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THE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE OF JAPAN

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a biannual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are especially interested in articles on: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Second/ Foreign Language and English as an International Language; 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan; and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these areas.

Cross Currents was first published in 1972 with an emphasis on Japan and Japanese students of English. In order to serve the needs of our growing international readership better, we strive to publish articles concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture-specific. While articles demonstrating solid and thoughtful research are greatly appreciated, always kept in mind is the necessity for readability and practicality for our readers, the classroom teachers. We make every effort to balance abstract and theoretical articles with articles directly applicable to the classroom. Short practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

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

Please direct all manuscript correspondence to:

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Cross Currents
Language Institute of Japan
4–14–1 Shiroyama
Odawara, 250, Japan

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Summaries of the Articles

The Compatibility of the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach

Roxanne J. Fand

The Natural Approach to language teaching is an American method developed by Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell independently of the British Communicative school, and yet it is closely akin to the latter both philosophically and practically. In this article, the author shows that although these two methods differ in emphasis, their differences are more complementary than conflicting. Both methods are compared in terms of theory (approach), syllabus organization (design), and classroom techniques (procedures) to show their complementarity and compatibility with a view to combining the best of both. Critical questions are raised about the present claims and future directions of both methods.

Teaching Nonverbal Communication Patterns in the ESL Classroom

Kristine L. Fitch

Communicative competence as a goal of language teaching has been considerably emphasized in recent years. Researchers have estimated that nonverbal and paralinguistic cues together account for 55-65% of the meaning of spoken messages. It is evident, therefore, that nonverbal cues should not be disregarded in classroom instruction. Although exchanged unconsciously, nonverbal cues may quite practically be brought to the attention of the students and dealt with in the context of other classroom activities. This article concentrates on presenting recent empirical research into North American behavior, as an alternative to popularized literature which currently serves as the most accessible form of information on the subject. Research in five areas—haptics, proxemics, kinesics, artifacts, and paralanguage—are discussed, and several classroom teaching activities based on such findings are suggested.

Metacommunication in Accommodated Community Language Learning

Paul G. La Forge

In this article, the author first explains Counseling-Learning and Community Language Learning (CL/CLL). He then goes on to describe the deployment of CLL contracts accommodated to Japanese learners of English conversation. Finally, he explores the relationship between CLL and metacommunication. CLL is defined in Part One as the special application of Counseling-Learning to foreign language education (in this case, English in Japan). Classroom activities in CLL, called CLL contracts, have a time dimension to the beyond. They can be related to that which went before and that which follows during the course of a semester or school year. They can be organized and understood as "metacommunication." The CLL contracts are classified in Part Two as synchronic and diachronic metacommunication, and as a combination of the two. These very difficult terms are explained and illustrated by a chart. A list of CLL contracts is also drawn up and explained by a series of footnotes.

Content in Composition Courses: Women's Studies

Wayne Pounds

According to this article, women are not encouraged to pursue professional or vocational training in present-day higher education in Japan. More often than not they enroll in English courses and study literature, composition, and English conversation. The author proposes that a composition course organized around the theme of women's studies would serve to make such English courses more interesting. A thematic composition course would be effective in several areas: it ensures personal involvement; it requires a reading component as a source of information, and the reading and writing skills can be used to mutually reinforce each other; and finally, it lends itself to increased peer involvement. The article includes a section on the case study approach to composition and the appendix is an example of a case which students might take up. An extensive bibliography follows the appendix.

The Fully Notional Syllabus: A Sample Lesson

Charles Parish, AElfwine Mischler, and Tokiko Yamamoto

The functional syllabus has become almost the standard for many good recent texts in ESL and EFL. While these texts show significant advances over the average language text, there still seems to be a general reluctance to segment and recombine grammatical structures in the comprehensive or notional way indicated by Wilkins. This article offers a segment of a lesson organized explicitly around a series of dialogues which demonstrate a range of psychological and social roles, a set of functions appropriate to the intermediate learner, and a series of notions which combine various grammatical structures, lexical structures, and rhetorical variations.

What in the World Is Spoken English?

Nina Weinstein

In this article, the author suggests that the pre-written conversations available in most textbooks are not examples of spoken English, even though they are recorded on tape and presented as such. These pre-written conversations are really examples of written English and lack many of the elements which help native speakers to understand real speech. One of the most important elements missing from audiotapes for language learners is reduced forms. This article briefly describes the author's research on reduced forms and concludes that teachers need to introduce them to their students in order to bring some semblance of reality into the classroom.

Bright Ideas

Realistic Telephone Exercises

Larry Riesberg

Using the telephone in a foreign language can be a difficult and frustrating problem. It is therefore important for students to get a reasonable amount of practice in this area before going abroad. This Bright Idea presents a series of realistic exercises which ensures that phone calls are successful because students have to *think* about what they are doing rather than merely repeating a number of stock phrases.

Practicing Adjective Clauses without Sentence Combination: Meaningful Communication vs. Mechanical Practice
Herbert Sundvall

The current method of teaching adjective clauses by combining two independent sentences does not represent the way in which native speakers from statements with adjective clauses. The sentence-combining method does not teach communicative competence in English. This Bright Idea presents a method for teaching students how to form sentences with adjective clauses that are both communicative and grammatically correct.

Using Logic in the Classroom
Robert Kushen

Learning English involves not simply learning grammar and vocabulary, but in some cases, a new way of thinking. Western-style logical organization and analytical reasoning can be an important component of an English-language course, particularly for students from cultures which do not share the Greco-Roman philosophical and analytical tradition. This Bright Idea presents a series of logic problems which can help students of English to better understand Western logic.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

With this issue we say goodbye to two of our staff, Brian Tobin and Max Mayer. Brian was one of the editors of *Cross Currents* last year and Max was our advertising manager. We offer them both our sincere thanks for a job well done and our best wishes for the future. Max's responsibilities will be taken over by Christine Dickinson and we would like to welcome her to the staff.

During the preparation of this issue we had a lot more contact than usual with the authors of the articles and we would like to thank them for their co-operation and promptness in replying to queries from members of the editorial board. Our leading article, by Roxanne Fand, is entitled "The Compatibility of the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach." The author compares both of these approaches in terms of theory, syllabus design, and classroom techniques to show their complementarity and compatibility, with a view to combining the best of both. One of the author's concerns is that the organizing factors of both the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach are so complex that general syllabuses and materials are difficult to produce. In "The Fully Notional Syllabus: A Sample Lesson," by Charles Parish, AElfwine Mischler, and Tokiko Yamamoto, an attempt is made to produce a sample lesson for a communicative syllabus. This article offers a segment of a lesson organized around a series of dialogues which demonstrate a range of psychological and social roles, a set of functions appropriate to the intermediate learner, and a series of notions which combine various grammatical and lexical structures, and rhetorical variations.

Our next two articles deal with areas which are often neglected in the classroom. In "Teaching Nonverbal Communication Patterns in the ESL Classroom," Kristine Fitch stresses the need to teach nonverbal and paralinguistic cues to foreign students, since these together account for 55–65% of the meaning of spoken messages. Recent empirical research into North American behavior is presented and the article concludes with several excellent classroom activities based on the results of this research. In "What in the World Is Spoken English?" Nina Weinstein suggests that one of the most important elements missing from audiotapes for language learners is "reduced forms." The author briefly describes her research on reduced forms and concludes that teachers need to introduce them to their students in order to bring some semblance of reality into the classroom.

Paul La Forge has been a frequent contributor to *Cross Currents* in the past and we are very pleased to publish his latest article entitled "Metacommunication in Accommodated Community Language Learning." La Forge first explains Counseling Learning and Community Language Learning (CL/CLL). He then goes on to describe the deployment of CLL contracts accommodated to Japanese learners of English, and, finally, he explores the relationship between CLL and metacommunication.

The article entitled "Content in Composition Courses: Women's Studies," by Wayne Pounds, generated a good deal of controversy among the members of the editorial board, principally for its portrayal of the treatment of women in higher education in Japan and the author's objections to that treatment. The main thrust of the article, however, is the author's proposal for a composition course organized around the theme of women's studies. The article includes a section on the case study approach to composition and in the appendix an example of a case which students might take up is presented. An extensive and extremely useful bibliography follows the appendix.

We also have three Bright Ideas in this issue. In "Realistic Telephone Exercises," Larry Riesberg presents a number of telephone exercises in which students really have to think for themselves and not merely go through a series of mechanical responses. Herbert Sundvall suggests that the usual method of sentence-combining to teach adjective clauses does not teach communicative competence in English. In "Practicing Adjective Clauses without Sentence Combination," the author presents a situation and accompanying exercises to which a native speaker would respond using adjective clauses to identify and make distinctions.

In "Using Logic in the Classroom," Robert Kushen talks about the advisability of incorporating some Western-style logical organization and analytical thinking into an English-language course in order to help students express themselves more clearly. The author gives a number of logic problems with accompanying notes to help the teacher to explain any difficult ones. This issue also includes a review of *Missing Person: A Radio Play,* a mystery story on tape for beginners.

We are making a slight change in the designation of this and future issues. The volume number will not change but instead of having a Spring issue and a Fall issue we will now have a Spring/Summer and a Fall/Winter issue. The current issue is Vol. XII, No. 1, Fall/Winter 1985 and the next issue will be Vol. XII, No. 2, Spring/Summer 1986, and so on. The reason for this change is that most of our subscribers receive their copies of *Cross Currents* by sea mail six to eight weeks after we actually publish, and the issue may already seem old by the time it reaches our readers. We hope that this does not cause any inconvenience.

At *Cross currents* we always stress the need to balance theoretical and practical articles (with more emphasis on the practical than the theoretical). We also like to publish a certain number of articles which deal with cross-cultural communication problems. One of our readers recently observed that there has been a lack of the latter kind of article in the last few issues. The truth is that we have received very few articles dealing with cross-cultural communication problems in recent months. We would like to take this opportunity to encourage our readers to submit manuscripts on this topic. In our next issue, we will be publishing an article by Ellen Dussourd about her impressions of ESL education in the U.S.S.R. and some of her observations about Soviet society.

Finally, I would like to offer a very special word of thanks to Nobu Seto, our Business Manager, who has helped me in innumerable ways in the daily running of *Cross Currents.* His hard work and dedication to the journal are very much appreciated by all of us who work with him.

Laura A. Mayer
Cross Currents

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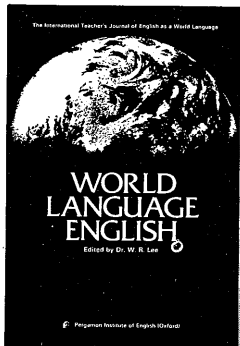

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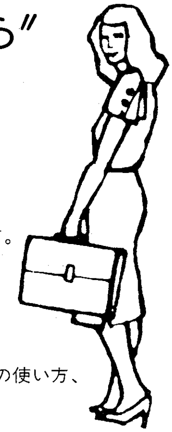

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The Compatibility of the *Natural Approach* and the *Communicative Approach*

Roxanne J. Fand

Introduction

Krashen and Terrell's *Natural Approach* (1983) belongs in the camp of the *Communicative Approach* even though the former is an American method developed independently of the latter, which is a current British school of thought in language teaching. The *Natural Approach* forms a coherent single method based on Krashen's learning theory, carried through to a broad model of syllabus design and pedagogical policy, implemented by procedures for classroom use worked out by Terrell. The *Communicative Approach* consists of no one method. It is an approach which developed over a long period of time and which is based on the work of a community of applied linguists who share a common philosophy and theory, although they may differ with each other in emphasis. Both approaches share the same philosophical outlook, but the Natural Approach takes Krashen's learning theory as the point of departure rather than the linguistic theory that underlies the Communicative Approach.

What unifies the two approaches philosophically is their subscription to the concept of real communication as both the means and the end of language teaching. Formerly, communication was conceived of as being only the distant end, the means being contrived exercises teaching the structure of the language in a more or less "contextualized" way to resemble that end. Mere resemblance was not enough, however, for the proponents of the Communicative Approach and the Natural Approach. They are fundamentally

Roxanne J. Fand has an M.A. in Education from the City College of New York. She has taught in Israel and Hawaii, and is at present a graduate student in the Department of English as a Second Language at the University of Hawaii at Manoa.

concerned with motivation. They hold that what drives a learner to absorb new language forms is an interest in the real, unpredictable messages that those forms embody. The instrumentality of language, its uses and relevances for personal and social nonlinguistic purposes, becomes the only justifiable reason for enlisting the learner, who is central. This is in contrast to the study of language as an internal system unrelated to its pragmatic uses. Thus there is a shift from teaching form explicitly to exchanging ideas of semantic and socially relevant reality via form. If the Natural Approach could be placed in the spectrum of philosophies which make up the Communicative Approach, it would be at the radical end, where grammar is not explicitly dealt with in the syllabus or in class, but reserved only for supplementary treatment. At the conservative end of the Communicative Approach, people like Brumfit would still advocate graded grammatical content as the core of a syllabus, around which communicative goals and methods would spiral (1981:46-51).

In order to see how the Natural and Communicative Approaches are related—where they duplicate each other, where they complement each other, and where they conflict—this article will examine them at each of these levels: Approach (theory), Design (content, organization), and Procedures (specified classroom practices), according to the taxonomy of Method of Richards and Rodgers (1982).

Approach

Krashen's learning theory is based on empirical research which converted him from the belief that conscious learning of langauge forms promotes acquisition to the belief that language forms are acquired by subconscious processes and that conscious preoccupation with form at the expense of meaning only hinders acquisition. The Communicative Approach, however, is not based on any particular learning theory, and its proponents differ among themselves as to how much emphasis to give to psycholinguistic (learning) factors in relation to sociolinguistic (social needs) factors. Instead of a theory of *how* language is learned, the Communicative Approach proceeds from a theory redefining *what* language *is*, to focus its endeavors on the design of language-teaching programs which reflect in content and organization that theoretical model. Taken together, both theories might constitute a more comprehensive and complementary theoretical base than either one alone. The linguistic theory of the British school will be presented first, followed by Krashen's model.

Dissatisfaction with structural-based teaching that aimed for "grammatical competence" was the impetus for change. Language proficiency had been reduced to discrete items of structure and vocabulary on the sentence level with little ability to conduct or comprehend the authentic, integrated discourse that is the proper purpose of language acquisition. Sociolinguists, particularly Dell Hymes, broadened the definition of language proficiency to the concept of "communicative competence" (1971). Applied linguists, led by David Wilkins, defined "communicative competence" in terms of "notions" and "functions" at first (1976).

The metalanguage of grammar was replaced by the metalanguage of "notions." The latter was used to focus awareness on the conceptual bases of grammaticality. Structural-based teaching had always given referential meaning to grammatical and lexical concepts; notional metalanguage described the semantic categories underlying these grammatical and lexical concepts. For example, specificity is the notion underlying articles and time is the notion underlying tense. This aspect of the theory was only a small shift in emphasis.

The more important part of the theory, the one which expands the definition of language, surrounds the term "functions," which refers to the social or interpersonal intentions of utterances beyond their propositional literalness or notional reference. The idea of "functions" was derived mostly from the speech act and discourse theories of sociolinguists like Searle (1976), Halliday (1978), and Hymes. These theorists claim that language cannot be studied or known apart from its uses in social or pragmatic contexts, and that grammar is accountable to the larger semantic reality. A function expresses a speaker's intention, such as requesting, admonishing, inviting, denying, and so on, and can be realized in many different forms. There can even be more than one intention to a given form, such as informing and (indirectly) requesting at the same time with the utterance, "I don't have a ride home," or in another pragmatic context, blaming. Opening up the definition of language proficiency from the limited domain of grammar led to an enormous concentration on needs analysis and syllabus design in an effort to select and organize notional-functional content with other pragmatic dimensions such as setting, topics, register, the roles of interactants and their discourse strategies. Because of all these dimensions, the original "notional-functional" terminology has become simply "the communicative approach."

Krashen, by contrast, does not dwell on theories of language in order to specify the content and organization of a course. He accepts axiomatically the global nature of language proficiency and leaps over the knotty problems that language theory imposes on design by proposing a theory of learning, "the natural order." As this writer sees it, the proponents of the Communicative Approach seek to design a syllabus which is organized from simple to complex, whether it be based on grammar, notions, functions or topics. According to Krashen's theory, however, this design is unnecessary since comprehensible input is organized from simple to complex in the natural process of acquisition. Krashen's concept of comprehensible input admits of no abstract definition, since for any given learner at any given stage of acquisition, the substance of comprehensible input depends upon the learner's need for and readiness to acquire a given item of language. Krashen insists that as long as the learner is provided with input attuned to the (i + 1) level, which is thus "comprehensible," the learner's internal syllabus will execute any necessary organization.

The tenets of Krashen's theory are summed up briefly in the following hypotheses:

The Acquisition-Learning Distinction

Krashen poses the paradox that acquisition takes place by subconscious processes when the learner attends to meaning rather than trying consciously to learn forms. He bases his claim on studies in first language acquisition in children and observation of adult second language acquirers who "pick up" a language without being aware of the rules.

The Natural Order Hypothesis

This is based solely on second language acquisition studies which show that certain grammatical structures and morphemes are acquired in a statistically predictable order regardless of the learner's first language and other factors. The claim is that we no longer need to worry about when and where to teach structure, that correct production will emerge spontaneously after a sufficient gestation period and in the natural order that studies have indicated. However, until fully correct acquisition has developed there will be relative stages of unformedness, which are to be accepted as normal. This implies a much greater tolerance of learners' errors in speech than in methods emphasizing immediate correctness. The Communicative Approach also accepts the legitimacy of interlanguage. Littlewood, for example, would agree that teachers should relinquish the attempt to control form acquisition through error correction and allow the "internal syllabus" of learners to carry out any necessary organization (1981:92).

The Monitor Hypothesis

Expanding on the Acquisition-Learning Distinction in adults, Krashen posits the "Monitor" as the conscious learning mechanism that has a special function in productive performance. It has the editorial task of correcting the initial output generated by acquisition. This editorial function can only take place under certain conditions. There must be: a) time to reflect, as in writing and prepared speeches; b) focus on form, that is, particular attention to *how* something which is correct is being said rather than to *what* is being said; and c) a conscious knowledge of the rules in question. Accordingly, there will be learners who are Monitor over-users, whose excessive attention to form under the wrong conditions will hinder fluency and general communicative ability. There will be Monitor under-users, who do not resort to rules even when they might profit by them. Finally, there will be Monitor optimal-users, who supplement and polish their acquisition-derived output by applying learned rules when conditions warrant it.

The Input Hypothesis

This hypothesis claims that at any given level of competence, designated as (i), learners will advance to the next stage of acquisition by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level, that is, (i + 1), where (+1) represents just the right degree above, whereas (+2) or more represents a strain on comprehensibility. Krashen reasons that when one attends to meaning and relies upon extralinguistic knowledge and clues, one can grasp utterances which contain a certain amount of unfamiliar structure. The hypothesis also claims that (i + 1) cannot be calculated precisely, even considering "natural order." It can only be roughly assumed to prevail when input is still comprehensible and while the learner's capacity for comprehension is being stretched. This "rough tuning" goes along with extensive comprehensible input, both of which are factors in first language acquisition in children. This hypothesis is the key to the idea of acquisition, which is the central pillar of Krashen's theory, with learning being merely secondary.

The Input Hypothesis may be the part of Krashen's theory most at odds with the Communicative Approach. In the linguistic theory of the latter approach, structural content still plays an important part and is regarded as being subject to control by architects of the syllabus, not left to the mysterious processes of "rough tuning" to an (i + 1) wavelength. The Input Hypothesis, however, does have a certain amount of appeal. Yalden, for example, gives it credit and admits that putting conscious learning in the back seat may be one way to promote a "quiet revolution in second language teaching for adults" (1983:15). However, she considers Krashen's theory insufficiently developed to reverse classroom procedures as yet. Littlewood says that the existence of uncontrollable natural processes would in itself be justification for making communicative activity part of the total learning process. But he feels the need to provide "pre-communicative activities" at the start to lay a structural foundation.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Many studies have shown that affective factors relate to acquisition. The level of motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety in learners will help or hinder acquisition. Krashen claims that if the "affective filter" is high, then acquisition may be screened out, even when input at the (i + 1) cognitive level prevails. If, however, the "affective filter" is low, then acquisition flows through freely without inhibition or self-defense. The Communicative Approach would wholeheartedly subscribe to the "affective filter hypothesis" for they are unanimous about the need for motivation and the development in the classroom of a supportive environment for the individual (Littlewood 1981:18).

To sum up, Krashen's theoretical model is one that emphasizes acquisition through input, and could be classified under Richards' scheme (1984) as a primarily instructional method. The Communicative Approach, on the other hand, would be classified by Richards as a syllabus-determined method with a theory that emphasizes the nature of language proficiency or output. It seems that both approaches are quite complementary if acquisition is thought of as both the receptive process and the product of that process, all in the name of "communicative competence."

Design

Since the Communicative Approach is based on linguistic theory, the strength of its contribution has been in the area of design. A great deal of attention has been given to curriculum content and organization of the syllabus because of the complexity of communicative objectives. Krashen and Terrell, on the other hand, give some attention to syllabus, but are more concerned with translation of the theory into instructional policies and procedures.

Yalden gives a comprehensive account of the development of syllabuses, starting with Wilkins' notional-functional syllabus. She presents three principles of syllabus content: 1) speech events or situations (including topics of discussion); 2) speech acts or language functions; and 3) linguistic forms. However, the original notional-functional syllabuses of Wilkins and van Ek (1979:103–116), whose "Threshold Level Syllabus" was a course for basic survival, were criticized by other proponents of the Communicative Approach for being as formulaic as traditional structural syllabuses. Candlin (1976:237–256) and Widdowson (1979) claimed that what was missing were discourse skills, including negotiation strategies. Consequently, a new layer was added between numbers 2 and 3 above–that of discourse skills. Layers of meaning which Halliday termed "ideational," "interpersonal," and "textual" could be cross-referenced into this taxonomy to cover all areas of content.

Once the content is specified, the more difficult task of organizing it into a syllabus with operational objectives must be dealt with. Yalden sees a continuum of organizational specificity from a rigid specification of content through varying degrees of specificity with room for flexibility, to unspecified syllabuses in which content is more learner-controlled. Among the more rigidly controlled syllabuses are those for English for Special Purposes (ESP) courses, where precise needs analyses result in very specific objectives on all content levels. Among the specified-but-flexible alternatives are adaptations of already existing syllabuses (mostly grammatical to include communicative content objectives. Yalden outlines six syllabus types that fit into this continuum:

> *The Structural-Functional* type merely adds functional objectives as a separate component after sufficient structural objectives have been taught;
> *The Structural and Functional* type, of which Brumfit's is a model, includes communicative objectives side by side with structural progression right from the start. The core of organization is formal, but the methodology is communicative;
> *The Variable Focus* type emphasizes different objectives at different stages, so that at the beginning structure is central. At the intermediate level functional and discourse features become central, and at advanced stages the focus is on the authentic use of language in content areas and real situations;
> *The Functional* type states its objectives only in terms of functions, and not in terms of linguistic items or ideational content;
> *The Fully Notional* type is usually highly specialized for ESP;
> *The Fully Communicative* type is the least determined by syllabus and allows learners to set their own objectives, with even the teacher playing a reduced role as the learners solve their communicative problems.

Other types might be the *Task-Based* or *Procedural* type and combinations of any of the above. Littlewood suggests similar organizational principles, including a *Topic-Based* syllabus and various combinations that promote flexibility.

For long-range purposes Yalden advocates the *Proportional Approach*, which combines components that can be taught systematically with those that cannot be taught systematically. A systematic component like structure might be provided, for example, as target-like structural input (in agreement with Krashen and Terrell), while relying on non-systematic interactive skills for functions and discourse structure. Even among functions there are more systematic ones such as ritual forms which are predictable, and less systematic ones such as responses to unpredictable utterances.

From the above discussion Yalden sums up two basic principles of communicative design: integration of the whole system—objectives, syllabuses, methods, materials, and evaluation—within itself and within the total educational framework; and the role of the learner as central and determined by needs analysis, with the role of the teacher as giver-of-knowledge de-emphasized.

Krashen and Terrell's Natural Approach would certainly agree with these two principles of communicative design. Their syllabus might correspond to Yalden's Proportional Approach, but it does not fall neatly into any of her six or so syllabus types. It probably overlaps the Functional, Fully Notional, and Fully Communicative types (numbers 4, 5, and 6) and corresponds to Littlewood's Topic-Based syllabus, being organized around topics with related situations and functions and having a loose flexibility that lends itself to improvisation according to the specific needs of the learners. The general aims of the Natural Approach syllabus are stated in very broad behavioral terms, such as: "presents a class report, participates in a conversation, reads and writes letters," and so on. Objectives and syllabus are the least developed part of the Natural Approach, which puts it near the unspecified-syllabus end of the Communicative Approach continuum. Although the weakness of the Natural Approach appears to be in design, it does have clear instructional policies. These will be presented in the next section as the guiding principles of classroom activities.

Procedures

The instructional or procedural policies of the Natural Approach will be discussed first, with reference to the Communicative Approach on each point. Then a more comprehensive look at the procedures of the Communicative Approach will follow from Johnson's (1982) and Littlewood's representative frameworks.

The following are Krashen and Terrell's instructional policies:

The (procedural) goal is the (exercise of) communication skills. The more real communication takes place, the more input, and therefore acquisition. The Communicative Approach generally strives for this "practice-ideal."

Comprehension precedes production. The target language is always used in class by the teacher, who strives to facilitate comprehension and focuses attention on a topic of interest with extensive input. Expanding vocabulary rapidly is an important part of this principle, which is how (i + 1) can best be attained. Proponents of the Communicative Approach would agree with this.

Production is allowed to emerge in stages. The receptive skills of listening and reading are emphasized, and responses that are really communicative are accepted, beginning with nonverbal (or even mother-tongue) responses, through single words or phrases, to sentences and finally complex discourse. This is in accordance with the Natural Order Hypothesis. There are probably proponents of the Communicative Approach who would accept this in practice, but Finocchiaro and Brumfit stipulate in their "Guidelines for Teacher-Controlled Tasks" that elicited utterances should be in complete sentences (1983:208-215). They make no mention of any "stages." On this point, the Natural Approach seems to fill a gap which exists in the Communicative Approach, claiming that acquisition takes longer than most drills allow.

Acquisition activities are central. Since Krashen and Terrell's theory emphasizes input, activities focus on receptive strategies and skills, with output considered the stimulus for further input. Input does not consist of formulaic dialogs and patterns, however, like the old audio-lingual drills. The exercises Krashen and Terrell suggest follow communicative principles that Johnson and Littlewood have enunciated and illustrated. "Monitor" activities for explicit grammar learning are relegated to a supplementary place, usually as homework. This would be a little too extreme for proponents of the Communicative Approach.

Lower the Affective Filter. The affective filter can be lowered in a number of ways. There is, for example, no demand for early speech production. This allows the individual to decide when and how much to speak. The teacher's part is to give positive rewards for *any* attempt, even if unsuccessful. Furthermore, errors are not directly corrected, thus reducing the learner's self-consciousness and inhibitions. Indirect correction, or "expansion," is regarded at least as a way of providing more correct input, and at best as clarification for miscommunication. Littlewood and other proponents of the Communicative Approach place great emphasis on psychological factors in the classroom, which is why, as in the Natural Approach, cooperative activities are stressed, either in groups or in dyads. The individual learner makes a greater contribution to the learning process, increasing a feeling of self-worth. In this connection Krashen and Terrell stress the importance of enlisting learner understanding of the method and their own mental processes so that they feel confident in the face of potentially unsettling (+1) input.

Krashen and Terrell's suggestions for activities fit into Johnson's and Littlewood's procedural frameworks. These will be presented next, beginning with Johnson, who enunciates five principles for the design of communicative activities:

The information-transfer principle. Information is simply transferred from spoken or written input to listening, reading, writing or reporting orally. This leads to all kinds of chart- or map-making and chart- or map-interpreting.
The information-gap principle. This differs from the above in that it represents conveyance of *new* information from sender to receiver, not merely the transference of known information from one medium to another. The unpredictability of the information gap develops fluency in speaking and the need to read and write clearly.
The jig saw principle. Learners complement each other's information, filling in and dove-tailing, as in strip story reconstruction in which each participant has a different piece of a chronological narration.
The task-dependency principle. Having tasks to fulfill in every activity motivates listening and reading activities, fosters "accountability" among partners as well as to the teacher, and helps production skills.
The correction-for-content principle. This insures feedback so that partners assess each other for communicative accuracy and adjust their production accordingly. It may also be a diagnostic point of intervention for the teacher in terms of grammatical accuracy, since partners may succeed in communicating because they share the same grammatical mistakes, and yet are in need of adjustment for purposes of future accuracy in which communication may well depend on grammatical correctness.

What Littlewood adds to the picture of classroom procedures is "social interaction" activities which go beyond information-exchanging games and situations to the appropriateness of language for social purposes. These include discussions, conversations, dialogs, role-playing, debates, and so on.

Proponents discuss these procedures in greater detail, but how they actually work out in practice has not yet been clearly evaluated. In terms of evaluating learner achievement, proponents of communicative language teaching generally endorse the idea of "integrative" testing (as opposed to "discrete-point testing") as being in harmony with communicative objectives and methodology (see Morrow 1983 and Oller 1979). That in itself is a large subject, and cannot be dealt with here. And we can only speculate briefly about the larger question of evaluating communicative language teaching itself.

Critique

Krashen and Terrell express fewer reservations about their Method than the proponents of the Communicative Approach do, perhaps because there is a built-in caution in the Natural Approach. Proponents as well as critics of the Communicative Approach are aware that in the push for early fluent production for the sake of communication at all costs, grammar is bound to suffer, perhaps irreparably. Higgs and Clifford level serious charges against communicative language teaching methods and claim that there is a common type of learner in the communicative classroom whose grammatical development is fossilized at a relatively low level and yet whose development in terms of vocabulary is quite rapid (1982:57–79). This profile is consistent with what a Natural Approach learner might look like. These "terminal cases" seem unable to improve through remedial work in spite of their own and their teachers' great efforts. Higgs and Clifford claim that "accuracy first" learners have a better long-range prognosis than "comunication first" learners, even though beginning fluency may indeed be impeded by the Monitor. Positing an *output* of (i + 1) which corresponds to Krashen's *input* of (i + 1), they claim that the right balance between "communication first" and "accuracy first" could be achieved. In fact, Krashen and Terrell seem to be aiming for (i + 1) output by the cautionary principle of allowing production to emerge in stages, after acquisition is sufficiently internalized. Krashen and Terrell seem to be conservative about accuracy, yet radical about the way to achieve it.

The real problem for the Natural Approach as well as the Communicative Approach comes when freer communication activities and attempts at longer utterances and stretches of discourse emerge and produce interlanguages that become input in their own right. When interlanguages dominate class time, where is (i + 1) going to come from? The role of the teacher as a source of knowledge may still be the answer. There should not be a return to the old domineering and intimidating role, but there might be a recognition that the teacher as a resource person needs to provide a great deal of target-like input, and not merely act as a facilitator for learners' off-target attempts (valuable as those attempts may be). Modelling by the teacher as a fellow participant may well be part of class communication, and even a quick non-communicative drill could be acceptable as a change of pace for consolidating a form.

A related question about both the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach has to do with the fundamental matter of motivation. Can the affective filter be too low? One can envision learners feeling so complacent about their inaccurate interlanguage and its apparent communicative effectiveness that they might feel no need to strive for greater accuracy. This factor may promote fossilization as well as too much inaccurate input.

Another matter of concern is developing syllabuses and materials. As we have seen, the organizing factors are so complex that general syllabuses are difficult to produce and materials seem to revert to traditional formats with a "communicative" component, resulting in phrase-book competence. Candlin and Breen suggest ideas for communicative materials that are not so straight-jacketed and show possibilities for future development (1979:86–108).

Pending empirical research on the real effectiveness of communicative methods versus traditional methods, all the advantages cited by proponents of the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach, and all the criticisms of them, remain in the realm of speculation and informal isolated observations. However, their contribution to the field of language teaching is at least a challenge to old assumptions and at best the wave of the future. Therefore, in the light of their basic compatibility and complementarity, proponents of both approaches might well exchange ideas in order to develop syllabuses and materials and to produce research to verify the validity of their methods.

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Teaching Nonverbal Communication Patterns in the ESL Classroom

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Communicative competence as a goal of language teaching has received considerable emphasis in recent years. Researchers have estimated that nonverbal and paralinguistic cues together account for 55–65% of the meaning of spoken messages (Birdwhistell 1970). Specific ways that nonverbal cues contribute to spoken communication are: (1) expressing emotion; (2) conveying interpersonal attitudes such as liking, dominance, and so on; (3) presenting one's self-image to others; and (4) managing turn-taking, giving feedback, and getting attention (Argyle 1975). Nonverbal behavior can repeat, contradict, substitute for, complement, and emphasize verbal behavior (Knapp 1978).

Accurate nonverbal behavior is a crucial facet of the competent communicator and thus a valid area for classroom attention. However, because the presentation of core material is subject to time constraints, teachers may feel that nonverbal cues must be absorbed subconsciously; and since nonverbal messages are sent and received largely subconsciously, teachers may doubt the feasibility of discussing such messages explicitly. It is evident, however, that a component accounting for 55% of communication should not be disregarded. Although nonverbal cues are exchanged subconsciously, they may quite practically be brought to students' attention and dealt with in the context of other classroom activities.

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Unfortunately, much of what has been written about nonverbal communication has been popularized and packaged to appeal to a large commercial audience to the point that a great deal of it is no longer accurate. Any paperback of 200 pages which promises readers that they will be able to "read a person like a book" has promised far more than it can possibly deliver. Relying on one's own intuitions to be an informant on American culture is sound in theory, but may also prove problematic. Nonverbal patterns are, after all, largely unconscious. Frequently, we are not aware of them until they are violated. This essay concentrates on presenting recent research into North American nonverbal behavior, and suggests classroom activities based on the results of this research.

An error made by much popular literature dealing with nonverbal communication is the suggestion that nonverbal cues have single meanings, or at most two or three possible meanings. With few exceptions, notably gestures, nonverbal cues have no direct verbal equivalents.

Mehrabian (1972) suggests that nonverbal referents may be more accurately said to exist within a three-dimensional semantic space; that is, nonverbal cues carry meaning on three dimensions simultaneously–potency, affiliation, and responsiveness.

"Potency" refers to the power relationship between interlocutors. For example, in a conversation, one person may be subordinate or superior to another. This relationship has wide-reaching effects on the nature of the communication. "Affiliation" is used to indicate to what extent the interlocutors feel they are members of the same group, whether they like each other, and how much they have in common. It is important to note that affiliation can be either positive or negative; it is used to indicate dislike and separation as well as liking and commonality. "Responsiveness" can be described as the amount of attention or respect (or inattention and disrespect) that a person shows towards another person. Whether a person is perceived as reacting or not reacting, or being an active or passive interlocutor are important factors in communication. The concept of a cube-like meaning space, in which all nonverbal cues assume positions somewhere on these three scales, can help us visualize relationships between these three areas of meaning and avoid the oversimplification typical of much of the discussion of nonverbal communication.

Nevertheless, definite norms of nonverbal behavior exist, and may be discussed as concretely as are grammatical rules and connotative differences between synonyms (with the usual caveat that there are exceptions to rules and idiosyncratic uses which do not invalidate the rules themselves). In descriptions of cultural differences between nonverbal norms, however, there has also been considerable oversimplification. The idea that cultures may be described merely as "contact" or "noncontact" (Hall 1969) is one such oversimplification. Recent research has shown, for example, that some cultures considered "noncontact" may in fact allow quite close conversational distance and frequent touching between members of the same sex, while distances between members of the opposite sex are much greater (Shuter 1977). The greatest differences in nonverbal norms may exist between males and females in every culture, rather than between cultures as a whole. There is also evidence that nonverbal expectations and experiences are different for the very young and the very old within a given culture (Knapp 1978). Differences in age and sex are therefore important considerations when discussing the nonverbal norms of a given culture.

Research findings in nonverbal patterns of North Americans and their implications for language students will now be examined in each of the following categories: haptics, proxemics, kinesics, artifacts, and paralanguage.

Haptics

Haptics refers to communication through touch. Large differences in proxemic norms exist between males and females in North American culture. While male-female and female-female public touching may be acceptable, male-male touching is not, except under highly ritualized circumstances such as greetings and sporting events. An exception is made for small children. Little boys are allowed to hug and put their arm around their best friends, though tolerance for this behavior begins to decrease as the child approaches eight years of age. After this point, fighting is the only mode of touching which is still largely accepted among boys.

Generally speaking, the more powerful person in an interaction is the one who initiates touch. More often than not in North American culture this person is a man. Touch norm violations are more often seen by men as aggression; by females they are seen as undue intimacy (Lyman and Scott 1967). For men, touching seems highest on the potency dimension described earlier; for women, it is higher on the affiliation and response dimensions. Therefore, it may be necessary to emphasize to language students that violations of touch expectations of both men and women carry potentially serious consequences. Men are likely to feel physically threatened; women may interpret unexpected touching as strong sexual innuendo.

Proxemics

Proxemics is the role of distance and space in communication. Proxemics pattern research has shown distance norms to be closely related to haptics. People have different tolerances for closeness depending on the orientation of the other party. It is more likely that people will seem to be standing uncomfortably close if they are standing in front of us than if they are behind us. If they are beside us, we tolerate an even closer distance (Shuter 1977). For this reason, space invasions from the front are sometimes dealt with by turning sideways, and talking somewhat over one's shoulder to the invader.

As with haptics, the person who has the higher status is most often given the right to define and protect his or her personal space. North Americans, with their emphasis on privacy and individualism, construct elaborate defenses against space invasions, and division of public and private space is frequently sacred (Goffman 1971). While language students must be aware of the inviolate nature of a person's desk, office, or classroom, they may be flattered to know that for a North American to invite them to his or her home is an important show of trust and liking.

Kinesics

Kinesics is communication through body movements such as gestures, eye contact, and facial expressions. Body relaxation or tension may be the most often neglected indicator of nonverbal meaning (Mehrabian 1972). Power may be shown by the relaxation of someone's posture, and a certain amount of tension and activity may be crucial to indicating liking and response. In a classroom, for example, one would certainly never sit at attention, but there exists a multitude of nonverbal cues such as head cocking, eye contact, and a semblance of note-taking which are indispensable for showing attention and respect.

Eye contact is another area of considerable nonverbal meaning. People with less status seek eye contact more frequently. A lack of such eye contact may signal a lack of response and be interpreted as disrespect, while a too-direct gaze on the part of a subordinate may be inferred as challenge or sexual invitation (Ellyson et al. 1981). The reverse may be true in many students' cultures.

Since gestures come closest to having single meanings, they are the exception to the three-dimensional analysis scheme proposed earlier. Yet gestures are the easiest to talk about specifically, because their meanings are often unambiguous. Gestures which have frequently been problematic for language students include winking, finger-snapping to get the floor in a classroom, the American habits of crooking a finger or pointing with one, and hand gestures signifying "OK" and "thumbs up."

Artifacts

Artifacts is communication through objects. This includes any aspect of behavior, such as clothing or hairstyle, that does not change during a given interaction. This aspect of behavior is the one which often seems most confusing to language students in their exposure to American college campuses. In such a setting, it may seem to them that there are no norms of dress among North Americans. Research shows, however, that while much diversity is in fact tolerated without serious consequences, peoples' responses to different styles of dress differ as much in this culture as anywhere in the world (Knapp 1978). For example, people are more likely to follow a well-dressed person jaywalking than someone in blue jeans (Lefkowitz et al. 1955). Research indicates that a person in uniform often receives unquestioned obedience in North America, even if he is dressed as a security guard or a milkman (Bickman 1974).

Cultural norms about acceptable clothing tend to be as definite for men as for women, but for men there are fewer options and therefore less room for error. Women may find that clothing which was considered attractive and appropriate in their cultures will be considered sexually provocative or dowdy in the United States.

Paralanguage

Paralanguage is the range of nonverbal cues surrounding common speech behavior, including vocal qualities, silence, accents, and vocalizations such as laughing, screaming, and sighing. Acton (1984) suggests that North Americans generally indicate response and liking, and who is in charge of turn-taking in an interaction (potency), through culturally bound nonverbal cues, such as "uh-huh," head-nodding, paraphrasing, avoiding interruptions, and so on. The implication of his findings for non-native speakers is that they may be perceived as more fluent in English if they can master the culturally appropriate cues of someone paying careful attention in a conversation.

Again, significant differences have been documented between American males and females in their paralinguistic behavior. Males interrupt more, change the subject more often, and engage in less reinforcing communication than females (Mayo and Henley 1980). North Americans of both sexes break eye contact to begin talking. Other acceptable ways to indicate that one wants the floor include verbalized pauses ("uh"), stutter starts, and raising a hand or finger (Knapp 1978).

In sum, nonverbal communication is a much more complex issue than is presented by "pop psychology" texts. Few exact equivalents exist between nonverbal cues and speech; rather, nonverbal referents may be more accurately described as existing on parallel dimensions of power, liking, and response. In every culture, however, definable norms do exist which are affected by age and sex. Recent research in five areas of nonverbal communication has been examined, and some implications or typical problem areas for language students have been identified. In the final section of this paper, suggestions for classroom activities are presented.

Nonverbal Communication Activities

The following activities have been loosely grouped according to beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels of competency, with some suggestions for adaptations to different levels. Though these activities were drawn from resources directed toward college-bound adult teachers, many could be adapted for different ages or backgrounds. (For activities designed especially for elementary grades, consult Wiemann and Wiemann, 1975.)

Imitation

Especially in beginning levels, students should be encouraged to communicate not just with their mouths, but with their entire bodies. It should be stressed that nonverbal and paralinguistic cues will constitute almost two-thirds of their message, so that their mimicry and imitation of the teacher as a model should include accurate cues from both of these areas. The teacher should exaggerate intonation and movements and insist on students doing the same. The teacher must be very serious when emphasizing hand and body movement; students must not be tempted to consider such cues trivial, or an invitation to play. Reinforcing verbal learning with attention to nonverbal cues will increase both understanding and retention, as well as make non-native speakers easier for North Americans to understand. Jazz chants consisting of short sentences, in which students can master accurate intonation patterns quickly, can also provide excellent practice of gestures and movement.

Charades

Variations of the game *Charades* can provide vocabulary reviews at all levels, as well as building students' confidence that they can make themselves understood even on occasions when they lack a particular word. One version is called "Animal, Vegetable, Fruit." The game begins with recognizable symbols for each of the three categories, such as fingers in a "V" for vegetable, in a circle for fruit, and touching the hair to signify animal. Students are divided into three or four teams standing in different positions in the room with the teacher in the middle. One student from each group comes to the center, and the teacher whispers the key word. Each student goes back to his or her group and acts out the word. When members are able to guess what word is being described, the student runs back to the teacher and taps his or her hand or a book held at arm's length. The team gets a point, and a new member of each team approaches the teacher to get a new word. Different versions of this game may be created by varying the categories. One could, for example, use "Noun, Adjective, Verb."

Touching Me, Touching You

Touching me, touching you is a good vocabulary review activity. Students stand in a circle or (depending on the size of the class) in smaller groups, with the teacher in the middle of the room. The teacher calls out commands such as "touch a left hand," "touch a watch," "touch a shirt," "touch a thumb," "touch curly hair." The students repeat the command as they do the action. In a culturally mixed class, this may lead to an interesting discussion of touching. How did the students feel during the exercise? Did it seem strange to them to touch some people? Who can they touch in their own cultures and who can they not touch? Is it different in their cultures? The teacher should point out that touching between members of the same sex, especially among men, is quite rare in North America.

Pictures That Tell A Story

Pictures that tell a story can stimulate productive discussion of nonverbal communication. This may be done in small groups or as a class. Two variations are *Who's In Charge Here?* and *What's The Matter?*

In *Who's In Charge Here?* the teacher finds pictures of groups of people engaged in some kind of interaction: for example, a teacher in a classroom, a board of directors meeting, a party, a secretary in an office with a boss and/or customers. Students look at the pictures, decide who has control in the situation, and describe how they know who is in charge from looking at the picture. This exercise can point out that sometimes it is tricky to tell who is in charge; North Americans dislike direct authority, so we rely on subtle means to know who has authority. A common, though false, illusion is that no one does. Many kinds of nonverbal cues may add up to who has more power: the person who initiates touch, the person with the right reserve and protect his or her space, the one who sets the interpersonal distance.

In *What's The Matter?* the teacher shows students pictures of people who are happy, in pain, sad, puzzled, and so on. Students say what the matter is in the picture, how this person feels, what has just happened or what is about to happen. The teacher points out that emotional displays are largely universal (Morris makes this point with many fine illustrations), but *which* emotions are acceptable to display, and to what degree, are often culturally determined.

Role Plays

Role plays may be greatly expanded by specific attention to nonverbal cues. When discussing situations, teachers should focus on the nonverbal aspects as well as specific target language. Two situations in which nonverbal signals may be particularly crucial are *In The Classroom* and *Conferences With Professors.*

In The Classroom. If students have visited American classrooms, the teacher should ask what differences they noticed between what happened in those classrooms and what happens in classrooms in their own countries. Many of the differences will be nonverbal indicators of, from the students' point of view, almost complete informality. Language students may reach the conclusion that anything goes, so it is important to role play what is and is not allowed. Examples may include how to come into a class late or leave early, attentiveness to a lecture, and test-taking.

Conferences With Professors. Students accustomed to treating teachers with considerable deference may need role-play practice to get out of habits which may come across as fawning, while still showing appropriate respect to a professor. While a lowered voice, avoidance of eye contact, or bowing are not necessary, inappropriate actions should be noted: entering an office without knocking or while a person is on the phone or before receiving permission; coming around behind the desk, or leaning over it; interrupting; and looking at one's watch. The teacher should discuss how one knows when the other person thinks it is time for you to leave.

Words Unspoken

Teachers prepare two lists of simple, specific messages that can be conveyed nonverbally. Examples of such messages are "I like you," "I'm afraid of you," "Are you OK?," "Be quiet," "Shame on you," and "You did a good job!" Students should be put in pairs and each partner given a different list. They should take turns expressing each message, without using any sounds. This can stimulate a discussion of gestures. Students can talk about the ones they have seen in North America that are unfamiliar to them or have different meanings in their countries. They can also talk about the ones that are common in their own countries but may be unacceptable or seriously misinterpreted in North America, for example, winking, or snapping fingers to get someone's attention.

Public Speaking

Any pretext may be used to get students to talk individually, in front of the class, for at least three minutes: a book report, a speech about their country, a comment on a controversial issue.

Speeches should not be read although using notes is acceptable. Speeches should be audio- or video-taped and then played back for the class. Class members then have an opportunity to ask questions, to comment on two or three things that they particularly liked about the speech, and then to offer constructive suggestions for improvement. Finally, the teacher may add any suggestions (and always some kind of praise, of course). Students often have ideas about what makes their English difficult to understand, and this exercise usually shows they are wrong. While they labor under the delusion that their biggest problem is pronunciation or vocabulary, far more serious difficulties may be posed by volume, verbalized pauses, talking into a shirt collar or behind a hand, or distracting gestures. Actually hearing or seeing themselves during a speech may bring home to them the areas they truly need to improve, while giving them confidence that their vocabulary and grammar are actually quite acceptable.

Labels Exercises

Before class, the teacher prepares self-stick mailing labels with different commands written on them, such as "Treat me like I'm stupid," "Treat me like I'm five years old," "Treat me like I'm the boss," "Treat me like I'm always right," "Treat me like I'm sexy," and "Ignore me." As many labels will be needed as there are students in the class. The class should be divided into groups of four or five. Each group sits in a circle and each group should be as far away from the other as possible. Each student is given a label and instructed to place it on his or her forehead without looking at it. The groups are given something simple to focus conversation on, such as fun things to do on weekends in the city, or what they like most or least about living in North America. They should follow the directions on each other's labels, but should talk about the topic, not the labels. Under no circumstances should they tell each other what the labels say.

After ten minutes of conversation, students guess, within their groups, what their own labels said. The activity is discussed as a class: how successful were they in guessing what their own labels said? How did they follow the directions on other students' labels while talking about something completely different? The answers to these questions will almost always include the use of nonverbal cues, providing opportunities to bring out the points discussed in the first half of this paper. The discussion should be concluded with how students felt during the exercise, and if they have felt the same way in North America.

As the preceding exercises should indicate, classroom discussion of nonverbal communication patterns need not take place separately from "primary" class activities. Indeed, consideration of the facets of nonverbal behavior discussed earlier—touch, distance, movement, clothing, and vocal characteristics other than words—should be considered an integral part of language learning. While obviously a complex phenomenon, nonverbal cues form a substantial portion of the information from which humans assign meaning to communication behavior. Since such cues vary between cultures, and between age groups and gender, it is as important to call nonverbal patterns to the attention of ESL students as it is to teach any other facet of language behavior. It is hoped that this essay has provided an impetus for further exploration and development of other activities that would facilitate the teaching of nonverbal patterns to all students of ESL.

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Metacommunication in Accommodated Community Language Learning

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Introduction

The purposes of this article are: (1) to explain Counseling-Learning and Community Language Learning (CL/CLL); (2) to describe the deployment of CLL contracts accommodated to Japanese learners of English conversation; and (3) to explore the relationship between Community Language Learning and metacommunication.

Counseling-Learning is an approach to education which can be described as "task-oriented counseling." A counseling approach to education has three characteristics: the goal is the accomplishment of a task; the vehicle of learning is the interpersonal relationship; and in Counseling-Learning there is diachronic continuity. Diachronic continuity means that events fit together in a time sequence. If a counseling hour is interrupted at a given point in time (synchronically), much of the content will be related diachronically both to what has developed previously and to what will follow.

First, the counseling goal in Counseling-Learning is very general and includes the mastery of academic subjects like history, geography, or mathematics. The specific application of Counseling-Learning to foreign language education is called Community Language Learning (CLL). As an approach to language education, CLL draws insights from other disciplines such as Linguistics,

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Psychology, and Communications, and is therefore interdisciplinary in its application. The term 'accommodated' Community Language Learning which appears in the title of this article distinguishes between classical CLL, which was developed by Curran and which is primarily applicable to beginners in a foreign language, and the application of CLL to learners with some background in a foreign language. In Japan, for example, students have had a six-year background in English during junior and senior high school. Consequently, we scarcely ever meet beginners in our English courses at the university or junior college level. They arrive on the first day with a sizable vocabulary and the ability to read and translate from English into Japanese. As a rule, however, they have no ability to communicate with a native speaker in English. Accommodated CLL is the application of CLL to such learners. Classical CLL, however, is still applicable in Japan to first year English in junior high school and to foreign languages other than English at all levels.

Second, Counseling-Learning emphasizes the interpersonal relationship as the vehicle of learning. CLL will be explained with special attention focused on the relationship between the teacher (knower) and students (learners) and among the students themselves.

Third, in Counseling-Learning there is diachronic continuity. Activities and events fit together in Counseling, but not in our classrooms. So much of our current classroom programs consist of unrelated or poorly interrelated activities. In part two of this article, I would like to show how classroom programs based on accommodated CLL can be used in series over a semester or school year. I strongly believe that foreign language activities make more sense to the students when organized in series. The distinction between synchronic and diachronic time is especially useful in analyzing how classroom activities fit together, as will be shown later.

Part One: A Definition of CLL

CLL is defined as follows: CLL is a supportive language learning contract which consists of group experience and group reflection. There are five major elements in this definition: CLL is a supportive contract; CLL is a learning contract; CLL is for the purpose of language learning; CLL consists of group experience; and CLL consists of group reflection.

CLL is a supportive contract

For Curran, learning occurs in a "space" between the knower and the learners. A supportive contract derives from the way "Learner Space" (Curran 1972:91-96) is used by the teacher. Because of the teacher's greater knowledge, and differences such as age, life experience, nationality, personality, and so on, there exists a distance or space between the teacher and the learners. This space is necessary if one person is to learn from another (Curran 1972:91). All too often the learning space is occupied by the teacher alone.

The CLL teacher facilitates learning by guiding and encouraging the learners to develop and grow in the learner space. This approach is characterized by less lecturing and a more silent attitude on the part of the teacher. During short-term counseling (Curran 1972:6), for example, the teacher explains the purpose of the activity and sets a brief time limit (ten or fifteen minutes). Then he or her awaits the reaction of the students before proceeding further. In this way, silence on the part of the teacher can be a way of encoraging the students to actively move into their own leaner space.

Once the learner is in his or her own learning space there is considerably more self-investment and, consequently, improved prospects for real growth. An example of this is when a student once requested that the teacher not comment until another student had finished giving a report. Before complying, the teacher asked: "Am I allowed to make a comment now?" The student replied: "No, please listen until the report is finished."

CLL is a learning contract

Curran (1972:30) purposely adopted the term "Community" as opposed to "Group" language learning. A group is composed of a number of people engaged in a common task. A community is formed around a "contract." The existence of a contract differentiates CLL from other forms of group learning. A contract is an agreement by a number of individuals to engage in a common task for the purpose of achieving some goal. In addition, an interpersonal contract includes interaction, role, and dedication. The community is regulated by a series of social rules which facilitate group interaction and give it direction. The responsibility of the teacher is to decide which kind of activity will best fit the needs of the students. Examples of such activities are presented in part two.

Community also means a change of roles. In the CLL learning contract the teacher moves from one who is exclusively giver to one who can also be receiver. Similarly, the students move from being exclusively receivers to being receivers who can also be givers, both to the teacher and to other students. Consequently, there are a number of options the teacher may choose to relate to the group as a whole, such as the use of small groups or pair work which allow the students more freedom to act.

At any point in the life of the community, the social rules can be isolated and identified during a period of reflection. This reflection period is an integral part of the CLL contract around which the community is formed. It is also a time for gauging the dedication of the learners and the effectiveness of the contract, which are in direct relation to the amount and quality of the English spoken. These can be evaluated by the teacher and students together.

The existence of a reflection period differentiates CLL in a unique way from mere group activity. It is important to realize, however, that other kinds of group activities can fit into the scope of CLL as "subcontracts." Each activity is evaluated by the students during a reflection period. In this way the reflection period is the mechanism by which the community reflects back on itself and moves toward maturity.

CLL is for the purpose of language learning

According to Curran's Classical CLL (1972:128-135), foreign language learning is like the birth and growth of a new self. There is birth and childhood (Stages I and II), adolescence (Stages III and IV), and growth to adulthood (Stage V). The use of the term "stage" in CLL (and accommodated CLL) is flexible and is an approximate indication of growth and progress in a foreign language. Application of the term to a group of students is a rough estimation. A proportional number of students can be located in each of the five stages at different times in the school year (see figure 1).

Stage I, the Embryonic or Birth Stage, is characterized by anxiety and the complete dependency of the learner on the teacher. The initial anxiety of the relationship can be lessened by the security generated by the teacher. The learner develops an identity in the foreign language through the knower (Curran 1972:131).

In Stage II, the Self-Assertion Stage, the members of the class gradually begin to adopt phrases from the teacher or other members of the group. Thus, they can begin slowly to assert their growing independence.

Stage III is the Separate Existence Stage. At this point, individuals begin to use the foreign language directly without translation from the native language. They also resist the teacher's intervention in the group. Progress at Stages II and III is difficult to assess. One minute they use the foreign language directly (Stage III); then they fall back into the use of translation (Stage II). In Stage III a strong force for learning is an affective one, specifically, indignation. As the learner's capacity unfolds, he or she needs to assert his own unique way of learning in a strong and forceful manner, even if this means disagreeing with the teacher's basic approach. The teacher/knower must accept this as inherent in the learning process in order to help the learner during this stage.

The crisis becomes acute in the group at the end of Stage III and the beginning of Stage IV. During Stage III, the students learn to speak independently, but they make many grammatical errors. If their grammatical accuracy in the foreign language is to improve, some contact must be maintained with the teacher. Stage IV is the Role Reversal Stage. During Stages I, II, and III, the teacher has performed primarily in a role of extending help and understanding for the students. If the students hope to make further progress, they have to take over at least a portion of this function. They begin to make it possible for the teacher to perform his or her teaching activities.

The following criticism once arose during a CLL reflection period. A student in Stage III declared quite forcefully in his report: You are a bad teacher because you never correct our mistakes. In the next class, I promptly deployed a large group contract for English conversation. It was the same contract called "Short Term Counseling" that I had used previously at Stage I, though with a considerable increase in the time allotted for the speaking experience within that contract. Anxiety had prevented the students in Stage I from actively participating in the conversation, but at this stage they were ready for more, so the contract was altered accordingly. As the class was now moving into Stage IV, it also became possible to correct all the mistakes that were made, publically, on the spot. For less serious mistakes, only a hint or gesture were necessary; the students corrected themselves after a slight moment of thought. More serious mistakes were corrected directly, though in general the flow of the group conversation was uninterrupted by the intervention of the teacher. The teacher also functioned in a different role. It was now possible to move away from only a counseling role to the point where he could interject his own opinions and feelings. The point to note here is that the students in Stage IV were prepared to accept correction of their mistakes and also differences of opinion and point of view. This would have cut off communication had it occurred in the beginning at Stage I. This kind of interaction with the teacher would also have met stiff resistance had it occurred during the early phases of Stage III.

Stage V is the Independent or Adult Stage. At this stage, the learner may still need some refinements and minor corrections in order to learn appropriate social usage of the foreign language, but for most practical purposes an adequate level of language proficiency has been reached. Learners at Stage V begin to share the teacher's counseling role in three ways. First, they become counselors to the less advanced or younger students. Second, they can accept responsibility for planning the class. Third, they can create new CLL contracts. As an example of the counseling role, I once asked my students to choose two students to serve as moderators for a large group experience. This was done after the time and purpose of the large group were announced. The function of the moderators was to ask for topics and to insure the participation of each student in the conversation. The result of the request was a period of silence. During this time, I had some doubts about whether the request was properly understood, but I decided to wait for a reply before repeating or explaining my request. After seventeen minutes of silence, a member of the class spoke up as follows: "Perhaps we had better choose two moderators, as the teacher has said." Immediately two other students volunteered to serve as moderators for the large group speaking experience. After the time and purpose were restated, a lively conversation with full participation ensued. This event occurred without undue disturbance. Although the request by the teacher and the reply by the student were separated by a seventeen-minute period of silence, the response by the class was appropriate. My request was understood accurately in spite of the long silence. Other students were given the chance to be moderators also. The sharing of the responsibility by the teacher stimulated participation by the students.

The students were also given a chance to participate in the planning of class activities. They were divided into small groups and each group was given the task of suggesting the order of the lessons to be covered in the textbook. Each group was asked to write their suggestions on the blackboard. Besides the textbook lessons, the students asked that the teacher continue the conversation groups, and introduce English songs and videotape movies. When the groups had written their requests, the teacher attempted to draw a consensus from the many requests. The result was that I was able to announce the activities of the class in advance, and students began to study the lesson before the class began.

Students in Stage V also learn to create new CLL contracts. An example is an exercise called "A Personal Interview." It consists of three parts: preparing, conducting, and evaluating the interview. By way of preparation, each group of five students composes a single set of open-ended statements and questions concerning the life of an individual from childhood, through high school, and into junior college. Future hopes and goals are also included. In conducting the ten-minute interview, one student acts as interviewer, one student becomes the interviewee, and two more are observers. The fifth student acts as chairperson (time keeper) for the group. The interview is followed by a brief reflection period structured in the following way: the interviewee gives an evaluation of the interview; the observers and the chairperson then make their observations. After listening to all these opinions in silence, the interviewer is allowed to respond. Following a brief interval for personal reflection, the roles are changed and the interview is repeated with the same set of questions.

The effects of this exercise have been felt both inside and outside the classroom. Inside the classroom, the focus of the foreign language learning was on the personal development of each participant. Outside the classroom, the students began to apply what they learned about the interview to job interviews which are crucial in determining future careers after graduation. The students reported that they were more relaxed during these interviews.

From these examples, we see that Stage V students are functioning as adult learners. They learn to be sensitive to others, to accept responsibility, and to devise creative solutions to problems. These three elements are crucial in learning *how* to learn.

CLL consists of group experience

There are three kinds of group learning experience which are dependent on the basic interpersonal configuration of the CLL class. First is the large group or whole class learning experience. Larger numbers of students (ten or fifteen) or the whole class membership together with the teacher participate in the group learning experience. Second is the small group of four or five students in which the teacher does not normally participate. Third are the learning experiences which occur in pairs or triads. The participation of the teacher is optional. Each of these three kinds of group experience presents a different interpersonal configuration in the classroom. A sense of "community" emerges from a wide variety of CLL contracts (two or three of each kind of group experience) during the course of a semester or a school year.

CLL consists of group reflection

A period of reflection, evaluation, and/or "feedback" (cf. Wiener 1967:84) is important in CLL. This reflection period consists of two parts: silence and sharing. The students are given a chance to think about the experience, evaluate it, and write a brief report about it. These reports are shared with other members of the class. Reflection in CLL is "feedback," described by Wiener as follows:

> Feedback is a method of controlling a system by reinserting into it the results of its past performance. If these results are merely used as numerical data for the criticism of the system and its regulation, we have the simple feedback of control engineers. If, however, the information which proceeds backward from the performance is able to change the general method and pattern of performance, we have a process which may well be called learning.
> (1967:84)

In a simpler definition, Wiener states that feedback "is the property of being able to adjust future conduct by past performance" (1967:47). Students in my accommodated CLL class have described the feedback process as the realization of loss and gain from the group experience of the day. This comparison serves as a strong force for better performance in the next class and as a unifying element in the group. If a potentially divisive problem, such as "This class is totally useless," does come up in the reflection period, the teacher can challenge the class to take responsibility for such a statement by focusing on it as a legitimate issue for exploration. In this way the problem can work as a unifying element, especially since the teacher is honest enough to face a negative issue.

As mentioned earlier, the average Japanese learner at the post high school level is perhaps at Stage III or IV in terms of analytical ability. When it comes to communicative skills however, the average learner is still at Stage I. The ability to integrate analytic and communicative skills develops during the five stages outlined by Curran, and accommodated CLL has been designed to facilitate the English speaking development of such learners. As will be shown in part two, the very nature of the CLL experience puts language into a communicative mode that allows for the development of communicative skills.

Part Two: CLL Class Programs–Metacommunication in Accommodated CLL

Classroom programs in CLL are continuous. They pass beyond the individual class and relate to the school year as a whole. In addition, classroom programs in CLL can be described as metacommunicative. The term "metacommunication" is used for communication about communication, and in this case communication about interpersonal communication, as will be explained below. The purpose of this section is to explore the relationship between various kinds of metacommunicative processes in CLL and how they fit together in a series over a period of time, for example, the school year. A list of examples will be presented to illustrate.

Metacommunication

Communication occurs at contrasting levels of abstraction (Bateson 1972:17). During counseling, the following four levels operate simultaneously: the denotative, the metalinguistic, the metacommunicative, and the reflective levels. The denotative level refers to the simple content of the message, including such items of information as the conditions of the CLL contract, for example, the time and place of the meeting. The metalinguistic level refers to the language itself as the subject of discourse between speakers. Discussing parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives is an example of metalinguistic communication. Metalinguistic communication has traditionally dominated in the language classroom setting, though greater attention is now being paid to the importance of other kinds of classroom communication.

In CLL, the metacommunicative and reflective levels of communication are emphasized as a means of making classroom teaching more effective. On the metacommunicative level the subject of the discourse is the relationship between speakers (Bateson 1972:178). CLL is metacommunicative because the relationship between the teacher and the students is a subject for exploration during both the CLL experience and reflection periods. At Stage I, the communication between the teacher and students is characterized by long periods of silence, especially during short-term contracts for English speaking when students are asked to use English in a communicative mode to accomplish some task or explore some issue. In the communication about the communication–the CLL reflection period–discussion about the CLL experience leads to clarification of the reason for the silence. Students at Stage I are so overwhelmed by anxiety in the presence of the teacher, especially if he is a native speaker of English, that they can only communicate by the opposite of speech, namely, silence. During the accommodated CLL reflection period, they state very clearly, "I was silent because I was afraid."

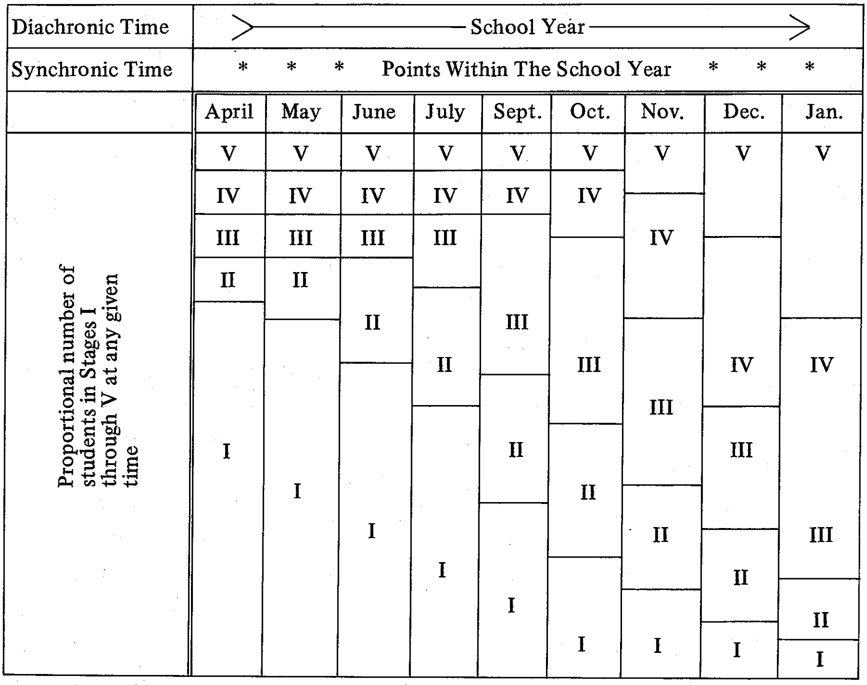
The fourth level of abstraction in communication, the reflective level, consists of communication about how the metalinguistic and metacommunicative messages are to be interpreted. The reflective level is communication about communication about communication. Following on the above example, students at accommodated CLL Stage I were given a chance to speak English in small groups. Reflection after the small group activity gave the students a chance to compare the small group speaking experience with the large group speaking experience. The students stated they were much more relaxed when speaking in small groups about many different topics of their own choice. The next step was to do pairwork activities. By way of reflection afterwards, the students reported that they were able to speak with many students in the class.The pairwork activities were also compared positively with other classes of conversational English where they were, in the students' thinking, "not allowed to speak" with so many other students. The pairwork activity was also described as a very intensive foreign language speaking activity which brought on physical fatigue. The reflection period provided a welcome respite. As a result of the paired and small group speaking experiences, the students found themselves less anxious and better able to communicate in English. Their growing independence showed an advance from Stage I to Stage II.

From this example we can see that if the communication in CLL is stopped at any point in time, the content will be found to relate to that which went on before, giving it both a synchronic and diachronic dimension. The content of any lesson relates not only to past lessons but should also prepare the way for subsequent lessons as the skill level of the students develops. The task of the CLL teacher is to implement CLL contracts which will encourage communication on the metacommunicative and reflective levels. The teacher should also sequence these contracts appropriately in terms of the required metacommunicative skills necessary for each contract.

In sequencing CLL contracts, the distinction between synchronic and diachronic metacommunication is helpful. Synchronic metacommunication means the metacommunication at any one time. For example, if a student says, "I was afraid to speak" during a particular CLL reflection period, this is an example of synchronic metacommunication. In contrast, diachronic metacommunication means the development of metacommunication skills over a period of time, the school year for example, during which a student might say, "I became more confident." A metacommunicative act therefore can be evaluated both in terms of the student's present stage of learning (Stage I or II) and also in terms of the progress he has made and is yet to make. This means that an observer seeing only one class activity or reflection period will not be able to make an accurate or complete assessment of what has happened in terms of diachronic metacommunication. Similarly, teachers who plan a lesson without due regard for how it fits into the overall school year will be limited in their ability to effectively interpret feedback from the reflection period and implement it into the planning of subsequent activities.

A combination of diachronic and synchronic time in CLL can be illustrated by means of a chart (see figure 1). At a given point in the school year (synchronic time), for instance in April, a majority of the students will be at Stage I, rather than at more advanced levels such as Stages III, IV, and V. During the course of the first semester in May and June (diachronic time), elements of Stages II

Figure 1: Diachronic and Synchronic Time in CLL



and III become evident. The students appear less anxious and more willing to assert their identity as speakers of English. This situation continues during September and October when the students begin to demonstrate the self-reliance and independence of the Stage III learner. Late in October and even more so in November, the students begin to exercise understanding for the helpful role of the teacher, evidence of Stage IV learning. If the teacher properly implements the contracts at Stages III and IV, the evidence of Stage V learning–the ability to create exercises and assist others to more proficient levels of speaking ability–becomes clear.

The proper CLL contract at any stage of learning must stand as a separate unit and be appropriate to the learning stage of the class at that time. In addition, however, it must fit into a series of CLL contracts over a period of time so that the development of the metacommunicative and reflective levels of communication encouraged by each contract stimulates and reinforces the changing level of the class as it moves from one stage to another (see appendix).

Conclusion

In the introduction to this article, three characteristics of a counseling approach to education were cited, namely, the goal, the interpersonal relationships, and diachronic continuity. Three conclusions can be drawn from an effective implemention of this approach through accommodated CLL.

First, many different kinds of activities contribute to the achievement of the Counseling-Learning goal. Because they can and should be effectively classified as to order, the CLL contracts can be deployed rapidly so as to meet the students' needs at any point in time and also in response to how the class is developing as a group.

Second, in terms of interpersonal relationship, both the teacher and the students profit from learning through CLL contracts. The CLL teacher is in a better position to make informed judgements at each step in the learning process. From each reflection period, the teacher receives feedback data on which to base a decision about the next activity. Students can be taught *how* to learn, especially if they become involved in the process of creating CLL contracts. This is important for their personal development because *learning how to learn* remains even if the students never use the foreign language after the course is finished.

Third, because of their diachronic continuity, CLL contracts can be described in terms of events at specific points in time (synchronically), as developing processes (diachronically) through a period of time, and as a combination of both. This allows for development at several levels, both explicit and implicit, and leads to foreign language learning by individuals and also in groups. The importance of the group here is that language is both an individual and a social phenomenon, and that language occurs within the context of a community identity. In Community Language Learning the dimension of language as group communication is of fundamental importance in the learning process as well (see appendix).

In conclusion, the individual grows in the foreign language through membership in a community, not only in terms of foreign language development but also in terms of increased metacommunicative skills. Subsequent studies with CLL may shed further light on how group membership fosters individual development in terms of metacommunication.

APPENDIX

Metacommunication in CLL

Synchronic Metacommunication in CLL: Short Term Counseling Contracts

a. *Short Term Counseling Contracts at Stage I*

The Large Group Contract: Time limit greatly restricted–ten minutes at the most. Teacher participates in a reserved manner.

The Small Group Contract: Time limit restricted to ten minutes. Teacher does not participate, but remains available for consultation.

The Pair or Triad Group Contracts: Brief time limit of three minutes. Not more than five periods of three minutes each. The participation of the teacher is optional.

b. *Short Term Counseling Contracts at Stages II and III*

The Large Group Contract: Because of the anxiety of the students in Stage I and the indignation of students in Stage III, the large group contract is not used at this time.

The Small Group Contract: Many small group contracts are employed without the participation of the teacher so the reflection period is important as the vehicle for teacher input. It should also be pointed out that in general the reflection period is especially important for students at Stages II and III. The following are examples of small group contract exercises:

The Johari Window: A small group reading exercise about self-understanding. It may also be introduced in the reflection period after a group speaking experience (see note 1).

The Shape I'm In: A small group exercise. Each participant chooses a shape from among five proposed by the teacher. The shape is to represent the feelings of the individual at that moment. Those who choose similar shapes are grouped together for a conversation about "The Shape I'm In." Reflection on this exercise leads to a better understanding of self–the point of the previous exercise (see note 2).

The Clock Line Up: The clock numbers from one to twelve are posted around the room. Each participant is asked to go to his/her favorite hour of the day. The students are grouped around the different hours of the day. Time is given for discussion. This exercise leads to an understanding of one's attitude toward time. It also leads to an understanding of the attitude of others (see note 2). (Possible alternatives are: Days of the Week or Months of the Year.)

The Pair Group Contract: The time limit can be extended. Partners can be changed many times. Good for a warm-up at the beginning of a class.
Note: The exercise is very intensive. If continued for forty-five minutes, students report physical fatigue.

c. *Short Term Counseling Contracts at Stages IV and V*
The Large Group Contract: The time limit can be extended to thirty minutes or an hour. Students adopt an active speaking role. They begin to prefer the large group rather than small or pair groups. The students become moderators. The teacher functions as a corrector of mistakes. The teacher fosters full participation. The teacher drops his/her counseling role and participates in his/her real self. He/she is able to express his/her real feelings, interests, and opinions.
The Small Group Contract: The small group loses its attraction, but can still be employed for class projects such as planning for subsequent classes or creating new CLL contracts.
The Pair Group Contract: Students invite the teacher to participate. If the teacher has some problem with the class, individual opinions can be asked during this time. The number of those reporting physical fatigue decreases.

Diachronic Metacommunication in CLL: A Series of CLL Contracts

a. *The Beginning of a Semester (see note 3)*
Self-Introduction
Goal Setting: individuals are asked to write a short paragraph about why they joined the class. The students are divided into small groups for discussion. Each group summarizes their discussion and one student reports the summary to the whole class.

b. *The Middle of a Semester*
The Interview (see note 4)
The Fall-Out Shelter Problem (see note 5)
Alligator River (see note 5)
The Miracle Workers (see note 5)
Stranded in the Desert (see note 6)
Marooned (see note 6)

c. *The End of a Semester or School Year*
General Reflection: Evaluation of all the CLL contracts by individuals. Discussion and summarizing in small groups. Reporting to the whole class.

Explanatory Notes

1. Taken from: Luft, J. 1969. *Of human interaction: the Johari model.* Palo Alto, California: Mayfield Publishing Co.
2. Taken from: Moskowitz, G. 1978. *Caring and sharing in the foreign language class.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.
3. An example: *Cross Currents* 5(1):60-64
4. The Interview has been described in detail previously: *Cross Currents* 9(2): 1-13.
5. Taken from: Simon. S., L. Howe, and H. Kirschenbaum. 1978. *Values clarification: a handbook of practical strategies for teachers and students.* Strategy numbers 48, 50, and 66. New York: Hart Publishing Co.
6. Taken from: Byrd, D. and I. Clemente-Cabetas. 1980. *React interact: situations for communication.* Pp. 21 and 27. New York: Regents Publishing Co.

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Content in Composition Courses: Women's Studies

Wayne Pounds

I will start with a text on the subject of relevance in education: James Agee's description of the shortcomings in the education of the children of Alabama sharecroppers in 1936. Its relevance to Japan in 1984 will be clear if the reader substitutes the word "sexes" for the phrase "the white and negro races" in lines five and six.

> Or again on the curriculum: it was unnecessary to make even such search into this as I made to know there is no setting before the students of 'economic' or 'social' or 'political' 'facts' and of their situation within these 'facts,' no attempt made to clarify or even slightly to relieve the situation between the white and negro races, far less to explain the sources, no attempt to clarify psychological situations in the individual, in his family, or in his world, no attempt to get beneath and to revise those 'ethical' and 'social' pressures and beliefs in which even a young child is trapped, no attempt, beyond the most nominal, to interest a child in using or in discovering his senses and judgment, no attempt to counteract the paralytic quality inherent in 'authority,' no attempt beyond the most nominal and stifling to awaken, to protect, or to 'guide' the sense of investigation. . . . *(Let Us Now Praise Famous Men)*

Postman and Weingartner, in their classic assault on irrelevance in American education, *Teaching as a Subversive Activity*, quote Agee's relentless sentence at three times the length I have provided here. Their point is that Agee's condemnation "is entirely applicable to the present day."

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> In plain truth, what passes for a curriculum in today's schools is little else but a strategy of distraction, as it was in Alabama in 1936. It is largely designed to keep students from knowing themselves and their environment in any realistic sense; which is to say, it does not allow inquiry into most of the critical problems that comprise the content of the world outside the school. (1969:47)

I believe that Agee's condemnation is also applicable, with the one alteration, to Japanese higher education in the 1980's. English study is the sore point here because English is what female students receive as a substitute for the professional and vocational training they are discouraged from pursuing. I take it for granted that sexual discrimination in Japan plays the same role as racial discrimination in the United States: it is the surface feature which permits us to deduce the deep structure of the language of power.

In this article, I would like to propose sexual politics as a theme for composition courses. The fact of sexual politics is the reason for the preponderance of female students in college English courses in Japan. The sexual pattern is clear: in the national universities (and education in these institutions is what really counts in Japan) the majority of courses are taught by male Japanese teachers to male students (Koike 1983:1, 6–8, 261-262). The faculties of the national universities not only have an inordinately high proportion of male teachers (82%), they have a markedly lower proportion of foreign teachers than do the faculties of private colleges and universities (Freeman 1979:221-222). It is my opinion that in Japan education for women matters less than education for men, and that they are given a larger dose of English study for the same reason that they are encouraged to take up tea ceremony and flower arrangement: as a social grace to adorn their future husband's estate. Students in a typical private four-year women's college or junior college are taught nothing which might alert them to social reality or the facts of post-college life. The universities which have offered a course in women's studies can be counted on one hand (see Kakinuma 1980:100-101). Throughout the educational system, from grade school through college, girls and women are "sharecroppers."

I imagine that there are two reasons for the appeal of my subject to a great number of ESL teachers. First, a very high proportion of us in higher education (including the great majority of the foreign teachers), have preponderantly female students. Second, all of us are involved in teaching the so-called "no-content" courses, composition and conversation. (The notion of a "no-content" course itself deserves an essay. See Lanham 1974:12-13; Ohman 1976.)

However, the dream of teaching as a "no-content" activity divorced from politics, though it may soothe some teachers, is puerile and false. Departments of language and literature are part of the ideological apparatus of the modern industrial state—in Japan as elsewhere (Miller 1982; Eagleton 1983:200). The final meaning of pedagogy is politics. With that axiom in mind, I turn now to composition as such: how to help students write better English without abetting the sale of their souls to the Japanese establishment.

I propose that a composition course organized around the theme of women's studies can be valuable and that such a course promises to be effective in three areas, which I would like to discuss. Some of the considerations that I shall mention are not new, but in all cases they emerge from recent first language research in the composing process and its extensions to second language pedagogy (Zamel 1982; Raimes 1983a, 1983b). It seems pertinent to note here that in L1 composition pedagogy over the last decade, concern with the content of composition courses has resulted in a large number of cross-disciplinary programs called variously Writing Across the Curriculum or Interdisciplinary Writing (Weiss 1980; Kinneavy 1983).

First, this type of thematically organized course promises to be effective because it insures personal involvement. The value of student engagement has become a truism among teachers who see communication as the foundation of language learning (Raimes 1983b:543, 547). Research shows that students write "with greater fluency and satisfaction" when they are personally involved in their writing (Zamel 1982:197; Judy 1980:39; Lauer 1980:54). A theme which is not only personal but also important—as opposed to the frivolity of the "What I did last summer" type—also assures a cognitive dimension and an emphasis on ideas. This seems important in the light of research indicating that "cognitive stimulation" is the "best developer of syntax" (Raimes 1983a:263-266).

Second, a thematically organized composition course naturally requires a reading component as a source of information, and the reading and writing skills can be used to mutually reinforce each other (Shaughnessy 1977:223). The use of reading in composition courses has recently undergone severe criticism by process-oriented teachers and researchers because too often in the past reading and rhetorical analysis became a substitute for writing. This criticism, however, is directed at the way teachers use readings, not at readings themselves (Escholz 1980:24-26). The student must be familiar with the product in order to understand the goal of the process. Krashen (1984:4,29,38) has recently reviewed the research on reading and writing and concluded that "pleasure reading" is a powerful tool for L2 acquisition generally and for acquiring writing competence in L1. The limited data that exists for L2 writing "shows clear similarities with first language writing" and suggests similar benefits from student-selected reading. In a thematically organized course the teacher would provide a necessary minimum of readings and at the same time have the students use the library and other resources for additional material. Among the materials generated should be found examples of the principal aims: informative, persuasive, expressive, literary (Kinneavy 1971:38-39; Odell et al. 1978:2-3), and the best of these would serve as models. In L2 pedagogy especially, readings are important in providing large injections of relevant vocabulary from the world of real discourse.

Third, as the reference above to student library research indicates, the thematic composition course lends itself to increased peer involvement, or "student investment," in Counseling-Learning terms. Peer involvement at once provides an audience for the writing and reduces the expense of teacher time and effort, both key considerations. It is useful at all stages in the writing process. In the pre-writing stage, peer involvement is useful in gathering, discussing, and evaluating information and materials, and in deciding audience and purpose (Odell et al. 1978:2-3). Students may work in pairs or groups to sketch or outline ideas. One student may present her thesis or a sketch of her ideas to another as a test of comprehensibility. In the writing or drafting stage, students could produce a first draft followed by peer evaluation with focus on information. This could be followed by a rewrite and then a second peer evaluation with focus on sentence clarity. This could in turn be followed by another rewrite, producing the near-final version. Finally, in the post-writing stage, peer group editing is possible (Judy 1980:50). Though the sequence of my description here is necessarily linear, I do not mean to imply a hard linear sequence. The process of composition is not linear but recursive (Gorrell 1983; Witte 1983:313). The class serves as the audience for the writing so that "students learn to view their writing as someone else's reading" (Zamel 1982:195).[1]

Student journals also come to mind in the context of peer work, especially since they offer a natural form for the potentially large expressive component of women's studies. Selected passages can be shared in groups as the student authors think appropriate. The other function of journals is to provide extended writing practice (Shortreed and Kelly, 1984:4; Zamel 1982:205, Weiss 1980:139). Ruth Spack and Catherine Sadow (1983) make some persuasive suggestions about the use of student-teacher working journals.

Before concluding, I would like to mention the case study approach to composition, which is a parallel and promising approach, readily adaptable to the procedures described above. A case study involves the use of a book of cases, such as *Cases for Composition* (Field and Weiss 1979) and would amount to organization of the class curriculum around a series of themes, since each case is attacked by the class as a whole. "Cases have the power of authenticity and are not as artificial as other academic exercises" (Weiss 1980:136). They would have still more power, it seems to me, if the teacher helped the class to prepare their own cases. (The Field and Weiss text could serve the teacher as an excellent how-to model.)

A class might, for example, take up the case of "K Sensei" in Odawara, who was subjected to a silent sex-change operation by the editors of a major Japanese textbook press when they published an essay written by one of her sixth-year students (Higuchi 1981: 201-236). The subject of the essay was a class marathon which K Sensei had led. The publishers, drawing upon male common sense, decided that leading a marathon was an activity more appropriate to a male teacher and, without informing the author, changed K Sensei's sex before publishing the essay. K Sensei eventually received justice, but the process by which it was brought about might well be treated as a separate but related study.

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[1]This paragraph is indebted to the workshop "Composing in an Integrated Thematic ESL Course" presented by Professor Stanley Jones and his colleagues of Carlton University at the Conference on College Composition and Communication, New York, March 1984.

Another case of more than ordinary interest could be constructed by the students and teacher if they were to investigate the ratio of male to female teachers employed by NHK educational television and radio, the subjects taught by each sex, and the rationale for it all. (My offhand impression is that the ratio approaches 99:1 and the few women teach arts and crafts such as flower arrangement and cooking. There are, I know, a few exceptions.) The students could be asked to investigate the rationale of the recent Citizens' University (*Shimin Daigaku*) television series on the history of the women's movement in Japan—taught exclusively by men.

I confess by way of conclusion that, unfortunately, the amount of material available in English about the situation of women in Japan is very limited. The story of K Sensei for example, has been published only in Japanese. (My English translation of it is included as an appendix to this article.) However, I have compiled a bibliography to complement this article. I hope it will be useful to those who are interested in pursuing the subject of women's studies.[2]

[2] It seems that this is a ripe field for a special interest group within the Japan Association of Language Teachers, and a kernel group was organized at the National Conference in November, 1984. Professor Catherine Broderick of Kobe Jogakuin has generously agreed to provide a clearing center. She can be contacted at the following address: Haitsu Horyu 503, 17-50 Mondo-so, Nishinomiya 662, Japan. She also provided a good number of the selected list of English materials which forms part II of the bibliography which accompanies this article.

APPENDIX

Japanese Women in the 1980's
The Light and the Shadow

by Keiko Higuchi

In Pursuit of the Vanished Woman Teacher

When K Sensei of the city of Odawara was teaching the sixth grade of elementary school, she resolved that her students should graduate with the greatest possible strength and vitality. Perhaps her resolution was the result of a premonition that this would be her last year as a teacher. She drew a huge map of Japan in her classroom and appealed to the students: "Let's run a marathon this year all the way to Kyushu!" At first the students were very enthusiastic in their running, but, however hard they tried, as the year wore on they began to tire and slacken. K Sensei encouraged and cheered them on, and by one means or another she led them all, without a single exception, to finish the distance. The children knew the joy of a goal accomplished. One girl wrote an essay about this marathon in which all the class members, with the encouragement of the teacher, had succeeded in running the whole distance. The essay, collected in the school anthology, eventually came to the attention of educationalists, and proceeding through various stages of selection it was finally included in a sixth-year Japanese language and literature textbook. The publisher was a textbook company which boasted an outstanding share of textbooks in the field. K Sensei, when she heard the news, experienced the greatest happiness a teacher can know. A local newspaper carried the story, and she was surrounded by congratulations from her colleagues.

On the day a sample copy of the textbook arrived, K Sensei was like a young girl with her heart full of joyful expectation. She found the essay in the table of contents, turned to the page, and began to read. As she read, her face stiffened, and she felt the palpitation in her breast subside into the stillness of disappointment. K Sensei had disappeared from the essay. In her place appeared an energetic male teacher.

"This is not I," she thought. "Even if I said that I'm the teacher who led this class marathon, an outsider wouldn't believe it." She talked the matter over with her female colleagues, and they agreed that the people at the textbook company had decided that a woman was not appropriate to direct the kind of strenous physical education involved in a marathon. A women would not have the required guts. K Sensei tried to persuade herself that there was nothing she could do about the situation, but somehow the feeling persisted: she could not resign herself to accept the rubbing out of her own existence.

Left with this feeling, that same year K Sensei retired from thirty years' teaching and was elected as the only woman member of the City Council. Her premonition had been correct: that class in which she led the marathon was her last class. Toward the end of 1979 I visited Odawara, and she told me about the affair of the essay. It was to appear again in a revision of the textbook, scheduled for the second semester of 1980. With K Sensei's consent, I decided to investigate the process of this sex-change operation which had been performed without the subject's permission. I wanted to find out at what stage and for what reason her existence had been erased. With other members of the Subcommittee on Education of the Women's Association for Action in International Women's Year, I visited the textbook company several times. This is what we learned.

The "woman teacher" became a "man teacher": the difference is more subtle than may appear. Usually in a Japanese student essay, only the word *sensei* is used, and no distinction between male and female is made. If the student writes *sensei* the word refers simply to the teacher in charge of the class, and in this case it just happened that the teacher had unmistakably been a woman. The changes which the textbook company had made were in certain sex-distinctive particles and inflections. In conversation in standard Japanese, there are many differences between male speech and female. Some particles, among them the question-forming particles, are used only by men and others only by women. For example, in the essay in question the student had described a scene in which the students seemed to be flagging in the marathon and the teacher mildly rebuked them, saying, "You're not getting tired, are you?" The original form of the question clearly revealed the speaker to be a woman. The textbook company had changed the question particle to show that the speaker was a man.

There were two other places in which inflections had been similarly altered. The total number of hiragana characters involved in these changes was very small. It is strange to think that by changing only these few characters the image of the teacher had been altered to a dark and handsome, fearless and muscular man. K Sensei was a plump, fair-complected woman of middle age. She was, however, a gymnastics specialist, and though she was past 50 she ran at the head of the marathon for the whole distance.

"If it had been a fictional story," she said, "it might have been all right for them to make the teacher a man. But I am the teacher who led this marathon, and I'm a woman. Not one of the classes with male teachers tried anything at all like this."

Such being the case, why was it necessary to twist the facts and change the wording of the essay in order to make the teacher a man? Or was it simply a mistake which had been made unconsciously?

The textbook company openly admitted that they had wanted to make the teacher a man. It had not been an unconscious mistake but a conscious sex change. They gave two reasons.

First, they claimed that in the textbooks used in the lower grades so many female teachers appeared that, for the sake of balance, they wanted to have male teachers appear in those for the higher grades. Second, they said that traditionally the marathon was a man's competition and therefore it was more natural for the teacher to be a man.

Neither of these reasons is in any way just. When I checked the textbooks for the lower grades, I found no indication that large numbers of women were creating an imbalance. In the textbooks I examined, including illustrations, male and female teachers appeared in about the same number. The illustrations, moreover, frequently showed completely stereotyped sexual division of labor with a male teacher running at the head of the students and female teachers watching quietly from the side lines. When we think that at present female teachers make up 57 percent of lower-grades teachers, the proportion of women may even seem small. Certainly there is no necessity to purposely increase the number of upper-grades male teachers in order to keep the balance.

Since the textbook company had the nerve to talk about "balance," we wanted to make an issue of the sexual imbalance of the company's editorial board. The list of names revealed twenty three people, including specialists in Japanese language, Japanese literature, children's literature, as well as writers. Among these there was a total of one woman's name. In spite of the fact that Japanese literature and children's literature are fields in which talented women are anything but scarce, the ratio was 22 to 1. There did not seem to be any thought on the part of the textbook company to increase the number of women for the sake of balance. When a few women begin to come to the front, they quickly begin to worry about balance, but when almost all are men and the women are few or none, they show not the least concern. Such is the sense of "balance" of this male society.

The second reason, the claim that the marathon is traditionally a man's competition is mistaken in two senses. There is a saying, "Tradition is something we make." Only when tradition is freshly re-examined and filled with the spirit of a new age does it have the force to be transmitted to the next. The history of the marathon is even now being rewritten. Even before the compilation of the textbook in question, the Tokyo International Women's Marathon was the object of lively interest, and recently it has been decided that the women's marathon be officially adopted as an event in the Olympics.

But the more basic sense in which the company's claim is mistaken is that the marathon which K Sensei directed, properly speaking, was not a marathon at all. A marathon is a timed race run for speed, but K Sensei's event took place over a year's time, with no regard for speed. Students were allowed to run at their own pace and were asked only to run a distance equivalent to the distance to Kyushu. In short it was a test of persevering endurance. Looked at from this point of view, the company's claim was totally without meaning.

To sum up, for the largely male editorial staff (not the editorial board but the staff who did the actual editing work) it was common sense that this kind of energetic leadership requiring physical strength and ability was more proper for a male teacher. The source of the editorial changes was that this male "common sense" had prevailed. Presented with our protests and the counter arguments above, the company had no rebuttal. As a result, though the textbook had already received the official approval of the Ministry of Education, the Ministry required that the company submit the textbook for reapproval on the grounds that the designated passages were clearly contrary to what the student had written. In this way, happily, K Sensei was restored to the essay.

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The Fully Notional Syllabus: A Sample Lesson

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Introduction

In 1973, in a paper written after the Ruschlikon Symposium on Modern Language Learning in Adult Education, David Wilkins presented what he called "some major notional categories" and "categories of communicative function." Regarding the notional categories he said:

> These categories cannot, of course, handle all the content of utterances, since this would require a system capable of representing all the semantic information to be found in a grammar, a dictionary and a thesaurus of the language. The categories are those supposed to be of general importance, or potentially so, to the learner. They are categories which are appropriate to the means of and need for communication in a European context.
>
> (1973:132)

And about his categories of communicative function he said:

> The framework adopted is largely ad hoc. . . .the categories overlap one another. . .[and] one set of functions might be placed equally well in more than one place in the system. In the places where I have attempted to suggest some possible linguistic realisations of the communicative functions, the suggestions are made on

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> the basis of introspection and not as the result of objective, observational research. In fact, research into the realisation of different communicative functions is a task that would occupy many linguists for many years. . . . I have preferred a more speculative, subjective approach which can be of some immediate practical value. (1973:137)

This latter approach is an option that language teachers can appreciate.

When *Notional Syllabuses* came out in 1976, Wilkins' position was still the same, and as far as I know, it remains the same today. Ad hoc is the best approach available to us. The Notional-Functional Syllabus is not a scientifically systematic guide to teaching a language. There is a built-in hodgepodge effect, probably the result of a serious respect for the nature of human language. Wilkins says: "Looked at pedagogically, there is no way in which a single element of meaning ([grammatical] concept or language function) could be taught without other kinds of meaning simultaneously being introduced" (1976:24). Like Wilkins, I do not think that is a disadvantage; it may not be as neat as a computer program, but it certainly sounds like the nature of language.

A standardized, fully notional syllabus is probably unattainable. Wilkins' seminal presentation of notions and functions in 1973, and again in 1976, is an imaginative map of a *terra incognita*. It merely gives approximate borders and points out only a few of the landmarks. Of course, nothing less than a thesaurus could handle the range of components of any notion in all their synonymy, semantic interrelatedness and contrast, applications, and implications. However, language teachers do not have to worry about the nuances of all of these functions and notions. They can limit themselves to the most important ones and still give the student an idea of the complexity of language.

A notional syllabus does not automatically handle every problem in language pedagogy. However, the principles of the notional syllabus are powerful ones. They can point the way to greater effectiveness in teaching languages, even though the specifics of the syllabus will probably always be arbitrary and ad hoc decisions will be made according to the personality, tastes, experience, and ambitions of textbook writers and teachers. Those decisions, no matter how they vary, will all, however, share one most important feature:

generalization. This will guarantee that whatever variation there is from one text to another, a most important and consistent message, one vital to the use of language for active communication, will be transmitted to the learner: language is varied, grammatical structures are interchangeable, and "base forms" are not necessarily basic. This is a message that we all accept in our pragmatic functioning within our own language and it is a message that is very appropriately transmitted to the language learner. Communication per se is a vague, amorphous target. Communication with flexibility, variety, and relatively low predictability may seem even vaguer, but it has the advantage of being truer to the characteristics of communication. If that lesson can be learned, the learner is prepared to take on a far more complex processing task, the kind needed for real language learning.

It may seem that the notional syllabus, with its apparent randomness and arbitrariness, is no better than the structural-grammatical syllabus, which at least has the blessing of tradition and also has most of the problems worked out. This is not the case, however, even though the structural approach has, as Patrick Allen says (although not approvingly), "the appearance of creating order out of chaos; [and] it imposes order on the heterogeneous mass of language data, and reduces the object of study to its basic essentials" (1977:6). Communication is complex, to understate the matter. Simplification by the textbook writer or the teacher will not make communication any less complex; it can only instill a false sense of security. The shock of exposure to normal, everyday communication is a shock that many students of a foreign language never recover from.

Rationale of the Lesson Segment

The lesson segment that follows is intended to give the student both a view of the complexity of communication and ways of handling that complexity. It is designed to foster in the student the communicative competence that, as Bernard Spolsky says, "will permit him to function in the various situations, take the various roles, and deal with the various topics that his life will demand" (1980:40). The choices that are presented to the students, choices that they are later asked to make through a large variety of situational exercises, involve sociolinguistic conventions that are unavoidable in communication: for example, a proposition like "I hope you have a very good excuse. . ." has the illocutionary message of expressing disapproval and has nothing to do with hope, as *we* know. Making a selection, as the learner must do, from among the possible ways of expressing disapproval depends on the attitudes of the individual involved: neutrality, informality, formality, positive or negative attitudes are all possible. The specific attitudes, setting, and situation, precisely identified for each dialogue, are keyed to precise choices in language selection. The large number of variations, incorporated in the language samples following the dialogues, show the student by example and by commentary that there are rules of appropriacy in language. By offering students this wide selection of language, we are also making them aware of the broad range of rhetorical and grammatical structures that can be used to communicate a given function.

These dialogues show three levels of "attitude," corresponding roughly to Martin Joos' categories of "formal," "consultative," and "casual." A more pragmatic way of describing them would be "formal," "neither formal nor informal," and "informal." The social justification for teaching these three levels and the expressions appropriate to them is the probability that people need to function at each of these levels. One of the characters in the dialogues, George, interacts one way with his boss in the situation of having missed an important business dinner. He interacts differently vis-à-vis the same situation with his colleague Ron. And if he were Steve, he would apologize the same way Steve does for blocking his neighbor's driveway.

The pedagogical justification is that we can demonstrate how given functions vary and take on different language forms, leading the learner to an acceptance of the variety of rhetorical and grammatical structures which make up the exponents (or "realizations") of a specified notion. That variety of structures and vocabulary is only a sample and the further expansion of that sample in the alternatives that follow the dialogues is just that: an expanded sample, a useful, applicable series of sentences, but still a sample. Even though one might not choose to tie together at one time large numbers of items that are related as a single notion, the concept can be taught as a principle, encouraging the learner to accept broader, more comprehensive boundaries than those offered by simple structural categories. This acceptance, which is a willingness to believe that structural variation is logical and inevitable, that a *concept* is more important than a specific *form*, may provide the greatest motivation towards communication that we can hope for.

The functions presented in the dialogues make up a set of interactions: expressing disapproval, apologizing, giving an excuse or reason, forgiving, accepting an excuse or apology, and threatening. Every sentence is the expression of a communicative function, following from and leading to other functions. There is sustained interaction and the density of functional exponents is high. Lining up three situations and settings offers a demonstration of how language varies immediately because of the different attitudes and social and psychological roles. In the breakdown by functions following the dialogues, the explanations try to define the who, when, what, and why of these variants. The aim is to help the learner to understand variation, to see what things may be arbitrarily interchanged, and what elements are more critical and therefore more stable. The learners have the information that will help them determine precisely the situation, setting, and the role of the characters. They can then practice selecting in accordance with their own personal intentions and with some sensitivity to the rules of appropriacy. The aim is, as Wilkins says, "to ensure that the learner knows how different types of meaning are expressed so that [s/he] can then adapt and combine different components of this knowledge according to the requirements of a particular act of communication" (1976:55–56).

The sample expansions for the functions in this lesson have a lot of alternatives, which are shown by means of curly brackets. These brackets enclose words, phrases, and clauses that are structurally interchangeable, conveying either the same or different situational meaning (although all are of course relevant to the function being studied). Students may substitute their own words once they are familiar with the structure and the exercises lead them to such manipulation of vocabulary. The parentheses enclose words, phrases, or clauses which are optional in the sentence and a choice is often indicated within those parentheses.

The structures that are used are chosen according to several criteria which are introspective rather than scientific (in Wilkins' terms, a "speculative, subjective approach"). First, they are needed to assemble a reasonable range of normal and appropriate base sentences showing adequate variation in order to express the specified functions in the registers chosen for the lesson. Second, they are commonly interchanged structures, perceived as equivalents via synonymy and periphrasis. The "reasonable range" of the first criterion shows sentences alternating commonly and arbitrarily: "I hope you have a good excuse/I want to hear your excuse/Do you have a reason. . .?/Why weren't you at the dinner?" The second criterion, the intrasentence level, shows variation of structure as more predictable and controlled although arbitrariness is still inevitable: "Why weren't you at/didn't you attend/did you miss the dinner?" Listing the structures is a simple job, if it is felt to be necessary. The range of structures is relatively limited: "Why didn't you attend?" "Why did you miss?" One verb requires a negative and one does not. If we can assume that the main point is the use of the question as an option for expressing disapproval and that it will be perceived as the main point by the learners, then the simplest explanation of grammar may suffice. The explanation will probably be just a reminder, anyway, to students at an intermediate level. Structure and vocabulary are not going to cause many problems. The learners are being guided to concentrate on stylistic differences at various levels of formality and on the greater impact of some structures over others.

A priority is being set in this kind of presentation. In concentrating on making choices according to precise and specified sociolinguistic conditions, the learner will come to feel that grammar is no longer the most important part of the class. This does not mean that it is ignored. Obviously it is always there. To quote Wilkins again, "notional, situational, and grammatical considerations can never be entirely separated from one another" (1973:142). When grammar *is* separated, however, it can be learned from a book, without a teacher. But when students are told that disapproval is expressed in many ways, among them using statements and questions that look exactly like ordinary statements and questions, the teacher must also explain and point out the difference between the tone of voice that conveys disapproval and that which makes simple statements or asks questions. The teacher provides grammatical comment and analysis when necessary, but that is a minor task compared to pointing out the types of situation in which apologies like "Gee, I'm sorry about that" or "Sorry" are inappropriate. A discussion that focuses on the seriousness of actions, as well as on the social roles of the people involved, requires much more than an explanation of the grammar. Putting a dent in a friend's car, causing someone to fall, breaking something valuable, spilling something that stains a friend's clothing will obviously be perceived as serious by most learners, but there is no built-in device that tells them that "Sorry about that" is inadequate.

The exercises that are included in this segment are particularly important. They require that the learners show their understanding of the particular situation and select the appropriate register for the interaction. This kind of exercise gives the learners what Constance Knop calls "sociolinguistic pattern practice," certainly an indispensable activity in language learning.

The "semantico-grammatical" categories of this lesson segment are presented after the functions. Since *intention, promise,* and *obligation* are easily linked semantically to functions such as disapproving, apologizing, and giving excuses, it seemed appropriate in this section to do the following: 1) to include a summary of the modals that had been unavoidably introduced earlier for stating intentions and obligations; 2) to expand on some of the functions presented in the lesson (for example, *I should have* for an obligation not fulfilled); and 3) to group them together with *promises* into a larger notion of a Scale of Commitment. Thus, having learned the basic uses of the individual modals and other expressions of modality, the learners can now focus their attention on making choices according to where they consciously place the situation on the scale ranging from intention to promise to obligation. The concept of commitment, therefore, is emphasized in this lesson, even though the learners already understand the basic components of intention and obligation and know how and when to use them. The scale of commitment is a generalization; it says that there is a gradation of "moral undertaking and responsibility" (Wilkins' term) from the most casual statement of intention to the firmest statement of obligation. Practice in joining the appropriate linguistic forms with the exact selected purpose of the speaker is the aim of this lesson.

The second semantico-grammatical category, or notion, isolated in this lesson is Frequency. Earlier cycles of this concept have contained simpler components ranging from adverbs of frequency like "always/never," interval expressions like "daily/weekly" and "each day/on Tuesdays," clausal structures of frequency like "Whenever it rains. . ./Every time we go downtown . . ." and a few other items. The two new segments introduced in this lesson are intended to expand the concept of Frequency and they are intentionally mixed structures: one is a verb form, "used to," and the other is a series of idiomatic expressions, "This isn't the first time . . ." "I don't want to tell you all the time . . ." "How many times do I have to. . .?" Except for the problem of overloading the lesson, this might have been a good place to teach the frequentative meaning of the perfect progressive, as well as to place it on a scale of frequency from occasional to continual: "You've missed these dinners before," "This isn't the first time you've missed a dinner," "You've been missing these dinners all year." Placed in such a perspective, the meaning of the present perfect and the present perfect progressive might become clearer to the learner. The idea of overloading is not as frightening in a notional syllabus as it might be elsewhere: the psychological principle of "chunking" probably comes to the rescue as the learner realizes that each segment is a related part of the single concept of Frequency. If Frequency is really meaningful as a notion, then generalization will help find the right place for the components.

Conclusion

The notionally-organized text is both a challenging and a fulfilling one. Variety and quantity under this kind of control is not the same as a simple combination of discrete items. The notional principle is an integrative one: all the ways of expressing a specified function belong together in an intuitively understandable way and all the components of a given grammatical concept belong together in a unified relationship that is only occasionally coherent structurally but always coherent semantically. That is not to say that the teacher must condense all these related functional and notional structures into an hour's lesson. Obviously, time and schedule constraints do not disappear just because of the validity of this type of grouping. It is the *unity* of these relationships which is important and even though they may be spread out according to the exigencies of a teaching program, that unity ought to be not only preserved but continually emphasized, regardless of the number of teaching units they occupy. I believe that the complexity of such a grouping is both acceptable and manageable. It is acceptable because its basic quality is relatedness rather than separateness. And it is ultimately manageable because that relatedness helps us, and the learner, to encompass it.

Notes on the Lesson Segment and Practical Hints

Dialogues I and II as well as dialogue III are preceded by a short description of the setting and situation. All three dialogues are on tape. Before starting work on the notions and functions, students should answer general comprehension questions as well as questions focusing attention on the different roles of the speakers and the differences in their verbal expression for the same functions. These questions should be worked out in advance by the teacher.

The dialogues are followed by materials designed to clarify the different functions and notions. One reasonable way to make the brackets and parentheses less of an obstruction is to ask the students to write out (at home) all the possible variations of the group of sentences being discussed. In this way the exponents will look less like mathematical formulae. The instructor should demonstrate with at least one of the sentences thus:

I hope you have a valid excuse for not attending the dinner.
I hope you have a valid excuse for failing to attend the dinner.
I hope you have a valid excuse for missing the dinner.
(plus the other possibilities, according to the individual instructor).

Explanatory statements which introduce the functions, as well as marginal explanations and comments, are phrased in deliberately direct and simple language to make them accessible to the students. The instructor should of course confirm the students' understanding and provide clarification when necessary. Asterisks indicate the need for further explanation. Exercises for all the functions and notions are numbered and included as an appendix. They provide classroom practice in using the range of exponents appropriately, and the variety in the exponents themselves makes them more interesting.

Finally, since the dialogues, the communicative situations, and the functions all aim at cultural realism, as much role-playing as possible should be encouraged and supported by the instructor.

LESSON SEGMENT

Setting/situation: It's Monday morning. George works for a large company which is trying to get a contract with Mr. Hussein's company. There was a dinner last night.

DIALOGUE I

Mr. McKinney: I hope you have a very good excuse for not attending the dinner for Mr. Hussein, George.

George: I hope you will please excuse me, Mr. McKinney. My son was injured yesterday afternoon, and I had to take him to the Emergency Room.

Mr. McKinney: And doesn't the Emergency Room have a telephone? This isn't the first time you've missed a dinner.

George: I'm terribly sorry, Mr. McKinney. Bobby was too upset for me to get away to phone. And my wife visits her mother on weekends, so I'm responsible for Bobby.

Mr. McKinney: You're also responsible for your job, George. I'll accept your excuse this time. But the next time there's a dinner, see that you make other arrangements for your son's care, or you'll lose your job.

George: Yes, sir. I certainly will.

DIALOGUE II

Ron: George, are you crazy, missing that dinner for Mr. Hussein last night? How do you expect us to get the contract if you miss these dinners?

George: Sorry, Ron. Bobby got hurt again yesterday, and I had to spend the whole day in the Emergency Room.

Ron: I hope he's O.K., but why didn't you call us? You've often missed these dinners.

George: I know I should have called, but I was too busy calming Bobby down to even think of it.

Ron: Is your wife still visiting her mother on weekends?

George: Yeah. So I have to take care of Bobby by myself.

Ron: I understand your situation. But you'd better not let it happen again.

George: I'll make sure it doesn't.

Setting/situation: Steve and Mike are neighbors in a duplex apartment. The two men are friends.

DIALOGUE III

Mike: Hey, Steve, how the heck am I supposed to get my car out when you're parked in front of me?

Steve: Gee, I'm sorry, Mike. I didn't know you were going out.

Mike: It doesn't matter whether I'm going out or not. How many times do I have to tell you not to park in my space?

Steve: Hold on and I'll get my keys. Somebody was parked in my place when I got home, so I took yours.

Mike: I'll forget it this time, but next time you'll be in big trouble.

Steve: O.K. You have my word. I promise not to park there again.

Mike: You used to park on the street when you couldn't get in. Do that next time.

Note: __________ = structures expressing scale of commitment (intention, promise, obligation)

\- - - - - - - - - - = structures expressing frequency (summary of earlier adverbials of frequency, indirect references of frequency, and special verb forms such as "used to" and "would")

EXPRESSING DISAPPROVAL. In English you can express disapproval by statements, questions, and insults. Insults, however, are not constructive; they do not help to correct a situation. Therefore you will not learn insults in this chapter. Listen carefully to the tone of voice of the speakers. Disapproval is usually expressed by tone of voice. Statements, questions, or requests for excuses become statements of disapproval by a change in tone of voice.

Formal

1. *I hope you have a very good excuse for not attending the dinner for Mr. Hussein.*

   I hope you have a(n) $\left(\begin{array}{l}\text{valid}\\ \text{(very) good}\end{array}\right)\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{excuse}\\ \text{reason}\end{array}\right\}$ for $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{not attending}\\ \text{failing to attend}\\ \text{missing}\end{array}\right\}$ the dinner.

2. *I want to hear your excuse for not attending the dinner for Mr. Hussein.*

   I want to hear your $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{excuse}\\ \text{reason}\end{array}\right\}$ for $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{not attending}\\ \text{failing to attend}\\ \text{missing}\end{array}\right\}$ the dinner $\left(\begin{array}{l}\text{for Mr. Hussein}\\ \text{last night}\end{array}\right)$.

3. *Do you have a reason for not attending the dinner for Mr. Hussein?*

   Do you have a(n) $\left(\begin{array}{l}\text{valid}\\ \text{good}\end{array}\right)\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{excuse}\\ \text{reason}\end{array}\right\}$ for $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{not attending}\\ \text{failing to attend}\\ \text{missing}\end{array}\right\}$ the dinner ?

4. *You missed the dinner for Mr. Hussein last night. Do you have a valid reason?*

   You $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{missed}\\ \text{failed to attend}\\ \text{did not attend}\end{array}\right\}$ the dinner (for Mr. Hussein) (last night). Do you have

   a(n) $\left(\begin{array}{l}\text{valid}\\ \text{good}\end{array}\right)\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{reason}\\ \text{excuse}\end{array}\right\}$?

5. *Why weren't you at the dinner?*

   Why $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{weren't you at}\\ \text{didn't you attend}\\ \text{did you miss}\end{array}\right\}$ the dinner (for Mr. Hussein) (last night)?

EXPECTED REPLY

1, 2, 3. An excuse or reason (usually with an apology before or after).
4. Same. A "yes/no" answer is not appropriate.
5. Same. This form can be a question or a demand for an excuse. Your tone of voice and the psychological roles will determine this.

EXPLANATION

You can use these forms in a formal situation when you are talking to someone who has less status or power than you.

You can also use these forms when you are talking to someone who has the same status or power as you, such as a colleague or friend. But when you use these formal forms to someone who is your equal, it usually means that you are very angry and that you are trying to control your anger. You are psychologically putting yourself above the listener by demanding an excuse.

No matter what your tone of voice is, these forms express disapproval and demand an excuse.

Informal

6. *Are you crazy, missing the dinner for Mr. Hussein?*

$$\text{Are you} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{crazy}\\ \text{stupid}\\ \text{out of your mind}\end{array}\right\}, \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{missing}\\ \text{to miss}\\ \text{not attending}\\ \text{to not attend}\end{array}\right\} \text{the dinner (for Mr. Hussein)?}$$

Have you lost your mind, missing the dinner for Mr. Hussein?

$$\text{Have you lost your} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{mind}\\ \text{senses}\end{array}\right\}, \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{missing}\\ \text{to miss}\\ \text{not attending}\\ \text{to not attend}\end{array}\right\} \text{the dinner (for Mr. Hussein)?}$$

7. *How do you expect to get the contract when you miss the dinner?*

$$\text{How do you expect (us) to get the contract} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{when}\\ \text{if}\end{array}\right\} \text{you miss the dinner?}$$

How are we supposed to get the contract when you miss the dinner?

8. *How the heck do you expect to get the contract when you miss the dinner?*

$$\text{How} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{the heck}\\ \text{the hell}\\ \text{on earth}\\ \text{in the world}\end{array}\right\} \text{do you expect (us) to get the contract} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{when}\\ \text{if}\end{array}\right\} \text{you miss the dinner?}$$

How the heck do you expect me to move my car when you're parked in front of me?

9. *How the heck am I supposed to move my car when you're parked in front of me?*

$$\text{How} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{the heck}\\ \text{the hell}\\ \text{on earth}\\ \text{in the world}\end{array}\right\} \text{am I supposed to move my car when you're parked in front of me?}$$

How the heck are we supposed to get the contract when you miss the dinner?

10. *It doesn't matter whether I'm going out or not.*

$$\text{It} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{doesn't matter}\\ \text{doesn't make any difference}\end{array}\right\} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{whether}\\ \text{if}\end{array}\right\} \text{I'm going out or not.}$$

11. *How many times do I have to tell you not to park in my space?*

EXPECTED REPLY

6. An apology (perhaps an excuse or reason) and/or a statement of intention to correct the problem and/or an action to correct the problem. A "yes/no" answer is not appropriate.

7, 8, 9, 10, 11. Same. A direct answer to the question "How?" is not appropriate unless you want to be sarcastic or offensive.

EXPLANATION

These forms are less formal because they do not demand a particular type of reply.

The use of emphatics in 8 and 9 (the heck/the hell/on earth/in the world) is optional, and there are various other possible expressions. You should be careful when you use emphatics. "The heck," "on earth," "in the world" are mild, and you can use them in most situations. However, you might not want to use them when you talk to a superior because they are emotional. "The hell" is a strong emphatic. You should not use it when you talk to superiors or acquaintances, but only when you are with friends. It is more common between men than between women.

You can use the forms in 6 when you want to say that the person did something stupid or acted without thinking. If you use this form to a friend, it is not an insult; it is simply a strong expression of disapproval. It would be insulting, however, to use it with a superior or an acquaintance. If you use this form with an inferior, you might insult him/her.

10 and 11 are very direct and express no compromise. They would be insulting if used with a superior. 11 expresses much impatience and even anger.

EXERCISE 1

APOLOGIZING. You can apologize by using a complete sentence or by using a simple phrase or word. When you use a complete sentence it is usually more formal. In any case, an apology always contains one of these words; "apology," "apologize," "pardon," "excuse," "forgive," "sorry." When you apologize, you often give an excuse as well, but this is not necessary.

Formal

1. *I hope you will please pardon me for not attending the dinner.*

$$\text{(I hope you will)} \quad \text{(please)} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{pardon}\\ \text{forgive}\\ \text{excuse}\end{array}\right\} \text{ me } \left(\text{for} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{not attending}\\ \text{failing to attend}\\ \text{missing}\end{array}\right\} \text{ the dinner} \right).$$

2. *I hope you will please accept my apology for not attending the dinner.*

$$\text{(I hope you will)} \quad \text{please accept my} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{apology}\\ \text{apologies}\end{array}\right\} \left(\text{for} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{not attending}\\ \text{failing to attend}\\ \text{missing}\end{array}\right\} \text{ the dinner} \right).$$

Formal/Informal

3. *I apologize for not attending the dinner.*

$$\text{I apologize} \left(\text{for} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{not attending}\\ \text{failing to attend}\\ \text{missing}\end{array}\right\} \text{ the dinner} \right).$$

4. *I'm sorry that I didn't attend the dinner.*

$$\text{I'm} \left(\begin{array}{l}\text{very}\\ \text{terribly}\\ \text{so}\end{array}\right) \text{sorry} \left(\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{(that) I missed}\\ \text{(that) I didn't attend}\\ \text{for missing}\\ \text{for not attending}\end{array}\right\} \text{ the dinner} \right).$$

5. *Gee, I'm sorry about that.*
(Gee) (I'm) sorry (about that).
Sorry about that.
Gee, sorry.
Sorry.

EXPECTED REPLY

1,2. An acceptance or rejection of the apology.
3,4. Same.
5. Same.

EXPLANATION

1 and 2 are formal. You should use them when you talk to a superior. It is optional to say what you are apologizing for.

3 and 4 can be used in either formal or informal situations. If you say what you are apologizing for, you will be a little more formal. The least formal form is a simple "I'm sorry."

If you have done something very wrong or you feel very sorry, you can make your apology stronger by adding an emphatic "very," "terribly," or "so."

5. These are very informal. You can use them with friends when you have done something (not serious) by accident. When you have done something seriously wrong, it is not appropriate to use these forms, even to your closest friends.*

EXERCISES 2, 3

GIVING AN EXCUSE OR REASON. An excuse or reason is usually in the form of a statement. When you give an excuse or reason, you often apologize also, but this is not necessary.

Formal

1. *Because I had to take Bobby to the hospital, I missed the dinner.*

   $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Because}\\ \text{Since}\end{array}\right\}$ I had to take $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Bobby}\\ \text{my son}\end{array}\right\}$ to the $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{hospital}\\ \text{Emergency Room}\end{array}\right\}$, I $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{missed}\\ \text{could not attend}\\ \text{did not attend}\end{array}\right\}$ the dinner.

   Because my wife visits her mother on weekends, I am responsible for Bobby.

   $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{Because}\\ \text{Since}\end{array}\right\}$ my wife visits her mother on weekends, I $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{am responsible for}\\ \text{have to take care of}\end{array}\right\}$ Bobby.

2. *I missed the dinner because I had to take Bobby to the hospital.*

   I $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{missed}\\ \text{could not attend}\\ \text{did not attend}\end{array}\right\}$ the dinner $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{because}\\ \text{since}\end{array}\right\}$ I had to take Bobby to the $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{hospital}\\ \text{Emergency Room}\end{array}\right\}$.

   I am responsible for Bobby because my wife visits her mother on weekends.

   I $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{am responsible for}\\ \text{have to take care of}\end{array}\right\}$ Bobby $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{because}\\ \text{since}\end{array}\right\}$ my wife visits her mother on weekends.

3. *My son was injured yesterday, and I had to take him to the hospital.*

   My son $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{was injured}\\ \text{got injured}\end{array}\right\}$ yesterday, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{and}\\ \text{so}\end{array}\right\}$ I had to $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{take him to}\\ \text{spend the day in}\end{array}\right\}$ the hospital.

   Someone was parked in my spot, so I had to take yours.

   Someone was parked in my $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{spot}\\ \text{place}\end{array}\right\}$, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{so}\\ \text{and}\end{array}\right\}$ I had to $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{take yours}\\ \text{park in yours}\end{array}\right\}$.

4. *I know I should have called, but I was too busy calming Bobby down.*

   (I know) I should have $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{called}\\ \text{phoned}\end{array}\right\}$, but I was too busy $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{calming Bobby down}\\ \text{taking care of Bobby}\end{array}\right\}$.

   I should have parked in my own space, but someone was already parked there.

   (I know) I should have parked $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{in my own space}\\ \text{in my spot}\end{array}\right\}$, but $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{someone was already parked there}\\ \text{another car was parked there}\end{array}\right\}$.

5. *Because I had to take my son to the hospital.*

   Because (my son was injured and) I had to take $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{him}\\ \text{my son}\end{array}\right\}$ to the $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{hospital}\\ \text{Emergency Room}\end{array}\right\}$.

EXPECTED REPLY

1, 2, 3, 4, 5. An acceptance or rejection of the apology.

EXPLANATION

1. This is the most formal form. It is usually used only in formal writing. In the first clause you state your reason for taking an action. In the second clause you state what that action was. When you use this form, you do not admit any guilt.
2. You can use this form in any situation, whether formal or informal. In the first clause you state an action or obligation. In the second clause you state your reason for the action or obligation. When you use this form, you do not admit any guilt.
4. You can use this form in any situation, whether formal or informal. In the first clause you state an obligation which you did not fulfill. In the second clause you give an excuse or reason. When you use this form, you admit your guilt for not fulfilling your obligation.
5. This is the least formal form. (In a formal situation you should always use a complete sentence.) You can use this form only when someone asks you directly why you did something.

EXERCISE 4

FUNCTIONS

FORGIVING/ACCEPTING AN EXCUSE OR APOLOGY. When you accept an excuse or an apology, it is usually in the form of a statement. You may or may not express sympathy for the other person. Even if you accept an excuse or apology, you might add a threat to the person.

Formal

1. *Your apology is accepted.*

2. *I accept your apology this time.*

   $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{I ('ll)}\\ \text{I will}\end{matrix}\right\}$ accept your $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{apology}\\ \text{apologies}\\ \text{excuse}\end{matrix}\right\}$ (this time).

Formal/Informal

3. *I forgive you.*

   $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{I}\\ \text{I will}\end{matrix}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{excuse}\\ \text{forgive}\\ \text{pardon}\end{matrix}\right\}$ you.

4. *I understand your situation.*

   I understand $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{your}\\ \text{the}\end{matrix}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{situation}\\ \text{problem(s)}\\ \text{reason(s)}\\ \text{circumstances}\end{matrix}\right\}$.

5. *I'll overlook it.*

   I'll $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{overlook it}\\ \text{forget about it}\end{matrix}\right\}$ (this time).

6. *Well, that's O.K.*

   (Well,) (that's) $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{O.K.}\\ \text{all right}\end{matrix}\right\}$.

   Well, O.K.
   Well, all right.
   $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{O.K.}\\ \textit{All right}\end{matrix}\right\}$.

EXPECTED REPLY

1, 2, 3, 4, 5. If a warning follows the acceptance of the apology, the reply should be a statement of intention. If no warning follows, the reply should be a "Thank you."

EXPLANATION

1. This is a very formal form. You usually use it when the apology is formal.
2. This is a formal form. It is a little more common than the first form. You add "this time" when you want to make an indirect threat. It implies that you will not forgive the person the next time s/he does the same thing. (You may add a direct threat after this.)
3. You can use this in any situation, whether formal or informal.
4. This can be used in any situation, whether formal or informal. You use this form when the other person had (or has) a problem beyond his/her control. This form expresses sympathy for the other person's problems.*
5. You can use this form with friends or acquaintances (usually those who have the same status as you) when the offense is not a serious one.*
6. These are the most informal forms. You can use these with friends when the offense is not a serious one.*

EXERCISE 5

THREATENING. You can threaten someone directly or indirectly. When you threaten directly, you state what you will do to him/her (or what will happen to him/her) as a consequence of his/her action. This direct threat may be specific or vague ("You will be in trouble," "or else. . ."). When you give someone an indirect threat, your tone of voice indicates that you are threatening to do something to him/her, even though you don't specify what you will do. Your tone of voice can indicate how serious your threat is.

All the following are formal/informal

Direct Threat

1. *If it happens again, you will lose your job.*

   If { it happens / you miss a dinner } again, you will { lose your job / be fired / lose your position / be demoted }.

   If it happens again, you will be sorry.

   If { this happens / it happens / you park in my space } again, { you will be { sorry / in trouble } / I'll tow your car away }.

2. *Next time, you'll be in trouble.*

   (The) next time (it happens / you do it / you miss a dinner / you park in my space) { you'll be in (big / deep) trouble / you'll be sorry / I'll fire you / you'll lose your job }.

Indirect (or direct) threat

3. *The next time there's a dinner, see that you make other arrangements for your son's care, (or you will lose your job).*

   The next time (there's a dinner), see that { you make other arrangements for your son's care / you're there / you attend / you don't miss it }

   (or { you will lose your job / you will be fired / else . . . }).

EXPECTED REPLY

1, 2, 3, 4, 5. A statement of intention, or a simple "yes."

EXPLANATION

1. You can use this form in any situation, whether formal or informal. This is a direct threat in which you express the consequences that will follow if the person does the same thing again. You can threaten to do something more serious than what you really intend to do (for example, a person who threatens to tow a neighbor's car probably does not really intend to do it). This is especially common in informal situations.
2. You can use this form in any situation, whether formal or informal. In a formal situation, you usually use this form with a specific threat (such as "You will lose your job"). In an informal situation, the vague threat "You will be in big trouble" is common.
3. You can use this form in any situation, whether formal or informal. When you use this form, you tell the other person what behavior you expect of him/her ("See that you . . ."). If you add the "or . . ." clause, you also give the person a direct threat of the consequences if s/he does the wrong thing again. The phrase "or else" is a common, but vague, threat. It does not state whether the consequences will be serious or not.

FUNCTIONS

The next time somebody is in your space, see that you don't park in mine, or else . . .

The next time (somebody is in your space), see that you don't park in mine,

$$\left(\text{or}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{you will be in trouble}\\ \text{you will be sorry}\\ \text{I will tow your car}\\ \text{else. . .}\end{array}\right\}\right).$$

4. *You'd better not let it happen again (or . . .)*

$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{You'd better not}\\ \text{See that you don't}\\ \text{Don't}\end{array}\right\}\ \text{let it happen again}\ \left(\text{or}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{you'll lose your job}\\ \text{else. . .}\\ \text{you'll be sorry}\end{array}\right\}\right).$$

5. *I hope I won't have to ask you again (or . . .)*

$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{I hope I won't}\\ \text{I don't want to}\end{array}\right\}\ \text{have to}\ \left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{ask}\\ \text{tell}\end{array}\right\}\ \text{you again}\ \left(\text{or}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{else. . .}\\ \text{you'll be sorry}\\ \text{you'll be in trouble}\\ \text{you'll be fired}\end{array}\right\}\right).$$

EXPECTED REPLY

4,5. Same.

EXPLANATION

4, 5. You can use this form in any situation, whether formal or informal. If you do not use the "or . . ." phrase/clause, this is an indirect threat; if you use the "or . . ." phrase/clause, it is a direct threat, which may be specific or vague.
4. The form "Don't let it happen again" is stronger than the other forms.
5. This form is not as strong as forms 1, 2, 3, and 4.

EXERCISE 6

NOTIONS

COMMITMENT: *Intention, Promise, Obligation*

In the dialogues and in the discussions of functions, you have seen statements of intention, promise, and obligation. Threats are statements of intention, and the reply to a threat is also a statement of intention. In normal communication, statements of intention, promise, and obligation are very common.

Intention. When you express an intention, you state what you plan or aim to do. There is no moral, social, or legal commitment to force you to carry out your intention. In this chapter you will learn to express intention in direct speech in the present and future. (In the next chapter you will learn how to express intention in the past and in indirect speech.)

1. The most common way—and the most direct—to express intention is with the modal verb *will* (*'ll*):

    Yes, sir, I *will*.
    I certainly *will.* (also a promise)
    I'*ll* get my key.
    I'*ll* make sure it doesn't happen again. (also a promise)
    I'*ll* try not to park in your spot.
    I *won't* do it again.

2. Other words are also used to express intention: "intend," "plan," "expect:"

    I {am *planning* / *plan*} to have a party.
    I {am *intending* / *intend*} to get a babysitter for Bobby.
    I *expect* to be at the next dinner.
    George *intends* to get a babysitter.
    Steve *plans* to move his car.
    George's wife *expects* to see her mother every week.

EXERCISES 7, 8, 9

Promise. When you make a promise, it is stronger than stating an intention. You assure the other person that you will or will not do something. You have a social commitment to keep a promise. This is especially true when you use the word "promise" in your statement.

1. Judy: I'*ll* pick you up tomorrow at 3 o'clock. (intention)
   Martha: Are you sure you can? It won't be a problem, will it?
   Judy: No, it's O.K. I *assure* you I'*ll* pick you up at 3. (Promise)

2. Janet: Can I tell you something in private?
   Mark: Sure.
   Janet: Do you promise not to tell anyone?
   Mark: I *promise* to keep your secret. (Mark now has a social and perhaps moral commitment to keep the secret.)

{I *assure* you / I *promise* (you)} {(that) it *won't* happen again. / (that) I *will* be at the next dinner. / (that) I *won't* park in your place again.}

I *promise* {to be at the next dinner. / to get a babysitter for Bobby. / not to park in your place again.}

Other expressions have the force of a promise, even though they aren't exactly promises. These include *will* with an adverbial:

It *won't* happen again. *You can count on that.*
I'*ll* be there on time. *You can count on me.*
I *will definitely* be at the next dinner.
We *will certainly* get a babysitter.

I'*ll* be there *for sure.*
I'*ll make sure* it doesn't happen again.
You have my word that it won't happen again.

EXERCISE 10

NOTIONS

Obligation. When you express an obligation, that statement is stronger than a promise or an intention. You have a social and/or moral and/or legal commitment to keep an obligation.

1. You can express obligation by using *modal verbs* and *certain verbs in the passive form:*

PAST	PRESENT OR FUTURE
had to	must have to have got to
was expected to *was supposed to	be expected to be supposed to
*ought to have *should have	ought to should

STRONGER OBLIGATION

↑

WEAKER OBLIGATION

(*These express a past obligation that was *not* fulfilled.)

Obligation fulfilled . . . . I had to take Bobby to the hospital yesterday.
Obligation to be fulfilled . . . . I must get a babysitter for Bobby.
I {have to / 've got to} attend the next dinner.
I ought to park in my own space.
I should not park in your place.
I'm supposed to be at work on time.
Past obligation not fulfilled . . . . I should have called you.
I was supposed to attend the dinner last night.

2. You can also express obligation by using words such as "responsible," "required," "obligated," "duty," "responsibility," "obligation," and "job."

I am responsible for {Bobby. / taking care of Bobby. / my job.}

{I am / George is} {required to / obligated to} {attend the dinner. / get a babysitter. / call Mr. McKinney.}

It is my {duty / responsibility / obligation / job} to {take care of Bobby. / meet with Mr. Hussein. / call Mr. McKinney. / attend the dinner. / be a good citizen.}

3. You can also express obligation in a "gentle" way by using these statements: "It would be nice if . . . " "It would be a good idea to . . ."

It would be nice if you parked in your own space.
It would be a good idea to be on time tomorrow.
It would be nice if you didn't smoke.
It would be a good idea to help them move their furniture.

EXERCISES 11, 12

FREQUENCY: *Used to + verb* and *indirect expressions* (Direct expressions of frequency have been presented earlier.)

1. You can use *used to* + a verb when you talk about repeated, frequent actions in the past which no longer occur:

   You *used to* park on the street when you couldn't get in.
   George *used to* be more careful about the business dinners.
   We *used to* go to the movies twice a week.

EXERCISE 13

2. *Indirect expressions of frequency*. There are many ways to imply that something has happened before and has been repeated:

   This isn't *the first time* {Bobby has been injured / you've missed a dinner / you missed a dinner / John was late}.

   {You've missed these dinners / Bobby has been injured / John has been late} *before* (this).

   I don't want to tell you {*all the time.* / *so many times.* / *every day.* / *so often.*} (When you use this form, you imply that you have told that person something many times in the past.)

   How many times do I have to tell you {to park in your own space / not to park in my space / to be quiet / not to make noise}?

(A possible inclusion here is the present perfect continuous form, which can demonstrate the concept of frequency. The conceptual relationship may be strong enough to justify including it at this point, although one might choose to reserve it for a later cycle.

You have been missing these dinners.
I have been telling you this for a long time.
You have been coming to work late this past month.)

EXERCISE 14

APPENDIX

Exercise 1–DISAPPROVAL

Divide the class into pairs. One of each pair expresses disapproval for the situation below. The other judges whether the form used was appropriate for the social roles specified. Exchanges roles after several trials.

a) A neighbor (who is a friend) has parked his/her car in your driveway.
b) A neighbor (who is much older and whom you do not know well) has parked his/her car in your driveway.
c) A stranger has parked his/her car in front of your driveway so you can't get your car out.
d) Your business colleague was twenty minutes late for a meeting.
e) Your good friend was an hour late to a dinner party at your house.
f) Your boss was an hour late for a dinner party at your house.
g) Your employee did not come to work yesterday and s/he did not phone.
h) Your employee has been late for work every day this week.

Exercise 2–APOLOGY

(Same instructions)

a) You parked in your neighbor's driveway. You are good friends with your neighbor.
b) You parked in your neighbor's driveway. You only recently moved into your house, and you don't know your neighbor well.
c) You were a half hour late for a dinner party at your boss's house.
d) You were a half hour late for a dinner party at the house of a friend.
e) You were supposed to call a business colleague yesterday but you did not.
f) Your boss is out of town on business. You were supposed to call him yesterday, but you did not.
g) You dropped and broke an inexpensive glass at your friend's house.

Exercise 3–DISAPPROVAL + APOLOGY

Divide the class into groups of three. For each of the situations in Exercise 1, one group member should express disapproval. The second group member should make an appropriate apology. The third group member will judge whether their dialogue is appropriate to the situation and the social roles.

Exercise 4–DISAPPROVAL + EXCUSE + OPTIONAL APOLOGY

Divide the class into pairs. The first student should choose a situation from Column 1 and express disapproval to the other student. The second should choose an excuse from Column 2 and give an appropriate excuse and optional apology. For each situation, the students should make a dialogue in two different registers of formality, first as a formal exchange, then as an informal exchange. After several dialogues, the students should switch roles.

Student 1 chooses a situation

The other person was 45 minutes late for a dinner party.

The other person was supposed to call you yesterday but did not.

The other person did not come for an appointment (or a party).

The other person parked in your driveway.

Student 2 chooses an excuse

Your car had a flat tire.

You had to take your child to the hospital.

You were busy and forgot.

Your driveway is being repaired.

You were expecting a delivery truck.

Your mother is sick and you had to help her.

You were caught in traffic.

Exercise 5—APOLOGY + ACCEPTANCE

Divide the class into groups of three. The first student should make an appropriate apology for each situation below (s/he may also give an excuse or reason). The second student should accept the apology/excuse. The third student should judge whether their dialogue was appropriate for the situation and the level of formality. After each exchange, the students should change roles.

a) Apologize to your boss for being a half hour late for work.
b) Apologize to your brother/sister for losing his/her book.
c) Apologize to your landlord for paying your rent three days late.
d) Apologize to your friend for not calling him/her.
e) Apologize to your professor for handing in your homework a week late.
f) Apologize to your spouse for hitting a tree with the car.
g) Apologize to a close friend for breaking an expensive glass.
h) Apologize to a close friend for breaking an inexpensive glass.

Exercise 6—DISAPPROVAL + THREAT

Divide the class into pairs. One student should make an appropriate statement of disapproval and an appropriate threat for each situation. The other student should judge whether the disapproval and threat were appropriate for the situation and the level of formality. After each situation the students should exchange roles.

a) Your neighbor has parked in your driveway every day this week.
b) Your employee forgot to keep an appointment with you this morning.
c) Your neighbor's dog barks every night and keeps you awake.
d) You are a teacher and your student never hands in his/her homework on time.
e) You are a landlord and your tenant is two weeks late paying the rent.
f) Your friend borrowed your class notes a week ago and has not returned them yet.

Exercise 7—INTENTION

Make a statement of intention to correct the problem. You may apologize first if you wish.

Example: Your neighbor has complained that your dog barked last night and and kept him awake.
You say: "I'm sorry. The next time he barks I'll bring him inside." (apology + statement of intention)

a) Your neighbor has complained that you are parked in his space.
b) Your colleague has complained that you were not at an important business dinner.
c) Your boss has complained that you were late for work today.
d) Your boss has complained that you are late for work every day.
e) Your friend has complained that you are always late for parties.

Exercise 8–INTENTION

Statements of intention do not have to be in response to a problem. For example, someone might ask you what you plan to do on the weekend.

a) What do you plan to do this evening?
b) What are two things you intend to do this weekend?
c) What do you expect to do next week? Next year?
d) How do you plan to prepare for your next test?

Exercise 9–INTENTION

Students should walk freely around the room, asking and telling one another what they intend to do this weekend. Each student should find two others who intend to do the same.

Exercise 10–PROMISE

Divide the class into pairs. For each situation, the first student should play the role described and ask the other student to do or not to do something. The second student should make a promise to the first student. Exchange roles after each situation.

a) You ask your brother/sister to babysit for a weekend.
b) You are a teacher and one of your students has an assignment that is a week late. Tell him/her to hand it in tomorrow.
c) You are moving to a new apartment and you ask a friend to help you move furniture.
d) You live 100 miles from your grandchild and you ask him/her to visit you for a week.
e) You are a landlord and your tenant is three days late paying the rent.
f) You ask your son or daughter not to drive too fast.
g) You are a boss and you remind your employee not to miss a business dinner tonight.
h) Your neighbor parks in front of your house all the time and you don't want him/her to do it anymore.

Exercise 11–OBLIGATION

(Oral or written)

a) What are three obligations you have in school?

b) What are some obligations you have at home?
c) State three obligations that you had but did not fulfil (use various forms).

Exercise 12–OBLIGATION

Divide the class into pairs. For each situation, the first student should make a statement of commitment, choosing *intention, promise,* or *obligation*. The second student should then say where on the scale of commitment the statement falls.

Example: You are talking to a neighbor. You parked your car in his/her driveway every day this week.

Student 1: "I assure you that I won't park in your driveway again."
Student 2: (promise)

OR Student 1: (same situation) "I'll try not to park in your driveway again."
Student 2: (intention)

a) You are talking to your boss. You were late to work every day last week.
b) You are talking to a colleague. You were late to work every day last week.
c) You are talking to a friend. You are telling him/her where you will go on vacation.
d) You are talking to a friend. You can't go home with him/her for Thanksgiving break because of your studies.
e) You are with your boyfriend/girlfriend. You start to smoke a cigarette, but s/he doesn't like you to smoke.

Exercise 13–USED TO + VERB

(Oral or written)

a) Tell five things that you used to do.
b) Tell five things that your friend used to do.
c) Ask a classmate if s/he used to do the things you told of in a).

Exercise 14–INDIRECT EXPRESSIONS OF FREQUENCY

(Oral or written)

For each situation make an indirect statement of frequency. You may make your statement in any of the ways studied in this chapter, but be careful in choosing something appropriate to your role.

Example: You are a teacher. Your student comes late almost every day.
You say: "I don't want to tell you so many times to be on time for class."
Or: "This isn't the first time you've been late."
Or: "How many times do I have to tell you to come on time for class?"

a) You are a landlord. Your tenant was late paying his/her rent last month, and now s/he is late again.
b) Your roommate always leaves the light on in the bathroom.
c) Your employee always comes to work late on Mondays.
d) Your young son is careless and gets hurt often. He just got hurt again.

e) Your friend often has flat tires and he has one again today.
f) Your colleague talks on the telephone for long periods of time. You can't make an important call.

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Cross Currents
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What in the World Is Spoken English?

Nina Weinstein

I would like to suggest that the pre-written conversations available in most textbooks are not examples of spoken English, even though they are recorded on tape and presented as such. In the words of Stephen Krashen and Tracy Terrell:

> Recorded, pre-written dialogs are really examples of written language, not spoken language, since many aspects of real speech which help us comprehend are missing. These include false starts, pauses, repetitions, asides, explanations (I mean), pause holders (you know) and so forth. (1983:169)

In addition to these vocabulary items which are found in natural speech, a very important pronunciation phenomenon is also missing from most spoken English texts, namely, reduced forms. Reduced forms are the changes which occur in natural speech due to the environment or context in which the word is found (Herschenhorn 1979). Some common examples of reduced forms include *gonna*, *wanna*, *hafta*, and *gotta* (Bowen 1975).

Reduced forms, together with the conversational strategies mentioned above by Krashen and Terrell, constitute one of the most neglected areas of listening comprehension. The following example illustrates how the above elements of spoken English interact in real speech:

> "Well, I *donno*. Uh, rock music *kin kin* move *ya ta wanna* dance.
> But the words *kin* make *ya* think too."

If the conversational strategies are removed from this unscripted segment, the message is still clear. The segment becomes:

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"I *donno*. Rock music *kin* move *ya ta wanna* dance.
But the words *kin* make *ya* think too."

However, if all of the words in which reduced forms are incorporated are removed, the segment changes to:

"I . . . Rock music . . . move . . . dance. But the words . . . make . . . think too."

Perhaps this is still comprehensible, but there is much more room for misinterpretation when the reduced forms are not understood than when the conversational strategies are not understood. Many times the entire message will be lost when the reduced forms are not understood. For example:

"*Whaddaya wanna* do *fer* lunch?"
". . . . . do . . . lunch?"

I first became interested in reduced forms when a student of mine who had just completed extensive practice with the future form "to be going to" asked me what *gonna* meant. He had heard it outside of class and had no idea what it meant. I started to question what I was teaching my students. I had always contextualized my conversation lessons using high interest, practical topics. I tried to put the focus on student interaction. We did lots of pair work and group work. The students understood me very well and they understood each other very well. But, when they were outside the classroom, they had enormous difficulty understanding anyone else.

Past Research

Prator and Robinett (forthcoming), and Bowen (1985) include generous sections on reduced forms in their respective books. Influenced by their work on reduced forms, I began to record my own unscripted talk from the radio. I started to notice an interesting phenomenon—when "going to + verb," for example, was reduced, it did not necessarily become *gonna*. It sometimes became "going *ta*" or even "*gonna*". There were several other forms that followed a similar varying pattern. In short, it was not a case of no reduction versus total reduction; there were intermediary forms.

Prator and Robinett (and Bowen also) do acknowledge some of these intermediary forms and offer explanations for their occurrence. Prator and Robinett explain them by saying, "The principal factors responsible for the different degrees of reduction *seem* to be those listed below" (my italics). The list includes sentence stress, frequency of use (of the word), speed of utterance, and formality of situation. Bowen explains some of these variations lexically and says, for example, that the variation /gowing tə/ is used to express purpose, as in the exchange, "What is she going for?" "She's /gowing tə/ help her sick sister." When "going to" means "will," then the /ganə/ pronunciation is used.

The explanations given by Prator and Robinett, and by Bowen for different degrees of reduction or alternate forms seemed plausible. However, when I studied unscripted natural conversation, I found many situations where alternate forms did not conform to the rules. Too many were labelled with the catch-all phrase "an exception to the rule."

According to Prator and Robinett, when there is less stress there is more reduction. In *Listening In and Speaking Out*, common verb-preposition forms such as *gonna* and *wanna* receive major sentence stress regularly (James, Whitley, and Bode 1980). According to Prator and Robinett's explanation, we should see instead the less reduced forms "going *ta*" and "want *ta.*"

Another of Prator and Robinett's explanations cites frequent use as a cause for more reduction. If frequency of use were a rule, we would not see so much variation in such common forms as "going to" which can be and is pronounced in any of the following ways: going *ta, gonna*, and *gonna* (drop initial "g" sound) (James, Whitley, and Bode 1980; Cornelius, 1981).

Both Prator and Robinett, and also Bowen cite speed of utterance and formality of situation as other factors responsible for reduced forms. Since they (and others) agree that formality or informality and speed of speech are integral factors in reduced forms, and since they all include various degrees of reductions in their respective books, this seemed a fertile area to begin to look for some correlations between levels of reduction, formality, and speed of speech. In other words, what really caused reduced forms?

My Study

Six highly-educated, male, native American English speakers were each recorded in two situations: giving a classroom lecture (formal), and being interviewed (informal). The result was about seven hours or just over five hundred pages of recorded speech. I did a frequency count of all known reduced forms used and the three reduced forms which appeared most frequently ("going to + verb," "have to," and "want to") were chosen for examination. The effects that formality, levels of reduction, and speed of speech had on these forms were studied. Speed of speech was used as the measure or dependent variable.

There was statistical significance in the varying levels of reduction. The faster the utterance was spoken, the more reduction occurred. The following illustration clarifies this point:

SLOW	FASTER	FASTEST
Level 1: want to	Level 2: want *ta*	Level 3: *wanna*

Furthermore, I wanted to find out which level, if any, was used most frequently in unscripted talk. The results were:

	Number of times used
Level 1	8
Level 2	47
Level 3	258

Thus, pronunciation at Level 3 was both the fastest and the most frequently used.

The results indicated no statistically significant effect in terms of formality or informality. However, an examination of individual subjects indicated a strong tendency for informal speech to be faster than formal speech. "Want *ta*," for example, occurred more often in formal speech, whereas in informal speech, *wanna* prevailed.

Conclusion

I think the real issue is not whether to familiarize students with reduced forms, but whether to teach listening comprehension at all. In seven hours of unscripted talk, the full pronunciation (Level 1) form occurred only eight times. Reduced pronunciation (Levels 2 and 3) occurred 305 times. Obviously, the reduced forms better prepare students to listen to real spoken English. Why should we then teach students to listen to written English—a kind of English devoid of the two major elements of spoken English, namely, reduced forms and conversational strategies? Written English recorded on tape is basically found in language classrooms and it quite frequently causes students to say things like, "I can understand you (the teacher), but I can't understand anyone else," or "Americans talk too fast" (very understandable considering that the above research yielded Level 3 as the most frequently used reduction and the fastest).

Language is a tool for communication and in order to communicate we must share the same language. Learning to hear a language is an integral step in learning to speak that language, thus the importance of listening comprehension. However, nobody speaks "written English" unless they are reading a prepared speech. I suggest that teachers stop teaching students to understand something that they will rarely, if ever, need or encounter.

Finally, I would like to apply Dr. Krashen's Comprehensible Input Theory to listening comprehension. In order to develop good listening skills, materials must be comprehensible and grounded in reality. If a student understands the message underlying "What do you want?" ("*Whadda* you want" or "*Whaddaya* want" in spoken English) in context and can respond appropriately to it in the classroom, that is only the first step in the task of the teacher. The second and most neglected step is to translate that message into reality, that is, how will an American really say that sentence? And the third step is to give students abundant exposure to this reality.

By using such a step-by-step approach, the material is not only comprehensible, but the classroom setting approaches reality. It is our goal as language teachers to continually re-evaluate the reality of our classrooms and move closer to the reality of the world in which the student is to function.

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Bright Ideas

Realistic Telephone Exercises

Larry Riesberg

Using the telephone in a foreign language is perhaps one of the most difficult and frustrating problems that people have when they move to another country. It is therefore important for students to get a reasonable amount of practice in this area before going abroad. Although it is not always possible to anticipate the specific needs of the students or to set up totally realistic situations, we can create situations in which success is dependent on the students' comprehension of the *content* of a telephone call rather than on the mere repetition of a number of stock phrases. It is important that the students get involved in the exercise, that it not seem like a game, and that they have their *own personal experience* making the phone calls rather than listening to each other making them.

In order to fit a lot of telephone work into a course, and because the teacher cannot be with the class while doing these exercises, they can be combined with language laboratory activities or with an exercise where the students are working on their own. I chose to use language laboratory time and to have the students make their calls from a nearby phone.

To begin, a 3 x 5 card with instructions on it was given to a student on one side of the lab. He was instructed to wait about three minutes and then to go and place his call. This allowed me time to get to another phone. As each student completed the call, he handed the 3 x 5 card to the next student. If a student could not work out what to do within a short period of time, the card was passed on to the next person. All of the students were instructed not to discuss their experience and the value of having their own experience was explained. The following are some examples of the assignments given:

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"Please call Japan Air Lines to make a reservation to Los Angeles on April 1. Due to the nature of your assignment in the U.S., you do not know exactly when you will be returning. JAL's telephone number is ext. 57." (I was prepared to ask about Smoking/Non-smoking preferences, First Class/Economy seats, time of departure, dates, and so on.)

"You have an appointment with me this afternoon at 3:30. You have just received a message from the school office that you are to meet the director at 3:30 today. I can be reached at ext. 55."

"Your morning teacher, Mr. Larry Riesberg, wants to buy a learning computer for his nephew and would like to get some advice from you about which one to buy. Please call Consumer Services at ext. 37 in order to get some information about them. Mr. Riesberg will ask you for your recommendation tomorrow." (For this exercise, I took the part of a Consumer Services representative and used a copy of "Consumer Reports' 1985 Buying Guide.")

"Please call Casa Bonita Restaurant and make a reservation for four on Friday at 7:00 p.m. One person in your party is a vegetarian." (Any restaurant can be used but I happen to have a menu from Casa Bonita Restaurant which gives such information as kinds of food available and hours of operation.)

"Please call the Hilton Hotel at ext. 34 and make a reservation for you and your family for this coming Saturday night."

"Your boss has decided to have a dinner party at his house two weeks from tomorrow at 7:30. He has invited you and your wife and would also like to invite your English teacher, Mr. Riesberg, and his wife. Please call Mr. Riesberg at his office to see if he can make it."

For the next exercise, the students were told that they would find the assignment when they got to the telephone. The White and Yellow Pages of the Denver phone directory and a pencil and notepad were placed by the telephone with the following note:

"You have been ordered to go to Denver, Colorado, U.S.A. on business:

1) Call the Denver Plaza Hotel and make a reservation. You will be arriving in Denver on March 3, at 10:00 a.m. You will be leaving Denver on March 5, at 2:00 p.m. and going on to Minneapolis, Minnesota.
2) Look up and make a note of my parents' telephone number and address.

Please leave everything the way you found it when you arrived.

Thank you,
Larry Riesberg"

A 3 x 5 card was placed in the Yellow Pages under "hotels" where the Denver Plaza's number was listed. The card read: "The Denver Plaza's new telephone number is ext. 27." Thus, the student had to figure out that it was necessary for him to look up the number in the Yellow Pages in order to make the reservation. My parents are the only Riesbergs in the Denver directory and, of course, the spelling of my name was on the assignment. For this call, the students were told to spend no more than five minutes on the assignment. I also told them not to worry if they were not successful and that we would discuss it the following day. There seems to be a great tendency among students in Japan to try to "help others" and "be kind" to them. This actually limits the experience they can have for themselves. Between calls, it is a good idea to check that the previous student has not left the 3 x 5 card sticking out from between the pages or the address and phone number scribbled on the notepad.

In all calls it is important that the student is successful because he is *thinking* about what he is doing. In the case of the Denver Plaza Hotel reservation, for example, some students will invariably call and say that they are arriving at the hotel at 10:00 a.m., because that is the time written on the assignment. If they do so, they are told, quite realistically, that check-in time is 12:00. This forces them to make a decision about what they will do. In the same way, students often say that they are leaving at 2:00 p.m. and are told that check-out time is 10:00 a.m. In other situations, another teacher is asked to answer the call and to put the student on hold. The telephone receiver is then placed next to a tape recoder which plays soft background music. Sometimes, another teacher is asked to answer the call and transfer it to another number or ask the student to call again.

All calls are discussed briefly the following day. Some teachers find it useful to use a telephone pick-up and record the calls so that excerpts from them can be played back for the whole class to show particularly good strategies or for transcribing errors for correction work. Of course, the students are encouraged to bring their own past experiences and ideas into the discussion. Follow-up handouts or memos with telephone expressions can also be useful.

The language necessary for making all of the above calls comes mostly from my own experience. After writing an assignment, I usually write out all of the questions and information I am asked to supply when making that kind of call. This provides me with target vocabulary. A teacher who has not had these experiences could use an informant or look at some texts which deal with telephone activities.

Practicing Adjective Clauses without Sentence Combination: Meaningful Communication vs. Mechanical Practice

Herbert Sundvall

When we first approach the teaching of adjective clauses, we may be warned in advance by our more experienced colleagues of typical mistakes that students make. These are usually mistakes in form, such as:

> The man who he is in my class is from Iran.
> The book that I bought it was expensive.
> The car which had an accident the driver was drunk.

We can teach our students how to avoid these mistakes and how to produce an adjective clause that is correct in form. Neither grammar nor exercise books, however, provide a means for teaching the second-language learner how to construct, in speech or writing, a sentence with an adjective clause that conveys the exact meaning intended. Such grammar or exercise books usually give exercises in which two sentences are to be combined:

> The man had an accident. He was drunk.

The student may combine these in two possible ways:

1) The man who was drunk had an accident.
   (emphasis on describing the man's physical state)
2) The man who had an accident was drunk.
   (emphasis on describing what happened to the man)

Both are grammatically correct. However, in such exercises, the student is not asked to demonstrate an ability to control the emphasis by using an adjective clause, but often we devise written exams on adjective clauses with a specific emphasis in mind. For example, the first sentence, emphasizing the man's physical state, may be the desired answer. But if the student writes the second sentence, emphasizing what happened to the man, we must mark the answer correct because it is a grammatically correct sentence

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with an adjective clause and it does combine the two sentences given. Therefore, the student has demonstrated grammatical competence but not necessarily communicative competence.

Some exercise books avoid this problem by instructing the student to make an adjective clause out of the second sentence:

> The man had an accident. He was drunk. ⟶
> The man who was drunk had an accident.

But this is not a solution. It is a mechanical response and only shows that the student can follow directions. Such exercises do not help the students understand how to use an adjective clause to control the emphasis of a sentence.

In spite of more than ten years' experience in teaching ESL to college-bound students from a variety of language backgrounds, I had not until recently attempted to wrestle with this question. For years I accepted variation of sentence combination on final exams because the student had, after all, mastered the correct form. Recently, I reached a point in my teaching where I could no longer maintain this attitude. I decided to re-think my approach and try to find a way to teach the students how native speakers use adjective clauses.

How do native speakers use adjective clauses? We do not use them to combine two simple sentences or to subordinate a minor point to a major point, despite what the textbooks tell us. Neither do we normally use them to add an irrelevant aside (for example, "My grandmother, who, by the way, loves fiddler crabs, is a musician"). We use them to make identifications and also to make distinctions when making identifications. Take the situation below, for example:

> Two women were in a car. One woman was driving. The other woman was a passenger. The car was hit. The driver was injured. The passenger was not.

If asked the question, "Who was injured?" we would probably answer, "The woman who was driving the car was injured." In the same way, if asked, "What about the other woman?" we would answer, "The woman who was a passenger in the car was not injured." We would not say, "The woman who was not injured was a passenger in the car," unless there were some specific context that would make that particular distinction necessary, such as comparing the injured woman to the uninjured woman.

In other areas of English structure practice, I am satisfied by a student's ability to communicate a meaningful idea or give a clear description of an event without exact correctness of grammatical usage. However, in the case of adjective clauses, I now believe that communicative competence and precision of usage are both of primary importance.

In order to provide the student with an opportunity to practice using adjective clauses in a context that calls for both grammatical precision and communicative competence, I developed a situation and accompanying exercises to which a native speaker would respond using adjective clauses to identify and make distinctions. The situation and accompanying exercises are meant to provide the students with listening and speaking practice primarily. Therefore, each part is first read twice, with the students taking notes during the second reading.

Part One–The Accident

> One afternoon a traffic policeman was sent to help at the scene of an accident. He had to direct traffic around the accident. A man had hit another car. He was drunk. When the policeman got there, he saw that the other car had two women in it. One woman, the driver, was injured. She was unconscious. The other woman, a passenger, was not injured. Another policeman was there and was writing a report. He was talking to a man who had seen the accident. That man was a witness. He had been standing on the corner when the accident occurred. There was a tow-truck at the scene. The tow-truck was preparing to take the woman's car away.

It is important to note that the above situation gives information in a specific sequence and the exercises ask for specific identifications related to the situation. The students should be asked to pay particular attention to the precise use of articles in the questions as well as in their answers. The teacher should not let the misuse of an article pass uncorrected because precision is important to the objective of this exercise.

In the next step, the following exercise is given and practiced orally at first. The teacher reads the questions and may prompt the desired answer with a "yes" or "no." The expected student responses are given below in parentheses. The first question should be answered by the teacher in order to provide an example for the students.

Exercise One: You are at the scene of the accident and you know all about it. You want to be helpful so you are happy to answer the following questions that someone is asking:

1. What happened?
   (A man who was drunk hit a car.)
2. The driver was drunk? Yes.
   (Yes, the man who hit the car was drunk.)
3. Was anybody injured? Yes.
   (Yes, the woman who was driving the other car was injured.)
4. Was she the owner of the car? Yes.
   (Yes, the woman who was injured was the owner of the car.)
5. Was she injured badly? Yes, she is unconscious.
   (Yes, the woman who was injured is unconscious.)
6. Was anyone else in the car? Yes.
   (Yes, another woman was riding in the car.)
7. Was she injured? No.
   (No, the other woman who was riding in the car was not injured.)
8. Did anyone see the accident? Identify the person.
   (Yes, a man who was standing on the corner at the time saw the accident.)
9. Where was the man who saw the accident?
   (The man who saw the accident was standing on the corner.)
10. Who is that policeman talking to?
    (The policeman is talking to the man who saw the accident.)
11. What is that policeman doing? The policeman who is talking to the witness.
    (The policeman who is talking to the witness is writing a report.)
12. There is another policeman here. What is he doing?
    (The other policeman who is here is directing traffic.)

The same situation may also be used to practice making definitions (a kind of identification) using adjective clauses, as in the following exercise:

Exercise Two

Define the following:

1. What is a tow-truck?
   (A tow-truck is a vehicle that is used for moving cars from one place to another.)
2. What is a traffic policeman?
   (A traffic policeman is a policeman who directs traffic.)
3. What is a drunk?
   (A drunk is a person who has drunk too much alcohol.)

4. What is a drunk driver?
   (A drunk driver is a person who drives a car when he or she is drunk.)
5. What is a witness?
   (A witness is a person who has seen an accident.)

In numbers 1, 3, and 4, the teacher can emphasize the importance of being specific. For example, the following answers are not acceptable because they are not specific or accurate definitions:

1. A tow-truck is a vehicle that is used to move cars.
3. A drunk is a person who has drunk too much.
4. A drunk driver is a person who drives after drinking alcohol.

It is possible to continue the practice for three to four days by providing a story for each character. (The story of Barbara and Susan, the women in the accident, are given below.) By continuing with new stories over several days, it is possible to give review and reinforcement without being repetitive or boring. In addition, the succeeding exercises use questions other than those requiring adjective clauses, in order to avoid automatic responses.

Again, it is best to present the situations and exercises orally at first in order to provide listening and speaking practice. This emphasizes the development of communicative competence rather than the mere understanding of grammatical structures which is stressed in reading and written exercises. The reading and writing component of the practice may be given as homework after the situation has been introduced and practiced orally in class.

Part Two—Barbara and Susan

The woman who was injured is Barbara Andrews. She works in a bank in the foreign exchange department. This department handles foreign money. Barbara changes U.S. money for people who are going to travel to other countries. She was going home with her roommate, Susan Reed. Susan works in a bank also. But she does not work in the same bank that Barbara does, nor does she work in the foreign exchange department. She is a teller. She puts money in bank accounts for people and gives money to people. In other words, she makes deposits and cashes checks for bank customers.

Exercise One

1. Who is Barbara Andrews?
   (She is the woman who was injured.)
2. Where does she work?
   (She works in a bank in the foreign exchange department.)
3. What is the foreign exchange department?

(The foreign exchange department of a bank is the department that handles foreign currency.)

4. What does Barbara do in the foreign exchange department?
   (Barbara changes money for people who are going to travel to other countries.)
5. Who is Susan Reed?
   (Susan is the woman who was riding in the car with Barbara. Or simply: "Susan is Barbara's roommate," if only to show that we do not have to use an adjective clause to make an identification.)
6. What is a roommate?
   (A roommate is a person who shares an apartment with someone.)
7. What does she do?
   (She works in a bank as a teller.)
8. What is a teller?
   (A teller is a person who makes deposits and cashes checks for bank customers.)
9. Does she work in the same bank as Barbara Andrews?
   (No, she does not work in the same bank as Barbara.)

Obviously, the exercises given here do not cover all uses of the adjective clause. The main intention of this article is to describe an approach to teaching, that of questioning ourselves from time to time concerning native speaker usage of a structure and then seeking a means of teaching students the *how* and *why* of this usage through practice rather than explanation.

Using Logic in the Classroom

Robert Kushen

Learning English involves not simply learning grammar and vocabulary, but in some cases, a new way of thinking. Western-style logical organization and analytical reasoning can be an important component of an English-language course. Familiarity with Western-style logic can help students of English learn to organize their ideas and make themselves more easily understood. In order to demonstrate the importance of using logic to argue a point and explain information clearly and convincingly, I devised a lesson which is built around a series of logic problems. The lesson can be used with intermediate and advanced students of English and is particularly useful for students who come from cultures which do not have a background in Western-style reasoning. Although the problems I used were prepared with Japanese businessmen in mind, the subject matter of these problems can be changed according to the students' needs and interests. The lesson spans about three separate forty-five-minute periods over three days. It could be shortened, however, by reducing the number of problems.

Normally, I start by explaining to the students the importance of using logical organization to formulate arguments and explain things in English. I then give them a handout which contains both the logic problems and a brief outline of one common form of logical organization. This involves beginning an argument or explanation with at least one *rule* or *premise.* A rule or premise is a general statement which is assumed to be true. It is followed by one or more *facts,* which are also true statements but which are more specific. The argument or explanation then ends with a conclusion based on the previous rules and facts. This kind of logic was made famous by Greek Stoic philosophers in the third century B.C., and is a dominant form of logic in Western culture.

After this explanation, I frequently analyze the first problem with the class. I then ask the students (in pairs) to test the validity of each logic problem. The question they must answer is, "Based on the supporting rules and facts, is the conclusion of the problem

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logical?" If the conclusion is not valid, I ask them to decide what conclusion, if any, can be drawn from the given rules or facts, or what new rules or facts are necessary to make the conclusion logical. The role of the teacher during the exercise is to monitor the students, answering vocabulary questions if necessary, or asking questions to guide them in deciding if the problems are logical or not. The teacher can also monitor and encourage the use of functional gambits for agreement and disagreement, stating opinions, and so on. This part of the exercise usually takes around forty-five minutes.

The next day, the students discuss these logic problems as a class. This always generates a lively discussion, as there are usually conflicting answers as to the validity of certain problems. Some of these are never resolved, so at this point I answer any remaining questions. It is here that the notes to the logic problems are useful. These notes are intended to help the teacher to understand and explain the solutions to the logic problems. In order to save time, the teacher could lead a discussion of the answers to the problems, without having the students discuss them as a group. However, this results in less student input. This part of the lesson also takes about forty-five minutes.

On the final day, the students work alone to formulate three logic problems of their own. I tell them to create only logic problems which have valid conclusions. Then they work in pairs and examine the validity of each other's problems. Here the teacher can act as a monitor. Finally, I collect their work, and later make all the necessary corrections and return them the next day.

I believe this lesson is useful for several different reasons. First, the logic problems are a good way of teaching logical organization. In the weeks after completing this lesson, my students would frequently interrupt each other to ask, "Is what you just said logical?" At the very least, students pay more attention to the logic of the explanations and arguments which they produce than they do before completing this lesson. In addition, the logic problems generate a lot of discussion, and thus make a good student-centered lesson. Finally, they can be used to introduce new vocabulary, as well as to reinforce functional gambits.

Western Logic

In the third century B.C., the Greek philosopher Zeno founded a philosophical school called Stoicism. The Stoics developed a system of logic which is in common use in Western countries today. This system of logic is a very useful way of organizing your ideas in English. The Stoics had five basic types of arguments. The first part of each argument is a premise or rule. The second part is a fact. The third part is a conclusion which can be reached by looking at the fact and the rule together.

Below are some logic problems. With your partner, decide whether the conclusions follow from the rules and the facts. If they don't, then decide what conclusion you can reach from the rules and facts.

1. An unfair market is one which has trade quotas. (Rule)
   The American automobile market has trade quotas. (Fact)
   American automobile companies are making large profits. (Conclusion)

2. All LIOJ students are businessmen.
   All LIOJ students like to play golf.
   Therefore, all businessmen like to play golf.

3. All Greeks are mortal.
   Socrates was a Greek.
   Socrates was mortal.

4. Free trade is very important.
   Military security is more important than free trade.
   Controlling computer exports to communist countries is part of military security.
   Controlling computer exports to communist countries is more important than free trade.

5. Some Japanese car companies are very good.
   Toyota is a Japanese car company.
   Toyota is a very good car company.

6. If interest rates in the U.S. are high, the dollar is strong.
   The dollar is strong.
   Interest rates in the U.S. are high.

7. If the Nissan U.S. plant uses union workers, its profits must be low.
   Nissan's U.S. plant makes good profits.
   Nissan's U.S. plant uses non-union workers.

8. If you don't study English, you won't be allowed to go abroad.
   Now you are studying English.
   You will go abroad.

9. Fujitsu computers are cheaper than IBM computers.
   Expensive computers are always high-quality.
   IBM computers are high-quality.

10. Epimenides is the name of a philosopher who lived in Crete.
    Epimenides said, "All the people who live in Crete are liars."
    Epimenides was a liar.

Notes for Logic Problems

These notes are to help teachers understand and explain the logic problems to students. They point out some of the difficulties students frequently have trying to solve these logic problems, as well as the difficulties they have explaining or arguing in English.

1. This problem is an example of one which has a truthful conclusion, but not a logical conclusion. The conclusion is illogical because it introduces a new concept, "large profits," which does not appear in any of the supporting information. This is an important problem, because when students argue or explain things they sometimes omit information which they consider to be obvious, with the result that their conclusions appear to have no foundation.

There are two ways in which this logic problem can be altered to make it valid. The first way is to change the conclusion. A logical conclusion would be, "The American automobile market is unfair." The second way is to add an additional rule: "An unfair market enables companies to make large profits." Students may feel that this is an obvious statement which does not need to be expressed. But this kind of omission can undermine an argument or explanation. Therefore, it is important to tell students to be meticulous and to state the obvious.

2. In this problem, the first statement is a fact. The second statement is also a fact, although the truth of this fact is debatable.

The conclusion is not supported by these two facts. There is no reasonable conclusion which can be drawn from these facts.

3. The conclusion to this problem is a valid one.

4. The conclusion to this problem is, in my opinion, a valid one. However, there might be some semantic arguments against the validity of this problem arising from the phrase, "part of military security." Is "part of military security" the same as "military security" in the second statement?

5. This is another example of a truthful conclusion, but not a logical one. A logical conclusion would be: "Toyota might be a very good car company."

6. This problem illustrates the use of the "converse" statement. The converse of the first statement is the following: "If the dollar is strong, then interest rates in the U.S. are high." Students frequently make mistakes stating cause and effect relationships like this one, accidentally replacing cause with effect, and vice-versa. The converse of an "if-then" statement is not necessarily true, as in this case. There might be other factors which determine whether or not interest rates in the U.S. are high. Therefore, the conclusion is not valid. A student wishing to explain the reasons for high interest rates in the U.S. would have to convey additional information in order to construct a reasonable explanation.

7. This problem illustrates the use of the "contrapositive" statement. The contrapositive of the first statement is: "If its (Nissan's) profits are *not* low, then the Nissan U.S. plant does *not* use union workers." The contrapositive of an "if-then" statement is always true. Therefore, the conclusion here is valid, but not very clear. If a student were explaining the relationship between Nissan's profits and its use of non-union workers, it would be best to state the contrapositive statement directly after the first statement: "If Nissan's U.S. plant uses union workers, then its profits will be low. Therefore, if Nissan's profits are high, then the plant must not use union workers." In this example, students might feel that the contrapositive statement is obvious and therefore unnecessary, but it is important to show them that this is not so.

8. This conclusion is not valid. There is no valid conclusion which can be drawn here, because the negative of the first statement, "If you study English, you will be allowed to go abroad," is not necessarily true.

9. This conclusion is not logical, because there is no absolute

statement that IBM computers are expensive. They are only expensive relative to Fujitsu computers. The conclusion could be made logical by adding the fact, "IBM computers are expensive."

10. This is an example of a classic paradox, a set of contradictory statements. There is no solution to this problem, but it can be used as an opportunity to introduce the vocabulary words "paradox" and "contradictory."

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Book Reviews

MISSING PERSON. (A RADIO PLAY). Karen Hunter Anderson, Kathleen Breugging, John Lance. New York: Longman, 1983. Pp. 92; and Cassette.

Missing Person is a radio play which is designed to help beginning EFL/ESL students develop listening skills by using strategies such as problem solving and prediction. The book consists of twelve lesson, which tell a suspenseful mystery story concerning a "missing person." Each unit contains several exercises that both check and reinforce comprehension, introduce functions, and practice summarization. We have used *Missing Person* as the listening component in an upper basic class and a lower intermediate class and it has worked quite well in this capacity.

The recorded material is difficult for basic students; each dialogue had to be played a number of times before they could understand even the gist of it. However, the mystery is interesting enough to keep their attention and, once they become familiar with the characters and story, they find they can understand what is going on. The story comes complete with all the background noises—cars, footsteps, falling bodies, gun shots—that one generally hears in a radio play. This lends a certain amount of authenticity to the play and the students enjoy it a lot. It also helps them to understand the story. In fact, the enjoyment that the students get from the story, their diligent efforts to unravel the plot, and their enthusiasm constitute one of the strongest arguments for recommending the play.

Several exercises are used to check and reinforce comprehension. They include "Prediction," "Listening for Important Details," "Listening for Main Ideas," "Listening for Different Points of View," "Listening for Sequence," and "Reading and Listening for Specific Information."

The pre-listening exercises often stress listening on more than the sentence level. They encourage the students to use their knowledge and experience of the world in order to get the gist of the dialogue which follows. However, at times the pre-listening questions seem to look backward instead of forward, or too often the answer to a prediction question seems to be "Well, I don't think this will happen, because if it does the story will end." After a while, this type of answer becomes rather monotonous for the teacher and the students.

The "Listening for Important Details" exercises stress those details which the students must understand in order to get the gist of the story. If the students answer these questions correctly, they should have a summary of the unit. Some very easy questions are included in this section to help build confidence. At times, however, there are too many questions of this type and the details elicited from the students are not really relevant to the story.

The exercise entitled "Listening for Language" is a cloze dictation exercise. The words that have been deleted are items that are important for understanding the global meaning or function of what is being said. These exercises can be done as traditional dictations, or students can first predict what goes in the blank and then listen to the dialogue to test their predictions. It can also be used to summarize and reinforce the story line. The passages chosen often contain some of the important ideas in the story. This reinforces the knowledge that the students already have. It is done in such a way that they do not have the impression that the teacher is telling them the story. This is because the correction here concerns language and not ideas. When it is completed, the students should have a good idea of what is happening in the story.

The "Listening for Sequence" and "Listening for Main Ideas" exercises also serve to reinforce the story line by having the students listen for specific information. The book may be overloaded in this respect; a better balance would be achieved by including more exercises which develop gist listening.

The book also provides exercises to introduce and reinforce functions such as making introductions, suggesting, ordering food, interrupting, and other functions which are important for basic students. However, they are not very well developed. The exercise in Lesson 2 (interrupting and helping people) for example, consists of no more than a multiple choice exercise in dialogue form. Lesson 5 (asking for confirmation and asking for information), and Lesson 7 (distinguishing suggestions from other functions) are confusing and perhaps unnecessary. The major drawback of the book is that it gives few exercises for oral reinforcement of the functions. Of the twelve lessons, oral practice is mentioned in only two of them, and this consists of reading patterns out of the book. Teachers can, of course, supplement the book with their own material on functions and this does in fact serve to inject some variety into the class.

One of the most interesting exercises is the one entitled "Reading and Listening for Specific Information." In the first lesson, for example, the students are given the following directions: "Read the first part of Terry's journal about her trip to Washington. Then listen to the conversation between Mike and a policeman. Mike's version is different from Terry's in one important way." The students have to find out what piece of information is different. This type of exercise develops the students' powers of observation and their ability to think things through logically in English. At the end of each lesson there are two or three "discussion" questions which the students are supposed to talk about in small groups. These questions, however, tend to be very repetitive and in general little or no discussion is needed to answer them. They have either been answered during the course of the lesson or require only a short, simple answer.

There are several minor problems with the book. The pictures which accompany each lesson contain almost nothing which might help the students to understand the story better. They could have been exploited in a variety of ways. In the first lesson, for example, there is a picture of the four main characters standing at the baggage claim of an airport. Listening to the first dialogue, however, one can not match the characters with the people in the picture. The relationships between the people are also unclear and this is rather frustrating for students, especially beginners. A more serious criticism concerns the authenticity of the taped dialogues. Some of the voices are exaggerated to the point where they are no longer authentic. There is a notable lack of the reduced forms which permeate natural spoken English today, and words are enunciated much more clearly than they are in reality. What is the point of having students listen to and work on language that they will probably never hear outside the classroom?

In conclusion, *Missing Person* can be used quite successfully as the listening component in a class for false beginners (complete beginners would find it much too difficult), provided that the teacher is aware of its shortcomings and supplements it with other material. The authors are on the right track and we do need a lot more of this kind of material for students at this level. It would also be interesting to try and develop this kind of material on videotape.

Video is an excellent medium for beginners; being able to see characters, setting, and displays of emotion is very useful in developing gist listening skills. This would, of course, be a much more expensive and complex project, but with the use of videotaped materials in the classroom increasing, we believe there would be a place for it.

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Announcements

Call for Contributions: TEAM, a publication of the English Language Center of Petroleum and Minerals in Dhahran, Saudi Arabia, welcomes articles, book reviews, and teaching techniques pertaining to all aspects of second language acquisition, particularly when: 1) English is the target language; 2) the learner is an Arabic speaker; or 3) there exists an EST or EAP bias. TEAM is a quarterly journal which has subscribers throughout the Middle East and in over sixty countries around the world. It is distributed free of charge upon request to a limited number of readers who have an interest in the teaching of English. If you would like to submit a paper for publication, send a typewritten copy of your paper to: TEAM editor, English Language Center, University of Petroleum and Minerals, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia.

JALT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING. September 14-16, 1985; Kyoto, Japan. The Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) will sponsor its eleventh annual conference at Kyoto Sangyo University, Kyoto. The conference will feature over 150 workshops, demonstrations, and papers dealing with a wide range of topics relevant to language teaching, learning, and acquisition. For more information, write to: JALT, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Bldg. 8F, Shijo-Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600, Japan.

BAAL ANNUAL MEETING. September 13-15, 1985; Edinburgh, Scotland. The British Association for Applied Linguistics will hold its annual meeting at the University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh. For information, write to: David Hill, IALS, 21 Hill Place, Edinburgh EH8 9DP.

TESOL SCOTLAND. October 26, 1985; Glasgow, Scotland. TESOL Scotland is holding its third annual conference in Glasgow. The plenary speakers will be Jean Handscombe (North York Board of Education, Toronto, Canada, and President of International TESOL 1985-6) and Andrew Cohen (Hebrew University of Jerusalem). For information, write to: Liz Hamp-Lyons, Secretary, TESOL Scotland, Institute for Applied Language Studies, 21 Hill Place, Edinburg EH8 9DP, Scotland.

Call for Papers: MITESOL NEWSLETTER. The MITESOL Newsletter is now accepting contributions of articles which contribute to the field of foreign and second language teaching and learning in both the theoretical and practical domains, especially in the following areas: 1) curriculum, methods, and techniques; 2) classroom observation; 3) teacher education and teacher training; 4) cross-cultural studies; 5) language learning and acquisition; 6) overviews of, or research in related fields; and 7) book reviews. Articles should be no longer than 1,200 words. All copy must be typed and double-spaced. Please note that articles will not be returned. All articles and inquiries should be directed to: Donna Brigman, Editor, MITESOL Newsletter, 211 Oakwood, Ypsilanti, MI 48197, U.S.A.

COMMUNICATION AND SIMULATION. In 1986, the International Simulation and Gaming Association (ISAGA) will hold its seventeenth International Conference at the University of Toulon, France, on the theme of Communication. For further information, write either to: David Crookall, University of Toulon, 83130 LA GARDE, France; or to: Danny Saunders, The Polytechnic of Wales, Pontypridd, Mid-Glamorgan CF37 1DL, Wales.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS. September 9-13, 1985; Pavia, Italy. Workshops at this international conference will include (tentatively) the historical development of auxiliaries and reconstructions of the Indo-European sound system and their consequences. Membership in the International Society for Historical Linguistics and the conference abstract booklet are available even for those who cannot attend. For further information, please write to: Prof. Anna Giacalone Ramat, Institute di Glottologia, Universita, Strada Nuova 65, I-27100 Pavia, Italy.

FIFTH EUROPEAN SYMPOSIUM ON LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES. August 26-30, 1985; Leuven, Belgium. The program will feature fifteen topics, grouped into four areas: 1) the learner: assessing the objectives on the basis of the learner's needs; 2) material design in function of defined objectives; 3) didactic use of resources: authentic samples and media; and 4) the computer in Language for Specific Purposes. Please direct all enquiries to: Prof. Dr. L.K. Engels, Fifth European Symposium on LSP, Institut voor Levende Talen, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Vesaliusstraat 21, B-3000 Leuven, Belgium.

INTERNATIONAL WLWH HUMOR CONFERENCES:

1976 in Cardiff Wales: Foot/Chapman
1980 in Los Angeles, CA: Mindess/Turek
1982 in Washington, DC: Mintz/Browning
1984 in Tel Aviv, Israel: Avner Ziv
1985 in Cork, Ireland: Desmond McHale
1987 in Tempe, AZ: Nilsen/Nilsen
NOTE: The President of WLWH is Herb Cummings

WHIMSY PROCEEDINGS:

WHIMSY I: The Humor of Language/The Language of Humor
WHIMSY II: Metaforce Be With You: Humor and Metaphor
WHIMSY III: Contemporary Humor
NOTE: These proceedings are available for $10 per copy

NATIONAL WHIM CONFERENCES AT ASU:

WHIM IV: March 29 to April 1, 1985: "Interdisciplinary Humor"
WHIM V: March 29 to April 1, 1986: "Western Humor"
WHIM VI: April 1 to April 5, 1987: "International Humor"
WHIM VII: April 1 to April 5, 1988: "Humorous Antonymy, Antithesis, Contrast, and Other Types of Diametric Oppositions"

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION CONTACT:

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