur most frequently. Lists of the 600 most frequent, the 1500 most frequent, the 3000 most frequent words have been used as guides in the construction of introductory or even intermediate materials.

There has been much less attention to the other end of the list, the low-frequency words. Yet this low end is vital in any consideration of a massive vocabulary expansion. It is not so much a matter of which words occur with low frequency as of the shape of the frequency distribution. Most FL teachers (or any other literate persons, for that matter), when asked about the frequency distribution, make the natural guess that there would be a bell-shaped curve (see Graph I) representing a few very-high-frequency words, a large number of medium-frequency words, and a few low-frequency words. This guess is natural, but it is quite wrong. Actually (see Graph II), the curve is quite different, like a ski jump or the graph of a runaway inflation: a very few very-high-frequency words, a small number of medium-frequency words, and a very large number of very-low-frequency words. That is, a great majority of the vocabulary items in any body of natural speech or writing occurs very infrequently. Some rough generalizations can be made about the kinds of words in various parts of the frequency curve:

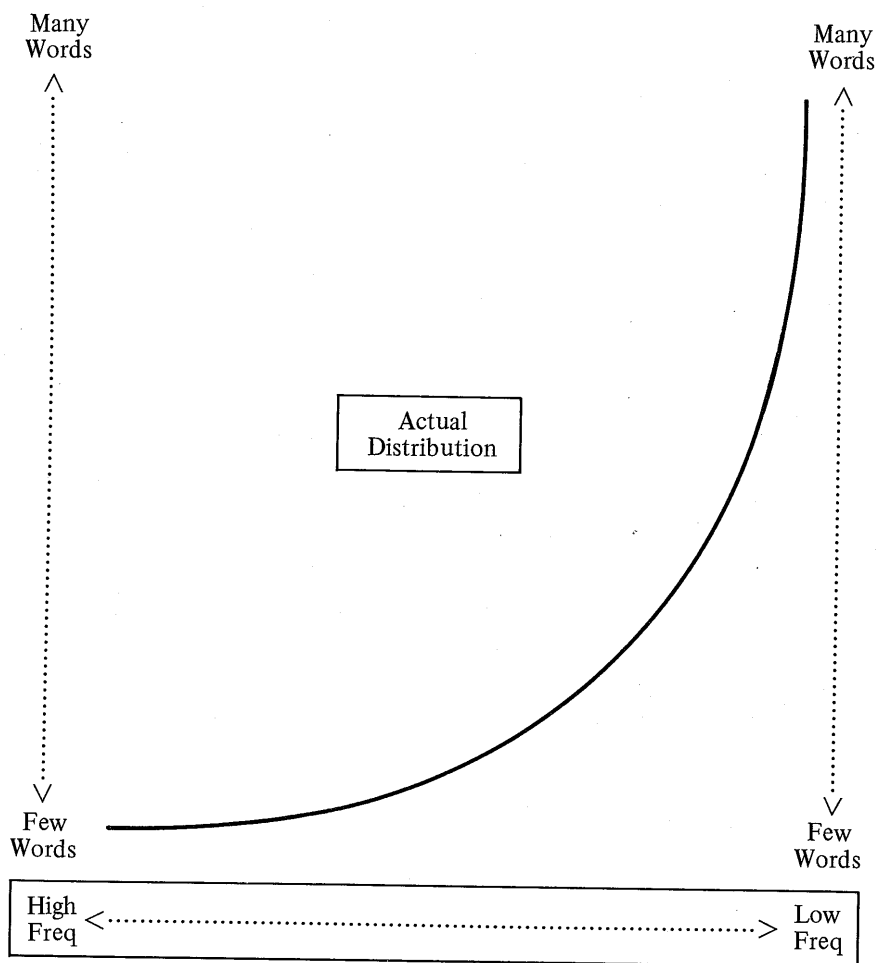
- (1) The few highest-frequency words are determined by the fact that the discourse is in a PARTICULAR LANGUAGE; all discourses in that language display these words;
- (2) The words which occur rather frequently are determined by the PARTICULAR DOMAIN of interests within which the discourse asserts, inquires, explains, narrates, etc.;
- (3) The many words which occur rather rarely but recurringly in



GRAPH I

the discourse are determined by the PARTICULAR TREATMENT of that domain; they are the crucial carriers of the verbal inner structure of the discourse;

- (4) The very-low-frequency words are the signals that link the domain of the discourse to the interests of speaker and listener, writer and reader; these words give the SPECIFIC INFORMATION which the middle and high frequency words organize into meaningful communication.



GRAPH II

At the high-frequency end we find that a few dozen words account for a very sizable fraction of the total text. (In the list in Table I, page 51, the first ten most frequent words account for 246,014 words — nearly one-quarter of the 1,104,235 words of text.) At the other end (see Table II), we find that nearly one-half of the “different words” occur once and only once. This tapering off of the vocabulary is a thoroughly attested fact, based on scores of statistical examinations of many kinds of materials in many languages.

TABLE 1

(High-frequency items in a corpus of 1,104,235 words, printed in USA in 1961, the "Brown" Corpus; by W. Nelson Francis and Henry Kučera. There are 50,457 different words.)

Rank	Freq		Rank	Freq		Rank	Freq	
1	69970	the	37	2859	she	74	1345	any
2	36410	of	38	2724	there	75	1319	my
3	28851	and	39	2714	would	76	1314	now
4	26150	to	40	2670	their	77	1303	such
5	23238	a	41	2653	we	78	1290	like
6	21341	in	42	2619	him	79	1252	our
7	10595	that	43	2472	been	80	1236	over
8	10099	is	44	2439	has	81	1207	man
9	9816	was	45	2332	when	82	1181	me
10	9544	he	46	2252	who	83	1171	even
11	9489	for	47	2244	will	84	1160	most
12	8756	it	48	2216	more	85	1125	made
13	7289	with	49	2201	no	86	1070	after
14	7250	as	50	2199	if	87	1069	also
15	6997	his	51	2096	out	88	1044	did
16	6742	on	52	1984	so	89	1030	many
17	6377	be	53	1961	said	90	1014	before
18	5379	at	54	1908	what	91	1013	must
19	5304	by	55	1895	up	92	968	through
20	5173	I	56	1858	its	93	967	back
21	5146	this	57	1815	about	94	949	years
22	5133	had	58	1791	into	95	938	where
23	4609	not	59	1789	than	96	937	much
24	4393	are	60	1788	them	97	923	your
25	4381	but	61	1772	can	98	909	way
26	4369	from	62	1747	only	99	897	well
27	4207	or	63	1702	other	100	895	down
28	3941	have	64	1635	new	101	888	should
29	3746	an	65	1617	some	102	883	because
30	3618	they	66*	1599	time	103	877	each
31	3562	which	66*	1599	could	104	872	just
32	3292	one	68	1573	these	105	850	those
33	3286	you	69	1412	two	200	432	almost
34	3284	were	70	1400	may	500	194	America
35	3036	her	71	1377	then	1000	106	reach
36	3001	all	72	1363	do	2000	56	guess
			73	1360	first			

What is important for a massive vocabulary expansion is how early in the list the tapering off sets in.

In Table I, the most frequent word, *the*, has a frequency of 69,970: that is, it occurs about once every fifteen words of text. The tenth most frequent word, *he*, occurs once every 106 words; the fiftieth, *if*, every 502 words. By the time we reach the 100th word, *down*, we find a frequency of 895: *down* occurs once every 1133 words. Even this close to the top of the frequency list, we see already a sharp tapering off. The 200th word, *almost*, occurs once every 2,371 words; the 500th word, *America*, once every 5,221 words; the 1000th word, *reach*, once every 9,568 words; *guess*, the 2000th word, once every 18,111 words.

TABLE 2
(Low-frequency items in the same corpus)

Freq	Number of words with that frequency
10	561
9	694
8	826
7	1118
6	1280
5	1822
4	2464
3	3946
2	7231
1	22598

The conclusion from these quantitative properties of a vocabulary is that our classroom time and our students' homework time is nowhere near sufficient to provide them with adequate vocabulary resources. It is a sheer impossibility to teach the learner what he will need for the next page he will read or the next sixty seconds of lecture or conversation he will hear. If we try to prepare him in advance for specific vocabulary needs for any real reading or listening, we are sure to fail, and he is sure to be frustrated and discouraged.

What we can try to do is guide his development of skills to

compensate for his lack of resources, and let his resources grow as a result of his success in using his skills.

We must recognize and bring the learner to recognize that for a long, long time to come he will be encountering many low-frequency words, including many that he cannot possibly have encountered before.

Granted that his resources are inadequate in themselves for usable comprehension: we and he can still take comfort from the fact that even scanty resources can be partly compensated for by skills. While resources must be slowly and laboriously acquired, skills can be taught and learned. And the record of the myriad learners who have somehow acquired the resources needed for using a foreign language shows that it can be done.

One major resource of the learner is the fact that he knows SOMETHING about the content of what he is reading or listening to — not by any means everything or even very much, but something. He also knows enough about the world and the way people act and things happen to recognize that some interpretations are possible or probable and other interpretations are improbable or impossible, as he reads along or listens in his native language. To support this practical command of pragmatic facts, he has also acquired a small but significant resource: he knows some words in the FL and he knows, with various degrees of assurance, how the meanings of those words refer to parts of reality.

But even in his native language, his grammatical and pragmatic knowledge is not always COMPLETELY sufficient for an understanding of all the words he reads or listens to. From time to time he meets words he does not recognize or words in unfamiliar meanings. Nevertheless, he reads and listens with comprehension. We do not know how often this happens, but we may be sure that it happens more frequently than the reader or listener himself is aware.

How can this be? The answer is that in dealing with our native language we are constantly using our skills to supplement our vocabulary resources. Without being aware of what we are doing, we make sensible guesses (and nearly always guess successfully) at the meaning of a particular word in a particular passage or lecture

or conversation; then we go right on reading or listening. The next time we encounter that word, it may have the same meaning it had before, in which case we either go through the same processes all over again or remember the word vaguely. If the word has a different meaning, we make a sensible guess at that meaning in that particular context.

The skill of sensible guessing must be the way we built up our native-language vocabulary resources. Clearly it was not a gift for memorizing definitions or asking someone to tell us "what that word means" or looking up every unfamiliar word in a dictionary. These processes would have been far too time-consuming to provide us with our present vocabulary resources in our native language or in any foreign language in which we have become competent.

We must have acquired our meanings for words by using the skills that are the only way to cope with the two major aspects of vocabulary structure: polysemy and the frequency distribution.

What is a reader or listener to do when he meets a word that is new to him or used in a meaning that he does not understand as suitable in the context? One of three things: he can give up, or panic, or infer. If he must not or dare not give up, he faces the crucial choice: panic or infer! He can panic, especially if he has been trained to panic. Or he can apply the skill of inference from context. In the latter case, he uses what is familiar in the context to suggest a meaning (not necessarily complete or precise) for the phrase or sentence. Whatever meaning he attributes to that phrase or sentence begins to determine a meaning for the new word in it.

The surest sign of a panicky language learner is the way he acts when he meets an unfamiliar word: he rushes at once to a dictionary or an end vocabulary. This takes time and does nothing permanent for either his skill or his resources. What he must learn to do is to put the word on the back burner and go on to the end of the sentence or if possible even to the end of the paragraph. Then he comes back and uses the TOTAL CONTEXT to make a reasonable inference about the sentence or paragraph as a whole. Many times, very many times, the student finds that he no longer needs to use a look-up procedure.

If a reader or listener habitually uses the basic grammatical

structures as clues (as he very effectively does in his native language and as he does to some extent in the FL he is studying), the sheer grammar of the text environment of the new word significantly restricts the general kind of meaning he can have for it in that context. If the grammatical environment is most appropriate for a noun, it would be wildly inefficient to consider a meaning appropriate for an adverb, or anything like *disappear*, for example. If the new word is a noun, and if it is the subject of a verb which is normally used with an animate-human subject, the scope of inference is further narrowed, and it is unlikely that the word belongs in a meaning class with such nouns as *alphabet*, *sermon*, *acceleration*, *symphony*.

The skill in sensible guessing at unfamiliar or partly unfamiliar words involves the conscious or unconscious use of grammatical and pragmatic clues. It is the mark of real reading as opposed to a schoolroom exercise. Quite young readers have learned (if only from the comics) how to perform the exclusions and approximations almost instantaneously when a new word is encountered.

The two kinds of context — sentence structure and factual probability — narrow down the range of possible interpretations. Often, even usually, although the range is narrowed down, it is not pinpointed. A certain amount of temporary vagueness about the meaning remains after the guessing has been done. For example, word X may be grammatically limited to plural-number nouns, and factually refer to some kind of trees rather than shrubs. Or word Y may be limited to past-tense intransitive meanings, and pragmatically limited to some relatively slow downward movement. There is an element of vagueness left in both cases. But as readers and listeners we have learned to tolerate some vagueness; it seems to be a price we are willing to pay for the advantages of successful sensible guessing.

Very often, we have learned from experience, the vagueness will be removed as we read on or listen further. Through successive encounters with a word and successive guessings in context after context, we sooner or later learn more and more precisely the meaning or meanings of the once unfamiliar word. By the time we have encountered a word often enough, the accumulated exclusions

have subtracted enough from the vagueness, and the associations of the word with its meanings have become increasingly precise. (If we never encounter a word again after meeting it once, the original vagueness from that first and only sensible guess will never harm us.)

Thus, within our native-language vocabulary at any given time there are words in various degrees of familiarity and precision. We know many words so well that we use them readily in our own speaking and writing and use them as reliable clues in interpreting other words, which are unfamiliar or only partly familiar. And we also “know” a very large number of words with various degrees of vagueness — words which are in a twilight zone between the darkness of entire unfamiliarity and the brightness of accurate complete familiarity. Despite a certain vagueness about these “twilight-zone” words we can interpret one of them more and more successfully as it moves through the twilight into the light of being familiar. And it is our conscious or unconscious toleration of some vagueness in our successful guessing that makes it possible for us to expand our vocabularies.

Of course the student’s resources will continue to be small and insecure in the FL as compared to his native language. This means that in the FL he encounters unfamiliar words much more often than in his native language and he has a smaller resource of familiar words on which to draw as clues to help narrow down the probable meanings of an unfamiliar word.

But to compensate for these disadvantages, the learner has the habit of sensible guessing from his native language, and he has a store of experience with the actual world. Fostering, developing, transferring these two factors from the native to the target language is a major part of the intermediate phase of FL acquisition.

It is the teacher’s task to organize the teaching so as to facilitate this development. Since students are human and will do what they are rewarded for doing, the system of classroom “rewards and punishments” must be adjusted to serve the growth of the real reading and listening skills. If we reward a student for reciting a definition or a native-language translation of FL words in isolation, that is what he will spend his time learning to do. He will become a

reluctant expert in the use of the dictionary or in memorizing lists of bilingual word-pairs (which he is all too likely to want to do anyhow). With misguided encouragement from his teacher he can be tempted to prepare for classroom recitations by writing native-language words in his FL textbook. But this will not make him an expert in the skills of using grammatical and pragmatic clues. He will not apply the standards of common sense interpretation in terms of probability and possibility as he does in his native language. In short, he will not acquire FL vocabulary habits but only an empty dead-end expertness in puzzle-solving, bilingual word-pairs, and so-called "translation."

Hence there must be a complete boycott on checking comprehension by calling for translational equivalents. The learner must be allowed, must be encouraged, to accept temporary vagueness in the early stages of familiarization with a given word. If all words are held to an unnatural single standard of precise understanding, it is at the expense of practice in establishing whether the reader has a clear enough understanding to make it safe to go on, or whether this is an emergency case where a special effort must be made to discover an unusually precise meaning for a context. (The extreme instance of bad FL pedagogy in holding all words to a single standard of comprehension is the familiar story of the teacher who urged his class: "Be sure you memorize this word very carefully, because it is so rare that you'll probably never see it again.")

When reading or listening practice involves objectives of fairly complete comprehension, a teacher can guide learners into desirable habits of intelligent guessing from context by a kind of catechism of leading questions.

These would normally be first on the grammatical level: "Is the word X a noun, a verb, an adjective? If it's a noun, is it singular or plural? What adjective modifies it? Is it the subject of a verb? The object of a verb? If X is a verb, does it show future, present, or past? What is its subject? Its object? If X is an adjective, what noun does it modify? If it's an adverb, does it modify any other word in the sentence? Or the sentence as a whole?"

Once the student has been led to identify the grammatical clues, the next step is to practice deducing from factual clues. If X is a

noun, does it refer to persons, things, conditions, events, qualities? How many? What kinds? If X is a verb, does it refer to an action, change, condition, relationship? When? Do people do it? If not, what kind of thing does it? If X is an adjective, what is it describing in this sentence? Does it describe some fact, or does it indicate somebody's attitude? What kind of fact or event or attitude?

This use of questions to guide sensible guessing can usually involve the entire class, not merely the student who mentioned the word as difficult. Either a "volunteer" or a "calling-on" procedure may be followed, preferably sometimes the one and sometimes the other. The important purpose is to demonstrate to all the students the step-by-step search for and then use of all clues in the context.

Naturally, this exercise in guided sensible guessing is to be used selectively. Its function is to continually remind the students that it is possible to guess, and that guessing is approved of when done sensibly by using both grammatical and pragmatic clues. The most effective use of course is when it is most likely to be successful: this is normally when there is only one wholly unfamiliar word in an otherwise familiar context.

If the guided sensible guessing seems to be failing to elicit a sufficiently definite comprehension for the purposes of the moment, the teacher must decide when to stop it and simply supply a native-language equivalent for the word or a FL paraphrase for the sentence.

Grammatical clues can come to include the commonest derivational prefixes and suffixes, as soon as the learner has built up more than a minimum of usable vocabulary. Often a reminder of a word belonging to the same derivational group can be helpful. This reminder may range from the very obvious at first, like *health/healthy* to the more complex and less obvious relationships, like *solid/solidify* and *foliage/defoliate*.

Guessing by means of cognates is a chapter to itself. In the case of some pairs of languages, native and foreign, the cognate relationships are quite numerous; this is true especially of pairs of languages in the group of West European standard languages.

Often there are great similarities in the meanings of two cognate words in a pair of languages, and this is a helpful resource in

vocabulary expansion. But we all know that there are dangers in an uncritical acceptance of cognates as guides to meanings — some cognates are what the French call “false friends.” With adult learners, it is possible and desirable to spend a few minutes outlining some of the misleading cognates in the two languages involved, with some funny illustrative examples.

One problem that will continue to be troublesome is that of idioms. An idiom is by definition an expression whose meaning is not really grasped from a knowledge of the totality of the ordinary meanings of its parts. Hence, a new idiom may resist comprehension by the regular processes of sensible guessing, and special procedures are often needed.

The first difficulty with an idiom in a FL is that the learner does not recognize that it is an idiom. Once it is recognized as such — namely, a unit of more than average size — the context often supplies enough clues. But how is the student to identify an idiom when he encounters one? Chiefly from the very fact that the apparent meaning (the sum of its parts) does not seem sensible or appropriate in its context.

Some time early in the course it is probably a good idea to discuss briefly the nature of idioms, with a few examples; then invite the students to supply some examples, from their own native language and from the FL, of expressions whose meanings could not be understood by combining the ordinary meanings of the parts.

The first step in coping with an idiom is thus to recognize it as an idiom. If the student has acquired the habit of expecting what he hears and reads to make sense (an idiom, by the way), he will be warned when a combination of words seems to mean something improbable. He can be helped to form the habit of treating such a combination as one single unit of meaning by the usual teaching devices: When a student reports difficulty and the teacher realizes that an idiom is the probable source of the trouble, the teacher can use the idiom in several different contexts, and can guide the analysis of the entire idiom by the “grammatical and pragmatic questions” described above. Or, if all else fails, the teacher can face the difficulty headon by giving a paraphrase or

paraphrases in the FL.

(I can report, with some pain, such a failure: When I once did a little studying of Mandarin, the textbook decked me with a sentence that seemed to assert "Green years completely-has-gone-into village to buy east west." I had to appeal to the teacher to be informed that *green years* obviously means *young person* and *east west* means *several things*.)

In all classroom situations the practical state of the student's resources and skills will demand some compromise with any method or pedagogical device. At first the student's vocabulary resources are so drastically limited that various kinds of emergency help are needed to start off the process of sensible guessing.

The quickest and most tempting way to help is to supply a gloss for a word or a paraphrase or even a translation for a phrase. This kind of help will almost certainly lead to quick forgetting, unless it is promptly reinforced by being used to discover the meaning of other sentences. Slower, less precise in the long run, and no more permanent, is the recourse to a dictionary or an end-vocabulary; at best this offers immediate temporary aid, but it does little to develop desirable habits of reading for comprehension. And, as we saw earlier, it is very important not to resort to a dictionary or end-vocabulary until an entire sentence or paragraph has been read through. Only then can the student be reasonably sure whether it is a real emergency or not, whether he really can't make any sensible inferences and — just as important — whether the word is worth spending quite a few seconds or even a minute on.

Early in the intermediate phase the student must be given the beginnings of practice in skimming. It is ridiculous to teach a FL as though the learner will ultimately read and ponder with concentrated care every bit of FL print that he examines. As a practical realistic objective, the ability to glance rapidly over a considerable stretch of print looking for some piece of information or discussion of a particular phase of a topic is highly relevant. And as a pedagogical procedure, giving the learner an opportunity to practice skimming is one of the best ways to encourage the skills of guessing at meaning without using a dictionary, and putting up with vagueness where vagueness does not seem to be dangerous.

For listening practice, one procedure is to pass out to various students various questions to be answered on the basis of what they will hear in an oral presentation. Naturally at first these questions are made as obvious as possible, often making use of some but not all of the words in the answer. Later, some ingenuity in questioning is desirable: the questions are phrased in less obvious ways so that the part of the oral presentation which answers them does not closely echo the way the question is formulated.

A parallel device is usable for developing the skills of skimming print. A reading assignment is made and questions are handed to the students to be answered on the basis of the assigned passage. The assignment is of a length that the students at first find terrifying — fifty pages or so to be covered in a couple of hours at most. With so much to cover in so short a time, it is clearly impossible for the student to try to STUDY the assignment; he must skim it, hunting for something that looks as though it might give the answer to one of his five questions (five is quite enough for this kind of assignment).

To play fair, the questions should be in the order of the answers in the oral presentation or in the printed passage.

The same passage can then be used for the next assignment. This time, something shorter — say, twenty pages — is assigned, with ten questions requiring a closer examination of the text. If it is desirable to give practice in relatively complete and exact comprehension, a final assignment from the last part of the passage may require answering quite detailed questions, preparing a paraphrase, filling in blanks in a summary, or the like.

The important point is to convince the student that he can get SOME information from the FL from evidence supplied wholly within the FL itself. Learners are usually surprised at HOW MUCH information they have gotten this way. It is unnecessary to comment on the boost in morale that results.

It goes without saying that there are times when the comprehension must be total whatever the cost in time — when the tolerance of vagueness is zero. With laboratory instructions, or the proof of a theorem, or a paragraph of a treaty or contract, or sworn testimony in a trial, the “sufficient precision” in understanding is

one hundred percent. This is the standard we apply, and this is the effort we know we have to make, in reading the fine print in an insurance policy or the instructions of the Internal Revenue Service. A proficient reader learns how to make a judicious appraisal and recognize these rare occasions when they arise.

To summarize this examination of the problems of vocabulary expansion and some steps that can be taken to meet the problems:

There has to be conscious planning to practice the two skills the learner uses unconsciously in his usual reading and listening activities in his native language.

- (1) He must learn to guess at the meanings of unfamiliar words and phrases rather than spend a great deal of time making sure that he knows a suitable meaning.
- (2) For many purposes he has to be willing to tolerate a considerable degree of vagueness in his understanding of sentences and phrases.

Of course these two ways of studying run counter to most school study, where virtue consists in relying on accurate information rather than guess-work, and on exactness rather than vagueness. Accuracy and exactness and double-checking to be sure are luxuries that can be afforded in listening to and reading one's native language, where one has a complete control of sentence structure and a vocabulary of many thousands of words. But the learner of a FL does not have these resources. For quite a few hundred hours of learning and practice, he has to be content with an incomplete comprehension of what he hears and reads; and when he absolutely has to have complete understanding, it will be at the cost of considerable time of conscious grammatical analysis and/or (usually AND) laborious looking-up in a bilingual dictionary.

It is the business of a program of intermediate FL teaching to:

- (1) speed up the transition from conscious to unconscious use of grammatical clues to meaning;
- (2) build up the learner's confidence in his skill in guessing at meanings;
- (3) increase his efficiency in using a dictionary and knowing when

not to use it.

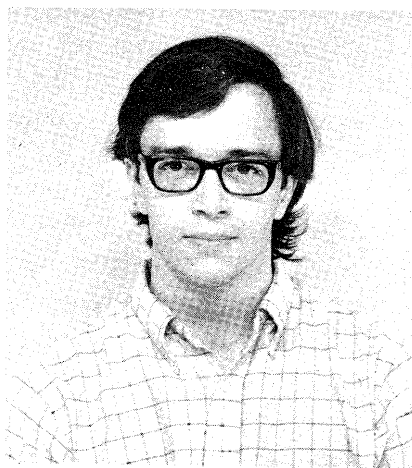
Part of this program has to be carried out by the learner. He must be persuaded that the teacher really knows what needs to be done, and at least give the teacher's advice a fair chance.



“語の分析と Vocabulary の拡大”

ケネス・エルカート

能 率的に単語を覚えるためのシステムとして、Elchert氏は、語の構造つまり prefix, base, suffixなどを頭に入れる事をすすめます。単なる暗記は、最少限にとどめ、語を分解することによってその意味を推測する事に力を入れる方が効果的だということです。教える側もどのような単語をどれだけ覚えるべきかを強制する事をやめ、受講者自身が自分で選択できるようなシステムを教える事に力をつくす方が望ましいと思われます。この方法は特に中級以上の受講者に効果的であるとElchert氏は主張します。



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Building Vocabulary: Prefixes, Bases, Suffixes

Kenneth Elchert

Students of English as a second language often are frustrated by their lack of vocabulary. This frustration seems to become most acute once the student reaches a reasonable level of grammatical competence. It seems natural that the student turns more of his attention towards enlarging his vocabulary after becoming acquainted with the grammar since, in the beginning stages of learning a language, the student must grapple primarily with the grammar — how different formations or combinations of words require different sentence patterns. Once the student develops some proficiency in using and manipulating different grammatical patterns, he turns more of his attention towards enlarging his vocabulary so that he can improve his ability to communicate his thoughts and feelings.

The teacher must recognize the constraints which he must cope with when he attempts to teach new vocabulary. First, there is not an unlimited amount of time available to the student for learning (or to the teacher for teaching) new vocabulary. At the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ), in one month there are at most eight forty-minute periods devoted exclusively to vocabulary building. Even if the student could learn ten new words in each of those periods (a highly dubious assumption), the result would be an increase of only eighty words. This is not that great an increase,

especially if compared to the staggering number of words in the English language.

Second, the teacher is faced with the seemingly insoluble problem of determining which words are the most important words for the students to learn. This is a problem since the teacher is usually unable to determine beforehand the particular level of each student. The level of students in the class is usually varied – to aim primarily at increasing the vocabulary of the lower level student might result in a very small increase in the vocabulary of the higher level student. Furthermore, students come from different professional backgrounds, so that no two students will have the same vocabularies or needs: students will be using their English in different ways upon leaving LIOJ – some will need to do a lot of technical reading, some a lot of speaking, etc.

By teaching the students a process for learning new vocabulary, instead of just teaching “X” number of new words, the teacher will be able to overcome, to some extent, these difficulties. Instead of handling words as discrete entities, the teacher should present new words as having identifiable relationships with other words.

Teaching the meaning of prefixes, bases, and suffixes is one way of enabling the student to grasp some of the relationships among words in the English language.

The method of vocabulary building described in this article is currently in use at LIOJ. The particular approach suggested here has been used and developed over a five-month period and is suitable for use in English classroom situations in other schools.

Generally, the same procedure is followed when introducing the concepts of prefix, base, and suffix. First, the meaning of a prefix, or a base, or a suffix is explained; then, examples of words having the prefix, base, or suffix are given; finally, the students are asked to recall words which have the same part and to use those words in a sentence.

Since this idea – that the parts of the word can have meaning – is often new to the students, it is best to proceed from what is easy to grasp to what is less easy to grasp. They understand the meaning of prefixes such as “over” and “under” in words like “overcoat”, “overflow”, “underwater”, etc. It is helpful to use these easy

prefixes since the students already know the meanings of “over” and “under” and since the students will immediately begin to understand that parts of the word do have meaning. This helps them to see the process which they will be learning.

The class will usually study the meanings of about 25 different prefixes. There are more than 25 prefixes, but 25 is a sufficient number to use for this type of approach to vocabulary building; if interested, the student will always be able to look up the meaning of other prefixes which he comes across. The prefixes selected for study are those which occur frequently in words. They are as follows:

un – not, opposite of, ex.: unsafe

in – not, ex.: inactive

in – in, on, toward, ex.: include

out – outside, outward, better or more than, ex.: outgoing

ab – away from, ex.: abnormal

ad – to, toward, at, ex.: admire

com (con, col) – together, with, very, ex.: complex

contra, counter – against, opposite, opposed to, ex.: contradict

de – away from, down, off, ex.: decrease

dis – apart, not, ex.: disapprove

ex – out, from, former, ex.: example

inter (intel) – between, among, ex.: intervene

mis – wrongly, badly, ex.: misinformed

per – through, to the bad, very, ex.: perspire

post – after, ex.: postpone

pre – in front of, before, ex.: prejudice

re – back, again, ex.: remarry

semi – half, partly, twice in a . . . , ex.: semiannual

sub – under, beneath, lower than; ex.: submarine

super – over, above, ex.: supervise

tele – across, ex.: television

trans – across, over, beyond, ex.: transition

It should be emphasized that this is not a complete list of prefixes; it is a sufficient number for the objectives of this course.

For example, when discussing the prefix “ex-”, its most common

meanings will be given (“out”, “from”, “former”); then, the meaning of words which have that prefix will be discussed: “export” — to carry out; “example” — from a sample: “ex-president” — former president. Then the students recall words having the prefix and we discuss their meanings. Finally, they use these words in a sentence.

The use of a word in a sentence is valuable because it gives the students some idea of how to use a word in a sentence — as an adjective, or a noun, etc. Furthermore, the students will get some idea of the contexts in which the word can be used — and the context in which a word is used supplies a great deal of the word’s meaning.

After discussing prefixes, we start the bases. They have already had a little exposure to bases by this time, since bases are inevitably discussed when going through words having prefixes. Here again, the same procedure is followed. The meaning of the base will be given, and then a few words which have that base will be explained. The students are again asked to recall words having the base. It is interesting to see the variations of word meanings produced by combining one base with different prefixes. This part of the course particularly helps students to see that many words, which at first do not seem related at all, do indeed have rather close relationships.

During the course about 35 bases are examined. The bases are selected on the basis of their suitability, the criteria being that there should be at least three words which are derived from each root and which are commonly used. Most of the students at LIOJ know the meaning of the word “export”, since exports are such an important part of the Japanese economy. By this stage they have learned the meaning of the prefix “ex”, but perhaps they do not know the meaning of the base “port”. After explaining the meaning of the base (“to carry”) and its derivation (from the Latin word *portare*), a few words which have the base are given: “export”, “import”, “report”, “portable”, etc. Their meanings are explained, and it becomes evident to the student that these words all have the idea of “carrying” in common. Then they recall other words with the base and their meanings are examined, and then those words are used in sentences.

The following is a partial list of bases derived from Latin words. The form in which the base commonly appears is given (although there are variations in these forms). Then the Latin word from which the base is derived is listed, its meaning is given, and finally one example of a word containing the base is given.

cede – *cedere* – to go, to yield, ex.: precede
ceive – *capere, cipere* – to take, to hold, ex.: conceive
cise – *caedere, cidere* – to cut, ex.: decide
clude – *claudere* – to close, shut, ex.: conclude
crease – *crescere* – to grow, ex.: increase
dict – *dicere* – to say, tell, ex.: predict
duce – *ducere* – to lead, ex.: reduce
fer – *ferre* – to bring, bear, ex.: defer
fort – *fortis* – strong, ex.: fortify
fuse – *fundere* – to pour, ex.: diffuse
ject – *jacere* – to throw, ex.: subject
lect – *legere, lectus* – to gather, choose, read, ex.: intellect
magn – *magnus* – great, ex.: magnificent
med – *medius* – middle, ex.: immediate
mit – *mittere, missus* – to send, ex.: transmit
mob – *movere, motus* – to move, ex.: promotion
pel – *pellere, pulsus* – to drive, ex.: repel
pend – *pendere, pensus* – to hang, ex.: suspend
port – *portare* – to carry, ex.: import
pose – *ponere, positus* – to put, place, ex.: compose
press – *premere, pressus* – to press, ex.: express
rupt – *rumpere, ruptus* – to break, ex.: interrupt
scient – *scire* – to know, ex.: science
scribe – *scribere, scriptus* – to write, ex.: subscription
serv – *servare* – to save, ex.: conservation
spect – *specere, spectus* – to look, ex.: perspective
spire – *spirare* – to breath, ex.: conspiracy
struct – *struere, structus* – to build, ex.: structure
sume – *sumere, sumptus* – to take, ex.: presume
tort – *torquere, tortus* – to twist, ex.: distortion
tract – *trahere* – to draw, drag, ex.: extract
uni – *unus* – one, ex.: union

vent – *venire* – to come, ex.: convention

vinc – *vincere* – to conquer, ex.: invincible

vert – *vertere, versus* – to turn, ex.: subversive

The same procedure is followed for the suffixes. However, if there is not enough time left for studying the suffixes, the students can be given a sheet which both explains the meaning of the suffixes and gives examples of words which have the suffix.

Throughout this process, the students are encouraged to use their English-English dictionaries freely, since dictionaries used by native English speakers usually give the etymology (derivation) of the words after the pronunciation.

What benefits are derived from this approach to vocabulary building? First, the student must make word associations in English – they cannot translate from English to Japanese to English. This is important since there is not always an exact equivalent of each English word in the Japanese language. They must use and compare English words.

Second, when the students come across new words, either in a speaking situation or in a reading situation, they will not always have to learn a whole new word, but might be able to piece together the meaning of the word by (paradoxically) breaking it down into its parts. In many cases they will not have to learn a whole new word, but only a variation of an old one. This process is an important mnemonic device since it is much easier to remember a word if you understand the meaning of its parts.

Third, this process seems to be more natural than rote memorization. Unquestionably, memorization plays a large part in the learning of any second language. However, most native speakers do not learn their native language by memorization – the words that are assigned to students for memorization in high school English classes always seem to be forgotten very quickly after a test. Rather, native speakers learn new vocabulary from the contexts in which they find them and from making associations between known and unknown words. The process of learning prefixes, bases, and suffixes seems to more nearly approximate the way in which a native speaker learns new vocabulary – by making associations – than does rote memorization. This approach many times does

enable the non-native speaker (as well as the native speaker) to determine the meaning of an unknown word from the context in which he finds it.

There are some difficulties in using this approach. First, there are many words which appear to be related, but which in fact are not, and this can be confusing. For example, “inspire” and “spiral” might seem to be related since they both have the letters *spir*. However, “inspire” comes from a Latin word, while “spiral” comes from a Greek word, and their meanings are quite different. By faithful use of the dictionary and examination of the derivation of the word, this problem ceases to be so important.

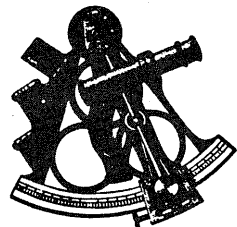
Second, at times the etymological meaning might seem to have very little relation to the current meaning of the word. But with a little thought or research, the relationship can often be discovered. For example, the word “camera” comes from the Latin word *camera*, meaning room. At first glance there seems to be little relationship between camera and room. However, the first cameras were actually rooms — dark rooms — with a small hole in one wall through which light passed to form an image on a paper. With technological advances, the size of the room was diminished until it reached the size of the little “room” that people can now carry in their pockets.

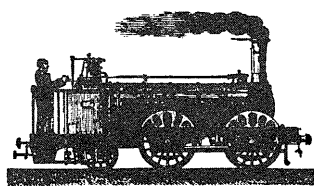
It should be clear that this method of vocabulary building is meant for students who have reached a relatively high level of English ability. This is so because the vocabulary to be learned deals with terms which have relatively more of an abstract than a concrete character (disrupt, infer, intellect as opposed to ball, book, dog, etc.). The higher level student is more ready than the lower level student for the content of this course. In addition, the process might be difficult for the lower level student to understand (because of his low level).

While no statistical evaluation of the results of this course has been made, student response has been very favorable. Of course, it is realized that only favorable responses might be made upon inquiry; however, subsequent questioning about a word or about the meaning of a prefix or a root seems to show that students have acquired a considerable degree of skill in analyzing words and in

identifying word parts.

This paper has described a process of determining the meaning of a word by examining the parts of the word and by recalling other words which have similar parts. After the acquisition of this process, the next step for the student would seem to be the application of the process to guided readings which have the vocabulary which would enable the student to use, in a controlled situation, the process which he has learned.

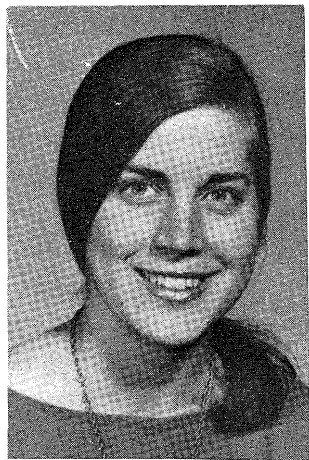




“言葉のゲーム”

エリザベス・ハーモン

言 葉のゲームは、教室ではどちらかという遊びの様に考えられる傾向がありますが、必ずしもそうとはいえないと思います。ここでは特定の教授内容、特に復習または理解度のテストなどの目的に合わせて組立てられたゲームのやり方を紹介します。ひとつのゲームについて4つの variations を示し、言葉のゲームを教える事が何故むづかしいかについて、いくつかのアイデアを述べてみました。



Elizabeth Harmon has recently returned to Japan after an extended stay in Thailand. She holds an MS degree in education as well as a TESOL Teaching Certificate from the University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

Language Games: One Approach to Review and Testing

Elizabeth Harmon

During the past few years, I have frequently talked with English teachers about teaching language games. From these chats, it seems to me that language games have a reputation for being non-serious classroom activities. Many teachers feel that language games are convenient ways to enliven an extra five minutes of classtime or a good way to entertain at an English club party, but feel that “real” or serious teaching is a separate matter. Even from teachers who would like to use language games in class, one hears many complaints. They say that playing games can cause embarrassment and awkwardness for the teacher and students. In this brief paper, I would like to suggest that adequate planning can resolve the above teaching difficulties. Before the game begins both the language skill being taught and the procedure of the game itself must be clearly planned by the teacher.

Three general areas should receive consideration while a teacher plans for the game. *First of all*, the teacher should have a clear objective for each game used in the classroom. If a class has played only a few games, simpler games will probably have a greater chance for success. Detailed instructions to the student should not be necessary, because both the language skill to be reviewed and the playing method itself can be easily communicated via the scoring procedure. If scoring rules are too complicated or if too many

language skills are necessary before the student can score, the game may be too awkward to play. Once a simple version of the game has been learned, both language skills and scoring technique can become more complex, if desired. *Secondly*, games can be used more easily as a method to review material than to introduce or drill new material. In this paper, I will discuss only the technique of reviewing or "testing" using language games. *Thirdly*, problems can result if the language game inadvertently requires that the student become more self-disciplined than he is during the rest of the class period. In this discussion, I will assume that the teacher is standing in front of the classroom while the students remain seated and that the students will respond, primarily, to the teacher. In a sense, however, these games could be used as attempts to foster self-disciplined student behavior as well as to teach the language skill.

Above I have stressed that a game should be planned around a definite language skill that the teacher wishes to reinforce. With this in mind, I would like to give an example of one game that might serve to review material. I have selected one game that is based on a children's picture card game. In its original form, children turn over two identically matched picture cards from a face-down, randomly ordered selection of twenty cards. For instance, if a player turns over a picture of an apple, he must turn over a second picture of an apple in order to score. If he turns over a picture of something other than an apple he loses his turn. The object is to match up the cards in pairs, thus improving the power to concentrate. I would like to show four adaptations of this game for use in the language classroom.

"Concentration 1."

"Concentration 1" is the simplest of these four games. The object of this game is to review vocabulary meanings; the scoring will be one point for each word correctly identified by a student. The class is first divided into two teams. The teacher displays on a bulletin board, a flannel board or with small magnets on the blackboard, a series of pictures. Anywhere from 8-20 pictures can be used, depending on the difficulty of the words. Each represents a

previously taught vocabulary item. The picture will be visible for only 30 to 60 seconds; they are then covered with uniform squares of paper or flannel. Team A then has the option of listing as many as possible within a brief time limit. The teacher will write the list and, with the class, check it against the uncovered pictures. A second round can be played with Team B making the list using the same, or new, picture cards.

“Concentration 2.”

This game also begins with the pictures on the board. But, instead of covering them with blank squares, the squares may have written on them numbers, roman numerals or alphabets. In this case, the student would have to do the following to score:

1. read correctly the number, roman numeral or alphabet on the covering card;
2. name the picture.

It might be best to keep the scoring as simple as possible with a point given only upon completion of both objectives.

“Concentration 3.”

This game can be played like “Concentration 2.” However, the excitement may be increased by putting the cards in pairs, thus requiring a third objective to be met. To score the student:

1. locates the two pictures which make a pair,
2. reads the two cues (numbers, roman numerals, etc.) correctly;
3. identifies the items.

If he does each of these correctly he scores. If the two pictures he has chosen are not identical they must be covered again. But other alert students have learned the location. In order for several students to play each round, the teacher can limit the number of turns one student can play before he must yield to a team-member. Team B gets a turn when Team A mismatches a pair.

Concentration 4.”

This game can be played like “Concentration 2” or “Concentration 3.” But, after a student identifies a word, he gives the word to a member of the opposing team. This person must then make a

sentence based on directions given by the teacher. A sample of possible directions follows:

1. no cue- the student can make any understandable sentence which includes the word;
2. the student can make any sentence with ten or more words which includes the vocabulary item;
3. the student, still including the vocabulary word, follows more specific directions such as:
 - a. "use the word 'although'";
 - b. "use a compound subject";
 - c. "use two adjectives";
 - d. "make a complex sentence".

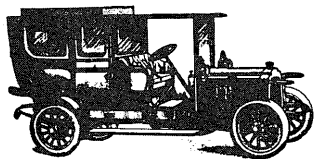
If an understandable sentence is given, two points are awarded the team.

These four forms of the game leave the teacher in control of the learning situation as it occurs in the classroom. Even so, some questions have come frequently from teachers expressing concern about the linguistic damage done by allowing students to speak imperfect English in the classroom. I feel that this concern is a legitimate one that has no simple answer. But any correction during the game period should be done in a brief fashion. Lengthy explanations belong elsewhere. If the student uses the grammatical point successfully, she should receive two points even if other errors exist. It might help if the teacher approaches the language game as a kind of "test" in which he collects the errors of the students. (I am sure that one should not tell the students that it is a *test* and that the flavor of the classroom should be quite different from that of a testing hour. Nevertheless, the teacher should be alert to what is not yet learned.)

Collecting this information can follow a different procedure from the traditional test, as well. The teacher can inconspicuously place a tape recorder in the classroom and later count the objectives that were not met and/or other errors that occurred. As the teacher teaches in this fashion, however, she will find that her ability to hear specific errors will increase. Thus, jotting down these errors during classtime may be a possible short-cut. Immediately after the game an on-the-spot drill on one or two problem areas can be given.

But if that is impossible, the teacher can listen to the tape, or think about the class and then write a ten minute drill to cover the errors that occurred most frequently.

If one uses this method of correction the students are less likely to be embarrassed and awkward while playing games. At the same time, review and “testing” may become a more rewarding time both for the students and for the teacher. As the students relax and enjoy the language a bit more, teachers can take advantage of the opportunity to evaluate how well the various language skills are being learned.



“教室での質問の仕方”

ジェーン・パートリッジ

教 室で教師はどんな質問をしたら良いかについて2つの点を述べてみたいと思います。これは私が英国で外国人に英語を教える事を勉強した時に学んだ事ですが、どんな状況にもあてはまるものだと思います。簡単な事です、特に多人数のクラスを持つ時—日本人の先生方はそういう状況に置かれる事が多いと聞いていますが—には、非常に重要であり且つ効果的だと思います。



Jane Partridge is a native of Kent, England. She graduated from Leicester University with a degree in English and Philosophy. In addition she has earned a certificate in TESOL from St. Giles School, London.

Asking Students Questions

Jane Partridge

One of the most important points for the teacher to watch in the classroom is that the students (and not the teacher!) talk as much as possible. This is sometimes called “Student Talking Time (STT)” as opposed to “Teacher Talking Time (TTT)”. The STT should be the maximum that the teacher can make it – for it is not by listening, even when understanding, that the student learns best and fastest, but by the student talking himself.

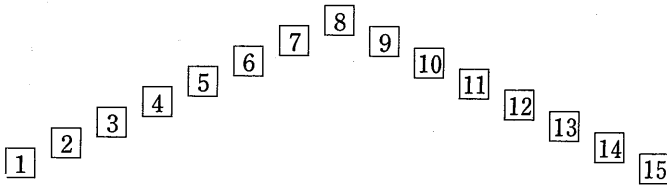
There are ways of increasing the STT by dividing the class into groups and pairs. However, sometimes, it is necessary for the teacher to ask questions individually – for example, for testing comprehension; or when teaching context emphasis. (Please see Dr. Lee’s article in *Cross Currents*, Spring 1973).

Of course, when asking questions individually it is possible for only one student to “talk” at a time, therefore, the STT of the class as a whole is very low. As the situation is unavoidable I would like to review two teaching methods which increase the Student “THINKING” (or perhaps we could say “WORKING”) Time when the teacher is asking questions individually.

The first rule is very simple and I’m sure followed by nearly all teachers, but I will mention it because it’s perhaps sometimes forgotten. It is:

NEVER ASK QUESTIONS IN ORDER AROUND THE CLASS

If the teacher questions in an obvious order – for example, starting at Seat 1 and going round to 15:



even with the best will in the world the mind of the keenest student will easily wander until the teacher comes to one or two students before him, when the student knows he must wake up and prepare himself for “his” question. Even more likely is it that the students who have answered “their” questions will relax totally until the teacher has finished questioning the whole class.

However, if the teacher asks questions in random order, the student never knows when he is going to be questioned and should always be alert and ready to answer the next question.

This leads to the second and more important rule:

ASK THE QUESTION BEFORE SAYING WHICH STUDENT IT IS FOR
For one minute, put yourself in the position of a student, for example, Mr. Tada. The teacher asks a question from a reading and expects an immediate response. Imagine how differently these questions would affect you:

- A. Mr. Sato. Does the man in the story get up at 8 o'clock?
- B. Does the man in the story get up at 8 o'clock? . . . (Pause) . . .
Mr. Sato.

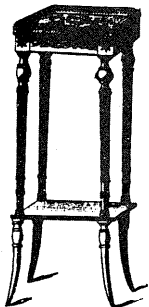
What will your reaction be? Consider Question A. A very diligent student may think of the answers to this and all the other students' questions to see if he is right. The majority of the students might think of the answers to one or two of the other students' questions. Some will daydream until “their” question is asked. Do you agree?

Now what about Question B? You know that the teacher is going to expect an immediate response and due to the random questioning (Rule 1) You don't know when your name will be called – in fact, this and every question may be for you.

Therefore, if the teacher asks the question before he says which student must answer, every student should prepare an answer to every question. To make it even more obvious that the questioning is completely random the teacher can ask the question, pause and then throw a beanbag at the student to answer. This really keeps them on their toes!

Using these two rules:

1. Never asking questions in order around the class, and
 2. Asking the question before saying which student it is for,
- there is more chance that each student will think of the answer to every question. In this way, at least the “working” time of each student will be increased. Please think about it next time you’re asking individual questions in class!



“アメリカ文化の中の 東洋的価値体系”

テッド・ソロモン

東 洋の人は、この十数年の間に東洋文化、特にその宗教や哲学がアメリカ人に与えた影響の大きさをあまり知らないのではないかと思います。Dr. Ted. J. Solomon は Iowa State University で宗教及び哲学を教えておられますが、この小論の中で、

現在のアメリカで大いにその地位を高めつつある東洋の宗教や宗派について説明し、それがアメリカの伝統的な文化にどのような impact を与えつつあるかについて論評されます。

Dr. Ted. J. Solomon, Professor, Iowa State University

Asian Spiritual Values in American Culture

Dr. Ted J. Solomon
Iowa State University

The invasion of Asian religions in the United States is introducing "corrective" values into American culture. By the term "corrective" values I refer to spiritual values which balance cultural one-sidedness or pre-occupation with scientific, rational, and pragmatic values. Western man with his extroverted fascination for the objective world has neglected his own inner development. In the attempt to correct cultural imbalance, a sizable minority of Americans have found in the East those significant values that have been ignored or misunderstood in the West.

Some of the spiritual values of Asian religions which serve as a corrective to Western deficiencies are as follows:

- (1) authentic happiness comes through an awareness of a higher or wider self transcending ego or personality consciousness.
- (2) an apperception of nature as a cosmos in which there is a fundamental unity underlying the multiplicity of the world. This value has led to an attitude of reverence for nature, an appreciation of man's limited place in the eco-system, and support for environmental programs designed to protect natural resources.
- (3) the utilization of practical spiritual techniques such as Hindu yoga and meditation, Zen Buddhist *zazen*, and chanting of sacred formulas.

- (4) an affirmation of the innate trustworthiness and perfectibility of human nature. In contrast to Western religions which emphasize man's sinfulness, Asian religions stress the novel insight that the only thing lacking in man is the experience that nothing is lacking.
- (5) a focus on the "expanded present" or "eternal now" in contrast to a future oriented life. The most relevant value of Asian religions for Americans is the spiritual freedom associated with the "expanded present" in which the individual can control his destiny because he has stepped out of the flow of time.

Many young Americans who embrace Asian religious values display an anti-technological bias. They are revolting against the pragmatic values associated with Western science and technology. In particular, they reject the notion that the fruits of a technological society have been unreservedly good. The promise of technology — an abundant life for all men — has not materialized. Instead there is widespread environmental pollution, the prospect of nuclear annihilation, and prosperity for the technocratic-elite at the expense of the masses. Since the technocratic-era with its concern for controlling and subduing of the external cosmos has brought the West to an impasse, some Americans prefer to relate to the internal cosmos. They represent a shift in values from intellectual analysis and frenzied action to feeling and contemplation, from man-made products to an appreciation of nature, from the hardness and precision of the scientist to the tenderness and playfulness of the spiritual teacher.

Not only are some American members of Asian religions anti-technology, but some of the younger generation have also rejected the values of a success oriented society. In place of the American creed of economic success through competition, they endorse the importance of meaningful interpersonal relations characterized by such communal values as sharing, cooperation, and kindness. Despite the fact many young Americans who join Asian religions are anti-technological, many of the Asian religions, such as Transcendental Meditation and Nichiren Shoshu of America, embrace the values and methods of modern technology to advance

their cause.

Asian religions in America may be classified into two major groups, those which stress the realization of a higher or wider self through ego-denial and disciplined meditation, and those which affirm ego-enhancement with the promise of spiritual and material benefits without personal suffering or arduous struggle. The former group includes such Asian religions as Vedanta (Ramakrishna Mission) Zen Buddhism, Spiritual Regeneration Movement, and the Hare Krishna Society, while Transcendental Meditation and Nichiren Shoshu of America are representatives of the latter group.

The search for the higher self through ego reduction and meditation in Asian religions represents an expansion of the focal length of American consciousness from manifest reality to unmanifest reality. Maharishi Mahesh Yogi, founder of Transcendental Meditation and the Spiritual Regeneration Movement, states that "the manifested and unmanifested fields of life together comprise the whole of reality." Zen Buddhism and Vedanta equate the higher self with the realization of an infinite state of unitive consciousness. The Zen term for the explosive moment of Enlightenment is *satori*, which entails "seeing into one's nature and the attainment of Buddhahood." Philip Kapleau, American businessman turned Zen teacher, describes his *satori* experience in his well-known book *The Three Pillars of Zen*: "All at once, the Roshi, the room, every single thing disappeared in a dazzling stream of illumination and I felt myself bathed in a delicious unspeakable delight . . . For a fleeting eternity I was alone — I alone was." Vedanta affirms that in the moment of illumination (*moksha*) the higher self (*Atman*) is aware of its oneness with ultimate reality (*Brahman*). The widening of the stage of the self does not imply the extinction of the individual as many Americans fear, but rather its revitalization, for the individual is now linked with or rooted in a greater reality that enables one to be more creative and energetic.

Americans have been attracted to Asian religions because the value of happiness is promised through following a practical spiritual technique. "Profound bliss or happiness" issues from the higher states of unitive consciousness as a result of chanting and meditation. A. C. Bhaktivedanta, founder of the Society for

Krishna Consciousness which was formed in America in 1965, holds that “perpetual and utter bliss” of divine consciousness comes through chanting the Hare Krishna mantra. He states that “to chant is to realize how beautiful and spiritual everything is — even those things we might before have seen as ugly or gross.” Although it is a common sight in the streets of American cities to see saffron robed young people beating drums and chanting the Hare Krishna mantra, the emotional enthusiasm, rigorous discipline, and rejection of materialistic values by the Society for Krishna Consciousness means that it will only have a limited appeal. The value of authentic happiness is also prized by the American followers of Guru Maharaj-ji, the adolescent spiritual master and founder of the Divine Light Mission. Guru Maharaj-ji according to his disciples, is “perfect love, energy, and knowledge.” He not only confers energy into the lives of his followers but also a vision of “pure light” in the sense of a “glow inside your head that really blisses you out.” Consequently, the Divine Light Mission is busily extending its invitation to more Americans to “get blissed out Maharaj-ji.”

Transcendental Meditation and Nichiren Shoshu function in American life without disengaging from either the dominant cultural values or from attachment to the ego. In some instances, Transcendental Meditation advertises its simple but effective technique of meditation as a means to personal success and efficiency in the educational, business, and military worlds. Even though Transcendental Meditation provides Sanskrit mantras for meditation, Transcendental meditation claims that it is not a “religion”, thereby appealing to two groups of Americans who would ordinarily reject it, Christians and non-believers. Maharishi Mahesh Yogi is a very astute religious teacher in that he had formed the Transcendental Meditation society as a way of introducing meditation into the lives of achievement-oriented Americans who are disinterested in spiritual-ethical development, and in simultaneously establishing the Spiritual Regeneration Movement for those Americans who are concerned about disciplined spiritual growth.

The way to happiness, according to Nichiren Shoshu of America, lies in chanting the Japanese Buddhist mantra known as the *Daimoku: Namu myoho renge kyo* (Adoration to the Lotus Sutra

of Wonderful Law) before a sacred scroll (*Gohonzon*). Through constant chanting of the *Daimoku*, the cosmic forces symbolized by the *Gohonzon* will confer such spiritual and material benefits as heightened awareness, freedom from anxiety and petty aggravations, and the successful pursuit of one's occupation. In contrast to classical Buddhism which affirms that man suffers because he desires, Nichiren Shoshu declares man is unhappy because he does not know what he really desires. The root cause of the world's problems is that men do not have everything they desire; however, their desires can be obtained through chanting. Originally composed of Japanese brides and their American husbands, Nichiren Shoshu is currently appealing to those Americans who desire the traditional American values of status, prosperity, and conforming membership in a vital community. Viewing happiness in terms of material gratification is a value shared by the technologically saturated nations of the United States and Japan.

The phenomenal growth of Asian religions in America suggests an emerging global synthesis of spiritual values with the practical values of modern science and technology. This is a welcome synthesis for neither spiritual wisdom nor science are complete in themselves. Spiritual wisdom without science is unable to fathom the full meaning of the material cosmos for man's ethical development. Science without wisdom leaves man enslaved to a world of unrelated objects in which there is no way of discerning the enduring ethical values of human life. The complementary synthesis of Asian spiritual values with Western science and technology implies that our lives may be viewed as attempts to discard limited values in favor of more embracing ones, that we are capable of transforming our ego-centric lives in order to establish immediate contact with the deepest values of the spiritual cosmos: truth, kindness, and beauty.



“理解の橋をかける”

エム・ジェー・フジモト

このエッセイは藤本博士が LIOJ 企業人コースで4週間教鞭をとられた体験に基づいて書かれたものです。日本と西欧諸国との関係を改善、向上させるために博士は、3つの点を指摘されます。第1に海外における日本人のイメージを改善する事、次に海外に於る日本人は日本人に対する西洋

人の理解を深めるよう積極的に助けなければならないこと、そして最後に日本人は常に外国語の能力を向上させるよう、努力しなければならないということです。

Dr. M. J. Fujimoto, Dean of Instruction,
Los Angeles Pierce College.

Toward A Bigger Bridge of Understanding

*Dr. M.J. Fujimoto
Dean of Instruction,
Los Angeles Pierce College*

During a short span of four weeks at the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) it was my privilege to work in the English language training program with a group of Japanese business representatives from some of Japan's leading business firms. Coming into an environment where the only means of communication was the English language, the role of being students was probably quite strange to the businessmen. In addition, to be required to communicate in English was undoubtedly a restraining factor on their style of behavior.

For myself, as *sansei* (third generation) of Japanese ancestry, it has been an opportunity to gain some insight into the Japanese psychology, especially through interaction with LIOJ students.

After four weeks of intensive English language training not only in the classroom but also during daily meals, I have become convinced that a bigger bridge of understanding between Japanese and Westerners has begun. In order to bridge the gap of understanding to promote a bigger bridge, I wish to comment on the following three areas which I believe are relevant to Japanese businessmen completing their LIOJ training: (1) becoming visible in an invisible way; (2) developing awareness among Westerners, especially Americans; and (3) planning a self-improvement program.

Becoming Visible in an Invisible Way

Futurologists such as Kahn¹ have predicted that Japan will be one of the superpowers in the world by the year 2000. Such a prediction has stirred many Americans to become conscious of the growth of Japanese business. The message is quite clear that Japanese will receive considerable attention in foreign lands; therefore, there is a need to project a favorable image. Regardless of the audience faced, the Japanese will be highly visible. The image of the Japanese has not been helped as I have witnessed it, when Japanese move about in large visible groups. Permit me to cite a few examples.

In Los Angeles, we often visit hotels and restaurants. JALPAK and other groups are highly visible. Some Americans are quick to comment that rich Japanese are taking over where the Americans had been most visible. The proprietors of hotels and restaurants cannot be faulted when there is an economic motive involved. The situation is aggravated due to a lack of understanding on the part of Americans about the strong group tendencies of Japanese. On the other hand, Japanese do not organize into less visible groups overseas.

Olvera Street in Los Angeles is frequently visited by large groups of Japanese visitors. Colorful Mexican shops sell souvenirs. We have often visited Olvera Street. On several occasions, it has been noted that busloads of Japanese arrived and were immediately welcomed. "Window shopping" Americans were pushed aside in favor of the visiting rich "souvenir-hungry" Japanese. These visitors appeared to be victims of uncalled for comments.

In the suburbs of Los Angeles, some Japanese investors have purchased hotels and golf courses. In a recent article in a Los Angeles newspaper, a reporter wrote about the Japanese visiting golfers not using the regular toilet facilities. The reporter commented that these acts showed an "uncivilized" Japanese.

These examples illustrate the point that the best of intentions by many Japanese can soon be misinterpreted and generalized to show an unfavorable image of the Japanese. Therefore, I believe that the Japanese need to become visible in an invisible way.

Developing Awareness Among Americans

The other side of the coin is that there is a need to develop awareness among Westerners about the Japanese people and their behavior patterns. In this way, better understanding occurs.

Three years ago, I was fortunate in introducing a course on East Asian cultures into a college curriculum in humanities. In this course, a largely non-Japanese group of students was exposed to various aspects of life in East Asia including some Japanese group psychology. The works of Benedict² and Nakane³ illustrating the concepts of *giri-ninjo* (obligation-humaneness) and *oyabun-kobun* (parent to child relationships) were used as a basis for discussion. Unfortunately, student interest to date has been marginal.

Education is a slow process in achieving the goals of developing awareness about Japanese and other East Asians. Recently, as you are aware, Prime Minister Tanaka granted a million dollars to ten leading universities in the United States to promote an understanding of Japanese culture among American students. The benefits from such a grant may be great in the future; however, it will take considerable time.

A more effective and immediate method to seek better understanding is probably through mass media channels. A Japanese behavioral expert, Chie Nakane⁴, in her recent *Newsweek* article, has provided a synopsis of Japanese behavior that has been read by millions. Her comments that Japanese have no principles and the reasons behind such statements provide tremendous insight for Westerners to understand the Japanese. Aida⁵ writes eloquently about Japanese behavior as compared to American behavior. Unfortunately, his book is written in the Japanese language which precludes Westerners from a better understanding of the Japanese people.

At the same time, there have been statements made through mass media channels which probably should be left unsaid. Such statements only tend to antagonize. For example a recent feature article in a large metropolitan daily in Los Angeles written by a leading Japanese business executive stated, in essence that the Japanese were industrious and highly motivated to the task

whereas, Americans were pay-conscious and lazy. It is easily understandable that such feature articles create a feeling of animosity.

A better method to foster understanding among Westerners is for each of the LIOJ graduates to become a "supersalesman" of Japanese culture. There is much to be gained through cultural interchange. Mistaken impressions such as "Japanese Yankee" and "economic animal" can be corrected to show Japanese, in general, to be a highly cultured and educated homogeneous population.

Therefore, Japanese businessmen with LIOJ training have a tremendous responsibility as an ambassador seeking more awareness among Westerners. Anticipating an overseas assignment as a business representative, a postgraduate program for self-improvement needs to be actualized.

A Plan for Self-Improvement

A Japanese businessman completing LIOJ training will probably have few, if any, opportunities to reinforce his learning of English while on the job; however, he needs to be prepared when the opportunity presents itself. Self-assurance with a comfortable command of the English language will come from developing a plan for self-improvement. The essence of such a plan should emanate from some serious thought being given to personal objectives to the development of a series of objectives.

Since improvement in the English language will require a coordinated effort towards the development of skills in *listening*, *speaking*, *reading*, and *writing*, the objectives can then be analysed in terms of these skills. From this, a series of tasks can be outlined and scheduled.

Listening is probably the most difficult for Japanese; therefore, an objective could be stated as follows: "I will be able to listen and understand the general contents of the message." From this, a plan including a schedule can be drawn up listing how the objective can be attained, that is, "I will listen to an English language broadcast, see an English language movie, go to a lecture in English, attend

English conversation classes, etc.”

From listening, the other big hurdle of speaking can be overcome by establishing an objective to state: “I will listen and be able to *respond* to specific contents of the message.” A plan will evolve along with a schedule of tasks to be performed. Such a plan can entail participating in a English conversation class, meeting English speaking people, joining international groups, going on tours involving foreign visitors, etc.

When it has been established that an overseas assignment approaches, then objectives can be developed to include orientating oneself to the overseas *country*, its *culture* and its *people*. Japan has a wealth of books and periodicals written on any country’s customs, traditions, folklore, religion, history, philosophy, psychology, business practices, social institutions, and fine arts. As one reads and listens extensively for an orientation, I would advise that the country’s “feel” or “rhythm” should be primary to any attempt to remembering details.

As the days for overseas assignment draw nearer towards departure, more study should be given to manners and customs. In this way, it is hoped that unpleasant incidents or embarrassing moments will be minimized.

The most difficult problem in this type of postgraduate self-help program is that a systematic or rational approach is difficult and time-consuming. However, in the long run, the time and effort in developing such a plan will be well worth it. With a plan for self-help, human nature being what it is, you will see to it that it is implemented and thereby, not only keep your English “alive” but also enhance your command of the language.

Summary

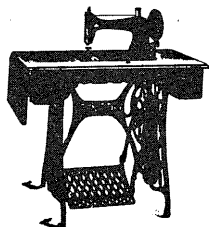
The Japanese businessman with LIOJ training is in a unique position to develop awareness among Western audiences and be visible in an invisible way. In order to retain this uniqueness until the opportunity for overseas assignment arrives, he needs to constantly work to reinforce his English language skills through a

self-improvement program. The well-orientated Japanese businessman has much to add towards building a bigger bridge to understanding.

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Cross Currents

発行所 © LANGUAGE INSTITUTE OF JAPAN

発行人 渋谷雅英 〒106 東京都港区南麻布4-9-17

印刷所 相互印刷株式会社 〒106 東京都港区麻布十番2-2 定価 ¥650.―