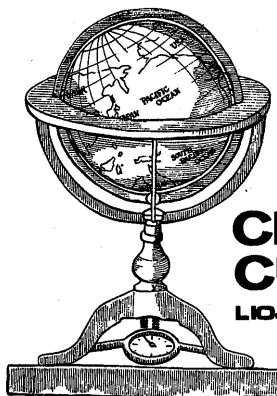


# CROSS 交 CURRENTS 流

LIOJ JOURNAL, AUTUMN 1976







# **CROSS CURRENTS**

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## ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

*Cross Currents* is the journal of the Language Institute of Japan, but its pages are open to all our colleagues in Japan and abroad who share some of the journal's basic interests. In the four years that we have been in existence, we have been concerned with three basic areas: (1) Language learning and teaching in general; (2) Language learning and teaching as they apply to the situation in Japan; and (3) Issues in cross-cultural communication inside and outside of the language classroom.

Articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double-spaced with references cited in parentheses in the text by the author's last name, date and page numbers. Footnotes on substantive matters should be typed at the bottom of the page where the footnote appears. Please include a bibliography, a short precis of the article and a short biographical sketch.

Please direct all correspondence to:

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## ABOUT THIS ISSUE OF *CROSS CURRENTS*

We at *Cross Currents* feel that the first two articles of this issue are rather important in that they are the products of the Second Annual Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) Conference which was held in Kyoto in August of this year. This year's conference was hosted by a new organization — the Kansai Association of Language Teachers (KALT).

KALT grew out of the first TEFL conference presented at Odawara in the summer of 1975 by the Language Institute of Japan (see *Cross Currents*, Spring 1976). At that time and after that conference a web of friendships and relations between people with similar interests in teaching English in Japan grew as informal discussion meetings were held in various places. In a relatively short time, the group coalesced and established itself as a leader in staging this Second Annual TEFL Conference as a demonstration of the group's desire to make an impact on the quality of English teaching in Japan. Those of our readers who may be interested in KALT and its activities can get in touch by writing to:

Kansai Association of Language Teachers  
Awaza Central Heights, No. 812  
30 Enokojima Higashinomachi  
Nishi-ku, Osaka, 550

One of the major presentations made at the TEFL conference was that of Paul G. La Forge, an Associate Professor at Nanzan Junior College in Nagoya. His presentation had to do with Community Language Learning (CLL) and Japanese cultural learning mechanisms. CLL is a language learning methodology established by Charles A. Curran of Loyola and is derived from counseling psychology. In that methodology, the learning experience is based on and supported by the social dynamics of the group. In the paper presented here, the author discusses his experiences in using CLL with a junior-college level English class. In our previous issue (see "The Problem of Shyness in Speaking English", *Cross*

*Currents*, Spring 1976) we were privileged to publish an earlier work by the same author.

"The Silent Way", our second article, is also derived from the 1976 TEFL conference. As a part of the activities of that conference, a special ten-day workshop in the Silent Way method of language teaching was presented. In that workshop, participants learned Mandarin Chinese as a way of experiencing the methodology. The article that resulted here under the authorship of Gwen Thurston Joy, is the product of many hours of work by a group of workshop participants who transcribed and edited hours of feedback conversations and questionnaire results from all of the participants. This paper gives a summary of the method, a description of the classroom activity and a critique of the merits and pitfalls of this unique and interesting method of language learning.

In her paper, "What the Good Language Learner Can Teach Us", Joan Rubin examines in detail the strategies that successful language learners employ and how teachers can help their less successful students improve their performance by paying attention to strategies that have been seen as productive.

"ESL in a World Community", was derived from a joint thesis by Ann Frentzen and Ann Brooks for their MAT degrees in English as a Second Language from the School for International Training of the Experiment in International Living in Brattleboro, Vermont. In their paper, they establish the impact that Teachers of English as a Second Language can have upon the world and present a series of questions that might serve as a springboard for examining individual values as they relate to the ESL profession.

In "Context in Foreign Language Teaching", William Harshbarger argues that language classes today suffer from the tendency of linguists and language teachers to rely solely on grammatical components in an attempt to provide a meaningful basis for presenting the language. He suggests the concept of context (particularly thematic context) as a possible framework for combining both the behaviorist and the humanistic schools of language teaching into a meaningful and practical basis for foreign language teaching.

Joseph Chevarley's paper, "An Overview of Videotape Use in the Language Classroom", is precisely what the title indicates — a concise overview of the use of this new communications medium in language teaching. The technology of this medium is quite advanced, particularly here in Japan. However, the applications of the technology to the classroom are still in the pioneer stage. Videotape has exciting prospects for language teaching, but much remains to be done to develop the field.

At a recent workshop for Japanese teachers of English held at LIOJ, Lance Knowles gave several lectures on a different way of approaching the teaching of verbs that pointed to the importance of their meaning rather than the traditional concentration on form. His article in this issue "A Different Approach to the English Verb", is a further reworking of the ideas he presented in his lectures.

Values Clarification is a rather new development in American education and is even newer to the field of language teaching. In "Values Clarification in EFL", Mary Taylor presents the background of Values Clarification and how she has used its techniques in helping language students to learn to communicate personal values and ideas in English.

Our final paper for this issue, "Review with R-QUAF" was written by Thomas N. Robb, an instructor at the Kansai University of Foreign Studies. R-QUAF stands for "Rapid Question and Answer Formation" and is a system that the author uses to build fluency with the basic patterns of English in such a way as to maintain the student's interest and to make what he is learning as relevant as possible to his immediate needs.

In closing, we hope that our readers will find this issue useful and interesting, we are especially grateful to all those who contributed to this issue and wish to thank them for their very strenuous efforts in helping us get this issue to the readers.

## *CROSS CURRENTS*



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# Community Language Learning: 日本での3年間の研究報告(1971～1974)

*Paul G. La Forge*

Charles A. Curran 教授は外国語を学ぼうとする人々を、1つのクラスとしてではなくグループとして扱うことにより、従来とは根本的に異なる言語学習の方法を開発されました。Curran 教授の学習法の土台となっているのは Counseling Psychology (協議心理学) と呼ばれるもので、教授のねらいはこれをもとに、グループカウンセリングを行いながら、言語学習の中で新たな社会的関係というものを作り出していこうとする点にあります。

教授はこの新手法を “Community Language Learning” と名付けましたがこれは、学習経験というものが、グループの社会力学を基盤としたこれに支えられていると考えられるからです。又この手法は、グループの中での経験とその反響に鼓舞されつつ進められる学生中心の言語学習法であるとも言えます。

筆者は、この Curran 教授の理論に基づいて短大レベルの学習者を対象に行った研究の成果をここでは述べています。

Paul G. La Forge is an Associate Professor of Nanzan Junior College, Nagoya, Japan.

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# Community Language Learning: Findings Based on Three Years of Research in Japan (1971—1974)\*

*Paul G. La Forge*

A fresh approach to language learning was proposed by Charles A. Curran (1972) of Loyola University of Chicago, who dealt with the language learning class not as a class at all, but as a language learning group. Both the class and the group are interpersonal situations, but the social dynamics which occur in the interpersonal relationships of a group differ from those of a class. A different set of social learning relationships are involved. The social learning relationships of a class differ from a group in the contract, in the social milieu, in the relationship between teacher and students, and in the relationships among the students themselves.

The student-teacher relationship of a class is different from that of a group. The main activity of the class consists of oral drilling which is performed by the teacher. Knowledge of the language is dispensed by the teacher to the students, who try to absorb the oral drills in class. After class, the students retire to their textbooks, memorize the basic sentence patterns word for word, and master the language in isolated study. As a social process, language learning

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\* This paper was originally presented at the First ICU Symposium of Sociolinguistics, Tokyo, Japan, on August 30, 1974.

Special thanks are extended to Professors Fred C. C. Peng (International Christian University) and David Moyon (Nanzan University) for assistance in preparing the manuscript. An edited form of this paper will also be presented in *English Forum*.

takes place on a single vertical dimension from teacher to students. In this sense, present-day language teaching is textbook and teacher centered.

The relationships among students in a class are different from those of a group. Students have to study for examinations, which are graded on a curve. Those who are in competition with each other for a higher grade on the curve, become winners or losers in the learning game. Others suffer anxiety in the competition and, fearing failure and rejection, become apathetic and are inclined to withdraw from learning. In the class, little attention is given to the needs of the students for a shared group learning experience free from competition or for a supportive type of learning, which is communicated from student to student.

Thirdly, the milieu of a class is different from a group. Some students develop a fairly high commitment to learning in the teacher-centered, competitive language learning class, but others seek to escape from as much learning as possible. Basically, parts of the class are at war with other parts. The teacher spends much time and energy in keeping the dissonant parts of the class in some degree of harmony. Differences gradually take on the form of social forces which may serve to protect the less committed students and punish those who show some zeal in learning. Bradford (1960: 74) has described the social dynamics in the classroom as follows:

“Needless struggle takes place between teacher and students as to who shall learn and what; desirable concomitant learning goals are not realized; and students build barriers to present and future learning and frequently end up with lasting anxieties and undesirable attitudes toward education.”

Lastly, the contract of a class is different from that of a group. By “contract”, I mean the motives and expectations of the people who agree to engage in some form of activity together, i.e. such as language learning. The motives of the teacher and students are not considered as a part of the class learning process. The students are questioned about their motives only as an afterthought – if they are performing poorly in class or on examinations. The teacher’s

motives for proposing class activities are never questioned.

The teacher enters the class with the expectation that students will grasp every activity which he proposes. If the students do not grasp the activity, the teacher becomes discouraged or even angry. His expectations of the class have not been fulfilled. If the students do not learn the language, they too become discouraged because their goals for learning have not been met. Because neither the expectations of the teacher nor those of the students are realized in the class learning relationship, both end up frustrated and angry. One of the main difficulties of the class is that the motives, the goals, and the expectations of the students and teacher are not discussed in their language learning relationship. In short, there is no forum for the discussion of the language learning contract in the class.

Charles A. Curran developed a radically different type of language learning by dealing with the learners as a group rather than as a class. Curran's (1961) model was derived from counseling Psychology. In using a group counseling model, a new set of social relationships were employed in language learning. Because the learning experiences were based on and supported by the social dynamics of a group, Curran (1972) called his new approach "Community Language Learning" (hereafter CLL). CLL is student-centered language learning which takes place in supportive group experience and reflection. The following are some characteristics of CLL compared with other approaches to language teaching.

First of all, CLL is student-centered language learning. This implies a different type of relationship with the teacher. Curran (1966) showed that language learning was not a mere cognitive process. Learners reacted in varying degrees of anxiety to the threat of a language expert or teacher. In fact, the greater the expertise of the teacher, the greater the threat that was perceived by the learners. When the threat surrounding the teacher was diminished, the students showed a greater acceptance of the language learning relationship. In social dynamic terms, the CLL counselor or teacher relates to the whole group on a primary vertical dimension of the social interaction. On a secondary vertical dimension of the social interaction, the counselor relates to each individual in the group, in

so far as he contacts each individual. Social interaction also takes place among the group members themselves on a horizontal dimension. In the context of a CLL group, language learning occurs on all of these social dimensions. The group interaction supports the language learning process. This is what Curran meant by social dynamics in service of language pedagogy. The social dynamics of CLL are more explicit than those of a class. Learning also takes place on wider social dimensions in a CLL group than in a class.

In the CLL group, the responsibility for the learning remains with the student. The CLL teacher sets up an English speaking experience for the students. However, he does not suggest topics for discussion. In the counseling situation, the subject matter of the counseling hour is determined by the client. In the CLL group, creating a subject for discussion is the responsibility of the students. The teacher operates as a facilitator of the group action, but he does not force the response of the students. Each student participates in the learning experience according to his own free choice and in his own time.

In the CLL class, there are no teacher-centered pattern practice drills. Recently, these have been termed as harmful to language learning by Corbluth (1974). Language drilling produces meager results, especially for intermediate and advanced students. With mechanical drilling, liveliness and interest quickly give way to fatigue and boredom. What students need, according to Corbluth (1974: 124), is a wide and deep experience of English in use.

Secondly, CLL is language learning. Curran (1972: 123–135) compared development in language proficiency to the birth and growth of a new self in language learning. He proposed five stages of growth from the perfect dependency of childhood to the independence of the adult stage. The five stages reflect the psychological experience of the student as he progresses in the language. In stage I, the embryonic stage, the student is completely dependent upon the teacher for anything he wants to say in the foreign language. The client speaks first in his native language. The counselor repeats the message in the foreign language. The client repeats his own sentence, imitating the counselor, in the foreign language.

As he begins to pick up the language, the client moves into stage

II, the self-assertive stage. He begins to use simple phrases independently. Increasingly, the client picks up expressions that he has heard from others in the group. The client uses them to his own great personal satisfaction. In stage III, the separate existence stage, individuals begin to function in the foreign language without the use of the native language. They also begin to resent the intervention of the counselor when help is needed. As the learner's capacity unfolds, he often needs to assert his own unique way of speaking the foreign language in a strong and forceful manner. The counselor must be aware of this and accept it as inherent in the learning process if he is to help the learner at this stage.

Stage IV, the reversal stage, represents a crucial transition in the teaching relationship. It might be considered a kind of adolescence. If the learner is to acquire further refinements in the foreign language, he must begin to create an atmosphere of understanding and acceptance for the counselor. The roles have to be interchanged. The learner has to understand the counselor in his need to teach. Otherwise, the counselor, out of fear of offending the learner, tends to become increasingly hesitant about giving further knowledge of the foreign language. The burden of the psychological understanding shifts to the learners. They must make it possible for the teacher to communicate refined knowledge of the foreign language.

In stage V, the independent adult stage, the learner theoretically knows all that the knower has to teach. Although the student is independent, he may still need subtle refinements and corrections. The student is able to become a counselor to other members of the group who are less proficient. During the course of his activity in counseling, the student still receives further correction from the teacher.

Thirdly, CLL takes place in supportive group experience. In contrast to the class, where learning is centered around memorizing sentences from a textbook, CLL learning takes place in a group experience. The students learn in a supportive social situation by helping each other and exchanging information. Students learn by speaking together and not in isolated study. The current practice of isolating students in language learning booths of a laboratory has

come in for some severe criticism by Lindsay. He writes:

“For some students there are serious psychological drawbacks in being isolated from the teacher and other students. They need the face-to-face relationships and stimulus of group work. Moreover, for most students there is the need to transfer correct language behavior from the lab to the more realistic communication of the classroom.” (Lindsay 1973: 6)

Lastly, CLL takes place in supportive group reflection. At the end of every CLL session, time is provided to reflect upon the experience of the day. Students are allowed to comment upon the meaning of the experience. The discussion of the comments opens up untapped areas of the experience as it relates to the individual student and to the teacher. The motivation of the students is judged by their performance during the experience. The expectations of the teacher are also scrutinized. All the information is shared by the students and the teacher. The problems of the students in learning and those of the teacher in teaching come up for discussion during the reflection periods. Since expectations, goals, and motives are openly shared together, the learning contract becomes the focus of the group activity during the reflection periods. In a CLL group, the concern of both teacher and students is centered upon how the goal, proficiency in English, is being achieved by the class experience. This is what happens during a CLL reflection period.

### **The Social Dynamics of CLL in Japan**

The purpose of the previous section was to show that CLL is a fresh approach to language learning. In this section, I shall proceed to illustrate the social dynamics of CLL in the Japanese educational situation both in the classroom and in extracurricular activities over the past three years. Research findings with CLL will be summarized in a third section.

*Inside the Classroom.* Inside the classroom, the following four developments took place in a CLL group over the course of a school

year: First, a great amount of anxiety in the presence of the teacher; Second, a demand for independence from the teacher; Third, a need for contact with the teacher; Fourth, greater security in the presence of the teacher. The four developments took place in the social dynamics which occurred as an ongoing learning relationship between the teacher and the students and among the students themselves.

The first development of CLL inside the Japanese classroom again confirmed a theoretical axiom of Curran (1968: 295): "Any discussion of the educative process has really to start with the relationship of conflict, hostility, anger and anxiety to learning." In previous research with CLL (La Forge 1975), a group of Spanish speaking adults reacted with great hostility to the introduction of CLL. By way of contrast, a group of female students at Nanzan Junior College reacted with a great amount of anxiety. The students were used to an educational environment on the secondary level which was overly intellectual and individualistic as described by Curran (1968: 295):

"The 'good' student is still presumed to be able to learn best in an intellectualized and individual way, with little or no consideration given to his emotional somatic involvement or his need for a community learning experience shared with other students."

During senior high school, Japanese students spend much time memorizing complex English sentences and hundreds of English words. They are also preoccupied with the problem of preparation for university entrance examinations. However, even during six years of English study, they do not learn how to communicate with another English speaking person, especially with a foreigner. Since even the basic communication processes in English were lacking, it was necessary to give the students a psychological birth process with CLL in stage I. This was accomplished through a series of communication exercises in supportive small groups. The purpose of the small group activity was to give the student a basic self-identity and basic communication relationships in English with



others and with the social world outside the classroom.

Upon first contact with CLL, the students were caught in the dilemma of an anxiety conflict. On the one hand, they wanted the opportunity for free English speaking afforded by a CLL group. On the other hand, their anxiety in a free situation was so great that they could not speak. They had no confidence in themselves as speakers of English. Although they had studied English in a cognitive way, they had no psychological identity with English in an affective way. Recently, Brown has suggested that self-confidence and self-identity may be important variables in language learning. He writes:

“A second factor related to the thinking and feeling organism is the ‘Ego’. The self-knowledge, self-esteem, and self-confidence of the language learner could have everything to do with success in learning a language . . . . .”

“Any language acquisition process that results in meaningful learning for communication involves some degree of identity conflict regardless of the age and motivation of the learners.”  
(Brown 1973: 233)

For the purpose of increasing the self-confidence and self-identity of the students as speakers of English, the first semester was spent in small group activity. Exercises such as self-introduction, group questions and answers, statements and reactions, and relating experiences were set up between groups of students. The use of Japanese as an aid to establishing an English identity was permitted. For instance, the student was allowed the use of Japanese as she consulted with her peer group. Together with her peers, she prepared her self-introduction which was presented to the whole class in English. In order to achieve communication in English between groups, each student had to prepare a question in English. The question was presented to another group. Someone in the other group had to stand up and reply. Some independence was achieved in the next step. Each student prepared an English statement. The statement was presented to another group. Someone in the other group had to react by way of agreement, disagreement,

or with a question.

A communication in English with the social world outside the classroom was achieved with the following exercise. A single question was directed to the whole class: "What did you do last Sunday afternoon?". Each student had to prepare her answer with the help of the small group. She presented her answer to the whole class in English. After a semester of this kind of group activity, the students spoke as representatives who were not completely independent of their groups. A measure of self-confidence and affective identity with English was in evidence at CLL stages I and II.

With a growth in self-confidence, came the demand for independence. Contact with the teacher was accepted with reluctance. Preference for the security of the small group persisted. As the students showed signs of self-assertion and the desire for separate existence of CLL stages II and III, the teacher withdrew from the class activity. The students were allowed to speak English in small groups by themselves. They were able to progress by using the English which they had learned previously. A variety of topics, freely chosen by the students, were discussed in the small groups.

The third development was the need of the group for contact with the teacher. During the reflection periods after the small group activity, the psychological contract came under discussion. As evidence of stage IV learning became apparent, the students realized that some understanding of the role of the teacher was necessary if they were to make further progress in English. The disadvantages of the small group activity were pointed out by the students themselves. First of all, contact with the teacher was cut off. English mistakes were repeated. It was difficult to learn new English expressions from other students. Worse still, English was spoken, at the most, about eighty percent of the time spent in the small groups. If progress was to be made in English, contact with the teacher had to be reestablished even at some cost in effort.

In order to meet the need of the students for contact with the teacher, the class was divided into larger units of ten to fifteen students. A ten-minute period of free English conversation was held with each group. The role of the teacher, who was present in the group, was to show the students how to struggle with the problems

of anxiety and silence. The teacher suggested that the silence could be broken by asking another person a simple question, commenting upon the uneasiness in the group, or even making meaningless remarks about a banal topic such as the weather. The students were left free to decide which of these suggestions to pursue. Topics for discussion were not suggested. The students were challenged to develop in the independence of CLL stages III, IV, and V. In response, the students accepted the responsibility for the content of the conversations and struggled together to make the time a useful English speaking experience.

The fourth development was a greater amount of security with the teacher. The threat of the large group activity diminished during the course of discussion which took place in the reflection periods. Once the anxiety was shared by all the members of the class, it quickly evaporated. The supportive communication among the students gave rise to a greater understanding of the helpful role of the teacher. By this time, the role reversal of stage IV had taken place. The students seemed prepared for Stage V practice, which consisted of handling a one-to-one English speaking relationship.

The idea for the activity was derived from Japanese culture. In the Japanese Judo hall, the members form two lines for "Feinting Practice" (*Uchikomi*) and "Wrestling Practice" (*Randori*). During feinting practice, the members make gestures of attack about ten or twenty times, then the partners are changed. For wrestling practice, the members engage in a practice wrestling session for three minutes. Then the partners are changed.

For the *Randori-Uchikomi* or face-to-face group practice, the class was arranged in two lines. Each student spoke with her partner for three minutes, then all the partners were changed. The activity lasted for forty-five minutes. In effect each student was "wrestling" with an English conversation (*Randori*). The teacher also participated in the English speaking activity. However, due to time limitations, it was impossible to speak with each and every member of the class. A gesture (*Uchikomi*) was made by the teacher to contact each student in a simulated interview situation. During the reflection periods following the face-to-face group activity, students made three comments: First, the joy of getting to know every

member of the class; Secondly, the chance to use English in a flexible and creative way in a number of situations which were similar; Thirdly, the confidence in a one-to-one speaking relationship with the teacher. It was also noticed that forty-five minutes of intensive English speaking activity left the students physically exhausted.

As an ongoing dynamic social learning process, English knowledge was communicated on a primary vertical dimension between teacher and students in the large group activity. Communication of English also occurred on a secondary vertical dimension between the teacher and the individual in the face-to-face group. On a horizontal dimension, English was communicated among students in the small group activity. The social dimensions of CLL learning inside the Japanese classroom were much wider than in a class, as described previously. Learning based on the social dynamics of the interaction gave rise to a more supportive milieu in the CLL group than in the class. Competition for test grades was eliminated by requiring periodic reports about the students' activities, interests, or their attitudes toward the CLL class.

*Extracurricular Activities: CLL "Discipline".* Outside the classroom, CLL was used for over a year to assist a group of junior and senior high school students to advance in English conversation. CLL provided a "Disciplina" for the activities of an English speaking club. By "Disciplina" is not meant the resort to punishments to fulfill the commands of a teacher, but a learning atmosphere which engages the whole person of the learner as a part of his life space. A taste of American culture was provided by the teacher in the CLL "Disciplina" (hereafter, Discipline). Japanese students were given a chance to learn something which could not be gotten from textbooks. For instance, they learned how to use the telephone in English. Interviews or visits to the families of foreigners were arranged by the teacher. Curran has described the CLL discipline as follows:

"In its Latin context, 'disciplina' was not only what was learned, but the whole personal learning experience itself. It

implied an internalizing of what was learned and the self-control necessary to bring about fruition in the person himself. This is quite different from an external conformity to the teacher's ideas, or an ability to reproduce knowledge when demanded by competition or testing." (Curran 1972: 22)

The discipline for CLL English speaking activity took place in a Japanese social context. In terms of social dynamics, the Japanese culture reinforced the CLL discipline for English speaking and added cultural mechanisms which greatly enhanced the language learning experiences.

The discipline for CLL activity took place in the school club which is a unique Japanese sociocultural entity with no analogue in the American school. Clubs, fraternities, and sororities in an American school are meant for social entertainment. The English club members of Nanzan Junior and Senior High School were seriously interested in mastering English conversation even after a full day of classes and seven hours of English a week. The club is a tight-knit social unit which enjoys public recognition in the school. Clubs, which include extracurricular sports groups, function throughout the whole school year. During the off-season, the members remain together and engage in some form of activity related to the purpose of the club. The baseball team of a Japanese school, for instance, can be seen in full uniform performing calisthenics during the winter time. Such a thing would not be seen in an American school. Activities in an American school are organized around the seasons of the year. During the off-season, the loosely organized group is disbanded.

The Japanese culture provided a hierarchy system by which the younger learn from the older members of the club. At the top of the hierarchy was an English speaking world where the teacher and the older students, who formed a CLL discipline, were in constant contact during CLL activities. The English knowledge and the decisions made in the English speaking world were passed down the hierarchy and accepted by the younger students. On an outing in the country, for instance, the older students and the teacher made all the arrangements. During a two-hour bus ride, one senior high

school student sat with a group of junior high school students. He was teaching different kinds of English expressions for the entire trip. The younger students listened for the whole time without objection. This is how the CLL discipline for English speaking was reinforced by the Japanese hierarchy system, which is a cultural mechanism.

Part of the cultural mechanism of the Japanese club is the annual *Gasshuku*. The Japanese term *Gasshuku* can perhaps be equated to the English word "Camp-In". However, the *Gasshuku* is in no sense as frivolous an affair as a Camp-In. The *Gasshuku* is undertaken by every club as a serious social learning activity. The members leave home and environment, reside together, and engage in their social learning activity. The cultural mechanism of the *Gasshuku* very narrowly restricts the activities of its members. A swimming club, for instance, would violate its *Gasshuku* by allowing its members a daily softball game. The length of the *Gasshuku* may vary from a single day to an entire week. The English club *Gasshuku*, which was held on two different occasions, lasted a single day.

The discipline for CLL activity was strengthened by the cultural mechanism of the *Gasshuku*. English speaking was more rigorously enforced. During the *Gasshuku*, it became a norm of social conduct sanctioned by a ritualistic system of rewards and punishments. When the group norm was violated by a member, who even inadvertently spoke Japanese, a fine of ten yen had to be paid. The culprit had to bow three times before the punishment box which was decorated and displayed in a prominent place. The culprit was also required to apologize to the group for the violation. A sigh of relief ran through the group as the member paid his fine in expiation for his fault. The collective sense of guilt for the violation of the individual was lifted from the group. The punishment money was used to purchase awards for the outstanding performance of those who took part in the other English speaking activities of the *Gasshuku*. In previous research with CLL, Tranel (1968) also found, as an outstanding characteristic of a CLL group, the sense that the whole group felt itself responsible for the conduct of an individual member.

One of the most dramatic impressions of the *Gasshuku* was the mechanism of silence provided for the CLL English speaking activities. The group members were busy preparing speeches. They were seated around a table and maintained silence for over an hour. The *Gasshuku* reinforced the discipline of CLL for speaking, but in addition, it imposed a mechanism of silence. Activity in silence is an essential characteristic of every *Gasshuku*. This silent activity took the form of a rest period during a Judo *Gasshuku* in which I once participated. However, even during the period of silent rest, the members were engaged in reflection, recuperation, or preparing their minds for the next group activity. In terms of social dynamics, an important development of the Japanese *Gasshuku* in relation to CLL English learning is that from the depths of the silence, which the *Gasshuku* imposes on its members, flows their ability to speak in English.

The reactions of the Japanese students and their activity during the silence of the *Gasshuku* were entirely different from other national groups. For Japanese, silence is not a vacuous period of time. It is full of life, vigor, and meaning. The silence was all the more striking because the students were at ease and working. By kinesthetic communication — the rattling of papers, the sound of writing, an occasional cough, the shifting of body position — the members conveyed to each other the message that they were busy performing the group activity. They were preparing their English speeches. At the end of the silent period, each member delivered a very good speech in English.

In addition to fewer periods of silence, a Spanish speaking CLL group also learned from the experience of silence, but in a different way. The Spanish speakers at the University of Michigan were irked by the silence and, before long, they were engaged in vehement argumentation with each other. Usually, these arguments occurred between two people. The other members of the group would listen in silence. At times, the listeners would make comments upon the humorous aspects of the situation. Conversation was stimulated, but the vehemence was also kept within the bounds of a learning situation.

Americans tended to grow very anxious when periods of silence

occurred during a CLL group session. The need for silence certainly was there because periods of silence invariably occurred. During the silence, American members of a CLL group began to repeat the sentences of the foreign language (Japanese on one occasion), which they had heard other members of the group say previously. In other words, to fill the periods of silence, the members of an American CLL group drilled themselves in the foreign language. They learned from the experience of silence, but in a manner different from the Japanese or Spanish groups.

The Spanish, American, and Japanese groups all learned a second language, but in a different relationship to the silence. The extracurricular activity with CLL in the English club and the *Gasshuku* shows the effectiveness of a learning situation, a small-group community making full use of domestic cultural mechanisms, which involve the whole personality and lifespace of the individual. The dynamic relationship between silence and foreign language learning was clarified as a result of the effects of the *Gasshuku* on all who took part in it.

## CONCLUSION: CLL IS ADAPTIVE TO JAPANESE CULTURE

The major finding of the last three years is that CLL is adaptive to the Japanese cultural situation. There are several reasons for this. First, after six years of English study on the secondary level, Japanese students have built up a vast cognitive reservoir of English knowledge. When this cognitive reservoir of English is tapped on the affective level with CLL, progress in speaking English occurs rapidly and even dramatically. This research shows that if the affective problems connected with language learning are handled and solved, the cognitive aspects of language are more easily dealt with. On the secondary level of education in Japan, efforts to lay a cognitive base for English are not a failure. If it were not for the effectiveness of English teaching in Junior and Senior High School, the urge for independent speaking experience in English would not have been so strong among the students.

Secondly, CLL activity occurs in groups. Before the arrival of the modern school in the Meiji Era, education of youth in Japan was carried on in small groups around a teacher. CLL fits into this



cultural tradition. During the course of CLL group activity, students form an affective identity with the English language. Their self-confidence increases to such an extent that those who have achieved CLL stages IV and V can be corrected during the CLL group experience without undue disturbance. In spite of the intervention of the teacher to correct grammar or pronunciation mistakes, the flow of the conversation is not interrupted. If the attention of the students is focused on communication of meaning both in experience and reflection, little time is necessary for correcting grammatical and pronunciation mistakes.

Third, CLL language learning relies upon reflection, a cultural heritage that can be readily found in Japan. Over the period of a school year, Japanese was gradually replaced by English during the reflection periods. A substantial part of the class time was spent in talking about an English speaking experience in English. The use of English during the reflection periods clearly underlined the reality of English as a part of daily living. Research with CLL suggests that during the reflection period, the individual enters into the basic speaking experience, assesses it, and integrates it into his personality structure. Without changing the methodology in use, English teaching activities could be improved by the introduction of a reflection period at the end of each class. A forum for the discussion of the social dynamic factors in the class would aid the language learning process.

The reflection period makes explicit the underlying motivational factors and personality variables which foster or hinder the language learning process. Japanese students were given a chance to comment upon the class experiences by way of reflection. They were helped in a special way through two psychological crises: The first was the anxiety conflict of stage I; the second was the dependency crisis of stages III and IV. During the reflection period, the need for courage in English speaking became clear to the students who were prevented by anxiety from expressing themselves. With the sharing of the mutual anxiety, arose a group resolution to struggle together toward the goal of English proficiency. Anxiety was replaced by hope and confidence. The psychological birth in Stage I occurred during the discussions of the reflection periods. The crisis of

adolescence was resolved by a discussion of the role of the teacher. A greater understanding of the role of the teacher helped to bring about progress from stage III to stage IV. After the resolution of the adolescent crisis of stage IV, students were able to increase their independence in English without rejecting the help of the teacher.

Reference has been made to the cognitive aspects of English speaking, to correct grammar and pronunciation. Until the students reached stages IV and V, the teacher was somewhat restricted in dealing with these important aspects of English during the CLL experience. This restriction did not hold for the reflection period. During the reflection period, the teacher was free to deal with the cognitive aspects of English by way of grammatical explanation, correction of mistakes, or more refined expression of English. If backed up by data from the comments of the students, confrontation of poor performance could be more effectively handled as a group problem.

Reflection is important for another reason. In terms of social dynamics, the class parts — experience and reflection — are drawn together into a meaningful whole which has a personal reference to the student. This happens in the individual class and over a whole series of CLL sessions. The students compare their English gains from the large and small groups, for instance, with those of the face-to-face group. They focus on their English progress over a month or a semester. In this way, the student takes a longterm view of his English education. Since the information is shared with the class during the reflection period, the teacher receives feedback on the effect of the English speaking activities. He receives an insight into the problems of the students. Decisions based on this data can be made in regard to the type of activities from which the class will derive the most benefit.

Lastly, reflection is important because it is a cultural learning mechanism of Japanese society. Every social or working group in Japan sets aside a period for reflection at some time during the course of its activity. Reflection is considered necessary for the social function or learning progress of any group. The CLL reflection period fits into this Japanese cultural pattern. The club activity with its *Gasshuku* and the custom of reflection are

socio-cultural learning mechanisms of Japanese society, which seemingly have been overlooked in the past.

In conclusion, I would like to address an appeal to Japanese scholars to do more research in group dynamics, group Psychology, and the Sociology of language. With these tools, they can restudy and research Japanese society itself. Japanese society operates according to unique social dynamics – such as those of the club activity and the *Gasshuku*. These group dynamics can be put to work in service of modern education, as CLL has shown. More of these socio-educative mechanisms should be discovered by Japanese scholars and explained to the rest of the world. To my mind, the explanation of the unique social dynamics of Japanese society would represent a contribution of the highest quality to what is already known about group dynamics among scholars in the rest of the world.

I would like to appeal to English teachers, in particular, to become more aware of the psychological and sociolinguistic processes which occur in their classrooms. This is especially true at the senior high school and university levels of education. This is the time when personality growth is most rapid. Modern students need a living classroom experience in a certain amount of freedom. It is equally necessary to sit down with the students in reflection upon the psychological and sociolinguistic processes of the experience. Out of this reflection can come the confrontation of basic issues in education which are important for the personal growth and development of the students.

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# The Silent Way(沈黙教授法)

*Gwen Thurston Joy*

**S**ilent Wayとは、Caleb Gattegno 博士によって考案された言語教授法です。この方法は、学習者自身の学習技能を向上させることをねらいとするほか、学習することの責任は学習者自身の側にあるという点を認識させようとすることに重点が置かれています。

今年の8月、32名の英語及び日本語の先生方が、中国語の Silent Way 研究会に参加されました。

この論文はその研究会の概要報告と、今日までに明らかにされた資料や手法、理論などについてふれています。

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# The Silent Way

*Gwen Thurston Joy*

The Silent Way is an approach to teaching and learning which was created by Dr. Caleb Gattegno. In his book, *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools the Silent Way*, he describes the spirit of this way as being "the subordination of teaching to learning" (Gattegno, 1972: 1). He further states that "this is not a method or a device or a system or a program, but it is being sensible and sensitive to the reality of different learning situations" (Gattegno, 1972: 92).

The underlying philosophy of this approach is the importance placed on learning, focusing on the development of the learner's acceptance of the responsibility for his or her own learning and of the learner's self-dependency. The techniques and materials which have been developed are aimed toward this goal. There is a constant emphasis upon the learner's development of an inner criteria of rightness, correctness and adequacy in his or her usage of the language. Dr. Gattegno writes, "In the hands of expert teachers the materials lose their predominance, the teacher his dominant role, the language its appearance as *the* target. Instead, everything and everybody serves one aim, to make everyone into the most competent learner." (Gattegno, 1972: 89)

In order to learn how to be a Silent Way teacher, the Gattegno Language School conducts workshops in various languages. Thus, even the concept of teacher training is replaced by a concept of

“teacher learning”. Ms. Shelley (Shiow-ley) Kuo, Director of the Gattegno Language School in New York, conducted a fifty-hour workshop in Chinese the Silent Way, in Kyoto August 13-19, 1976. Thirty-two people, Japanese and Westerners, most of whom are teachers of Japanese and/or English, were the learners in this workshop. This article will discuss what materials and techniques were used, the type of language dealt with and more importantly the reasons behind these approaches, and this group’s reactions to the Silent Way. The material used as a basis for this article were the questionnaires filled out as an evaluation of the Silent Way workshop, and ninety pages of transcripts of the discussions the participants had.<sup>1</sup> It is hoped that through discussing the major themes of these discussions, the reader may be able to form a clear understanding of the Silent Way. It must be pointed out here that there is no such thing as a standardized Silent Way, but rather, as a Silent Way teacher, one does what is necessary in each learning situation. This is a report on how classes in Chinese were conducted, and how this group of students, as teachers and learners, reacted to these classes.

First of all, the following materials were used:

- 1) A colored “phonic code” chart, called a Fidel, with each vowel and consonant sound being represented by a different color, and tones indicated by small lines and dots.
- 2) A color-coded chart of *hiragana*, one of the Japanese phonetic syllabaries.
- 3) Twelve color-coded charts of Chinese characters, with forty characters per chart.
- 4) Two metal pointers

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This paper could not have been written without the valuable assistance of Nancy Nakanishi, of the Nagoya College of Foreign Languages, who made these transcripts, and who with Thalia Alberts, of Time-Life, participated in editing these transcripts and questionnaires, selecting the points that make up the bulk of this article. In addition, the comments and critique by Tom Robb, of Matsushita Overseas Training Center, and Doug Tomlinson, of Mobil Sekiyu Kabushiki Kaisha, were essential to help make this article as objective and clear as possible.

- 5) A box of colored wooden rods
- 6) A blackboard
- 7) Things which happened to be in the classroom.

As an introduction to how these materials were used, and what techniques were employed, the following is a brief description of the first day. The class arrangement was simple, with students sitting in three semi-circles facing the front of the room. The charts were taped to the wall, and the teacher stood behind a table in front of the charts.

Class began at 9:00 with the teacher pointing to the *hiragana* character あ (pronounced [ã]) which was written in white. The teacher motioned for the students to say this, and then pointed to the white rectangle indicating the same sound on the Fidel chart with the pointer, and back and forth while the students spoke. She continued in this way for all of the sounds included in Japanese, and only spoke in Chinese, and then only once each, to give the seven or eight sounds which are not found in Japanese. Tones were also introduced in this way; by pointing to the mark and indicating with her hand the direction of the tone. The teacher gave directions in English to help in the production of these sounds and tones. This practice continued for about ninety minutes, with various combinations indicated, and then series of combinations. Next, the teacher wrote four lines on the chalkboard and indicated that they represented certain sounds by pointing to the colored rectangles on the Fidel chart, and then to the lines. This continued until there were about thirteen "phrases" on the board and students had practiced "reading" these a number of times. The teacher then picked up the rods,<sup>2</sup> and indicated that the meaning of the sounds represented by these lines were the rods, the names of the colors of the rods, and the number of rods. She then held up various

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The wooden rods come in ten different colors and lengths. The smallest is a white cube one cubic centimeter in size; the longest, an orange rod ten centimeters in length. Other rods vary in length from two to nine centimeters, and there are rods for each color and/or length. They are sometimes called Cuisenaire rods or Algebricks, and were originally developed for teaching mathematics. The colors of the rods have no relation to the pronunciation color codes.



combinations of rods and students described what she was holding. Near the end of the 2-1/2 hour period, she held the box of rods toward a student, and gave a sentence which can be translated as, "Take one red rod, one yellow rod, and two blue ones.", and picked up the student's hand so that the command was followed. She then gave the box to the student and indicated that the student should give a command to the next student. This continued until eventually there were small groups of students with rods, asking each other to pick up various combinations of rods.

Throughout this time there was both choral and individual work. When students differed greatly on the pronunciation or tone, the teacher would call on individuals until one person was considered correct, then let the others listen. She often went back to the lines on the board and the colored rectangles. During this time individual students were called on to point out a series of sounds on the Fidel chart, and the other students said what was indicated. Though it was unknown to the students at this time, as they had been working with what they thought were random and various combinations of sounds, in reality these "random" sounds were the vocabulary and whole sentences that were later dealt with.

After a break there was more work on pronunciation, tones, phrasing and expansion and transitions of the patterns. As more vocabulary was introduced the teacher often used a technique for phrasing by indicating the sounds on her fingers, building speed, and showing where there should be pauses. The character charts were then introduced by pointing to those words the students had been dealing with. The characters were written with horizontal strips of color indicating their pronunciation. For example, light orange represented [m], and white represented [ä], so a character written with orange painted horizontally at the top and white painted horizontally at the bottom would elicit the pronunciation [mä]. The tone was indicated by one or two lines, or a dot, written to the right of the character. By pointing only to those characters included in the vocabulary the students had been using, there was no trouble understanding what the characters meant.

The afternoon session began with a group discussion, or feedback session, conducted in English, where the teacher asked the students

for their comments. It should be noted that the teacher did not allow people to talk about Chinese per se, but rather about their learning. The afternoon session continued until 5:00 with one break, and ended with another feedback session. This timing remained the same throughout the week, except that most class sessions lasted until 6:00.

During the first day the following was covered: all of the Chinese sound combinations; the five tones; the numbers one to three; ten colors; the word for rod and the counter<sup>3</sup> used for rods; the command forms of the verbs take, give, put, show; pronouns and possessives; the words for right, left, both, eye, nose, hand, mouth, ear; in, where, here, there, please, thank you; and approximately twenty-seven Chinese characters. In addition, the concepts of phrasing, melody and rhythm in Chinese, the meaning of the various hand signals and techniques, and the concept that the teacher would be silent in Chinese were also covered.

During the feedback sessions people talked about the fast pace, and their frustration in trying to keep up with everything. The teacher pointed out that this eliminates time for translation, and that the pace was necessary at this time as it was important to get the rhythm and flow of Chinese, rather than to perfect only individual sounds. Two other concepts discussed were the effect, both negative and positive, of peer group teaching and correction, and the importance of making mistakes and learning how to correct them.

Thus, by the end of the first day people had become acquainted with many of the concepts of the Silent Way through their participation in learning Chinese as well as through discussing what had happened. No one felt 100 percent sure of everything that had been dealt with. At this time, the teacher drew attention to the place of sleep as an important factor in learning, and that she did not expect the students to have everything yet. In terms of the

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The use of counters in Chinese is similar to Japanese, and different from English. Nouns are classified by shape and other means, and the number of items is followed by a counter which precedes the noun. In English one would say "one pair of glasses", and "pair of" acts somewhat like a counter in Chinese.

language, people who had had no prior Chinese study were able to say with a high degree of fluency sentences such as, "Take one blue rod, three yellow rods, and two red rods. Give the blue one to him, one yellow one to me, two yellow ones to them, and put the red ones in there". In addition, much of this vocabulary could also be read on the character chart.

Though the pace varied somewhat during the week, in general the amount of language dealt with, and the amount of time students spent actively speaking, impressed everyone. By the end of the week about three hundred characters, many situations, most of the patterns, and a large number of idioms had been dealt with. How these situations were introduced and practiced, and the effect of the various methods used can perhaps best be seen by looking at the following areas:

- 1) The effect of a silent teacher on learning, and the teacher's and students' use of the students' language
- 2) Pronunciation and reading, and the use of the color-coded charts
- 3) Structures and how their meaning was communicated and practiced
- 4) The role of mistakes and correction
- 5) The place of peer teaching and correction
- 6) The type of vocabulary used
- 7) Views on note-taking and homework
- 8) The timing and pace of the week
- 9) The degree of student and teacher involvement
- 10) Group discussion, or feedback, sessions
- 11) Learning

as well as considerations with which a Silent Way teacher must deal in order to be an effective teacher.

#### 1) A Silent Teacher and the Use of the Students' Language

First of all, the teacher was very silent in terms of the amount of Chinese she spoke. This approach is radically different from the more traditional concept of repetition drills, and having the teacher, or students, model things any number of times. The teacher felt it

was essential for her to remain silent during the first two days of class so that each student had a chance to work on his or her own vocal apparatus. As the week progressed she did speak more Chinese in conversations and in question-and-answer situations.

The teacher was not as silent in English. Instructions and guidance were often given to help the students know how things should be done. For example, she would say "sneeze for this sound" as a clue to the pronunciation, or "these need to go together" for phrasing, to give the students a clearer understanding of how to correct their Chinese. Because the students were not all native speakers of English these instructions were confusing at times. But English was never used to explain the meaning of words or patterns, nor to discuss their usage.

The teacher's role in seldom modelling sounds or words caused some contention, and many students felt they could not speak with confidence in their pronunciation and tones. At times there was great confusion because students were hearing many different pronunciations and sentences given at the same time by different students. Many were not sure which was correct until the teacher called on an individual. The teacher pointed out that when a teacher models something many times it becomes a never-ending process, because the teacher is never sure when or if a student is actually hearing the item. In general, the students found that they gave their full attention to the teacher when she did speak in Chinese, since they knew she would only say something once. Too many repetitions by the teacher, which can often make both the students and teacher bored, can also cause the language to lose its natural intonation and flow. These problems were avoided. However, a number of students felt that a judicious amount of modelling, say two or three times, would have facilitated their mastery of the sound or word concerned.

Another factor included in this is the Silent Way's approach to developing aural comprehension as well as verbal ability. There is the belief that if one can learn to listen to oneself, there is a very good chance that one can transmit this ability to listening to others. The teacher stated that people can only correct their own speech if they know what they are saying and then compare it to a model. It

is important that one begin with oneself, and not be dependent upon the teacher or peers to indicate mistakes or correct them all of the time. There were occasionally short aural comprehension tests on tones, numbers, and longer passages given. The results showed that most people could understand a majority of the Chinese the teacher spoke, though a few could not understand her.

## 2) The Use of the Color-coded Charts for Teaching Pronunciation and Reading

Although the teacher did not repeat sounds, it must be pointed out that the students were not left entirely to their own memory of a given sound. (This in fact would have been impossible since the teacher never said many of the words at all.) The extensive use of the charts, which through colors indicated the pronunciation of the characters, gave a visual cue for speaking. It also avoided the use of any romanization and the mispronunciations that this can lead to.<sup>4</sup> (On the last day the teacher did give the correlation between the Peking Spelling System, one of the romanization systems for Chinese, and the colors for those who wanted to continue learning Chinese.) There were defects in the charts since some of the colors were fading and discriminating between certain shades of colors was especially difficult for those sitting near the back of the class. But overall, people found the use of the colors to be highly effective. Some felt that they were indispensable to learning, and others felt that they were useful but not necessary. Those few who never felt sure which sounds individual colors represented, naturally found the charts to be of less value. Because the Fidel chart and Chinese character charts were always in front of the students, it was always possible to compare an unknown character with a known one to

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<sup>4</sup> Different charts are also used for teaching English, French, Spanish and other languages which use the roman script. For these languages the alternate spelling of each sound is written in the same color. For example, the sound [i] in English is written in red, and includes I (I), i (like), igh (high), ie (lie), eye (eyes), ye (rye), eigh (height), is (isle), and ei (either). There are 21 colors for vowels, and 30 for consonants in English, compared with 8 and 22 respectively for Chinese. For a more detailed explanation of teaching reading through colors see Gattegno, Caleb, *Teaching Reading with Words in Color, A Scientific Study of the Problems of Reading*, Educational Solutions, Inc., New York City, New York, 1967.

check the pronunciation and tone.

For those who already knew the Japanese usage of the Chinese characters, the color codes and tone markings were highly effective. Occasionally there would be interference with meaning, for example, the character meaning "peace" in Japanese is the conjunction "and" in Chinese. But generally, those who could read Japanese found that their knowledge was another clue toward gaining an understanding of Chinese. For those who could not read Japanese, or who had a limited knowledge of Japanese, the ability to recognize and in some cases to write characters was far greater than from a similar time spent in Japanese classes. One factor that entered into this was the fixed position of the characters. It became apparent that many people were learning to "read" the characters by their position on the charts, rather than actually learning the character itself. This was interpreted in many different ways, but most people found that the fixed positions were helpful. In addition, when the characters were written on the blackboard, some people were able to make the transfer with a high degree of success. Since the teacher did not work with writing as much as she had with classes where the students had no background in the use of characters, it was difficult to estimate the validity of this point.

### 3) Structures and Their Meaning

Grammatical patterns, or structures, and their meaning and various possibilities for application and transformation were introduced through demonstrations. The teacher, through her own actions, the positioning of students, or more frequently the use of the rods, would indicate something and elicit a response from the students. At times a sentence was introduced via the charts, and then the demonstration to express its meaning followed. The concept of "meeting the students where they are" enters in here. Often, the students suddenly found themselves needing a certain phrase, which would logically follow in the situation being demonstrated. The students would recognize this need, and attempt to produce the needed item or would ask for it if it wasn't immediately given. Thus, instead of giving students something that was unrelated to what the students were thinking, the necessary language was supplied by the teacher in that situation. Once each

pattern was understood, substitutions with other vocabulary or tense, expansion, deletion and other types of drills were done.

Another important factor in the introduction of patterns is that whenever a new pattern was given, known vocabulary was used. Often the rods were employed, or other vocabulary that had already been covered. This avoided the confusion which arises when students are given both new patterns and vocabulary at the same time, and must struggle to sort everything out at once. The students had to guess the meanings and applications of things, and then check their hypotheses through saying things. Learning takes place deductively in the Silent Way. Sometimes people found through testing their hypotheses that either they had been mistaken, and had to work out new hypotheses, or they gained confidence in knowing they were correct. For example, after working with about five different ways to form questions in Chinese, and getting appropriate answers, students realized that there was no "yes" or "no" as such in Chinese. This was one of the important linguistic points that was discovered through using the language. At times, though, the demonstrations were ambiguous and thus it is extremely important that the teacher make each demonstration, or series of demonstrations, as clear as possible. The time spent in creating various ways to demonstrate things and allowing students to make and check their hypotheses, was perhaps longer than it would have been if the teacher had explained the point in English. However, many felt that by having the students actively involved in guessing and using the language, the phrases and vocabulary were actually learned and could be used, rather than simply understood.

The versatility of the rods was especially important in these demonstrations. The rods became any number of things at different times. For example, they became animals, buildings, food, people, etc., and could be easily manipulated. This is highly advantageous compared with a picture which can be very static. The rods were also used creatively to work on syntax, with function words represented by brightly colored rods, and the other words in the sentence represented by the white rods. Being able to see the changes in the placement of the rods as one was speaking was most effective in learning how to manipulate different patterns.

Whether or not a certain type of personality, or some degree of dramatic ability is important in teaching was discussed by the group. The personality of a teacher does indeed play a part in any classroom situation. This teacher was very good at acting out and demonstrating things, and this made things both easier to understand and more enjoyable. An outgoing personality or acting is not necessary to the Silent Way as an approach, but is rather one of the ways in which a teacher can be creative and use his or her own abilities within the classroom.

#### 4) The Role of Mistakes and Correction

The role that mistakes play in learning, how they are corrected, and by whom is very important in the Silent Way. This includes not only the teacher's role, but also that of the individual learner and his or her peers. In his book, Dr. Gattegno states, "Teachers have so often held that their job is to correct mistakes, that they neither noticed that only each learner can correct himself, nor have they studied how people finally arrive at the correct use of a language, and what role mistakes play in the learning process." (Gattegno, 1972: 91) Included in this is one of the more important concepts of the Silent Way — that mistakes can only be corrected by the person who makes the mistake. This does not mean that the teacher does not have a responsibility to point out when mistakes are made, but it does mean that it is the student's responsibility to correct his or her own mistake. In the Silent Way the teacher guides the student, not expecting him or her to somehow be able to create a correct response, but gives the student whatever clues are meaningful to that end.

The importance of making mistakes and learning how to correct them was dealt with in many different ways. First of all, the teacher often said, "Those who know, be quiet. Those who don't know, speak up." If a student was unsure of a sentence or word, then the student was encouraged to give his or her guess. It was extremely important to say something, right or wrong, rather than be silent. Only then did the teacher and the student have some knowledge of where to begin.

The criterion by which the teacher decided what was a mistake or when something was termed acceptable, was not always known



to the students. For example, when a student was trying to give a very long sentence, tones were often misproduced. Here the teacher pointed out the importance of recognizing the task at hand for the student. When the task was to produce a longer sentence, with all of the words properly used, then the sentence itself was corrected, and the fact that the tones were wrong was indicated, but not dealt with at that time. At other times one word or group of words, or the phrasing, was chosen as being the main task and worked on a great deal. To the students the choice of the task sometimes seemed arbitrary.

There was never a time when the teacher gave up on a student, or stopped a student from trying to say something. Instead, the teacher continued to guide until the student had control of his or her target in the language. In not allowing peers to give the answer to the person who was working on something, the amount of time spent in a one-to-one teaching/learning situation was occasionally great. Most people had assumed that during such times in a class all the other students would tune out and become bored. But surprisingly this proved to be untrue. Many of the people found that this became their chance to review, confirm certain guesses that they had, repeat in their own minds, or even rest their minds for a moment. Also, people found that since the class as a whole was speaking Chinese so often, at different paces and pitches, it was only when one person was picked out that they were able to focus on the correct response. After the first day students did not wait to be called on, but more and more often initiated things.

Another type of mistake was that of the teacher. The teacher constantly had to be deciding which technique to use, what order things should be dealt with, the timing and pace of the class, etc. In the teacher's mind there were two types of mistakes she could make. One type, which was easily corrected, was where something was introduced at the wrong time, or characters were pointed to out of order. This was simply cleared up by the teacher indicating that the students should forget it. But a more drastic type of mistake was one where the teacher didn't help a student who hadn't understood something, or didn't recognize that someone needed further work on a certain item. The student would then become

frustrated, and have no means for working with learning that information. Further, helping a student in the wrong way causes more harm than good. Just as it was important for students to correct their own mistakes, the teacher recognized the importance for her to correct her own mistakes.

#### 5) Peer Teaching and Correction

It is impossible to say in general whether or not peer teaching was encouraged, since it depended greatly upon the situation. Students were discouraged from giving translations, as well as from giving the answer to a student who was working on a certain task, for this would have been against the important concept of learners becoming self-dependent. But the teacher did allow peers to give someone a vocabulary item that was not felt to be an important function word. Occasionally, students also gave examples in Chinese to help other students understand and be able to use certain vocabulary items better. Since the teacher did not repeat things, or in many cases say things even once, the students were constantly listening to each other. None the less, the lines of communication were generally between the individual students and the teacher and only infrequently between the students. Thus, although the students had a much higher degree of freedom to speak, to use their own minds actively, to develop their own hypotheses, and to correct themselves, the teacher was almost always the center of attention.

One example of the application of self correction combined with peer teaching was the approach taken to correcting a quiz on numbers. On the third day numbers, from one to the trillions, were introduced in a two-hour block of time. Students were working on saying the long numbers, and the teacher especially had the students concentrate on the tones, phrasing and breathing necessary to speak these longer patterns. At the end of the practice time the teacher gave a quiz. She asked students to write down ten numbers which she gave once each. To correct this quiz, the teacher did not write the numbers on the board, which would have perhaps been the quickest way, but rather had the students individually read their answers. After a few examples had been given, and the students generally knew what others had written, the teacher then either

indicated who had the correct answer, or said it herself once. Thus correcting the test itself became part of the learning process as a whole.

#### 6) The Type of Vocabulary Used

The vocabulary which was chosen was not determined solely by its frequency of use, but rather consideration was also given to what could be learned through learning certain items. The Silent Way distinguishes between what is termed "functional vocabulary" and "luxury vocabulary". Functional vocabulary is that which shows the spirit of the language, including its approaches to various situations, and patterns which give the general picture of the language. A luxury word is one which is, for example, a noun which is not very common, or grammatical terms which one only uses in talking about a language. It is believed that no matter how large a vocabulary one has, there are always limits. And if a large vocabulary is the only thing a person has, then it is useless information. But if one understands the general picture and flow of the language, knows how to use different types of vocabulary, and has learned how to learn, then the student can fit the luxury words into a functional framework. This is considered to be the bridge to fluency.

Therefore, at the end of the week people actually knew very few nouns, yet had the ability to use nouns and other types of vocabulary. Luxury words can be learned outside of a class, with a dictionary or a text. Nonetheless, there were some words which could be considered luxury words which were introduced. These included certain verbs, nouns, and other words which were useful in expanding the application of certain structures. The teacher felt it was her responsibility toward those who were ready for the extra vocabulary to give it to them, but indicated that she did not expect everyone to retain all of these extra words. She gave an analogy to one who lays out a large feast. If you have a small appetite, don't eat that much. If your stomach is much bigger, eat until your stomach is full. But those who aren't ready to eat more should be at ease with what they can eat. Therefore, knowing the function words is considered to be far better than memorizing a list of vocabulary items and not knowing how to use them.

The vocabulary dealt with was specifically geared toward the usage of various patterns and structures in Chinese. Some of the patterns were expanded, and others were not. (For example, the phrase "The brown rod is longer than the red one." was expanded to include taller, shorter, older, etc. Yet the phrase, "I want to go to Osaka tomorrow." was not expanded into very many different place names. However, other substitutions of tense and person were practiced.) Vocabulary such as the numbers to the trillions were used for teaching breathing, rhythm and phrasing rather than because it was important to know the words in and of themselves. Thus, different vocabulary was used to reach different goals.

The characters on the charts were arranged so that related vocabulary was more or less grouped together on one chart. During the week some of the charts were used more frequently and fully covered, while others were hardly used at all.

#### 7) Note-taking and Homework

There was never any homework assigned during the week, and the majority of the people were happy because they had very little energy left at the end of each day. Yet in looking at this approach in terms of weekly classes and other situations, reinforcement outside of the class seems desirable. Classroom learning could be augmented by a set of Chinese character cards written in the color code for home study, patterns to practice with, and/or a text for individual use. For Chinese there are as yet no such Silent Way materials available, though Educational Solutions, Inc.,<sup>5</sup> has produced charts, worksheets, and other materials for English and other languages. The teacher did emphasize that the type of text and materials most desirable were those so designed that the student would have to do most of the work by himself or herself, and not be allowed to passively read. Even though homework was not assigned many people found themselves thinking various phrases in Chinese, and otherwise "unconsciously" reviewing. In a sense, getting a good night's sleep was homework.

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<sup>5</sup> A list of all available materials can be obtained by writing Educational Solutions, Inc., 80 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York, 10011, U.S.A.

Students were frequently asked not to take notes during the classes, which to many seemed to preclude the chance of reviewing. It was discovered by most of the note takers that taking down notes, especially in romanized form but also in Chinese characters, was very distracting. If one was taking notes and not following the flow of the class, various cues and vocabulary were often lost. The teacher stated that when a student writes something he or she is unsure of, mistakes are often reinforced. Furthermore, even when the notes are correct there is a tendency for students to become too dependent on their notes, instead of themselves.

One type of note-taking that the teacher considered beneficial were notes which a student wrote after a class to see how much was retained. This type of exercise can be a way to check oneself, and the student can bring up items he or she is unsure of in the next class session. This attitude toward note-taking was controversial among those who attended, since immediate memorization was not always possible and each day's class ran to eight hours or so. Many felt that true retention only comes through usage, and therefore the time spent writing precludes practice time. However, it was generally felt that with home study materials available for reinforcement and review, the overall effectiveness of this approach would have been higher.

#### 8) Timing and Pace

For any class the pace is always a difficult point to determine. Decisions must always be made quickly, and deciding upon the right place and time for many things is the teacher's responsibility. But in the Silent Way the overall timing is a "two-way" affair. Though it is clear that it is the teacher's responsibility to pace the class, if the teacher does not perceive the student's confusion and begins to move on to a new area before the students are ready, it is also the student's responsibility to communicate this to the teacher.

Overall the intensity and pace of the class was far higher and faster than any others the people had either taught or attended. This fast pace was important to avoid translation, as was mentioned earlier. In addition, the momentum of the class was gradually built up because so many people were actively participating in the class. In considering how much students can absorb in a certain amount

of time, it was found that many could eventually absorb more through the faster pace, and catch things originally missed when they were brought up again.

#### 9) Involvement

People agreed also that compared with other classes, the total involvement of the greater part of such a large class was impressive. It was expressed by some as being a game or a puzzle that the students were putting together. The fact that students had to take the initiative and responsibility for their own learning meant that people could not sit back passively and listen to a lecture, as can happen in other language classes. Overall the energy and motivation of the students throughout the class periods seemed to be generated because people were being challenged mentally as adults.

This involvement was not always demonstrated by all the students saying things out loud all of the time, for there were times when individuals were as silent as the teacher. Nonetheless, these individuals felt involved through watching the demonstrations, listening to others, and working on their own hypotheses.

This high level of involvement included the teacher. She was constantly paying attention to the class, the individuals within the class, and trying to be aware of where the class was going. In situations where ninety percent of the class understood a certain point, the teacher had to react to the remainder and find a means to satisfy them. As the students learned more Chinese and took the initiative more often, having gained some freedom in the language, the teacher's position should have become less dominant. From the fourth day the students indicated quite clearly the direction they would like to go and most of the students felt that they had a very high control of the subject matter, pacing, etc. Yet the authority of the teacher was recognized by the students as she remained in the center, and guided and made decisions constantly.

#### 10) Feedback sessions

During the week there were usually two daily group discussions, or feedback sessions, conducted in English. They lasted anywhere from twenty minutes to an hour, but averaged about twenty-five minutes. The teacher decided on the timing of these, and directed them by asking an opening question and/or responding to the

students' remarks. Students also began talking with each other, with the teacher commenting at times.

These sessions were potentially important for both the teacher and the students. They were important to help the teacher in making corrections in the directions she took in introducing the language, and in finding out the needs of the students in order to guide them into becoming better learners. The teacher stated that the thirty minutes would benefit the students in the long run, since even more time would be wasted if she wasn't prepared to meet the students' needs. A potential value to the students was in making them aware of how they were learning things and pointing out what had been done in class. For example, when one student expressed frustration because the teacher wouldn't repeat a sound, all of the students agreed. However, the teacher asked what the student did with her frustration, and the discussion arising from her answer was more important in helping the students. This discussion centered on the students' acceptance of not being able to learn everything the first time it is introduced, and the students' responsibility toward their own learning. Two things not discussed in these sessions were the Chinese language itself, and consideration of what might have happened if things had been done differently. The teacher often pointed out that if something hadn't happened, you couldn't say what would have happened. The approach was to look at what really did happen and work from there. Even though this avoided many pointless discussions on hypothetical issues, it also left unanswered many questions about applying this approach to other situations.

About half of the students found the feedback sessions in general to be useful and/or interesting. At times people felt the benefit to the students was low, and that the time would have been better spent working in Chinese. (During the latter part of the week there were times when students asked questions in Chinese, and the teacher answered in Chinese.) The teacher also felt that those who didn't talk during the sessions were not being "charitable" in not allowing her to have a means for checking her hypotheses on the students' reactions and needs. Some people also disliked the sessions when comments became uncritical and unconstructive, and

resembled a confessional type of encounter group. This did not happen often, but it did happen. The teacher seemed to feel that these sessions were essential for her, and did benefit the students.

In that people were primarily at the workshop to learn about the Silent Way as teachers, rather than to learn Chinese itself, the feedback sessions were a chance to question and discuss the techniques and philosophies behind the Silent Way. Overall, the aim of the sessions became one of dealing with the learning process, and how people reacted to various techniques and approaches. The teacher also used these sessions to point out important factors in learning and considerations for teachers. She also felt that for students to know each other better eventually helped in the learning process. The sessions did at times directly affect the teacher's presentations and the students' actions, and in that way they benefited everyone.

#### 11) Learning

Looking at how learning takes place, through observing oneself as a learner and learning about the learning process itself, is valuable to all teachers and students. The focus on this during the week was not always clear, but it was dealt with frequently. Its importance was pointed out clearly when the teacher stated that she was not teaching Chinese, or even working with Chinese. Instead, she said that she was working with the students and helping them to learn how to learn, and that the students were working with Chinese. The teacher's position was once described as a catalyst, rather than one who tries to beat things into peoples' heads. It is something of a mistake even to say the teacher taught Chinese, but rather one should say that the teacher gave people language items and tools to work with, and made sure the students could work with these. To many, the ability to look at the learning process and to guide students into becoming better learners, was far more important than the Chinese they learned. This perhaps best expresses what is meant by the fundamental concept of "the subordination of teaching to learning".



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# 語学修得の達人から学ぶこと

Joan Rubin

外国語を学んでいる人の中には際立って上達の早い人がいます。外 筆者はこの論文の中で、これら語学修得の達人がどのような学習方法を用いているのかを詳しく研究してみる必要性のあることを説いています。すでに広く認められている幾つかの学習方法をここにあげながら、教育者に対して、これら実り多い方法にもっと注意の目を向ければ、学習のうまくいっていない学生へ正しい指導を早目に行うこともできるとも述べています。

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# What the "Good Language Learner" Can Teach Us\*

*Joan Rubin*

It is common knowledge that everyone learns his first language with a fair degree of success, the reason being that everyone is born with the ability to learn a language and then grows up in a community in which he needs to function to some degree through language, the rules of which are imparted to him in the normal course of the day. Yet, it is equally common knowledge that some people are more successful (however this is defined) than others at learning a second language.<sup>1</sup> This differential success is often

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<sup>1</sup> This difference may not occur with very young children learning a second language in a natural setting with the kinds of communicative demands made in the use of a first language.

explained by saying that "X has more language learning ability than Y." Yet there is something curious here: if all peoples can learn their first language easily and well (although some have more verbal skills than others), why does this innate ability seem to decline for some when second language learning is the task? Although one of the more essential skills which many people try to acquire through formal education is competence in a second or foreign language, the success record for attempts to help students acquire this skill has been notoriously poor.<sup>2</sup>

More positively, we can observe that this ability does not decline for all students studying a second language. We all know of students who learn a second language in spite of the teacher, the textbook, or the classroom situation. How do these individuals achieve their success? I would like to suggest that if we knew more about what the "successful learners" did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their success record.

Good language learning is said to depend on at least three variables: aptitude, motivation and opportunity. Of the three, the first — aptitude — is assumed to be the least subject to manipulation; how subject to change it is, is a question frequently discussed in the literature. Some authors feel that language aptitude is "a relatively invariant characteristic of the individual, not subject to easy modification by learning" (Carroll 1960: 38). Others (Politzer and Weiss 1969; Yeni-Komshian 1967; and Hatfield 1965) have demonstrated that language aptitude can be improved somewhat through training; still others have pointed to the intricate interrelationship between aptitude and motivation.

There are two major tests of language aptitude currently in wide use: one by Carroll and Sapon and one by Pimsleur. That by Carroll-Sapon (Carroll 1965: 96) uses mainly linguistic parameters as criteria to predict language learning success: (1) phonetic coding, (2) grammatical sensitivity — the ability to handle grammar,

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<sup>2</sup> This evaluation of the success record seems to be generally agreed upon by teachers as well as students, no matter whether the success criterion is passing the course, acquiring certain skills (reading, writing, speaking and understanding) or actually putting to use what has been learned. Indeed, students in many American universities have been so dissatisfied with the profits from second language courses, they have petitioned with success to have the language requirement removed.

(3) rote memorization ability, and (4) inductive language learning ability – the ability to infer linguistic forms, rules and patterns from new linguistic contexts with a minimum of supervision and guidance. The test by Pimsleur (1966) adds a motivational dimension and identifies three components: (1) verbal intelligence – familiarity with words and the ability to reason analytically about verbal materials, (2) motivation to learn the language, and (3) auditory ability. These tests are to be used with those who have not had prior experience with a foreign language.

While these tests are helpful in predicting success, they give the language teacher and learner little direction as to what can be done about a person's ability. Commonly, the poorer student may notice that the better student always has the right answer but he never discovers why, never finds out what little "tricks" lead the better student to the right answer. For the student who wants to improve his learning, aptitude tests don't give enough detailed information about the kinds of habits a learner will need to develop. Rather than letting him just admire the good student and feel inferior, we need to isolate what the good learner does – what his strategies are – and impart his knowledge to less successful learners.

By strategies, I mean the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge. Some of the strategies which seem to be important are the following: (1) The good language learner may be a good guesser, that is, he gathers and stores information in an efficient manner so it can be easily retrieved. He may listen to a phrase, pick out the words he understands and infer the rest. He may actively look for clues to meaning – in the topic, setting, or attitudes of the speakers. His guessing strategy may be stratified from the more general to the specific so that he gets the most information from each question or sentence. (2) He is often willing to appear foolish in order to communicate and get his message across. (3) He will try out his knowledge by making up new sentences, thus bringing his newly acquired competence into use. I will give more details on good language learner strategies later in this paper, but it is important to recognize here that tests of aptitude are meant to find the minimal number of dimensions to predict success without detailing all of the many strategies involved.

If the focus is to help students improve their abilities, then these strategies should be looked at in much greater detail.

A second variable mentioned frequently in regard to good language learning is that of motivation. Several articles discuss those aspects of motivation which are essential for good language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1959) have isolated two kinds of motivation, by now well-known: instrumental and integrative. They find that the latter correlates more with successful language learning. While it is generally agreed that the best language learning occurs in the country/region where the language is spoken or when the language is the most common one at home, some would go so far as to say that the classroom is no place to learn a language. Macnamara (1971) points out that the essential difference between a classroom and the street as a place to learn a language is motivation. According to Macnamara, the student seldom has anything so urgent to say to the teacher that they will improvise with whatever communicative skills they possess to get their meaning across. However, the good language learner seems to have a high motivation to communicate, no matter where he is. The problem is how to provide the necessary motivation for others within the school framework — if that is possible. Cooper (1973: 313) also emphasizes the need factor in promoting language learning: "If we want to enable the student to use English, then we must put him in situations which demand the use of English." With proper motivation, the learner may become an active investigator of the nature of the language to be learned. Francis (1971) feels that students will learn to do what they themselves exert themselves to do.

A third variable mentioned above was opportunity. This includes all those activities both within and outside the classroom which expose the learner to the language and which afford him an opportunity to practice what he has learned. We have all noted that the good language learner takes and creates opportunities to practice what he has learned while the poorer learner passively does what is assigned him. The good language learner uses the language when he is not required to do so and seeks opportunities to hear the language (attends foreign language movies, joins foreign language

clubs, listens to T.V. or the radio, uses the foreign language with other students outside class). What is important here is to discover what advantage students take of the opportunities they either have or create. I agree with Ervin-Tripp (1970) who suggests that there has been too much attention on the input to the learner and too little on what is going on in the learner himself. She suggests that the focus on opportunity alone without considering the use that the learner is making of such an opportunity will not allow an adequate model of language learning. "Any learning model which predicts language learning on the basis of input without regard to the selective processing by the learner will not work, except for trivial problems."

If language learning is really the acquisition of communicative competence as well as of linguistic competence, then we need also to examine how the good language learner defines opportunity as exposure to many different social situations so as to get a proper feel for the circumstances in which a language code is to be employed.

It is clearly difficult to separate these three variables (aptitude, motivation, opportunity) since they do impinge on one another. An individual with lots of natural ability and motivation but with little opportunity may have difficulty in acquiring a language. If opportunity is present, but there is little motivation or poor learning skills, then we may expect that the language learning will proceed slowly. Equally, a person with lots of natural ability and opportunity may fail to learn because of poor motivation.

What is clear is that the good learner has or creates all of these and the poorer learner does not. If we are to improve the success of the classroom teaching, we will need to know a great deal more about the learning process.

### **The Good Language Learner**

While there is little systematic work relating language learning strategies to success, there are a number of observations which can be made about individuals who are good language learners. I have been able to isolate some of these by observing students in



classrooms in California and Hawaii, by observing myself and by talking to other good language learners, and by eliciting observations from some second language teachers. As I have begun to observe classes, what fascinates me is how often the teacher plows ahead with the lesson seemingly with little awareness of what is going on in each student, and often without directing the attention of the poorer students to how the successful student arrived at his answer. That is, many foreign language teachers are so concerned with finding the best method or with getting the correct answer that they fail to attend to the learning process. If they attended to it more, they might be able to tailor their input to their students' needs and might be able to provide the student with techniques that would enable him to learn on his own. Indeed, no course could ever teach all we need to know about a language and the teacher must find the means to help the student help himself, when the teacher is not around.

The task of observing these strategies is a complicated one because they necessarily involve cognitive processes which neither the learner nor the teacher may be able to specify. However, when our attention is focused on observing these strategies, I think we may find it easier to isolate some of them. Just recently, I discovered that by using video-tape more of these strategies would be observable than by just using a tape recorder.<sup>3</sup> With the video-tapes we hope to help learners and teachers see what is going on in the classroom. We hope to be able, as well, to abstract the learner strategies by interviewing the learner about his behavior during a particular classroom while showing him a tape of his behavior.

In spite of the fact that we are only beginning to isolate these strategies, I think that it is useful to list some of the ones found thus far. They remain general but give an idea of the kind of strategies I think we ought to be looking for.

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<sup>3</sup> I am indebted to Roger Prince, a graduate student in the English as a Second Language Program at the University of Hawaii, for his willingness to explore the use of video-tape in this research.

## Strategies

1. The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser. It seems that the good language learner is both comfortable with uncertainty (indeed he may enjoy it) and willing to try out his guesses. A good guesser is one who gathers and stores information in an efficient manner. The good guesser uses all the clues which the setting offers him and thus is able to narrow down what the meaning and intent of the communication might be. In this sense, he is carrying over into his second language behavior something that all of us do in our first language interactions. We never comprehend all that the speaker intended and we are always using whatever clues the environment, and the discourse may give us.<sup>4</sup> Guessing is based on what we know about the social relationship between the speakers, the setting, the event, the mood, the channel and all of the other parameters that Hymes has isolated for us in the ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1972). It is based on what we know about the rules of speaking (Cf. Paulston, 1974, for some examples of the importance of knowing these). It is based on factual probability (Twaddell, 1973). It is also but not exclusively based on what we know about grammar and lexicon.

The good guesser uses his feel for grammatical structures, clues from the lexical items he recognizes, clues from redundancy in the message. He uses non-verbal clues, word-association clues, outside knowledge (his general knowledge of society, of similarities to his native language). He makes inferences as to the purpose, intent, point of view of a message or communication.

The ability to guess seems to relate to one's first language as much as to one's second. Mueller (1971: 153) calls our attention to the fact that people may vary in their ability to comprehend what they hear or read in their native language. The fast reader and the good listener can understand while paying attention to a minimum of cues. He can overlook unknown words, or can read even though focussing only on content words. Such a person guesses, or makes inferences about, the meaning of words or sentence structure. A

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<sup>4</sup> What is fascinating to me is that most language classrooms discourage this normal communication strategy by telling students not to guess or by not asking the good guesser how he got there.

wrong guess does not disturb him, but is quickly corrected from the subsequent context. Carton, who directed an important initial study on the role of inferencing in language learning, concurs: "Individual learners vary according to their propensity of making inferences, tolerance of risk and ability to make valid, rational and reasonable inferences." (1966, 18). Carton also suggests that there are three steps to guessing: (1) scanning, confirmation, and testing for adequacy (2) assessment of probability that the inference is correct, and (3) re-adjustment to later information.

The ability to guess changes as one gets older; adults seem to stratify their guessing from the more general to the specific, gathering the most information from each question. In two separate articles, Jerome Bruner and N. H. Mackworth (1970) and F. A. Mosher and K. R. Hornsby (1966) have shown that adults use different strategies in guessing than do children and that they are more efficient guessers.

The importance of guessing and inferring has been recognized for a long time in second language learning (see for example, Twaddell 1967 and 1973) yet the details of how this is to be taught are not at all clearly worked out. Twaddell does make some fine suggestions about guessing in his more recent 1973 article. Some texts assume that guessing will take place, yet none train students directly to do so.<sup>5</sup>

2. The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from a communication. He is willing to do many things to get his message across. He may use a circumlocution, saying "the object on top of your head" when he doesn't know the word for hat. He may paraphrase in order to explain the different meaning of a phrase (for example, one student explained that the term "snack bar" had a different meaning in Japan than it does in the United States). He will use gestures to get his message across or spell a word when his pronunciation is not clear. He will use a cognate, from any language he knows, to try to express his meaning. He may not limit himself to a particular sentence construction but will use those

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<sup>5</sup> The direct method assumes that the student will guess the appropriate cognates found in the target language yet never allows the teacher to refer to the mother tongue so that the guessing is expected of the student but is never a part of the teaching strategy.

constructions he does have to the fullest. For example, he may use "going to go" if he doesn't know the future in English, the important point being to get the message across (Richards, 1971, discusses similar strategies). He may try to form new words by nominalizing a verb or verbalizing a noun and then checking the response. Having this strong motivation to communicate, the good learner will use whatever knowledge he has to get his message across. This strategy has an important by-product in that if he is successful in communicating, his motivation to participate and acquire the necessary tools to do so will be enhanced.

3. The good language learner is often not inhibited. He is willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results. He is willing to make mistakes in order to learn and to communicate. He is willing to live with a certain amount of vagueness.

4. In addition to focusing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form. The good language learner is constantly looking for patterns in the language.<sup>6</sup> He attends to the form in a particular way, constantly analyzing, categorizing, synthesizing. He is constantly trying to find schemes for classifying information. He is trying to distinguish relevant from irrelevant clues. He is looking for the interaction or relation of elements (using as a basis for this analysis information from his own language or others that he has learned). Naturally, the more experience a learner has with doing this sort of exercise the more successful he will be. It has often been observed that a person learns his second or third foreign language more easily than his first just because he has had practice in attending to the important formal features of a language.

5. The good language learner practices. He may practice pronouncing words or making up sentences. He will seek out opportunities to use the language by looking for native speakers, going to the movies or to cultural events. He initiates conversations with the teacher or his fellow students in the target language. He is willing to repeat. He will usually take advantage of every oppor-

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<sup>6</sup> This is what Carroll, Sapon and Pimsleur have called "grammatical sensitivity and inductive language learning ability."

tunity to speak in class; indeed, in any one class certain students seem to stand out and are called on more frequently.

6. The good language learner monitors his own and the speech of others. That is, he is constantly attending to how well his speech is being received and whether his performance meets the standards he has learned. Part of his monitoring is a function of his active participation in the learning process. He is always processing information whether or not he is called on to perform. He can learn from his own mistakes.

7. The good language learner attends to meaning. He knows that in order to understand the message, it is not sufficient to pay attention to the grammar of the language or to the surface form of speech. He attends to the context of the speech act, he attends to the relationship of the participants, he attends to the rules of speaking, he attends to the mood of the speech act. In learning one's first language, some scholars have suggested that meaning comprehension is prior to structure acquisition. Macnamara (1972) argues that an infant doesn't start to learn his first language until he can understand what is said without hearing the utterance. In the case of the second language learner, the learner already has a known structure and a lexicon which can be used to sort out some of the message. Thus, context is less prominent, although still very important for the second language learner.

He sees language as serving many functions, and he looks for ways to convey these functions. He knows that in any social interaction, there is room for the interpretation of the speaker's intention. He knows that many cues to the message are to be found in observing the nature of the interaction. There are a whole host of social dimensions which the good language learner uses to help in his understanding of the message and to enable him to frame an appropriate response.

The good language learner may try to isolate those features which give him maximum intelligibility. He may develop a feeling for those phonological cues which best enhance intelligibility. In English, this might mean that he emphasizes accurate production of intonation patterns over that of individual sounds because of the intimate relationship of these patterns with syntax. In English,

some mispronunciation of individual sounds will be tolerated if intonation patterns are accurate.

There are lots of other things which the good language learner does which need exploring. Some other hints are in the literature for memorization techniques. Carroll (1966: 104) suggests that "The more meaningful the material to be learned, the greater the facility in learning and retention." It might be expected that the good language learner finds ways to make the things he must memorize more meaningful. Carroll (1966: 104) also suggests that: "The more numerous kinds of association that are made to an item, the better are learning and retention." Again we need to observe what the good language learner does to enhance associations.

### **Further Research**

The above list offers some good insights into the cognitive processes that seem to be going on in good language learners. A recent article by Stern (1974) lists some additional learner strategies which enhance our insights into the process. However, this is just a start and more systematic and deeper observation will need to be carried out. To do so a number of factors need to be taken into account first since it is clear that considerable variation between learners may be expected.

The learner strategies (of even successful learners) will vary with:

- (1) The task — some material may require rote memorization while other material may require oral drill.
- (2) The learning stage — language learners may in fact use different strategies at different points in time in the learning process.
- (3) The age of the learner — it is probably true that adults do better guessing (having at their disposal multiple hierarchies of redundant cues) while the child has not yet developed such hierarchies. Children on the other hand may be freer in adapting to new situations and to acting out a communication.
- (4) The context — if second language learning takes place in the classroom with little or no opportunity for practice, the type of strategies used may well be more limited and distinct from those used where the learner has an opportunity to and perhaps has an obligation to use his language for real communication purposes.
- (5) Individual styles — some people are

not comfortable unless they have something written in front of them or unless they have the grammatical points under consideration in front of them. Some people learn better by visual means while others learn better by auditory means.<sup>7</sup> We should expect that there would be many different kinds of "good language learners." (6) Cultural differences in cognitive learning styles – in some societies, listening until the entire code is absorbed and one can speak perfectly is a reported form of learning; in other successive approximation to native speech is used as a learning strategy; while in still others rote learning is the most common learning strategy. Good learners may have considerable insight to contribute to their learning difficulties and to their preferences for instructional methods.

By looking at what is going on inside the good language learner, by considering how he is successful, what strategies, what cognitive processes he uses to learn a language, we may be led to well-developed theories of the processing of linguistic information which can be taught to others. Perhaps we can then establish procedures to train others to use these or similar procedures to acquire a second language.

In the meantime, teachers can begin to look at what the good student does to acquire his skill. They can stop, if so doing, inhibiting the use of communicative strategies in the classroom, that is, use of all sorts of clues to guess at meaning. Rather they should encourage students to transfer what they know about the world and about communication to second language learning. I agree completely with Twaddell (1973) who says that "The learner must be allowed, must be encouraged, to accept temporary vagueness in the early stages of familiarity with a given word." Indeed, I would say that the early learner should be encouraged to accept temporary vagueness in many other areas of language learning. In this sense, he will be replicating the more natural communication process where the participants in communication do not always hear, understand

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7 Individual learning styles are reported to be affected by several variables as well: (a) general cognitive style (b) personality traits (perfectionism, self-confidence, extroversion) (c) past school experiences (d) educational achievement (e) experience in learning other foreign languages.

or properly interpret what is being said to them; still they do not panic but continue the conversation and see if the item becomes clarified in the course of the dialogue.

The teacher should help students understand how topic, context, mood, human relationships help him narrow down the possible meaning of a sentence, or a word. He should help the student guess what the linguistic function of a particular item might be. In this sense, the teacher would be helping the student learn how to learn a language.

When we have researched this problem more thoroughly we will be able to incorporate learning strategies into our methodology, we will be able to help the learner select the appropriate method for his own learning style and we will be able to adapt the strategy to the particular cultural learning style. The inclusion of knowledge about the good language learner in our classroom instructional strategies will lessen the difference between the good learner and the poorer one.



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# 世界共同体の中での ESL の役割

*Ann Frentzen and Ann Brooks*

英語を第二言語として教えるということは、あらゆる国の文化や人間性とかかわり合う職業であるという点から、ESL教師としての私達は世界がだんだん狭くなり、国家間の相互依存性がだんだん高くなっていく必然的過程の中で欠くことのできない役割を演ずるようになってきました。この論文の第一部では、そうしたESL教師の役割を考察し、また世界中でそうした役割を担うESL教師の潜在的影響力の可能性について検討を加えています。

第二部では、実際に指導をすすめて行く上で生じる一連の問題をとりあげていますが、そうすることは職業面から私達の価値を改めて考えてみる契機となることでしょう。

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# ESL In a World Community

*Ann Frentzen and Ann Brooks*

## INTRODUCTION

This is a paper about ESL teachers. It does not explain a particular methodology or pedagogy, and it will not assist you in applying a certain technique in the classroom. It is about the ESL teacher as a person and his or her potential to have a large effect in the world.

All of us have heard many times that we are irrevocably interwoven into the fabric of what is popularly termed "an ever shrinking world." As we have witnessed in the past two centuries, that world can shrink haphazardly and often destructively at the hands of what are frequently short-sighted and self-interested parties, or it can grow smaller in ways that reflect the best interests of all humanity. Since TESL is a profession involved with the humanity of all nations and cultures, we can play an integral part in "shrinking the world."

What we hope to have done in this paper is to look more closely at ourselves in this context. The first part examines the role of ESL teacher and the potential effect those in that role can have in the world. Part two consists of a series of questions that grew out of real teaching situations, and that might provide a springboard for examining our values as they relate to our profession.

We believe that it is important to consider ourselves in relation to our social and political impact. Hopefully, this paper will serve as an aid for growing awareness in that area.

## ESL TEACHERS CAN HAVE A STRONG AND WIDESPREAD EFFECT

We are each an important part of a community of living beings. Every action we take or do not take affects ourselves and others, not only immediately and in ways we can see, but in ways we can't even imagine for they lie distant in the future. We do not exist in a vacuum.

Of course, the extent of any one person's effect depends a great deal on his or her position and place in life. (The President of the United States and a farmer in India might provide the extreme examples.) Because we have chosen to be ESL teachers, our position and place in life are such that our effect on others can be great. This is so because of the places we go, the types of people with whom we come in contact, and the numbers we continue to reach through these people.

What is it that we do and whom do we effect? As ESL teachers, we have *the expertise needed to provide skills and insight* (Skills are such things as the ability to communicate in English and the ability to adapt to and understand other cultures. Insight includes raising awareness in terms of values, culture, and learning.), and we *act as links between cultures and groups*.

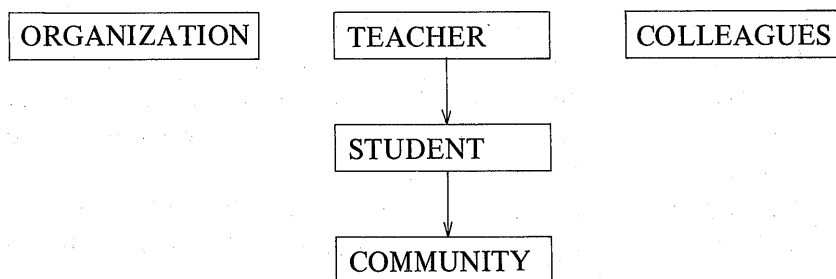
It is through the medium of these two activities that we can affect *students, colleagues* (those we work with directly and others involved in ESL work), *organizations* (those that are involved in the field of ESL such as schools and TESOL), and *the community* (used in its broadest sense and meaning a particular town, institution, country, or the world in general).

Working from the point of our ability to provide skills and insight, we originally set out to construct a diagram that would illustrate all possible effects that we could have on students, colleagues, organization, and community, and how they in turn

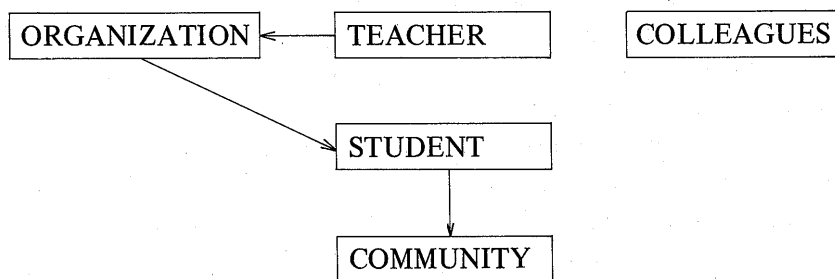
could have their effect on each other. It was a nightmare of assorted boxes with lines of many colors running in every imaginable direction. We quickly abandoned that idea and will just say that it is, indeed, very complicated.

However, in order to make our original point, we'd like to simplify things and present only a particular facet of the entire scheme.

Suppose we are teaching students who are planning to enter schools of some sort or another abroad. If we give them the skills and insight necessary for success in those schools, we are influencing not only them, but the effect extends through them and what they will learn, to the community they will enter and the one to which they will return. (Suppose they are medical students from Mexico or policemen from South Korea?) The scope of our effect can be shown like this:

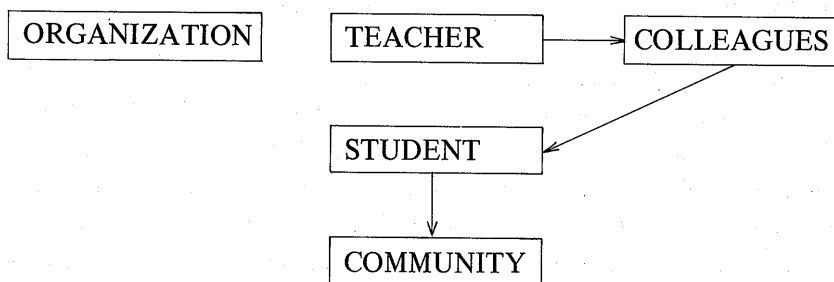


If we choose to share what we have learned as teachers with a particular organization (techniques, curriculum development and other professional skills), the following would illustrate how our effect could be transmitted:

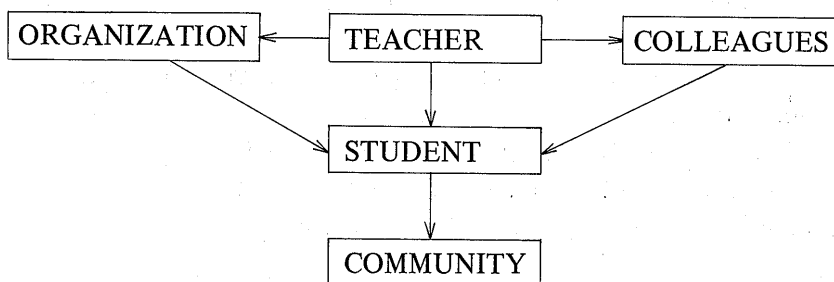


The major difference between this and the first diagram concerns the scope of what happens. Our effect would reach more students through the organization and the number of people in the community would be affected proportionally. (Consider reaching 100 medical students as opposed to ten.)

Taking it further, if we affect colleagues in a certain way, the scope will be further increased. This can involve anything from workshops for non-native English teachers to writing textbooks.

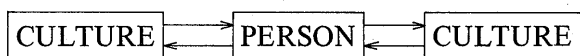


If we combine all three diagrams into one, this is what we have:



The top layer, teacher-colleague-organization, can be thought of as the profession. In terms of skills and insight, all effect is channeled from the profession to and through the student. The community is always affected in some way.

In acting as a link between cultures and groups, we become a medium through which one culture may affect another.



It is important for us to realize that effect is transmitted through us in two different directions. Not only do we represent our culture to others, but we can carry our impressions of others back to our own culture.

Of course, as a link between cultures, we are not always playing the role of teacher. It is our whole self that is in close contact with cultures other than our own, and it is our whole self and the many roles we can assume at any given moment that function as the link. When our role is teacher, our effect is transmitted to and through students. When relating as a woman or man, our effect is transmitted through the people with whom we are communicating in that role. As cultural links then, one culture's effect can be transmitted to another through each of us as a whole person and acting in the variety of roles we are all capable of playing simultaneously and at different times. If we think of the position of link as akin to being on stage — it is one in which we are constantly "on."

Any effect, whether of nations or of individuals, can be great or minimal. It can greatly change conditions or ideas, or it can barely touch them. If there is a change, it can be for better or for worse. As ESL teachers, the avenues of effect are open to us. The question becomes, what are we going to do with them?

IF AS ESL TEACHERS WE ARE AWARE OF OUR PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL VALUES, AS WELL AS AWARE OF THE SITUATION WE ARE IN OR ABOUT TO ENTER, OUR EFFECT CAN REFLECT AND BE A STATEMENT OF THE VALUES WE HOLD.



As teachers, many of us go zealously about the task of helping our students clarify or become aware of their values. The fact that our own go yet unclarified seems to be no hinderance to our enthusiasm in working with students. It is true that maintaining a high level of personal awareness in terms of values is a difficult and oftentimes confusing task. But given the potential magnitude of our effect as ESL teachers, it does seem important that each of us take the time to determine what it is we believe and what we hope to accomplish as teachers.

The obvious question to ask in attempting to be aware of ourselves as ESL teachers is, "Why am I an ESL teacher?" Some of the immediate reasons that come to mind are money, travel, three month vacations, a relatively open job market, and the fact that somehow we fell into TESL and have experience, so it is easy to just continue in the field. But lurking somewhere in many of our minds are more magnanimous reasons like promoting world peace, furthering understanding between peoples and cultures, providing skills for and helping to orient non-English speaking people into the English speaking environment in which they live, helping those who are exploited due to illiteracy and lack of education acquire the consciousness necessary to gain control over their lives, and helping to make TESL a profession in which exploitation is at a minimum and quality is at a maximum.

Many people who are in the TESL profession probably espouse ideas like world peace and understanding between peoples. And some probably transfer those values from the person to the teacher when we assume that role. But for too many of us, they remain nebulous and even ethereal, never really being pulled into our daily lives.

Reasons like vacations and money are certainly very real to all of us. And reasons like peace and understanding *can* be just as real. We can contribute to their furtherance if we are clear about them and then take advantage of the avenues of effect available to us.

We have suggested a few of the possible reasons for teaching ESL, both practical and magnanimous. And certainly most of us have chosen the profession for a very human combination of both. Our point is, though, that each of us as teachers, needs to be aware of

our particular combination and we need to consider it in relation to the possible effects we can have. If we are aware of our values, and if we can evaluate our potential effect in a given situation, we will find ourselves in a much better position to judge the consistency of that effect with the values we hold.

## QUESTIONS FOR CONSIDERATION

Although it is important to consider why we are ESL teachers and to be cognizant of the fact that as ESL teachers we have an effect, we are still on somewhat abstract ground. The actual meaning of this awareness is found in the way we live our lives, the choices we make, and the actions we take.

The following are questions drawn from real teaching situations. In considering them, each of us will probably think about consistency with our own ethical and moral values as well as the very practical and emotional needs that determine much of our lives. An additional step we can take is to ask ourselves if we have a responsibility to just avoid doing something we consider "bad," or if our responsibility extends to doing the most "good." How can we have the greatest effect?

There are probably many questions we have left unasked, but hopefully this will provide a foundation for additional thought.

## CHOOSING A JOB

### Who Do You Teach?

1. To what extent should you be concerned with what the students are going to do with the skills you teach them?
2. Do you teach adults or children? Is there a difference in effect? If so, what is it?
3. Do you teach people who will never leave their own country or only those who plan to go abroad?
4. Do you teach English "dilettantes" (for example, groups of housewives who will probably never leave their country, seldom leave their homes, and will probably never need to communicate in English)? Could your time be better spent

elsewhere?

5. Do you teach businessmen if you know they will use their skills for exploitation of resources and labor in developing countries?
6. Do you teach for the military? What if they will use their English for the purpose of advancing their technological warfare capabilities?
7. What about teaching culturally isolated people such as native peoples in Northern Canada? What kind of effect will it have on a culture like that to have the wonders and values of the modern world introduced into their own? Will they survive and adapt to our intervention?
8. If your teaching of skills to someone will have a minimal or negative effect, can that effect be offset by gains in personal and interpersonal awareness?

#### Where Do You Teach?

1. What kind of organization do you work for? Do you share responsibility for the integrity or lack of integrity of the particular institution?
2. What characterizes an unacceptable teaching situation for you? Can you teach in a place that prescribes a particular methodology that is not congruent with your own pedagogical approach? If you do, is it possible to get positive results?
3. Do you teach for an organization that exploits teachers and/or students? What is exploitation of teachers and students?
4. If you work for a large organization or company for which language teaching is only a small part of their total operation, should you be concerned about the ethics of what they are doing outside your specific professional area?
5. Do you work in a country whose social and political system you oppose? Would you work in South Africa where you would automatically become a part of an oppressive class structure? Can you work in a country with a repressive military dictatorship?
6. Will you have the most cogent effect in or out of an English speaking country? What would be the nature of your effect if you teach immigrant groups or non-English speaking native

groups in an English speaking country? Would it be greater than the effect you would have teaching non-English speakers in their own country?

7. What about teaching in a country where you will provide one of the few opportunities for learning English? Could you serve a better purpose there than in a country glutted with English teachers?

## **DEALING WITH THE TEACHING SITUATION**

### **Your Relationship With Students**

1. How much of your own culture do you represent? Do you have a responsibility to acquaint your students with parts of your culture that you don't represent and may not agree with such as capitalism, racial and class prejudice? Do you let your opinion about things you don't support or condone be known?
2. When instilling awareness of values, do you transfer your own values, or do you help students develop an awareness of theirs?
3. To what degree can you compromise your own values in order to achieve a particular objective? Can you compromise your self-image as teacher in order to fit the culture's image, if that will make you a more effective teacher?
4. How much knowledge of language and cultural mechanisms of the country you are in are necessary for effective teaching?

### **Your Relationship With The Organization And Colleagues**

1. Do you have a responsibility to share your professional skills with your colleagues? What are some ways of doing that? What if your colleagues are unreceptive or hostile to you, your training and your skills?
2. If you are in an unacceptable teaching situation, do you try to change it or do you leave? What factors should you consider in making the decision?
3. How will your behavior, either positive or negative, affect those who will enter the situation later? Do you have a responsibility to consider your effect on them?

### **Your Relationship With The Community**

1. Do you accept a salary and living standard higher than that of nationals in a similar position in the country in which you are working?
2. How deeply do you immerse yourself in the community in which you are teaching? Do you avoid people of your own nationality?
3. If you associate by profession with a certain part of the community, will you be willing to assume their social and political goals (Chicanos, Native Americans)? Should you?
4. What values are so important to you that they can't be compromised or relinquished even though it may be necessary in a certain culture or nation? If you work in a country whose government you oppose, do you maintain silence, voice opposition, or engage in anti-government activities? Do you criticize their institutions or customs such as racial or sexual prejudice, antiquated and inefficient schools, or a rigid class system?
5. Do you take a stand on your own government's activities or policies while abroad? What if it's illegal in the country you are in?

### **CONCLUSION**

In the preceding pages, we have examined the TESL profession, not simply in its relationship with individual students and classes, but in the context of a world community. We have attempted to show that we have an effect and raise some of the questions we all face regarding that effect.

With this paper, we have only begun. We have defined an area we feel ESL teachers should recognize, but given no suggestions for dealing with the questions that arise in this area. What can each of us do when faced with any of these questions? What process can be used in deriving our own answers, suitable to our own particular situations?

We feel that training in dealing with these sorts of issues needs to be incorporated into teacher training programs. This training would

provide skills in the areas of maintaining personal and social awareness, having effective interpersonal relations, and creative problem solving. Thus, it would be a human relations course.

As we envision it, the course would center on the process of working through questions and solving problems. Concepts and techniques we are all familiar with such as values clarification, Counseling-Learning, and goals and objectives can be applied in the course, focusing always on the processes involved in dealing with problems, rather than just the answers and solutions.

The target area to which these techniques would be directed could be the one we have defined in this paper, or any other specific area such as cross-cultural relations, discipline in the classroom, supervision of other staff members, or the training of paraprofessional teachers. The specific area of concentration is not the important aspect of this course. What is important is the acquisition of the skills necessary to deal with the problems we all face, both professionally and personally. The gaining of these skills would be the purpose of this course.

As we noted earlier, what we have done in these pages is only a beginning. We hope we have provided some provocation for thought for ESL teachers and people training to be ESL teachers. More than that, we hope we have provided a first step for the development of what we feel can be a very useful part of a teacher training program.

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# 外国語の指導と学習における相互関係

*William C. Harshbarger*

この論文は、外国語を教え、学ぶということの相互関連性について検討を加えています。この際重要な前提としてあげられるのは、今日の語学教室では、言語学者や教師達が言語を教える際、そのための基礎を意味深いものにしようとして、文法的な要素にばかり頼るきらいがあるということです。

ここでは何故そのような傾向が生じるのかその理由を探ると同時に、行動言語学理論と人間感情理論という二大理論の教えるところを組み合わせることで、実践的な語学指導上の基本となるものをいくつかあげています。

William C. Harshbarger holds a Master of Arts in Teaching degree from the School for International Training. Most of the ideas presented in this paper were developed during his work over the past two years at LIOJ where he is currently working as principal.

# Context In Foreign Language Teaching

*William C. Harshbarger*

This paper is an attempt to present the idea of context as it relates to the process of teaching and learning a foreign or second language. It is further intended to discuss a related problem facing many language teachers today, a problem which has been expressed in many ways: "How can I teach the past progressive?", "What can I do in class this afternoon?", "How do you teach the difference between present perfect and past perfect?", etc. These and similar questions are constantly being asked with varying degrees of frustration or anguish wherever there are foreign language teachers faced with preparing their next classes.

The interesting thing about these questions, or expressions of frustration, is that they seem to come from highly trained and experienced teachers as often as from beginning or untrained teachers. Why is it that a teacher well versed in at least two or three different grammar systems, having a variety of teaching techniques and methods tested through experience, and a wide selection of texts and materials to draw upon, will face the idea of teaching something like tag questions with such a feeling of uncertainty and frustration? It is my feeling from personal experiences in observing teachers in this state, and from having asked these questions myself, that the real problem lies in the fact that such things as the past progressive tense by themselves, bear very little relationship to



anything else. In other words, what I and other teachers have lacked is a sense of overall context to give some meaning to the study of language components. It is context, this meaningful environment for language class content and activities, and moreover, the problems which arise from its conspicuous absence in most language classes that are the topics of this paper.

To understand and relate the concept of context to language teaching, it is necessary to view the elements which make up the complex process of a language class in a manner somewhat different from that normally taken. In order then to place the idea of context in a context of its own, I will begin by giving a general outline of the elements of a language class as I see them. Then, I will deal with the definition of context in relation to these elements, and finally, the importance and use of one particular context — thematic context — and its potential for relieving some of the frustration being expressed by language teachers (and students) today.

## ELEMENTS OF A LANGUAGE CLASS

For simplicity I have grouped these elements into five major areas: Environment, Student, Teacher, Objectives, and Content. (figure #1)

The elements of the Environment of a language class include all of the physical surroundings, noise level, temperature, size of the room, number and age level of the students, materials available, realia, and other teaching aids — blackboard, chalk, tape recorder, VTR, etc. While these elements are often important or even crucial to the success of a class, they are not of immediate interest for the purposes of this paper.

Specific elements related to the Student are: on the affective side, motivation and attitude (Schumann 1975 and Disick 1975: 43–44); on the cognitive side, aptitude, and ability or lack of ability to employ learning strategies (Rubin 1975).

The Teacher has equally important input based on the affective elements of motivation and attitude. Just as the student has a desire to be a successful student, the teacher has a desire to be a successful

Figure #1  
ELEMENTS OF A LANGUAGE CLASS

ENVIRONMENT	STUDENT	TEACHER
Physical surroundings:	Cultural and linguistic background	Cultural and linguistic background
Noise level	Affective: Motivation and anxiety	Affective: Motivation and anxiety
Temperature	Cognitive: Intelligence	Cognitive: Intelligence
Number and Ages of students	Aptitude	Aptitude
Materials available	Ability to employ	Ability to employ
Teaching aids	learning strategies for awareness, retention, incorporation, and use of the language.	teaching strategies for introduction, exposure, practice and use of the language.
Health of teacher and students		
Type of chairs and desks etc.		
OBJECTIVES 'learning the language'		
Affective: increasing motivation	.....	none
decreasing anxiety	.....	none
'learning to learn': increased awareness and use of learning strategies	.....	strategies and processes of language learning and acquisition
Communicative competence		
&		
Cognitive: Mastery of linguistic content	.....	THE LANGUAGE: Sound system (phonetics)
		Vocabulary (morphemics)
		Structures (syntax)
		Intonation
		Body language, cultural concepts, and other non-verbal aspects.
		(Context: meaningful environment)

teacher (however success is defined by the individual teacher). Likewise the anxieties exhibited by students relating to performance before an audience, or a generalized fear of foreigners, are very commonly shared, though not always openly, by teachers. The teacher's ability or non-ability to employ teaching strategies, techniques, or methods are also important elements of the language class.

Another element shared by both the teacher and student is the Objective each sees for the class, which I have made into a separate area. Here there is great diversity, with often as many objectives for the class as there are teachers and students. Again for simplicity I have broken down the most common sorts of objectives into four groups:

The most common type of objective which is shared by students and teachers, is the cognitive acquisition of the language. From the teacher's perspective this objective includes the introduction and presentation of basic linguistic components of the language, and, providing opportunities for practice, use and eventual mastery of these components by the student. From the student's perspective the objective includes awareness, capture (retention), understanding, use and mastery of the same linguistic components. This would include both linguistic competence and linguistic performance (Paulston 1974).

A second type of objective, and one which is gaining popularity, is the attainment of communication skills (Savignon 1972, and Paulston 1974). The objective here depends less on immediate mastery of the linguistic components, and more on the ability to communicate, albeit imperfectly, in given situations using the target language. This objective emphasizes linguistic performance over competence.

Less common are the affective goals such as increasing motivation, or decreasing anxiety, in the learner. This is an area being explored by Curran, La Forge, Stevick, and others (Disick 1975: 24-34). The objectives behind these attempts are generally considered humanistic and follow the work in humanistic psychology of Rogers, Maslow and others.

A fourth goal is to increase the student's ability to employ

individual learning strategies in order to facilitate the achievement of the other objectives listed here. This could be called the 'learning how to learn' objective (Rubin 1975, and Harshbarger 1976).

None of these objectives are exclusive of the others, and all, or most of them, are found within every teaching/learning situation. Trying to work with or accomplish a variety of objectives, many of which are hidden (Stevick 1974), is one of the most difficult aspects of language teaching, and all too often the teacher's solution is to stick to his own goals and ignore those of the student. I believe that the concept of context can be useful here, and I will return to this problem later.

The fifth area of language class elements is the Content of the class, often called the subject. Naturally the nature of the content varies with the objective. For the affective objectives, there is no content as such, other than the feelings of the teacher and students. The content when 'learning how to learn' is the objective is a series of processes and strategies (Rubin 1975, and Harshbarger 1976). The objectives of linguistic and communicative competence rely on THE LANGUAGE for content, and here at last is the heart of the matter.

I have set THE LANGUAGE as content in a separate area of the language class elements for two reasons: first, to make it clear that THE LANGUAGE, or content by itself should not be considered the goal or objective of the class. The objectives previously mentioned are all end results or progressive steps of on-going process — processes which are only related to the content or subject such as *understanding* or *use* of the language. Second, the content does not, as is sometimes thought, exist within or belong to the teacher. The teacher provides the techniques, materials, knowledge, opportunities and guidance which will hopefully enable the students to reach the objectives. The teacher, then, is only related to the content, as the content is only related to the objectives. It is certainly fair to say however, that in most cases the teacher is more aware of THE LANGUAGE as content than the students, and has himself achieved many of the objectives which the students are struggling toward, and hence the tendency of some people to confuse the teacher with the content.

Coming back to THE LANGUAGE as content, there appears to be a loose hierarchy of components which make up this element of the language class. The first is the sound system of the language (Phonetics). Second, are separate and useful groups of these sounds, or words (Morphemes), sometimes known as vocabulary or lexicon. Next, these words are grouped into structures on the basis of the various rules and patterns which govern such things (Syntax). Superimposed on these components in this hierarchy are non-verbal components such as intonation, body language and cultural cues or concepts.

At this point in the hierarchy we still have not reached the level at which any of these components have any meaning or usefulness of their own. It is the role of the last component, Context, to provide the others with meaning.

Context is at work at all levels of the foregoing hierarchy. The sounds (phonemes) /b/ /a/ /t/ are meaningless until they are put into the context of a word like the English word 'bat'. Similarly, the word 'bat' when placed within the context of an English structure such as 'He hit the ball with the bat', or 'The bat bit him' takes on more meaning. In this case, the meaning of the word 'bat' within these two sentences is different, but can be inferred from the surrounding words and their relationship within each sentence. Adding yet another component, intonation, can change the meaning since it again provides another aspect of context. In this way, body language and cultural cues or settings create still different contexts from which the sound, word, sentence and intonation all derive meaning.

All of this is common knowledge among language teachers and consequently these components of the language are not commonly taught in isolation. Teachers and authors of text materials try to put the sounds, words, and structures of a language within some context which hopefully gives them meaning (Griffin 1976). The form of these contexts varies tremendously from written stories and dialogs to pattern practice drills to complicated roleplay simulation exercises to songs and games. The list is almost endless, and represents all of the teaching techniques and strategies employed by language teachers.

This sketch of the linguistic hierarchy of language components and their attendant contexts has been developed upward starting from the sound system and leading up to teaching techniques. This would seem to be quite logical and natural, and in planning lessons and materials for language teaching, this is the sequence which is normally followed. However, in so doing we are allowing THE LANGUAGE, and its contextual interrelationships to dictate perhaps more than it should.

The most common approach in lesson planning or in writing materials for language classes, is to begin near the bottom of the hierarchy of linguistic components: sometimes with the sound system, or individual words, but more commonly with a particular structure of the language — the past progressive, prepositions of place, articles, etc., etc. A look at the table of contents of any standard English text will indicate what I mean. This structure provides a context, as mentioned earlier, for various sounds and words. As far as a context for the structure itself is concerned, it is sometimes taught and learned with no other context than that it is part of the language. However, most often the structure is placed in a context of its own, including intonation, a dialog, story, roleplay, drill, etc. At this point the search for context usually stops. If the question, "What is the context which gives the roleplay, drill or dialog meaning?" occurs to anyone, it is often answered by the goal or objective of 'learning the language'. Indeed, the fact that a teacher and a number of students have gathered together seems to be enough of a context to give meaning to almost any type of teaching/learning activities, since (depending on what particular method or linguistic theory the teacher adheres to) repetition drills to the point of "overlearning", direct translations of complex literary passages, and student generated roleplays are all held by various authorities to be meaningful and effective within the context of 'learning the language'. Is it possible that all of these activities *are* meaningful within this context? Of course the answer is yes. First of all, it is undeniable that people have managed to learn languages by engaging in these divers activities. It is also significant that the goal of 'learning the language' as a context is as broad as it is vague, and therefore would admit to a great many

meaningful, but different, interpretations. This appears to be the case judging from the wide variety of approaches to teaching and learning languages which are in use today. However, what is perhaps a more pertinent question might be, "How effective or useful is 'learning the language' *as a context*?"

As I have just mentioned, the vagueness of 'learning the language' as a context involves a very complex and confusing number of methods, techniques and approaches to language teaching and learning. All of them are at least partially successful even though they are often apparently opposed to each other. Given such a bewildering array of methods, how is the teacher to know which to use? Another one of the ways in which this context is misleading has already been mentioned – the confusion of THE LANGUAGE and the objective; or, put another way, the tendency to see the language as a thing unto itself and thereby ignore the context which gives the language itself meaning.

In summary, the common development of context for a class usually starts near the bottom of the language component hierarchy, and the way in which the components are presented by the teacher and assimilated by the learners is often justified by the vague objective of 'learning the language' alone. Therefore, teachers and students wallow in the enormity of their objective and its attendant surfeit of methods by allowing it to be their overall meaning-giver or context. Consequently, both the teacher and the student clutch at the straws of vocabulary and structure in order to satisfy their need for order and stabile foci.

What seems to be needed is a step in between the teaching/-learning strategies and the ultimate objective of the class. I also feel that it makes more sense to begin the search for context at the top of the hierarchy of language components rather than the bottom, which leads us again to the gap between the ultimate objective and the way in which the language components are presented. I would like to examine this gap more closely.

To start with, it should be noted that there already is something in the gap between the objective and teaching/learning strategies, usually known as a linguistic or psycholinguistic theory of language acquisition. Linguistic theories have long held a revered position as

the giver of meaning or context for specific teaching/learning strategies, and the variety of formats in which language content is presented. For a long time leading up to and possibly culminating in the transformational era of Chomsky, linguistic theory has been dominated by the behaviorist school of psychology. It is only recently that the application of the humanist school of psychology has begun to influence at least the language teacher, if not the linguist (Disick 1975: 24–34). From this influence the affective goals of Curran and others are derived.

However, both of these different schools have serious drawbacks. The behavioral-linguistic school has provided rational contexts for various teaching techniques or methods based on one or more structural analyses of language, but have failed to deal with the affective or humanistic side of both the language teacher and the student (Disick 1975: 44). In addition, one of the greatest failures of this school has been the lack of variety possible within one theory or method, and as the need for a variety of techniques and methods to suit the personalities of a variety of teachers and students became recognized, any one linguistic theory became correspondingly meaningless as a context for a newer 'eclectic' method which developed (Prator 1976). Hence the tendency to use the vague objectives mentioned before, and the tendency to choose the components of the language as the basis for providing order for the teaching/learning process. On the other hand, while the humanists have been able to contribute to the affective elements of teaching and learning, they have had very little success so far in providing a very clear context for teaching and learning the linguistic content of the language class. Here again, even though the exercise or drill may be more humanistic and take affective factors into account, the individual and isolated linguistic components are the basis of class sequence, as in the attempt to combine Values Clarification strategies in language teaching (Adirondack Mountain Humanistic Education Center 1973). Other work in combining strategies aimed at affective aspects of the language teaching/learning process as described by Curran, Rardin, La Forge and others has virtually nothing to say about linguistic component acquisition.



Given then the serious affective drawbacks to the behavioral-linguistic theories, and the inability as yet of the humanist-affective field to deal with the linguistic goals, we cannot rely on either of these two general theories to fill the gap between the ultimate objective and the content presentation of a language class.

Obviously, some combination of these two fields would be desirable. In order to do this effectively, some provision must be made for a context other than behavioral-linguistic theory, and related to the field of humanist-affective teaching which will give meaning to a variety of teaching and learning strategies and ultimately, the linguistic content as well. This context should avoid being as vague and all inclusive as the ultimate objective of the class, and should not rely on the language itself for sequence. One example of this type of context is being used experimentally by a team of three teachers within the framework of a four-week intensive English program for adult students.<sup>1</sup> It is called thematic Context.

Thematic Context falls between the ultimate objective of the course and the teaching strategies and techniques. The ultimate objective in this case is a blend of both communicative competence and language mastery. The exact blend of these two goals depends on the level of the class and the individual aspirations of both the teachers and students involved. This is fairly representative, I believe, of a great many language classes today. The teaching strategies and techniques are not, however, directly determined by either these objectives, or the language components based on a theory of language acquisition as is normally the case; rather, they are determined by three major humanistic themes, and three accompanying communication skills. Together these themes and skills provide a meaningful context for the selection, ordering, and use of a variety of teaching strategies. These in turn provide the context for selecting, introducing and practicing structures, which in turn provide a context for vocabulary, and so on down the hierarchy of language components.

The three themes are: *Objective Reality*, *Interpersonal Relation-*

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1. See Appendix.

Figure # 2

DESCRIPTION OF OBJECTIVE REALITY	EXPLANATION OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS	DISCUSSION OF ABSTRACT CONCEPTS
Immediate environment	Immediate emotions and physical feelings	Opinions
Classroom	Family relationships	Beliefs
School	Job, hobbies, etc.	Politics
Town or city	Entertainment activities	Religion
Country	Intellectual activities	History
World	Processes or operations engaged in	Speculation
Universal environment	Situations: shopping, traveling, eating out etc.	Creativity

NOTE: All of these possible sub-areas of the thematic contexts can be seen in the light of all three of the major themes. For example, the world environment can be described in terms of objective reality by talking about geography, climate, geology, etc. The world could also lend itself as a sub-area for explanations of economic, ethnic and political interrelationships and systems. Finally, the world can be discussed in terms of abstract concepts such as history, religion and future speculation. In this way, the communication skills of description, explanation and discussion can be presented as interrelated, or looked at separately. The 'bridges' between the themes are easily identified.

*ships*, and *Abstract Concepts*. Each of these themes suggests a particular type of communication skill: *Description* of objective reality, *Explanation* of interpersonal relationships, and *Discussion* of abstract concepts. Once these contexts are established, it is fairly easy to break down each theme into different areas or situations, which in turn suggest both behavioral objectives and specific language content: structures, vocabulary, intonation and cultural cues, etc. (figure #2). Once this breakdown is made, it is necessary to decide in which order to introduce the themes, communication skills, situations and language content, and subsequently decide on teaching strategies.

In this example of thematic context, affective themes and communication skills combine in such a way that some of the major disadvantages of the behaviorist and humanist theories previously noted are avoided. As the students perceive the basic human needs of relating to objective reality, interpersonal relationships and abstract concepts through the medium of language, drills, exercises and other classroom activities become more meaningful. It is important to point out that for this to happen, the students must be as fully aware of the thematic context as the teacher. In addition, the linguistic and communicative objectives can be reached using the guidance of communication skills related to the affective themes rather than behavioral-linguistic theories. In fact, the use of communication theory as an alternative to linguistic theory in structuring language classes is beginning to receive some notice (Szentiványi 1976).

Some further advantages of this use of thematic context are worth noting. First, there is an unbroken series of meaningful contexts from the ultimate objective of the class to the sound system of the language. Second, there is a natural selection of linguistic content possible within a meaningful environment or context. This avoids the problem of having to teach a structure and trying to fit a context around it. Third, there is no need to be restricted to one particular linguistic theory in order to have a meaningful context for teaching techniques. Therefore, since there is no need to cling to one linguistic theory, there is provision for a more eclectic teaching approach without having to resort to the

vague context of an ultimate objective as the only thing broad enough in scope to allow for a variety of teaching techniques. Finally, it is important to note that the specific structures and vocabulary selected to be taught are the result of a series of contexts, rather than the basis for them.

The concept of thematic context itself is not a new one. Examples of other approaches to the use of thematic context are scattered around. A partial list is given in the appendix. However, I feel that the real potential of this idea has yet to be developed. In particular, the concept of beginning at the top of the hierarchy of language class elements and contexts as I have presented them here and working downward is very important. This allows each successive element to create a context for the selection of the next one. At present, most teachers, starting at the bottom of the hierarchy and working up, find that each successive step doesn't always fit into a uniform context. Therefore, even though all the basic elements of the language are present, the class as a whole can fall apart for lack of a meaningful connection between the elements. Specific vocabulary content and the future tense (among other things) can be drilled and practiced by 'doing a restaurant situation' one day, and 'Wh' questions can be practiced by written or oral drills, interview roleplays and real questioning the next, but gradually both the teacher and students begin to get frustrated by this piecemeal approach. Therefore, I think questions like "How can I teach tag questions?", coming from an experienced teacher really mean "How do tag questions fit in with everything else?" I hope that the concept of context as it has been presented here will offer some help to teachers in this situation.

## APPENDIX

A partial list of Thematic Contexts.

### TEXT MATERIALS EMPLOYING A THEMATIC CONTEXTUAL APPROACH

This list excludes those materials which present only a thin veneer of thematic uniformity.

1. *English for Business, The Bellcrest Series*, Oxford University Press, London, 1973.

This is an advanced level course for Businessmen and Businesswomen and is comprised of two student texts (*English for Business* and *The Bellcrest File*), a Teacher's Edition of *English for Business*, a *Tape Companion*, cassette tapes and an accompanying series of filmed episodes available on 16 mm film or Video Cassette. The major theme is roughly that of a rather well done soap opera within a business setting. The story line and development of the characters from the opening episode to the final resolution of some very realistic business intrigues, provides a uniform and meaningful context for the introduction of a variety of language study to aural comprehension 'active listening' exercises, to sophisticated Role Simulations. These in turn introduce vocabulary and some aspects of the English language rarely dealt with in other texts (e.g., gambits).

2. *Letters From Roger: Exercises in Communication*, Russell N. Campbell and Maryruth Bracy, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1972.

This is a single text designed for students "from what might be termed as low intermediate to advanced." Emphasis is placed on reading and writing skills. The general theme of the book is an on-going correspondence between Roger, a student at a mythical American university, and the student studying the book. Each unit of the book begins with a letter from Roger to the student. Usually there are enclosures with the letter to give the student a picture of American university life in general. This is followed by some written comprehension exercises and some explanatory notes on the

material and letter from Roger. The student is then directed to write a letter to Roger including some specific information about himself or his country. The next unit begins with a reply letter from Roger commenting on the student's last letter.

3. *East Meets West*, Louis Spaventa, Sogang University, Seoul, Korea, 1975.

This is a text written specifically for freshman English students of Sogang University. It was designed to facilitate the communication process between the students and teachers of Sogang. "The material, chapter by chapter, is meant to trace a life cycle. The overriding theme of 'east meets west' is meant to be the glue which holds it all together, and hopefully, sticks a few ideas onto the teacher and students." Language and cultural elements are learned as the students and teacher explore some of the meaning of life and its changes from birth through old age in both Korean and Western cultures.

4. *Developing Listening Comprehension for ESL Students, The Kingdom of Kochen*, Ted Plaister, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1976.

The major goals of this book are to develop listening skills and note-taking skills necessary for foreign students who are attending or planning to attend university lectures and courses in English. The format is a series of lectures presented first as a written, narrative synopsis, then by partial transcript accompanying a taped or live presentation of the lecture. This presentation is repeated several times, with the amount of written transcript reduced each time until finally there are only rough notes. The last time the lecture is presented, the students must take their own notes. A quiz on the lecture, with students being allowed to refer only to their own notes, finishes each unit. What gives this book its place in this list of thematic texts is the topic of the lectures. Rather than taking a variety of lectures on different topics and putting them together haphazardly, the author has contrived a continuing series of lectures about Kochen, a mythical kingdom in southeast Asia. With this country as the overall theme of the lectures, the author is free to

(and does) present material on economics, agriculture, etc., all within a uniform context which gives meaning to the linguistic content of the lectures.

5. *Intensive English Course*, jointly produced by the Experiment in International Living, Vermont, USA, and Polydor International, Hamburg, Germany, and Japan Language Laboratory, Tokyo, Japan.

This material consists of a home study package of three texts, nine cassettes and (in Japan), three annotated texts. It is meant for beginners and can be used by a wide range of age groups. Although it is designed as home study material, it has been adapted for classroom use at the School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont. The format generally consists of short narratives or dialogues accompanied by carefully thought-out and often amusing line drawings. Following the narrative and/or dialogue which begins each Unit, there are a variety of oral/aural drills and exercises. The element which sets this material apart from other beginning-level home-study English programs is the overall theme which in this case is a progressive story concerning the travels and trials of one Max Martin, a visitor from Colombia in the USA. Max in his encounters with American life falls prey to a great many, though minor, problems and pitfalls. It is the ability of the students to empathize with Max as they follow his adventures that provides the major impetus and context for the linguistic content.

## OTHER THEMATIC ENGLISH PROGRAMS

The teachers who worked on the program described in the body of this paper were:

Barry Costa, an MAT candidate of the School for International Training, who was working as a student teacher at the Language Institute of Japan.

Gene Phillips, a graduate of Harvard University in English, who has been teaching at the Language Institute of Japan since 1974.

Mary Taylor, a graduate of the School for International Training's MAT program, who has taught English and Spanish at the

Language Institute of Japan for several years.

As a result of the seminal work done by these teachers, Mr. Costa and Ms. Taylor, joined by Lance Knowles, another EFL teacher at the Language Institute of Japan, extended the concept by placing their program within the context of a make-believe trip to San Francisco and its environs. Beginning with preparations for the trip, the students travel and encounter such things as changing money at a bank, going to restaurants, and even being mugged. Each day of class is a continuation of this trip, and the students begin to learn structures and vocabulary as they are needed to cope with each new situation. The most important element here is that each situation is related to all the preceding ones within the entire framework or context of the trip, and not done piecemeal.

This program, like the *Bellcrest* materials and *Letters from Roger* mentioned above, requires that the student enter into a realm of creative imagination in order to give the context credibility. The concept is not new, and has been developed by both Richard Via in his book, *English in Three Acts* (a Culture Learning Monograph of the East-West Center, University of Hawaii Press), and The English Teaching Theatre, a group based in International House in London, which gives theatrical performances with the object of teaching English as a foreign or second language.

Here again, the idea of having students involved in role simulation exercises, skits or plays is not new; however, the use of theater as an entire context for language learning I think is quite new and exciting — particularly in its applicability to further work with thematic contexts.



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# 語学教室でのビデオテープ使用について

Joseph Chevarley Jr.

ビデオテープは、今日の世界における新しいメディアとして大きな可能性を秘めています。この論文では、語学教育にビデオテープを取り入れることについて筆者の考えが簡潔に、幅広い視点から述べられています。ビデオ装置の使用にはまだ多くの問題がありますが、正しく使えば語学授業をより効果的なものにすることができると説明しています。

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# An Overview of Videotape Use in the Language Classroom

*Joseph Chevarley Jr.*

## CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Media are *not* supplementary to, or in support of, instruction, but *are* the instructional input itself. In this light, the old concept of audiovisual *aids* as supplements to teaching can no longer be accepted. (Kemp 1975: 7)

Integration of videotape into instructional programs can be viewed dichotomously. Videotape can be used for exposition or for response; for cognitive or for affective learning; for presentation to passive or to active learners.

Instructional television (ITV) traditionally has involved exposition of cognitive learning to passive learners. A plethora of research comparing ITV to classroom methods of exposition has established its effectiveness. (Chu and Schramm, 1967) Used similarly, videotape improves upon ITV because of its easy and inexpensive distribution.

Beyond that, videotape uniquely provides a structured stimulus for an active learner's affective as well as cognitive response — toward development of a skill, change of behavior, or greater self-knowledge. (Clift 1973: 2) Used this way, videotape builds

upon a fundamental tenet of communication theory, that "effective communication depends upon the receiver being active." (Kemp 1975: 15)<sup>1</sup>

## THE MEDIUM AND THE MESSAGE

### Short History

Videotape is a new medium. And so its use in language teaching is a recent phenomenon. At the University of Hawaii, for example, the ESL Department first became involved in videotape production in 1970, "even though no one on the faculty was familiar with video equipment." (Richard 1975: 5-6).

It is not possible to pinpoint the first use of videotape in language teaching. But it is logical to guess that it was introduced into teacher training programs before the language classroom. For teacher education was one of the earliest fields in which the medium was energetically exploited. In 1971, for example, Jorstad reviewed an already-established project at Carleton College where videotape apparently had been used for some time in training language teachers. A series of training tapes, "The Classroom As It Is," had been produced and was even being offered at nominal cost to other institutions (Jorstad 1971). While, that same year Lally wrote that "the next logical step for the concerned foreign language teacher would be the transition to classroom video equipment." (Lally 1971: 22).

In the last five or six years, videotape use has expanded in both teacher-training programs and the language classroom. The following is an attempt to summarize the experience to date in the

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<sup>1</sup> Clift distinguishes three methods that produce an active response: modeling, simulation, and self-confrontation. Modeling through videotape utilizes a standard model of appropriate behavior which is taped. The viewer then is encouraged to exhibit similar behavior. Simulation involves modeled behavior which is a stimulus for immediate viewer response. The model itself is of a specific situation to which the viewer must respond, rather than of a finished product to which the viewer can aspire as in modeling. Self-confrontation differs from modeling and simulation in that each taped sequence represents an individual encounter. The viewer becomes personally involved in the playback. (Clift 1973: 2-3).

language classroom.<sup>2</sup>

### In the Language Classroom

The distinction between active and passive use of videotape applies to the language classroom. The former takes advantage of the unique properties of the medium; the latter largely involves videotape as a conduit for instructional television.

#### For Exposition (passive)

Instructional television offers definite advantages for the presentation of language teaching materials. Handscombe singles out the potential for mixing animation with live action. (Handscombe 1975: 93). And Olshtain adds that "the medium of television, when used properly, is uniquely capable of focusing on the relevant features of the structure, providing better insight and understanding on the part of the learner-viewer." (Olshtain 1976: 142).

Brody, Lopez and Osolobe are also enthusiastic about television's ability to interject supplementary cultural as well as language materials into the classroom. They conclude that planned use of mass media may significantly enhance ESL classes. As an example, they cite videotape distribution of the 25-lesson "English For You" series by the New York City Board of Education (Brody 1976: 65). There are other examples. Handscombe mentions "The Sunrunners," a TV series for eight-year-old French-speaking ESL students in Ontario. (Handscombe 1975: 93). McLean writes about ten pilot-programs produced and widely-used in Scotland for the teaching of English to immigrant children. ("New Roles for Television in the Teaching of English to Immigrant Children" 1975). And Taylor and Rickard report that Time-Life Multimedia recently completed "Speak for Yourself," a 32-lesson situation

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<sup>2</sup> It is necessarily limited because there is not very much material available, and because for practical reasons it was only possible to look at material written in English. Also, in this report it is assumed that the target language (TL) is not an important variable: "good language teaching is good language teaching whatever the language, and the procedure in using videotape remains the same." (Paulston 1972: 30).

English course for foreign-born adults. (Taylor and Rickard 1976).

McLean cautions, however, that research indicates that for full effectiveness some classroom activity is necessary before and after an instructional television program: the aim should be the construction of a lesson unit which has the ITV program as its centerpiece. (McLean 1975: 303–4). He suggests the lines which research might follow in order to determine the kinds of preparatory and follow-up procedures most appropriate for particular programs. (McLean 1975: 310).

### For Response (active)

The ‘Technological Revolution’, which was expected to change foreign language teaching drastically, has had only limited impact. (Santoni 1975: 295). This is particularly so with videotape. True, it has been used widely in training student teachers and in presenting audio-visual materials to students. But going further, suggesting an active rather than a passive instructional rule in the foreign language classroom for such ‘electronic gadgetry’ still may elicit negative reactions. (Santoni 1975: 233).

*Conversation Class.* Knight suggests use of videotape to defeat the all too frequent pattern of the traditional conversation class: desultory chat, usually between the teacher and the two or three most competent or extrovert students (those who least need the practice). (Knight 1975: 81). Over a three-year period he was involved at Stockholm University in the development and integration into the first-term course of a series of ten mediated situational lessons. Five of these used brief videotape models: job interview, out to dinner, committee meeting, court scene, university life. Each 45-minute lesson involved – 1) brief introduction by the teacher, 2) viewing of the program, 3) review of the program for comprehension, 4) teacher-led practice of parts of the model, 5) rehearsal by the class in pairs or small groups, and 6) small group or pair performance followed by teacher correction. (Knight 1975: 81–2).

Videotape models were found to have a number of advantages. Non-verbal as well as verbal forms of communication were clearly

presented. A variety of situations were captured realistically. The models were easily understood and imitated by the students. Their novelty value raised student attention and motivation. In addition, their use eliminated the old 'heads down and read' syndrome by avoidance of printed texts. (Knight 1975: 81-2).

Knight remarks "how very well students remember language and behaviour when it is presented in a life-like video programme." (Knight 1975: 82). While cautioning that videotape not be used too often lest it lose its power to motivate and stimulate, he concludes that "the video programmes have contributed substantially to making our lessons more successful in oral proficiency training than the traditional conversation class." (Knight 1975: 83).

Santoni, on the other hand, espouses greater use of videotape in the conversation class, though in a very different way. He suggests recording entire role plays and following them up with a critical review of the tape. He suggests three ways this can enlarge the classroom experience: 1) by heightening emotional acuity, 2) by broadening possibilities for self-analysis by students and teachers, and 3) by making available to the teacher a total picture of all students contributing and interacting, a group level of concentration difficult to evaluate for the teacher, whose attention is usually directed to one individual at a time. (Santoni 1975: 233). He adds that a videotape recording provides a unique source of material for self-correction of linguistic performance. For, when a session is videotaped, inhibiting interventions by the teacher are reduced to a minimum and it's possible to turn the action over to the students. And afterwards it is also possible to give the students the responsibility of making most of the corrections. (Santoni 1975: 237).

Sisk supports the contention that self-correction via videotape replay can be effective. Her research shows that a positive conclusion can be drawn on the value of this device in the teaching of oral aspects of a foreign language. She advocates use of videotape as a valuable addition to the traditional approach. (Sisk 1975: 187).

*Student Productions.* Richardson advocates videotaping and playback of student-prepared materials so that students feel they are contributing to the classroom. (Richardson 1972: 308). Levine concurs that student media production is a strong motivational



tool, and she goes further to point out that the production process itself provides spontaneous language practice and helps to develop cognitive aspects of second language learning. (Levine 1975: 109).

Glass describes an innovative approach to student videotape production. At Queensborough Community College the Classic and Modern Language Department has developed what it terms a Videotape Participation System (VTPS). As used in Spanish courses, for example, it enables students to relate directly to the Spanish-speaking community. A student team settles on what it would like to find out about the community. Then team members take turns conducting interviews that are videotaped with community service directors, social or political group leaders, merchants and even people walking in the street. (The teacher accompanies ostensibly only to help operate the camera.) Finally, the tape is played back at the school. Those interviewed are invited to attend, and afterwards other students also have a chance to ask questions. Glass concludes that the VTPS, "... can make teaching more effective, and ... can motivate students ..." (Glass 1973: 18).

*Commercial Television Adaptations.* Lally complains about the almost complete absence of suitable videotape programs. As one source of materials, he suggests the use of American television series that have been dubbed into the TL for export. He feels that developing lessons around videotaped segments from "Bonanza," for example, would take full advantage of the American student's cultural background and experience base. He would design a curriculum on this basis complete with teacher's manual, student texts and workbooks, and audio tapes for classroom and LL work. He reports that no pedagogical objections have been raised against the proposal, and that no one has doubted its potential effectiveness. (Lally 1971).

Skirble has actually used commercial television in the TL and demonstrated its effectiveness. She uses short, digestible TV segments — excerpted from sports events, weather reports, movies, news broadcasts, cooking lessons, even commercials — to contextualize exercises in grammatical pattern practice, reading, writing, and listening comprehension. She points out that this places language in a natural and believable setting, aids memory and serves

to motivate the student. (Skirble 1976: 67). Videotape permits a dynamic play on audio and visual aspects of communication. She concludes that use of short videotapes "is doing what language teachers have done for many years with pictures and gestures, yet it is combining it tightly into one media." (Skirble 1975: 144).

*Listening Practice.* Hauptman and Uman use videotaped mini-lessons for realistic practice in their courses in listening to and *taking notes for university courses*. They employ videotape in the LL as well. They feel that videotaped lessons are easily adapted for different proficiency levels. Research studies of the listening process that revealed the multi-sense-based nature of aural comprehension prompted them to switch from audio tape to videotape. (Hauptman and Uman 1975: 94-5).

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

### Summary

Videotape is a new medium. Its uniqueness stems from the properties of magnetic tape that permit flexible recording, storage and playback of both video and audio information. In education it can be used passively for exposition as instructional television. Or its unique capabilities can be employed actively to elicit affective as well as cognitive student response.

Videotape use in language teaching is a recent phenomenon. Applications are being pioneered in teacher training programs and in the language classroom. In both settings, active and passive uses are being developed. In the classroom, it is being used as a tool for highly personal student-centered learning, particularly in the area of oral skills; and it is also being used as a conduit for distribution of instructional television programs.

### Conclusions

Videotape's obvious advantages mean that its use in language teaching will certainly continue to expand. But that expansion will

not be rapid until some major problems are overcome.

Perhaps the most serious is that few teachers are trained to use videotape systems effectively. (Rickard 1975: 7). Yet the application of a new technology inevitably requires new teaching approaches. (Santoni 1975: 233). Expansion also depends on the development of suitable materials, which will necessitate cooperation among language teachers, media specialists, and the companies that sell the equipment. (Richardson 1972: 310). At present there is an almost complete absence of quality programs for classroom use. (Lally 1971: 22).

There are also formidable technical problems. Systems manufactured by competing companies are not all standardized. And the equipment itself is still expensive and — worse — intimidating to the ordinary teacher. Production is very time-consuming and fraught with equipment failure and scheduling and coordination nightmares. (Paulston 1972: 30). Yet the end product must be slick enough to capture the attention of students jaded by a lifetime of exposure to commercial television.

Despite all this, the outlook is bright. It is possible to produce programs that are 'good videotape' with simple equipment and teachers are being trained to do this. (Rickard 1975: 7). Manufacturers are continually trying to further simplify and decrease the cost of equipment. The videocassette machine, for example, likely will take the mystery out of videotape equipment. (Richardson 1972: 310). All things considered, "... the first steps have been made, and without doubt the video revolution is underway." (Murray 1975: 16-17).

## AFTERWORD

Much of the social science study associated with the active use of videotape is anecdotal and that research which does attempt empirical clarification is inconclusive (Decker 1975: 7).

The bulk of research accomplished by utilizing videotape does not tell us how the tapes were assembled ... without such information, the reader is deprived of the information

necessary to evaluate the method and results of the study as well as to replicate it — a hallmark of science. (Decker 1975: 8).

However, findings do suggest some tentative guidelines. With certain individuals there are emotional dangers; and so it is necessary to be cautious, to structure the experience and convince the participants of its value. Participants need to be relaxed in front of the camera before the tape can be representative of a realistic experience and not merely a series of interpersonal contacts performed for the camera. The session should be planned to include playback of the tape immediately afterwards. During the playback free viewing should be avoided; attention should be directed toward those individuals and behaviors felt important by the practitioner. (Clift 1973: 19).

Above all, it is necessary to be wary of the possible distortion of reality introduced by active use of videotape — the medium is not objective. The same problems a human observer must confront in guarding against selective perception also apply to the cinematographer (Decker 1975: 10):

The moment the cinematographer sets up in the laboratory or in the field, selects a scene in the viewfinder, and pushes the starter button, his whole personality has been brought into play, and a theoretically objective technique has changed into a subjective statement. (Michaelis 1955: 167).

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# 英語の動詞に対する新たなアプローチ

*Lance Knowles*

この論文は、今までとは違ったアプローチの仕方で動詞というものをとらえようとしています。動詞にはいろいろな形態がありますが、ここではとりわけ(1)条件文、(2)間接話法、(3)過去、(4)現在完了・過去完了等の動詞の持つ意味を教えるうえで便宜上 Remoteness と Phase の概念が導入されています。

上記の様な形態では動詞をどのように組み立てればいいかを知っていながら実際にそれを使う段になると途方にくれる学生の姿をしばしば見かけます。

この理由について筆者は、問題の形態の本当の意味が今までの教え方によって歪められ、混乱しているのではないかと提言しています。

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# A Different Approach to the English Verb

*Lance Knowles*

This article is the result of continued frustration in trying to simplify the presentation of the English verb to E.S.L./E.F.L. students. As a quick look through almost any text will show, the English verb is commonly presented as having so many 'tenses' (present simple, pres. continuous, pres. perfect simple, etc . . .) that a mere listing of them is enough to confuse not only students but a good many teachers as well, native speakers included. To make things worse the introduction of this morass of verb forms is most often accomplished in terms of standard situations, formulae (cue phrases or words), or rules (usually with countless exceptions), and very little effort, if any at all, is made by the teacher to reveal what subtle connections exist between these forms which might possibly serve to integrate them into something manageable, both logically and practically. (For example the relationship between what is usually called the 'conditional tense' and the 'past tense', which will be touched on later in this paper, can be greatly simplified if it is pointed out that they both have the same *basic* meaning.)

Verb *forms* per se have dominated in importance over verb form *meanings* to the extent that even when a student can parrot his/her way through tense drills flawlessly, all too often he/she is totally unable (or unwilling) to converse in anything other than the simple present 'tense' outside of the drill situation. The intermediate or

post-intermediate student knows how to construct most forms, but is still unsure of the meaning, except in very limited situations.

The traditional approach to teaching the meanings denoted or connoted by various verb forms has been to use such things as time cues or graphs, or by saying some such nonsense as 'past within the present', and has often, at least to me, seemed forced and artificial – if not wrong or misleading. Taken literally such an approach is at best hit or miss, and students often do just that, take the rules and time ideas literally and then recite them back when asked to explain why a particular mistaken form was chosen, (present and past perfect especially), their explanation often making perfect sense.

The student has been conditioned to look for cues or standard situations rather than meaning, and is confused if anything else turns up. Take this example:

A: Have you ever been to the States?

B: Yes, three years ago.

A student might well be puzzled here because 'three years ago' signals the simple past, whereas in traditional pattern practice the 'perfect' question asks for a 'perfect' answer. Of course in this case the answer *is* in the 'perfect', though it has been left unsaid after the 'Yes', and the second part of the answer merely anticipates the normal follow-up question: "When?" The student's approach in terms of cues and rules has left him baffled because he has been taught to rely on them rather than to look for meaning intended or expressed, which is what allows the native speaker to by-pass cues and take numerous linguistic short-cuts.

In such cases as the above is it the student who is to blame, or could it be that the teacher has unwittingly presented a schema which is at least partially incorrect, a schema not really suited to the English verb at all, but which has been borrowed from Latin or other languages?

With this thought in mind I took particular note of a book entitled: *THE ENGLISH VERB* (Joos 1968). The author, Martin Joos, presented a different approach, an entirely different schema with which to view and analyze the English predicate, and succeeded in illuminating several troublesome aspects of the verb in what I felt to be a refreshing new light. It is the goal of this paper to

sketch through some of the insights gained with Joos' schema in mind, and to suggest how they might be applied in the classroom, in particular the two concepts: (1) Remote Tense, and (2) Perfect Phase.

## VERB SCHEMA:

Figure I is a summary of the schema to be discussed, and is presented with only slight modification from that in Joos' book (Joos 1968: 101). The reader should pay particular note to the categories, Tense and Phase. The other categories in the schema have been included only for those who wish to see how Tense and Phase fit in with the schema in its entirety. (Joos' book discusses them at length.)

FIGURE I

CATEGORY:	<u>Tense</u>	<u>Assertion</u>	<u>Phase</u>	<u>Aspect</u>	<u>Voice</u>	<u>Function</u>
unmarked:	Actual Tense	Factual Assertion	Current Phase	Generic Aspect	Neutral Voice	Propredicate Function
marked:	Remote Tense	Relative Assertion	Perfect Phase	Temporary Aspect	Passive Voice	Verb Function
(marker):	(-d)	(modals)	(have -n) (be -ing)	(be -n)	(be -n)	(verb: show, write go, tell, etc.)

Explanation: There are six categories of *meaning* with which to describe the predicate, and for each category there is a marked and an unmarked form. (By choosing a marked or unmarked form a speaker chooses the message to be conveyed by that category.) A verb is marked Remote Tense, for example, by taking the marker, (-d), which means the usual 'past tense' form (i.e. the Remote Tense of 'have' is 'had', the Remote of 'is' is 'was', or: (-d) go = went, (-d) bring = brought, (-d) come = came.) The Relative Assertion marker is merely the use of any of the following modals in the predicate: will, shall, must, can, may, ought to, need, dare. (For example the predicate in "I must go," has *Relative Assertion* and *Actual Tense*, whereas the predicate in "I go," has *Factual*

Assertion (no modal was used), and *Actual* Tense. The *Perfect* Phase marker is the following form: have + 'past perfect' participle of the verb which occurs next in order in the predicate. e.g. (have -n) show = have shown, (have -n) be = have been. If Voice is also marked, i.e. Passive Voice, then we have: (have -n) (be -n) show = have been shown. (Perfect Phase, Passive Voice) Definitions for each of the markers can be found in Appendix I of this paper, and the use of them will be illustrated in the following examples and in Appendix II.

In the examples each predicate *form* will be described by use of a six-place binary number, (XXXXXX), where X can be either 1 or 0. The six-places stand for each of the six categories: Tense, Assertion, Phase, Aspect, Voice, Function; and if a category is marked, for example Remote Tense, then a '1' will occupy the Tense position, (1XXXXX). Similarly, if a category is unmarked, a '0' will fill that space, (0XXXXX). Thus (001011) means that the predicate has: Actual Tense, Factual Assertion, Perfect Phase, Generic Aspect, Passive Voice, and Verb Function (see Appendix I for definitions of markers). An example of a predicate with form (001011) is, "Money *has been given* to him."

(XXXXXX):	(Tense, Assertion, Phase, Aspect, Voice, Function)					
(001011):	(Actual, Factual, Perfect, Generic, Passive, Verb)					
(marker)	(-d)	(modal)	(have -n)	(be -ing)	(be -n)	(give)
example:	0	0	1	0	1	1
	unmarked	unmarked	HAS	unmarked	BEEN	GIVEN

Example:

000111: "He *is being taken* to prison." (<sup>0</sup>Actual, <sup>0</sup>Factual, <sup>0</sup>Current, <sup>1</sup>Temporary, <sup>1</sup>Passive, <sup>1</sup>Verb) 'Take' is the verb, and its suffix, (-n), comes from the Passive Voice marker, as does the 'be'. The suffix 'ing' on 'be' comes from the Temporary Aspect marker as does 'is', since 'is' is the form of 'be' which fits the subject, 'he'. For further examples, including the form (XXXXX0), Propredicate Function, please consult Appendix II.

With this schema in the background we are now ready to narrow our focus to the main subject of this paper: TENSE AND PHASE; and, of course, how it can be useful in the classroom.

## TENSE:

In the schema just presented you should note that there are only two tenses: (1) the unmarked tense is called ACTUAL, and (2) the marked tense is called REMOTE. To get a feel for what it means to mark a verb REMOTE TENSE, let's look at a few examples:

(1) "John *has* his wallet." ACTUAL TENSE. This unmarked tense predication means that the possession of the wallet is contemporary and real to the person speaking.

(2) "John *had* his wallet." REMOTE TENSE. This marked form means that the possession of the wallet is somehow absent, or remote, from the contemporary, real world of the person speaking — in this case historical reality.

(3) "If he *had* his wallet he could pay." REMOTE TENSE. This marked form again has the meaning that the possession of the wallet is somehow absent, or remote, from the contemporary, real world of the person speaking — in this case contemporary *unreality*. The word 'if' signals 'possibility', or 'hypothesis', and the Tense signals remoteness, in this case unreal, though contemporary in time.

(4) "She said John *had* his wallet." REMOTE TENSE. (The sentence here is an answer to: "Who did she say had his wallet?") Note: In this example it should be noted that contemporary time is obvious to the listener through the situation and is part of the message always implicit within context. In this case the words she actually spoke were: "John has his wallet." The Remote Tense form, 'had', then marks reported, or remote, speech, and the message is that the quotation is being given second hand, or is absent from the contemporary, real world of the person speaking. If we want to report speech as if it were actually happening before us, then we must use the Actual Tense form: "She said: "John *has* his wallet," and perhaps imitate her voice.

From just these few examples we can see a definite thread

running through what are normally seen and taught as unrelated: (1) Past tense, (2) Conditional, and (3) Reported Speech. That they have exactly the same verb form, in this case, 'had', (Remote Tense), is clear, and yet they are taught separately, as if there were no connection. They are taught with no regard to the primary meaning they all have in common, i.e. remoteness. Of course the secondary meanings vary, (sometimes indicated by cues, sometimes not – often indicated solely by context or even intonation), and yet the definite relationship which unites them, and which makes the verb form easy to understand, is never mentioned.

A definition of the Remote Tense is: the marked form of the predicate which means that the referent (what is specified by the subject-verb partnership) is absent from that part of the real world where the verb is being spoken (Joos 1968: 149).

The important thing to notice here is that time itself is no longer synonymous with tense, because 'absence from the real world' means absence in the sense of either time or reality, or even thought. For example the choice of the Remote Tense 'had' in the sentence: "He *would work* if he *had* a hammer, but he *doesn't*" (110001),(100000),(000000), has nothing whatever to do with past time, but rather expresses contemporary 'unreality'. The fact is that he *isn't* working, because he *doesn't have* a hammer. The meaning of Tense is either Actual, or Remote, and the secondary meanings are distinguishable only by use of other pointers, i.e. context, intonation.

At this point it is important to note that the Remote Tense does not carry the meaning of futurity. In English, future time is considered 'actual', not remote from the speaker. We don't speak about a future time as such, but rather our relation, intended, planned, probable, with it (Joos 1968: 134–136)<sup>1</sup> (In fact, future time is often, but not always, expressed by using relative Assertion – see Appendix I – with the Actual Tense). For example the following sentence can express either future or present time with absolutely no change in tense, in this case Actual Tense: "John

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<sup>1</sup> This rather important point is discussed at several points in Joos' book, particularly in the section on the ASSERTION CATEGORY, Chapter VI

is going to the United States.” If this sentence is spoken while we are at the airport watching John’s plane lift off the runway then the meaning is quite obviously contemporary, and factual – either true or false – but if John is sitting across from us at a baseball game in Tokyo then we know that the time referred to can’t possibly be contemporary, but has to be future, perhaps tomorrow, perhaps in six months, but certainly not now; and we have a *prediction* relative to fate and the world. (No truth value can be assigned at this point in time.)

The Actual Tense means that an event is being expressed in ‘here and now’ terms, and yet the time of the occurrence, or possible occurrence, is left wide open, most often determined contextually in such a way that all but the intended time is ruled out by conflicting with what is already known in context. It’s even possible to refer to events in the historical past by use of the Actual Tense, and if one does so, for example by using the Historical Present Narrative, (Joos 1968: 131)<sup>2</sup> then its effect is to bring the listener into the narration as if it were happening before his eyes.

The use of the Remote Tense marker, (-d), however, eliminates meanings allowed by Actual Tense in a way similar to a camera filter that allows through only specified wavelengths of light. Once the Remote Tense marker is used, the idea of remoteness is forced, and the ‘here and now’ possibility is ruled out; we know quite specifically that one of several remote messages is intended. With the aid of context or cues it is then quite simple to pick out which message is meant, though they are all Remote.

The English speaker, like a photographer, often has a choice of whether or not to use a marked form (filter) or not; and it is partly because of this characteristic that the English verb is as flexible and

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<sup>2</sup>The narrative use of the actual tense is not the same as a running commentary on what is happening before one’s eyes, because the ASPECTS are used as if the verb were in the remote tense. There is an example of this on page 132 of Joos’ book and it begins like this: “Before anyone quite realizes what is happening there is somewhere a kind of exercise-book and it has gone from counsel to the usher and is now in front of Nurse Stronach, who at once *begins* to turn the pages . . .” Running commentary would be: “I’m afraid I don’t quite realize what is happening. There seems to be a kind of exercise-book. Now it has gone from counsel to the usher, and now it’s in front of Nurse Stronach. She *is beginning* to turn the pages . . .”



interesting as it is — and why it so often resists the neat but incorrect rules cited on its behalf. Using the English verb is more an art than a science in this respect.

Now we will discuss how this new approach to Tense can be useful in the classroom. First of all it is not intended that this schema be presented as such to students; but rather that it should help guide the teacher in organizing a presentation, i.e. dialogues, contextual situations (ideally, thematically tied together) (Harshbarger 1976), so that the relationship between form and meaning of the verb can be fully appreciated, and in a practical way. The idea of 'remoteness', for example, can be very useful in teaching what has traditionally been called the 'conditional tense.' Take this sentence: "If he *didn't* always *insist on* doing things his own way, (100001), then he *wouldn't be* so unpopular." (110001)

Note: 'would' is the remote tense of 'will'. Both clauses are marked Remote Tense. But first we must remember that this sentence is never uttered just by itself, but is always encountered in context, and should therefore be taught that way; therefore it should be presented as it would naturally occur, (Harshbarger 1976) or at least in terms of a short dialogue:

A: ---

B: ---

A: Nobody wants him to come to the party.

B: Well, if he *didn't* always *insist on* doing things his own way, he *wouldn't be* so unpopular.

Now of course the time is obviously contemporary (context makes this obvious), and since the verbs are marked remote (100001, 110001), it isn't difficult to conclude that unreality is the remote message meant, especially since 'if' marks 'hypothesis' (though it can be either a real or unreal hypothesis). To get this across to a class a series of rapid-fire questions like the following can be quite useful:

Q: "Is he popular? REAL

A: "No." (If a student or class answers "Yes," then don't

correct, but rather immediately follow-up with, "Then why doesn't anybody want him to come to the party?") REAL

Q: "Why isn't he popular?" REAL

A: "He isn't popular because he always insists on doing things his own way." REAL

Q: "Suppose he didn't. If he didn't insist on doing things his own way, would he still be unpopular?" UNREAL

A: "No, he wouldn't." UNREAL

Q: "But he does, doesn't he, so what about the party?" REAL

A: "Nobody wants him to come." REAL

Notice how we're shifting back and forth, from real to unreal, from actual meaning to remote meaning; and of course the time never changes. Here is another example:

A: Oh, what a beautiful sight!

B: If John  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{had brought} \\ \text{had} \end{array} \right\}$  his camera, we *could* get a good picture.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (101001) \\ (100001) \end{array} \right\}$  (110001)

Q: "Are they going to take a picture?" (000001)

A: "No." (000000)

Q: "Why not?" (000000)

A: "They can't. They don't have a camera." (010000) (000001)

Q: "Why don't they?" (000000)

A: "John doesn't have his camera." (000001)

Q: "Suppose John had his camera, then what?" (1000001)

A: "They would take a picture." (110001)

Q: "That's right. They would if they could, but they can't."

As in these examples, it's important to have students mixing forms, thereby giving them practice both understanding and using these concepts as they really occur outside the classroom. Don't mix forms arbitrarily, of course, but so that meaning can be revealed, and so that students can have practice expressing that meaning. One more example:

If I  $\begin{Bmatrix} go \\ went \end{Bmatrix}$  with you, I  $\begin{Bmatrix} ll \\ d \end{Bmatrix}$  have to be back by this evening. The top line is Actual Tense and expresses that the possibility is viewed as real (greater than 50% chance of happening) and the bottom line is Remote Tense and expresses that the possibility is relatively unreal (less than 50% chance of happening). So the teacher might ask questions that bring out that difference, and then, of course ask students to do the same. Now that the students understand the meaning rather than just form, they should have little difficulty.

Teaching the historical-past, unreal meaning and its relationship to the Remote Tense is somewhat more difficult:

“It was quite a sight.”

“If John *had had* his camera, we *could have taken* a good picture.”

Note that both predicates are marked Remote Tense, Perfect Phase, (101001, 111001). This verb form often has the meaning of historical past and unreality; but it is important to know that such a meaning is not forced. Past-meaning is usually the case, but in fact the time dimension is not fixed by the verb form, and again must be decided in context and by the meaning of the verb itself. To see this: “If he’d *studied* English for as long as you *have* he *wouldn’t be* so reticent.” (101001, 001000, 110001) This example most clearly expresses contemporary unreality, not past unreality. Another example: “If he *hadn’t died* so suddenly (last week), he *would have spent* next week preparing his will.” (101001, 111001) In this case the first clause obviously refers to the past, and the second refers to the future.

In both examples just cited the ‘if’ clauses have exactly the same verb form, 101001, and yet their place in time is different. The only thing we definitely know is that the meaning is remote, and we must look to context and other clues to know exactly what time is meant, which by now should be no surprise at all, since the grip that time has traditionally held on verb discussions is obviously only an illusory one at best. Once again a series of rapid questions to insure competence in understanding and expressing meaning

appears to be a good way to drill this in the classroom. Ideally, if there is a thematic approach to teaching the class (Harshbarger 1976), then such drills will hardly be drills at all, but merely a natural part of the linguistic function called for via thematic considerations.

#### PHASE:

The concept of Phase has already been alluded to several times in this paper, and is another useful idea to emerge from Joos' analysis. I think it provides a fairly clear understanding of why the 'perfect tenses' have so often been confusing to students. First of all, the Perfect Phase is not a tense at all, but rather it expresses something completely different, a different *relationship* between the subject and predicate, a relationship which changes the function of the predicate by emphasizing the predicated event's *result* on the grammatical subject. The state of the subject as the result of the predication is focused on, rather than the predication itself. To put it simpler, the predicate is reduced to a kind of modifier (which expresses the current state of the subject as the result of a predication 'out of phase' (Joos 1968: 139) with the time of assertion). 'Out of phase' means that the time of the predicated event is unable to be determined in and of itself, but rather is determined *relative* to some *other* predication. (Examples will follow shortly to make this clear.) Since the *other* predication is *subsequent* to the perfect phase predication, the secondary meaning of Perfect Phase is something like 'previous to'; and unfortunately this is usually what is considered to be the primary meaning. This misses the point entirely that the primary meaning of Perfect Phase is that the subject-verb relationship is altered.

Example: "John walked in the door and the telephone rang." This sentence indicates that the first action in the narrative is John walking in the door, and then, later, or almost at the same time — but not before — the telephone rang. Both actions have been given equal weight in the narrative, and, importantly, there is no relationship linking them. But in this sentence: "John had walked in the door when the telephone rang," the emphasis of the narrative

is clearly on the second event, the telephone ringing, and the *state* of John when it happened. The use of the Perfect Phase marker de-emphasizes John's walking and has the effect of 'setting the stage' for the telephone to ring — in fact, it points to it. John walking in is more a description of John than a presentation of his action. "John had walked in the door," is an incomplete statement without something to follow it — we are left leaning forward, waiting to hear what comes next. But "John walked in the door," stands by itself, safe and sure in its own world and time.

It is interesting to point out here that writers use this meaning of the Perfect Phase marker to help build suspense. By carefully using the Perfect, events can be linked, and a sense of anticipation can be introduced into a narrative. (See Appendix III).

The role of the verb is changed by the Perfect Phase marker then, and is denied an independent place or time for itself. It does nothing at all to advance the plot or report action, but rather sets the scene for an event that will. Again, the time for such a Perfect Phase event must be understood in reference to the subsequent main event, for the Perfect Phase marker takes an event out of absolute time and makes it relative (out of phase) — previous.

Example: "I've been to America twice, but I still can't speak English very well." To know the time he was in America requires an additional question and answer: "When were you there?" or "Oh, when did you go to America?" followed by an answer like "Last year." The Perfect Phase marker, (have -n), in this case, 've been, indicates an Actual state of having done something, and is almost a characterization. We are not talking about an act or an event which took place sometime in the definite or indefinite past (since the speaker might be sitting before you in the same room in Japan and has quite obviously been there for some time), but is information about the subject, 'I', at the time of discourse. (The message is Actual.) Once again the point to notice is that the use of the Perfect Phase marker shifts attention toward the subject and away from the verb — the verb is subordinated *in function* to something like a modifier. There is certainly a reference to a previous time, because the *result* of the predication has been built up by events previous to the time of assertion; but that is secondary and should not be

overplayed as it almost always is. Students should *not* be told to look in time for the meaning of Perfect Phase. Students must be guided into the realization that Perfect and Current Phases present a different focus: "What are we talking about here, the person or his trip?" In a case like: "I had studied English for five years," the question to ask is: "What then?" This of course emphasizes that such a sentence cannot stand by itself and must be linked to something else. If the message to be expressed is that 'he had studied English for five years' then it must be expressed as either (1) I have studied English for five years, or (2) I studied English for five years. (when I was in college). (1) expresses the Actual *state* of 'I' at the time of utterance and (2) expresses the Remote *predication*, 'studied for five years', (when I was in college).

## CONCLUSION:

This paper has been a sketch, and is far from complete in its scope; yet hopefully it's clear by now that the ideas presented, particularly TENSE and PHASE, can reveal a great deal about how the English verb actually operates; and this is invaluable to a good English teacher. Also it should be clear by now that context is a vital determiner in choosing between various possible meanings which a verb form will allow. It would seem obvious too, that presentation of verb forms outside of context should be avoided as much as possible in the classroom, especially at or above intermediate levels. For these students it's often the case that given a drill situation they do quite well rattling off the correct answers, but in any other situation flounder about helplessly, completely unable to integrate and use what they've been drilling. Keeping in mind just two Tenses, Actual and Remote, instead of a confusing bagful, a teacher can more easily guide and stimulate discussions so that minimum confusion and wasted effort occur and so that meaning emerges.

The English verb is not dry and uninteresting, but is like a fine camera with different lenses and filters. The right or wrong choice is not the way to look at a scene, but rather which lens, or verb-form, would express best the intended message. This kind of question

cannot be answered unless verb-form meaning is understood in the same way that a good photographer understands his equipment — as an artist rather than a dry technician. As difficult as this might seem at first, its end result is to simplify, and, as a by-product, stimulate some hard thinking in an area of vital importance to the E.S.L./E.F.L. teacher, that has been taken for granted for too long, and by too many.

## APPENDIX I

### DEFINITIONS OF CATEGORY MARKERS (Joos 1968: 199):

**VERB FUNCTION:** (marker: show, give, go, read, want, ...) None of the predicate's meaning is to be guessed-in, i.e. the predicate is complete. Example: "Would you *like* to go?" "Yes, I would." The predicate in the question is complete, whereas the verb 'like' has been left-out of the predicate in the answer and must be guessed-in. Thus the first has *marked* VERB FUNCTION, and the second has *unmarked* PROPREDICATE FUNCTION. (Further examples can be found in Appendix II)

**PASSIVE VOICE:** (marker: be -n): The grammatical subject does not designate the actor. Example: "They *were given* two tickets."

**TEMPORARY ASPECT:** (marker: be-ing): The validity of the predication vanishes outside a certain span of time. Example: "He usually plays tennis like an expert, but today *is playing* badly." It would sound quite strange to end the sentence like "... but today plays badly," because part of the message intended is that his bad playing is temporary. Likewise, in this example: "He *is waiting* for the bus," expresses something temporary, whereas "He waits for the bus everyday at five o'clock," does not. Another example: "He is a doctor," means that his profession is medicine, whereas "He is being a doctor," implies that he might be pretending or playing the part.

**PERFECT PHASE:** (Have -n): The specified event is not interesting for its own sake, but rather its results, or what follows. The state of being of the subject is pointed at, rather than the action content of the verb. Example: "He has been to the United States." The specified event happened in the past, but the message of the sentence is entirely in the present because the use of the Perfect Phase has focused our attention on the state of being of the subject, 'he'. Thus 'he' *is* someone who at one time went to the United States, just like 'he' *is* short, fat, and twenty-three years old.

**REMOTE TENSE :(-d) :**The specified event is absent from the scene of the asserting: it is in the historical past, or unreal, or in some other way remote (as in reported speech.)

**FACTUAL ASSERTION:** (unmarked): The *event* alluded to has a definite truth value: it is either true or false at the time and place of assertion. "He *went* to dinner last night," "He *is planning* to go to the United States next year." Both statements are either true or false, but "The ship will leave next Tuesday," has no determinable truth value until next Tuesday has come and gone.

**RELATIVE ASSERTION:** (marker: will, shall, etc. . .) There is no such truth value with respect to occurrence of the event; what is asserted is instead a specific *relation* between that event and the factual world . . .



## APPENDIX II

- 000000: (Actual, Factual, Current, Generic, Neutral, Propredicate)  
A predicate with this form, all categories unmarked, is quite common in conversation. Example: "Yes, I *do*." This is an answer to something like, "Do you want something to eat?" In the answer the verb, 'want', has been left out to be guessed in by the listener – hence Propredicate Function. 'Do' serves as a pointer only, and in this case is meaningless by itself, since without hearing the question there is no possible way to know what it would refer to.
- 100100: "You were planning to go, *weren't* you?" (another example of Propredicate Function)
- 001001: "*has decided*" (ACTUAL, FACTUAL, PERFECT, GENERIC, NEUTRAL, VERB)
- 001011: "*has been decided*" (ACTUAL, FACTUAL, PERFECT, GENERIC, PASSIVE, VERB)
- 010011: "*Will be decided*" (0, RELATIVE, 0, 0, PASSIVE, VERB)  
                ASSERTION       VOICE    FUNCTION
- 100100: "Yes, I *was*." (as an answer to "Were you planning to go?")  
In this example note that ASPECT is marked TEMPORAL because the answer, if fully completed, would be: "Yes, I was planning to go."
- 100101: "Yes, I *was*." (as an answer to "Were you there?" )
- 101101: "The phone *had been ringing* for five minutes when . . ."
- 111011: "He *would have been arrested*, but . . ." ('would' is the Remote Tense form of 'will')
- 111111: It is interesting to note that this form is never spoken in English, though it is logically allowed by this schema. An example would be:  
"The bell *would have been being rung*."

## APPENDIX III

An illustration of how the Perfect Phase Marker can be used to link-up events in a way which builds suspense in a narrative description:

EXAMPLE: (Grammatically correct, but flat and uninspiring)

The night was cold and stormy. The men fished for three hours. Then the moon went behind a cloud and the sky darkened. Suddenly something rammed the boat.

Each event is separate. The first sentence is background; the second sentence expresses an action quite independent of what follows, as does the third; and the last sentence comes as just another, not special in any way, except perhaps by being introduced by the word 'suddenly' in a last ditch effort to add suspense — of course by this point it's too late.

EXAMPLE: (After inserting the Phase Marker — a dramatic change)

The night was cold and stormy. The men *had been* fishing for three hours when the moon went behind a cloud and the sky darkened. Suddenly something rammed the boat.

Though the time sequence is the same as in the first example, the effect is entirely different. The sentences are linked. The fact that 'the moon went behind a cloud and the sky darkened' is now significant, because it has been pointed to by the perfect 'had been fishing'. We know there is something special about this time, so we are waiting to find out what is about to happen — this, of course, is how suspense is built. The event, 'the men had been fishing . . .' is no longer independent, but rather points to something further along. By carefully, and lightly, planting such 'seeds' of suspense in a narrative, a skillful writer can keep tension in what might otherwise be a dull series of unrelated events. Once again we see how a grammatical device is far from being dry and uninteresting; it should be regarded in the same way as an artist regards various colors and techniques of application. Blindly following 'rules' leads to a bland rendering of even the most beautiful subject.

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# EFLにおける Values Clarification (価値観解明法)

*Mary Taylor*

この論文では言語学習の中にアメリカの新しい教育哲学を取り入れることを試みています。

この理論は Values Clarification (価値観解明法) と呼ばれていて、学生個人の価値観や思想に焦点を置くことにより、学生が自分達の信念をどのように形成して行くかを理解する助けとなります。

Taylor 女史は、この手法がどのように機能して学生が英語でコミュニケーションを行なえるようになるかを考察しています。

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# Values Clarification in EFL

*Mary Taylor*

Values Clarification, an exciting innovation in modern education, has contributed some new ideas to English as a Foreign Language teaching. In the course of this paper I would like to briefly discuss the origins of Values Clarification theory, its goals and approaches, and how it can provide some solutions to the goals of EFL teaching.

## VALUES CLARIFICATION – BACKGROUND AND TECHNIQUES

Values Clarification is a fairly recent arrival on the American educational scene. Developed primarily by Sidney B. Simon of the University of Massachusetts, and based on work by Louis Rath, it was created in response to low student interest in the standard school curriculum. In a move away from the traditional view of education, Values Clarification places “prime emphasis on the students’ personal growth rather than merely their intellectual development.” (Howe 1975: 18) The term ‘values’ can be interpreted as beliefs, opinions, and preferences. Values Clarification is used by elementary and high school teachers of a wide variety of subjects: history, English, science, etc.

The creators of Values Clarification chose to emphasize students’ personal growth through helping students learn to (Howe 1975: 19):

1. Choose their values freely.
2. Choose their values from alternatives.
3. Choose their values after weighing the consequences of each alternative.
4. Prize and cherish their values.
5. Share and publicly affirm their values.
6. Act upon their values.
7. Act upon their values repeatedly and consistently.

The approach to achieving these goals has several parts. First, it is felt that a sense of community, supportive and non-competitive, is important. This in turn encourages idea-sharing and risk-taking. The idea-sharing is fostered by group work and interaction. Another important part of the approach is experiential learning. Students participate in problem solving and through their experiences gain knowledge both of the subject and the process of finding solutions.

In order to put these approaches into action in the classroom, a number of exercises were developed and given the name of 'strategies.' Some of the strategies are 'one-shot' exercises which are only used once with a particular class, such as the Alligator River story outlined in Simon's *Values Clarification*. (Simon 1972: 290-294). Most of the strategies, however, can be classified into one of five basic types: interviewing, rank-ordering, forced choice, values continuum, and sentence completion. As these form the 'nuts and bolts' of Values Clarification, I would like to go into them in greater depth.

*Interviewing.* This strategy consists of the class interviewing one of its members. The students may ask any question they wish, but the interviewee is not obliged to answer anything he does not want to. This exercise can be used to help students find out about one another's backgrounds, and about beliefs, opinions, feelings, etc. Some samples. (Simon 1972: 140-143):

1. Did you go on a vacation this year? If you could go anywhere in the world you wanted to next year, where would you go?

2. Do you wish you had a larger family or a smaller family?
3. Do you watch TV much? How much?
4. What did you do last night?
5. Have you ever made a choice that surprised everyone?
6. What is one thing you would like to learn before you die?

*Rank-ordering.* This strategy requires a ranking of a number of comparable things. The ranking can be according to importance (either to the student or to society), expense, frequency of occurrence (as with hobbies), amount the student likes them, etc. The things to be ranked can be professions, hobbies, food, famous people, crimes, etc. An example of this kind of exercise could be the following:

Rank the following professions according to their social prestige. Put '1' beside the profession which in your opinion has the highest social prestige, '2' beside the second highest, and so on to '10'.

- \_\_\_ policeman
- \_\_\_ Supreme Court judge
- \_\_\_ public school teacher
- \_\_\_ author of novels
- \_\_\_ college professor
- \_\_\_ scientist
- \_\_\_ dentist
- \_\_\_ lawyer
- \_\_\_ Shinto priest
- \_\_\_ famous potter

*Forced choice.* In this type of strategy, students are given only a limited number of answers from which to select the one with which they agree the most. For example, a forced choice exercise could contain one or more of the following (Simon 1972: 64-65):

1. Whom would you prefer to marry? A person with
  - \_\_\_ intelligence
  - \_\_\_ personality
  - \_\_\_ sex appeal

- Values Continuum.* This strategy is a way to enable the students to visualize the range of opinions on a given subject. A statement concerning the subject at hand is made and put on the board. After it is on the board, each student comes and writes his initials on the line. If the topic is crime, the following could be a values continuum for that topic:

Agree \_\_\_\_\_ Agree  
0% 100%

‘On vacations, I like to . . . .’  
I always . . . . at night.’  
‘Many people don’t agree with me about . . . .’  
‘The happiest day in my life was . . . .’  
‘When I’m at home alone, I . . . .’

## APPLICATION TO THE GOALS OF EFL

Many of the approaches of Values Clarification help fulfill some important goals that I have for my EFL classes. The first goal is to decrease the anxiety and embarrassment of making mistakes. A classroom is a place where students should test their understanding of English, receiving help and positive feedback. This testing process necessitates mistakes to be made, risks to be taken, on the part of the students. However, many students, particularly self-conscious ones, are afraid of seeming fools and would rather sacrifice learning than run the risk of being laughed at by the others.

A second goal, certainly a commonly shared one, is to provide for my classes meaningful, real contexts in which to use English. Grammatically-oriented texts that cheerfully and confusingly skip from one subject to another, throwing in a few strained dialogs for 'reality', leave students wondering how the structures are used in *real* communication. In trying to answer the student's need to use the grammar in meaningful contexts, the teacher often goes too far afield or chooses a subject that may be interesting only to him. Frequently the teacher becomes as strained as the textbook because he is trying to guess at what is interesting to the students.

A third goal which is closely related to the second is to provide a focus for meaningful discussions. Even when a teacher has chosen a topic of general interest, it may be too large for students to tackle, particularly in a second language. Especially abstract or slippery topics, such as the recent Lockheed scandal in Japan, can overwhelm students unless there is a handle they can grasp. Narrowing the discussion down to one small manageable area avoids the heavy, anxious silence which often greets an overly open discussion topic.

Throughout the above goals my fourth objective constantly emerges. This is acquiring a grasp of how English works as a tool of communication. Wanting to express a feeling or idea, students are often bewildered as to which of the grammatically correct structures best communicates their exact position. Even when there is no anxiety on the part of the student, there can be confusion as to how to present his ideas best. Learning that the comparative



structure communicates exactly his idea of 'rape is worse than burglary' is learning how to operate the tool of English. It is more than learning grammatical correctness; it is grasping the way to use the grammar to express ideas. When a student says, for example, that 'being a dentist is better for your life than being a Shinto priest,' he soon discovers through questionings that this statement does *not* express his real opinion that 'being a dentist is more financially secure than being a Shinto priest.' An understanding of how to manipulate the language to convey your ideas correctly and clearly is thus an important skill to acquire.

My last goal is one which applies primarily to the Japanese students I have been teaching for some years. This goal I have entitled 'learning the Western argumentation process.' Japanese in particular freeze at the thought of expressing their feelings in a large group. As they are born and raised in a society that teaches them to avoid open conflict, this behavior is not surprising. However, if these same students are going to the United States or England, or will have to deal with Westerners in Japan, they will be interacting with people brought up on the idea of arguing and discussing as ways to knowledge. More simply, Westerners love to talk, disagree, convince, even if the only thing at issue is whether it will rain the next day. In the realm of politics, disagreements can become heated, statements vehement. Based on the observation of Westerners conversing, the general Japanese concensus is that foreigners are often angry at each other. Even the business manager of our school who has daily contact with Americans commented to this effect during his first trip to the U.S. "I'm amazed," he said after a few days of eaves-dropping and observation, "at how upset everyone is all the time. People seem so intense and forceful about everything!"

Of course, the truth of the matter is somewhat different from the Japanese conception. Westerners not only like the process of arguing, they are expected to engage in it. An American who seldom expresses an opinion is usually regarded as 'wishy-washy', or at least not very interesting. Teaching Japanese to see arguing as Westerners themselves see it takes much more than a simple statement of fact. Moreover, if it's a skill the students will need,

they must practice it. In Western business dealings and social situations, Japanese will run the risk of having the expression of their ideas frustrated unless they know how to present and defend them. They might also be deemed 'not interesting' or 'wishy-washy', false and sad judgments which will block cross-cultural understanding. Since the Japanese will be functioning in English, they will be expected to be able, and should be able, to argue forcefully and according to the Western style.

These, then are the goals I have for my EFL classes. A comparison of the approaches of Values Clarification with these goals shows how compatible they can be. A sense of community can provide the support and warmth necessary to decrease students' anxieties. The positive feelings from working together and sharing ideas creates an atmosphere of trust where students are not laughed at for making mistakes. On the contrary, the student who makes a mistake is helped by the others. The helpers thus learn themselves from the mistake, and the fear of risk-taking is decreased for all as they see how mistakes can be a positive learning experience.

One way Values Clarification builds this sense of community is by fostering students' curiosity about others. The interviewing technique in particular is utilized for this. All of the strategies, however, encourage the idea-sharing and risk-taking that are part of a sense of community.

As to providing meaningful contexts for using English, Values Clarification can be a great aid in filling this gap. The approach of experiential learning as well as the overall emphasis on students' values opens up a huge, unlimited mine of discussion topics. Talking about your own ideas and beliefs, and learning others', are always real and meaningful situations for which language is the medium. The teacher constantly searching for interesting topics is usually trying to bring *in* those subjects, not realizing that a wealth of ideas lies in the people in the classroom. Values Clarification provides strategies like a rank ordering to encourage this experiential learning and examination of personal ideas. Thus, if a class has completed a unit on talking about jobs, by providing the exercise on professions described on page 132, the teacher can give a real context in which to use the material just studied. All of the strategies can be used to fill

the 'reality' gap precisely because they were all designed for making the students' interests the subject of the class.

In addition, the strategies by their very nature help to provide the focus which prevents a topic from being overwhelming. A strategy can give a smaller unit to talk about, and the conversation can go as far into abstracts as the students can handle or want to go. For example, a values continuum such as the one below allows the students to narrow their discussion to how they feel about one aspect of, in this case, the Lockheed scandal.

Statement: 'The government should publicize the names of everyone involved in taking bribes.'

Agree _____	Agree
0%	100%

If there is interest, students will ask others why they feel as they do. No matter how little or how far they take it — whether they stop after having placed themselves on the line or continue into the connection between big business and government, conflict of interests, etc. — the students are responding to and dealing with a small clear question. If the discussion continues beyond the initial exercise and becomes too confused, everyone can be brought back to the original focus and work through the steps that brought them to the confusing point. Usually the confusion can be worked out and the discussion can continue.

Through the discussions, students are constantly learning how English works, reaching for the structures and words that most clearly express their ideas. From the confusion that often results when they select inappropriate words and structures, they learn the usage of the English they have studied. They also are learning to wield English like a tool. If properly used, it helps in the communication process. Thus students begin to move away from the study of the inner mechanisms of this tool, what its component parts are, to how the tool actually works 'on the job.' While the first is necessary knowledge, it is useless unless they have the practical experience of using it. In the communication of ideas and

opinions, students can gain this practical on-the-job experience.

The goal of teaching Japanese students the Western argumentation process is clearly an area in which Values Clarification strategies can be of great help. Since Values Clarification strategies demand that you 'choose, prize, and act on' values *publicly*, they provide a natural method for practicing this skill. As an example of how this occurs, let's look at the rank-ordering exercise on professions again. After the students have individually ranked the profession, the teacher pairs them up and asks them to create a third ranking that the pair agrees on *and can explain their reasons for* to the rest of the class. In explaining their original choices to each other and trying to reach a mutual decision on a new ranking, they perforce must disagree, convince, argue, etc. Each has to try to make the other see his viewpoint and must listen to the other's. As they have to explain their reasoning to the rest of the class later, a clear understanding of their mutual position has to be clearly defined, point by point.

All of the strategies demand open assertion of opinions. Japanese, on the whole, are uncomfortable with this. By participating in these exercises, they gradually lose their reticence and learn how to approach a controversial topic with Western openness and logic. They learn to put together a series of reasons to show others the basis of their opinions. An important contribution of the teacher to the achievement of this goal is the explanation of the necessity of learning this skill. Once students understand the importance of knowing how to present their ideas in a way Westerners can grasp, they willingly try to achieve this objective.

## SUCCESS

While I have no clinically objective evidence for the success of Values Clarification strategies in achieving the goals I have discussed, several subjective observations lead me to believe that they are successful.

First, in classes where I have used a great deal of Values Clarification strategies, the students are much less inhibited about expressing their ideas. Many of the discussions begun in class have

been continued in the halls and lounge. Students often approach teachers and other students to find out their beliefs on a particular topic. Second, in class all students have increased their participation in class discussions, and have exhibited greater clarity of expression. They have also become more direct in responding to other students' statements of ideas, and more logical in their arguments when they disagree. Third, the classes have grown more independent, ignoring me as a teacher unless I as a person have something specific to contribute to the discussion. I feel that directly linked to this independence is the students' greater confidence in their ability to use English well. Each discussion seems to bring a better grasp of how the language operates, and thus less reliance on the teacher. I personally view this as positive, and thus see it as a mark of the success of Values Clarification strategies.

### SUGGESTIONS

In concluding this paper, I would like to discuss a few suggestions based on my own experience with Values Clarification exercises.

First, if you choose to use these strategies, insist upon a supportive and warm atmosphere. Nothing destroys the effectiveness more than laughter at someone or failure to listen closely and openly. Any student who tries to be overbearing and contemptuous must be dealt with firmly. At first, I am the one to request a student to act more pleasantly, but gradually this function is taken over by the students themselves.

Secondly, I have found these exercises an excellent way to learn and practice 'courtesy' phrases. These are such phrases as:

'I see your point, but on the other hand . . . .'

'Actually, . . . (dentists don't make more money than lawyers.)'

'I agree with you completely.'

'I can't quite agree with you. As I see it, . . .'

These are a few of the natural English argumentative phrases that can aid tremendously in setting a positive tone in a discussion. For any student who wants to be able to control the impression he

makes, a mastery of how to use such phrases would be a boon. The talking that grows out of Values Clarification exercises is a perfect place for the practice of these sort of phrases.

Many other thoughts on the use of Values Clarification can be found in books on the subject, a few of which are listed in the bibliography. It is my hope that this paper has contributed some ideas that will be of use in your EFL classes.

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## R-QUAF に関する論評

*Thomas N. Robb*

**R**-QUAF (Rapid Question and Answer Formation の略) は英語の基本型を使って会話の流暢さを養うことをねらいとした手法です。この場合の基本型はできるだけ機械的に作られたものを使いますが、同時に学生の興味を持続させるものであるために学んでいる事柄が学生の必要性とできるだけ関連性を持つものであることが要求されます。

以下さらに詳しく例をひいて説明しています。

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# Review with R-QUAF

*Thomas N. Robb*

Review is a constant problem in the language classroom.<sup>1</sup> How often it is that we must push on because we have either exhausted the material in the lesson or have a tight schedule to meet, still knowing that many of the students have not completely mastered what we have already taught. While most good texts do have some built-in review, it is often given cursory attention since by its very nature it is old material and, consequently, often dull.

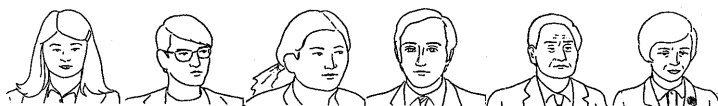
Rapid Question and Answer Formation (R-QUAF, for short), may be one answer to this dilemma. It is designed to build fluency with the basic patterns of English — to make them as automatic as possible — and yet to do it in such a way as to maintain the student's interest and to make what he is learning appear as relevant as possible to his immediate needs.

The technique revolves around a very simple device — a wall chart, such as the one in Fig. #1. Across the top is the “cast of characters”. Three of these fictitious characters are students, two are teachers, and the last, Miss Tanabe, supposedly works in the school administration office. In my particular case, these characters

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<sup>1</sup>I would like to express my thanks to Profs. Kazuaki Hojo and Paul Kelley of Kansai University of Foreign Studies and Thomas Pendergast and Mary Livingston of the National L.L. School, Osaka for their valuable suggestions and criticisms. All responsibility for errors and omissions however, rests solely upon myself.





1a	NAME	MIEKO KAWAI	ICHIRO MATSUDA	EMIKO ARAI	MR. REDFORD	PROFESSOR HIROKAWA	MISS TANABE
b	CLASS/JOB	1-A	1-A	1-C	COMPOSITION	READING	OFFICE
2a	HOME	HIRAKATA	AOMORI	SAKAI	VANCOUVER	KYUSHU	??
b	NOW	HOME	DORM-HIRA.	A & U-NEYA.	NEYA.	TAKA.	SCHOOL
c	TRANSP.	BUS	FOOT	TRAIN	CAR	??	FOOT
3a	WHEN	SEE CLASS SCHEDULES					
b	#?	SEE CLASS SCHEDULES					
4	DO SUNDAY	REPORT	MAHJONG	KYOTO	TENNIS	MT. KONGO	LAUNDRY & HOUSE
5a	TRANSP. TIME	20 min.	15 min.	50 min.	25 min.	??	2 min.
b	READY	50 min.	20 min.	40 min.	35 min.	??	60 min.
c	1st CLASS	9:20	9:20	--	9:20	--	9:00
d	GET UP	8:10	8:45	LATE	8:20	LATE	8:00
6a	DATE OF BIRTH	5/10/57	6/12/57	10/15/57	5/1/42	11/5/15	??
b	B'DAY	5/10	6/12	10/15	5/1	11/5	??
c	AGE	19	18	18	34	61	??
7a	HEIGHT	150 cm.	165 cm.	155 cm.	185 cm.	165 cm.	170 cm.
b	WEIGHT	42 kg.	55 kg.	57 kg.	80 kg.	50 kg.	46 kg.

(Figure #1)

are also tied to the introductory conversation of each lesson of my text<sup>2</sup>, but this does not have to be so for the device to be effective.

The left-most column of the chart contains the lesson number and question designation. The adjoining column contains the cue word for the question for that row. Under each character is the appropriate cue for the answer for that individual. Thus by pointing to the box located on line 2a under Mr. Redford, the instructor can elicit the question "WHERE IS MR. REDFORD FROM?" as well as the answer, "HE'S FROM VANCOUVER, CANADA." Pointing to the question word along with a verbal "YOU" elicits "WHERE ARE YOU FROM?" to which the next student must reply appropriately.

It would be unreasonable, however, to expect students to be able to make and answer questions rapidly if the chart were only used for a relatively short time each day in the classroom. The key to success with this technique is that students keep a notebook<sup>3</sup> with three separate sections: 1) a copy of the chart itself, 2) a section with sample questions (Fig. #2), and 3) a section with sample answers (Fig. #3). With these in hand the student can do most of his R-QUAF practice at home. Class time can be used only for checking the thoroughness of the students' preparation.

At the beginning of the course the wall chart is blank. Question and answer sets are presented gradually, usually two or three per lesson. The students fill in the appropriate sections of their notebooks under the guidance of the instructor. Each week the items introduced in the previous lesson are thoroughly checked and past items are given a once-over as well. The students have been instructed to continually review their entire chart, lest they forget what they have already been taught.

In class, review is carried out briskly. Recently, I have been using a stop watch in class, limiting the students to 15 seconds in which to blurt out their question or answer. While this does have a

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<sup>2</sup> The text referred to is one developed by my wife and me entitled *English in Context* for use in my classes at Kansai University of Foreign Studies, Hirakata.

<sup>3</sup> Alternatively, the instructor could pass out a complete chart, plus complete sample questions and answers at the beginning of the course, thus saving the time in class which it takes for the students to fill in their notebooks.

### SAMPLE QUESTIONS

- 1a        What's her name?
- b        M-E What class is Mieko in?  
          R-T What does Mr. Redford do?
- 2a        Where's Mieko from?
- b        Where's Mieko living now?
- c        How does Mieko get to school?
- 3a        M-E When does Mieko have (*English Composition*)?  
          R    When does Mr. Redford teach class (*3-K*)?
- b        M-R How many classes does Mieko have on (*Monday*)?
- 4        What's Mieko going to do this Sunday?
- 5a        How long does it take Mieko to get to school?
- b        How long does it take Mieko to get ready to go to school?
- c        M-H What time is Mieko's first class on Tuesdays?  
          T    What time does Miss Tanabe have to be at work every day?
- d        What time does Mieko have to get up on Tuesdays?

(Figure #2)

### SAMPLE ANSWERS

- 1a        That's Mieko Kawai.
- b        M-E She's in 1-A  
          R, H He teaches composition.  
          T    She works in the office.
- 2a        M    She lives right here in Hirakata.  
          I-H He's from Aomori Prefecture.  
          T    I don't know where she's from.
- b        M    She lives at home.  
          I    He's living in a dormitory in Hirakata.  
          E    She's living with her aunt and uncle in Neyagawa.  
          R, H He lives in Neyagawa.  
          T    She lives in school housing.
- c        M    She takes the bus.  
          I, T He walks.  
          E    She takes the train.  
          R    He drives.  
          H    I don't know how he gets to school.

(Figure #3)

drawback in that some students tend to "clutch" when under pressure, I have found that the thoroughness of the students' preparation is directly related to the amount of time that I give them to answer.

The choice of question and answer patterns chosen for any given lesson generally reflects the content of the lesson in which they are introduced. However, this principle is not strictly adhered to. There are many patterns which I have considered too elementary to be included in the formal structure of my course, but which the students, nevertheless, do need more practice with. Conversely, there are some structures introduced in the text which are not amenable to chart drilling.

In summary, R-QUAF offers a novel way to selectively review those structures which the instructor feels that the students have not yet mastered completely. It encourages the students to do their own review work at home and is fun to use in class for both the student and teacher alike.



The Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) is a small language school located in Odawara city, about 50 miles south of Tokyo. LIOJ specializes in intensive, month-long residential English programs. In addition, the school offers weekly classes to the citizens of the Odawara area in English and, occasionally, Spanish.

#### **Publications in addition to *Cross Currents***

*Teaching English Pronunciation to Japanese Students* by Toneko Kimura (A text and tape designed for use primarily by Japanese teachers of English in Japan, but very useful for non-Japanese teachers as well)

In the **Communications Unlimited Series**

*Pronunciation 1* by Toneko Kimura

(A text with tapes designed for home study in the pronunciation of English)

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(A sequel along the same format as *Pronunciation 1*)

*Conversational Components: Intermediate* by Elizabeth Harmon

(A text with tapes designed to build listening comprehension and oral fluency for the student who already has a command of basic English)

Back issues of *Cross Currents* are also available.

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