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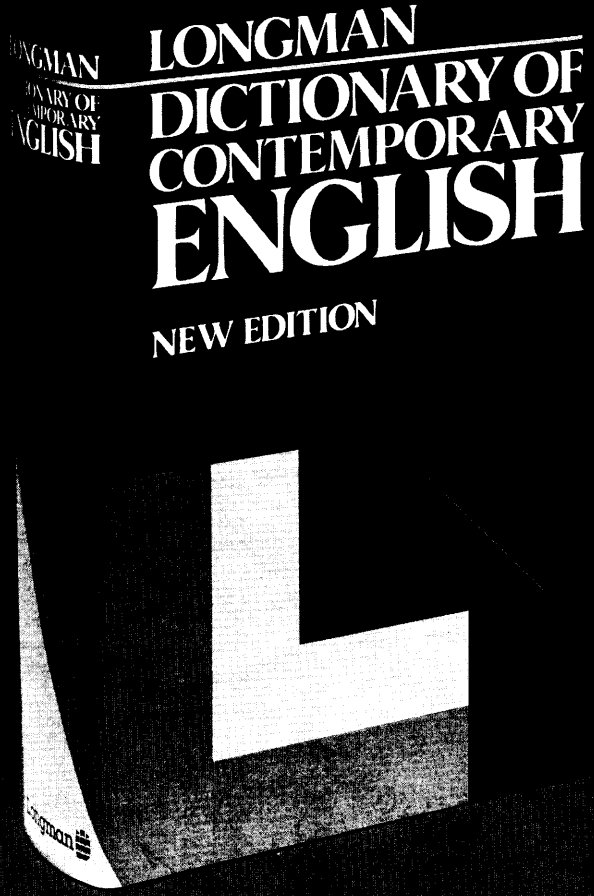

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Cross Currents is a semi-annual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an interdisciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition and instruction, and cross-cultural 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.

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Summaries of the Articles

Creative Strategies for Large Class Management

Fred Anderson

Instructors of EFL in Japanese colleges and secondary schools often find themselves in situations for which their prior training and experience have left them completely unprepared. This article presents some survival strategies for teachers in these situations. Special emphasis is placed on dealing with the problems of large classes, low motivation, and a lack of contact hours. Differences in cultural attitudes toward learning are also taken into consideration. The article describes specific activities as well as strategies for dealing with problems concerning overall class management.

Cultural Differences in Non-Verbal Communication: Practical Guides for the ESL/EFL Classroom

Peter Gardner

Much has been written about the theoretical implications of cultural differences in non-verbal communication. Far fewer practical materials have been developed which can be used in the ESL/EFL classroom to sensitize students to this diversity. After briefly reviewing the theoretical background of three major types of non-verbal communication (kinesics, proxemics, and haptics), the author provides a number of exercises to help students gain an appreciation of cultural differences in non-verbal commmunication and common misunderstandings that may arise from these differences.

Developing Basic Conversational Management Skills

Kevin McClure

Conversational interaction requires prior experience on the part of the speaker and the listener. Non-native speakers need to become familiar with the expectations of English conversation in order to successfully converse with native speakers. Yet often non-native speakers do not know what to say in social and business situations

which require them to participate in a general conversation—to make "small talk." This article proposes practical classroom activities which allow the student to become aware of appropriate topics for conversation, the need for conversational balance, and how, as a listener, to show interest in a conversation and encourage the speaker to continue. Using these activities, students will be able to monitor their own participation in conversation and practise conversational interaction.

Assessing the Spoken English of Non-Native Trainee Teachers

John B. Curtin

The current popularity of a communicative syllabus demands a high degree of oral proficiency on the part of the teacher. As there are more and more non-native speakers teaching English as a second or foreign language, this may necessitate a different approach to evaluating these teachers' oral ability. In the past, a set criteria based on native-speaker proficiency was often predominant. This article questions whether these criteria are realistic today and suggests a compromise which takes into account both the need for oral proficiency and the difficulties inherent in learning and teaching English in non-English speaking countries.

Bright Ideas

Games for Children

Paul Lehnert

Children are often very good foreign language leaners; they have an interest in the language, have a good memory, and have boundless energy. They also, however, have a very short attention span. One way to lengthen their span of attention is by using games to introduce and practice language. In this Bright Idea, the author presents a few games which actively encourage learning and are enjoyable for children.

Modified Close Procedure as a Method of Measuring Reading Comprehension

Neil McBeath and J.H. Marshall

Measuring reading comprehension and testing structural competence are the dual goals of a modified cloze procedure developed to fit the needs of beginner language learners with limited, specific vocabulary. This Bright Idea considers the merits of this procedure relative to multiple choice tests and explains how a reading passage with relevant informational content can be manipulated by students to demonstrate their understanding of the information and a knowledge of the linguistic structure.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

In language teaching, there exists the idealism of theory and the reality of the classroom. Quantitative and qualitative studies seek to relate a variety of factors to second or foreign language proficiency. The results of careful research along with theoretical speculation are of course valuable and informative to classroom teachers. However, in the practical, real world of the classroom, theories must be as adaptable as materials. Although there is a wide variety of theoretical works concerned with aspects of language teaching, there remains a dearth of articles that are of immediate practical use to the classroom teacher. In this issue, we have addressed this deficiency by featuring articles which provide specific strategies and activities for the classroom.

In "Creative Strategies for Large Class Management," Fred Anderson provides suggestions for effectively managing conversational or communicative classes where unwieldy size and low contact hours render them impersonal and adversely affect students' motivation and attendance. Considering large class teaching as an exercise in human management, the author focuses on the importance of organizational strategies and the adaptation of methodologies and materials to fit the situation. Anderson explains how the teacher, working within a highly constrained situation, can give the students a sense of language as a versatile tool for active communication, a bridge to positive cross-cultural interaction.

This issue also includes two articles which provide practical activities to heighten the awareness of the cultural diversity of verbal and non-verbal communication. Peter Gardner considers non-verbal communication as integrally connected with the verbal component within the context of communication in "Cultural Differences in Non-Verbal Communication: Practical Activities for the ESL/EFL Classroom." Gardner maintains that by introducing the concept of non-verbal communication in the ESL/EFL classroom, the instructor awakens the students to the perils of ethnocentricity by encouraging an appreciation of cultural diversity. There are numerous theoretical works on non-verbal communication, but Gardner is aware of far fewer practical materials which can be used in the ESL classroom. To this end, Gardner has provided theoretical background information concerning particular forms of

non-verbal communication but has focused his article on classroom activities which can sensitize students to cultural differences in non-verbal communication.

Differences in conversational style can also foster misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication and inhibit the development of relationships. Non-native speakers of English are often unaware of the cultural differences involved in making general conversation. In "Developing Basic Conversation Management Skills," Kevin McClure isolates some of the major problems related to conversation and proposes exercises to make students aware of their participation in classroom conversations so they can monitor their own communicative interaction in other situations. Analyses of sample conversations and a series of exercises to develop conversational skills are integrated into more spontaneous conversation situations which encourage students to take responsibility for the maintenance of a comfortably balanced conversation.

The emphasis on oral communication continues in the final article, "Assessing the Spoken English of Non-Native Trainee Teachers," by John B. Curtin. As the communicative approach continues to gain wider acceptance, the demand on the oral competence of non-native teachers of English escalates as well. Assessing the oral proficiency of a non-native teacher of English becomes a delicate exercise which involves the establishment of real expectations which can maintain an acceptable standard of linguistic proficiency. Mr. Curtin contends that the problem of interviewing and assessing potential teachers must be balanced with a consideration of the problems—including economic restraints—which sometimes face the non-native teacher trainee who has learned to speak English in the absence of a native model.

In our Bright Ideas section, Paul Lehnert provides "Games for Children," a catalogue of various language games which are suitable for multi-level classes. In "Modified Cloze Procedure as a Method of Measuring Reading Comprehension," Neil McBeath and J.H. Marshall explain how students can re-write a passage as part of a cloze procedure which reveals their awareness of linguistic structure while it tests their comprehension. Finally, Steve Mierzejewski has provided us with another provocative book review. This time, he looks at *The Foreigner's Language: A Sociolinguistic Perspective* by Karol Janicki.

We would also like to announce a Call for Papers for our next issue. We are particularly interested in articles concerned with English as an International Language, Sociolinguistics, and Methodology. We invite you to submit articles on these topics by October 15, 1987.

As this will be the last issue for our departing Editor, Paul Lehnert, *Cross Currents* wishes to thank Paul for his dedication to the journal throughout his editorship and for his invaluable advice regarding the compilation of this issue. We have appreciated his kind and good-humoured guidance as well as his efficiency.

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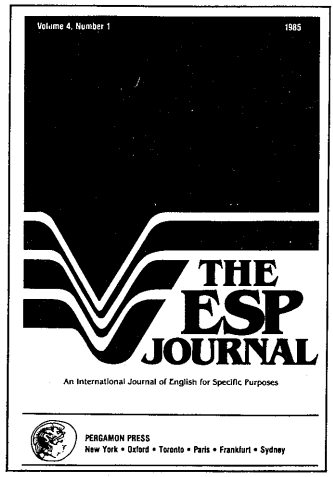

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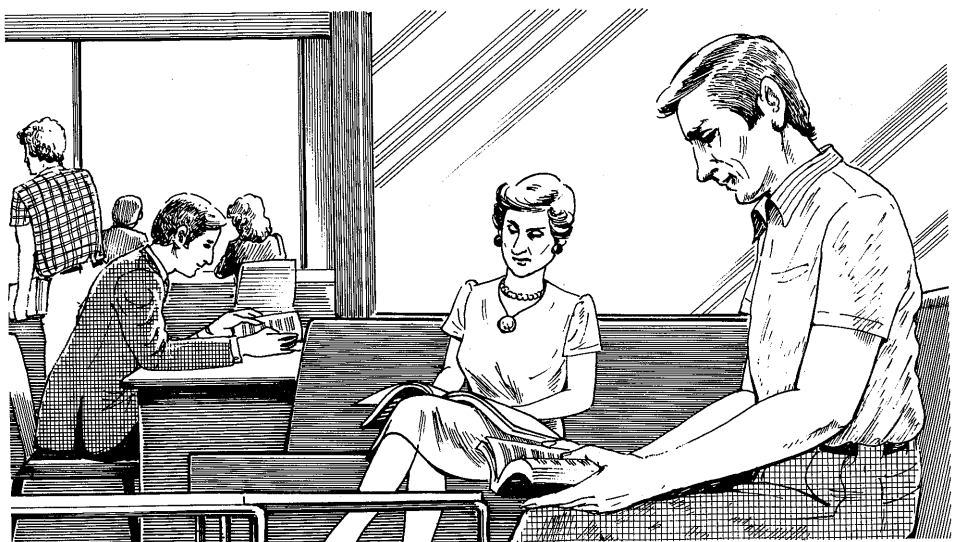

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Fall/Winter 1987

Creative Strategies for Large Class Management*

Fred Anderson

Large classes, low motivation, and a lack of contact hours are just a few of the problems that confront EFL teachers in Japanese colleges and secondary schools. New initiates to the system, particularly foreign instructors, often find themselves in situations for which their prior training and experience have left them completely unprepared.

Frequently with 50 or more students, classes are not determined by linguistic ability levels. A freshman English class at a university, for example, might contain all levels from Beginner to Upper Intermediate. Motivation is frequently limited to what is necessary to pass tests. Contact hours may be as few as 30 per year, and, at the university level at least, absenteeism and tardiness are common. In addition, cultural attitudes toward learning make students hesitant to participate actively in class—a problem that is further complicated by the fact that many students may be learning English from a foreign instructor for the first time, and hence react with additional reserve, if not with outright fear.

Yet, despite these constraints, the role of the foreign instructor is generally perceived to be to teach conversational or communicative English. That the uninitiated should react with frustration, even hopelessness, is natural. Indeed, one might ask whether anything at all can be accomplished in a year.

---

*First presented at the 1986 JALT Conference in Hamamatsu. The author would like to thank J.D. Brown for his comments on an earlier version of this paper.

Fred Anderson is a candidate for a Ph.D. in Linguistics at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. He taught English at Hakodate University, Hokkaido, Japan, from 1980 to 1984. He is currently a participant in the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii.

The purpose of this article is to provide the reader with some survival strategies, ways of coping with otherwise impossible classroom situations. The article stems from my own experience teaching Freshman English and English Conversation to non-English majors at Hakodate University, Hokkaido. Although to some extent it addresses all of the problems outlined above, I have singled out the problem of large classes, which is, I believe, pivotal. The impersonal character of large classes tends to cause, or at least to aggravate, many of the other problems. Mixed levels, lack of motivation, and high rates of absenteeism, for example, are clearly connected to class size.

The article is divided into three sections. First, I will suggest some sample activities; second, I will describe how 3x5 index cards can be used as a device for overall management of large classes; and third, I will propose a taxonomy of activity types to serve as a guide for the evaluation and development of activities. For additional ideas, I refer the reader to Pearson (1984), Hughes-d'Aeth (1984), and Enright and McCloskey (1985).

Two major themes underlie the article as a whole. One is that large class teaching situations can profitably be thought of as exercises in human management, where organizational strategies are fundamental and methodologies follow within the organizational framework. The second theme is that EFL instructors, especially foreign instructors on short-term contracts, rarely have the power to change the system in any meaningful way, and should therefore make efforts to adapt themselves to the system rather than expecting the reverse; any changes should be attempted gradually over time. Here I endorse the view of Candlin and Breen (1979), who have stressed the importance of adapting materials to fit the situation. I would like to add that methodologies and organizational strategies need to be adapted as well. EFL teachers should do what they can, in the context of large classes, rather than attempt futilely to accomplish what they cannot.

Three Activities

The following activities, a sampling of the kinds of things that can be done in large classes, share several characteristics. They all work; that is, they encourage active participation by a maximum number of students without undue preparation time for the teacher. Yet they do not only work; they have pedagogical value and

are not simply time-fillers. They are also non-threatening to individual Japanese students and therefore are culturally sensitive. Finally, they can be adapted from essentially any textbook, a particularly important consideration in cases where the teacher has no control over the choice of materials.

It should be kept in mind, however, that these are only activities, class modules, and not complete lesson plans. I urge the reader to look beyond the individual activities and to view them as representative of different organizational strategies. They can then be modified or expanded to fit individual teaching situations.

Real-life information gaps

In addition to serving as a listening comprehension exercise, this activity allows the teacher to introduce himself or herself to the students in a way that they will readily understand. It is an adaptation of Lesson 29, "Computer Dating," from *American Streamline Departures* (Hartley and Viney 1983).

Figure 1: Student Form for a Real-Life Information Gap

COMPUTER DATING SERVICES, INC.

Name .....
Address .....
Telephone .....
Birthdate .....
Occupation .....
Marital status .....
LIKES .....
  Colors .....
  Food .....
  Recreation .....
  Music .....
DISLIKES .....

Students are given an empty form, as in Figure 1. (The "Computer Dating Services" title can be changed if you are afraid that students will take it too literally.) The teacher then reads from a prepared script which provides the information missing from the form. Or, rather than reading from a script, the teacher can refer to a form similar to Figure 1, but which has been filled out prior to

class. The latter may produce more natural discourse. In either case, the students listen to the teacher and record as many of the details as they can. Following is an example of a teacher's script:

> Good afternoon. My name is Fred Anderson. That's A-N-D-E-R-S-O-N. I live at 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848, USA. The stress is East-West Road—capital E-A-S-T, hyphen, capital W-E-S-T, road. My telephone number is 943-1951. I was born on May 15, 1953. I'm married and have a young son. My wife is Japanese.
>
> I used to teach English, but I'm not teaching right now. I'm a graduate student. When I'm not studying or writing papers, I like outdoor sport—jogging, bicycling and skiing. But in Hawaii you can't ski, so I go swimming. I also like music—especially jazz and popular. I like most classical music, too, but I'm not too crazy about opera. And of course, I like to eat. I like *sushi* and *tempura*; I don't like *shiokara*.

The level of difficulty of the passage can of course be adjusted. One might also wish to vary the difficulty level within a single passage, especially for classes with students of widely differing abilities.

There are a number of ways in which the exercise can be expanded after students have listened to the information once and filled out their forms. Time can be allotted for students to ask the teacher questions in order to elicit information that they were unable to pick up, or to elicit new information—things that they would like to know about the teacher in addition to what was presented. Alternately, students can meet in groups and ask questions of each other to elicit the information still missing from their forms.

The exercise can be used for any number of information sharing activities, and it does not have to involve the teacher as its subject. For example, if the topic of a lesson is the typical day of some textbook character, an exercise can be adapted using the basic textbook format, but centering around the daily activities of a familiar teacher in the school (not necessarily the foreign English teacher), a student in the class, a guest foreigner (for example, if a friend happens to be visiting you at the time), or some other familiar or interesting face. It is also easy to turn the exercise into a pair activity, where students exchange information about themselves, or to use it as a framework for writing compositions.

An obvious value of real-life information gap exercises is that students learn to listen for key points out of a stream of speech. Although this can be accomplished through other types of listening exercises, the use of real-life subjects does have an additional advantage: it restores relevance, an element that is too often absent from the EFL classroom; and, in restoring relevance, it enhances motivation. My implementation of such exercises was in response to students requesting that I tell them something about myself during class. I was the only American that most of them had ever known personally, and they had a genuine interest in me. Their listening abilities were such, however, that they would have had difficulty understanding spontaneous speech. Real-life information gaps allowed me to talk about myself in a way that was readily understood, using the students' textbook as a starting point. Although the information in the sample exercise seems basic, it represents exactly the kinds of questions that my students would ask me (usually in Japanese) at the beginning of a new school year. They wanted to know where I lived, what kinds of sports I liked, and whether I was married. Providing them with the information in English, in a way that they could understand, helped to raise their confidence levels. The activity also stimulated reaction from the students. Students who discovered during the exercise that I lived in their neighborhood, for example, would ask me after class about the exact location of my house. Learning that I was a neighbour helped to break down some of the barriers between foreign instructor and Japanese students.

Pair Dictations

Dictation is an exercise familiar to nearly all students and teachers of language. What many teachers may not realize is that it is a very versatile exercise. Riley (1972) has suggested dicto-comps and Speer (1980) offers several variations on the standard dictation: preassigned dictations; dictations preceded by timed readings; dictations with cloze materials; and dictations with grammar exercises. All of these are to some extent adaptable to large classes. To Speer's list, I would like to add one more: the pair dictation—a type of dictation with a communicative aspect to it. A pair dictation might be considered a combination of a standard dictation, or a dictation with cloze materials, and an information gap exercise.

Prior to class, the teacher prepares two complementary handouts, based on a single dialogue from the students' text. In each

handout, the teacher deletes selected words or phrases from the lines of one of the two speakers in the dialogue. This principle is illustrated by Figures 2a and 2b, which are adaptations from Unit 12, "What Kind of Movies Do You Like?," of *In Touch* (Castro and Kimbrough 1979).

Figure 2a: A Pair Dictation–Tony's Part

You are TONY

TOMIKO: _____ American TV?
TONY: It's OK, but I like movies better.
TOMIKO: _____ do you like?
TONY: All kinds, but especially Westerns.
TOMIKO: Who's your _____?
TONY: Clint Eastwood.

Figure 2b: A Pair Dictation–Tomiko's Part

You are TOMIKO

TOMIKO: Do you like American TV?
TONY: _____, but I like _____ better.
TOMIKO: What kind of moves do you like?
TONY: All kinds, but _____.
TOMIKO: Who's your favorite actor?
TONY: _____.

The preceding examples are shorter than the dictations that would normally be used in class, but they illustrate the general procedure. Students work in pairs, each with a different one of the interlocking handouts (either 2a or 2b), and each is told not to look at the other's handout during the exercise. Students then trade off the roles of reader/speaker and listener/writer, either dictating their own parts, or, when not dictating, recording what they hear their partners saying. An important part of the procedure is to instruct students to ask their partners for clarification in cases where they do not understand what has been said. In line four of Figures 2a and 2b, for example, if Tomiko has failed to understand Tony, she might ask, "*What* kinds of movies did you say you liked?" to which Tony would again reply, "Westerns." If Tomiko still

does not understand the word "Westerns," the next step might be to ask Tony to spell it.

Pair dictations provide a way for students to practice a variety of language skills—speaking, listening, writing, and vocabulary building—in an interactive situation, and in a non-threatening environment. A particularly valuable aspect is that the exercise can be used as a means to teach students how to ask for clarification, an important part of the language learning process, but one that is often difficult to activate in large classes. Similarly, students can be instructed to give corrective feedback to each other; this can be useful in teaching the better students how to coach the slower ones. Many students often seem to be uncomfortable when not taking notes. This exercise allows them to write while they practise oral communication.

Matrix quiz games

Games are a good way to add variety to classes, to increase student motivation, and to review or preview textbook lessons. Many language teaching games, however, are difficult if not impossible to implement in classes with more than, say, 25 students. The type of game to be described in this section actually generates more excitement with larger numbers of students. In the name "matrix quiz games," "matrix" refers to a particular organizational framework and "quiz" refers to the fact that students (as participants on teams) compete to answer questions faster than other students.

To form the organizational matrix, the class is divided into teams of equal or near-equal size. A class of 49, for example, would have seven groups of seven; a class of 51 might have five groups of seven and two of eight. (An easy method of dividing the class into groups will be discussed later.) After the teams have been formed, each should be given a name. Any naming system is possible, but I like to use country names, providing the teams with homemade cardboard flags for identification. The flags also help to create motivation. Members of each team then count off; each member should have a number between 1 and whatever the total number of students on the team is (e.g., between 1 and 7 for a team of seven members). If some teams have fewer members than others, then a student on those teams with one less member will receive two numbers. In other words, each team should contain

members with exactly the same numbers, from 1 to whatever the number of students on the largest team is. The class is thus divided up as a matrix that can be schematized (see Figure 3); each student has an identity as a member of a team, and also as an individual within the team.

Figure 3: The Organizational Matrix of a Matrix Quiz Game

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
JAPAN							
U.S.A.							
U.K.							
FRANCE							
INDONESIA							
THAILAND							
RUSSIA							

An easy-to-organize matrix quiz game is one that emphasizes text-skimming skills. During the game, students refer to a designated reading passage or dialogue in their textbook or on a handout. To begin, the teacher calls out one of the numbers. Each student with that number stands up; there should be one standing per team. The teacher then asks a question about the text, and whoever can call out the answer first wins a point for his or her team. (Alternately, the winner can be given a play money $1 bill. Money, I have found, often arouses more excitement than mere points.) Students can solicit help from team members, and should be encouraged to do so, but only those standing are allowed to answer for points. Play continues with the teacher calling the rest of the numbers at random. When all of the numbers have been called, and hence all of he students have had a chance to compete, round 1 ends. A new round can then be started. Increasing the point ante (or the dollar ante) at the beginning of every new round helps to generate excitement. New rules, if kept simple, can be added in the course of the game and often help to keep it interesting. For example, time limits can be imposed on the answering of questions.

As the game progresses, the noise level may rise markedly, as the students scramble verbally to get their answers out not only faster, but also more loudly, than their opponents. Unless the noise is such that it disrupts neighboring classes, there is generally no need for the students to practice hand-raising. My feeling is that the noise–the phenomenon of everyone actually yelling out words in English– is a welcome change from the normal passive Japanese class, and a step in the direction of more active student involvement.

The game can be continued until interest starts to wane or until the class period ends. Points are then tallied, or teams are asked to count their money and report a total, and a winning country is declared.

Possible variations using the matrix structure are limited only by the imagination of the instructor. Just a few ideas will be mentioned here:

1. Students can be asked to write answers on the blackboard rather than calling them out. Although this does not promote conversation, it does give the teacher a chance to correct grammar and structure.
2. Rather than using a written text, students can be asked questions based on a set of pictures, or on a listening comprehension passage.
3. Matrix quiz games can be used as a fun way to review grammar points, especially in classes where students are preparing for entrance examinations.
4. The matrix quiz game structure also works well with Total Physical Response (Asher 1977) exercises. Here, members representing each of the teams are called to the front of the class and asked to compete by performing an action or sequence of actions, or by manipulating an object, faster than their opponents.

Matrix quiz games are the best way I have found to motivate large numbers of students. They work especially well as a wake-up strategy toward the end of a class period. I attribute the success of this technique, at least partially, to the way that it meshes with aspects of Japanese society. It is in accordance with the emphasis on group, rather than individual, activity, and with the role of the teacher as an authority figure. And while matrix quiz games may be no match for baseball or mahjong, they do appeal to the competitive spirit of many Japanese students.

Matrix quiz games encourage the better students within each group to coach the slower ones. Because the slower students can receive such coaching, they are able to answer questions that would otherwise be above their ability levels, thereby building up their confidence. Another value of the technique, as once noted by a student of mine, is that "the games make us think." Because there is competition to come up with answers as fast as possible, students do not have time to translate messages from Japanese. They are forced into the rare situation of having to do all of their thinking in English.

Although matrix quiz games can be used to practice a wide variety of linguistic skills, text-skimming is a particularly worthwhile one to focus on. A distinction is often made between intensive and extensive reading skills (Munby 1968), and, although language teaching frequently emphasizes the former, the importance of developing extensive reading skills is being increasingly recognized. Yet, it is difficult to find ways to incorporate these skills at the lower levels. In the matrix quiz game described above, however, students skim through their texts in search of quick answers. This valuable skill can be applied to extensive reading later on.

3x5 Indexing: A Strategy for Whole-Class Management

Without a comprehensive strategy for managing the class as a whole, the very task of organizing large numbers of students for individual activities—complicated by attendance-taking, creation of motivation, and other needs—is likely to take up more time than the activities themselves. Clearly, some kind of device is necessary to minimize the organizational pressure on the instructor and to maximize the activity time. As a solution, I discovered a very inexpensive, readily available, and versatile tool: the 3x5 index card. During the first class period of an academic year, one card is prepared for each student. As vital information, the card should contain the student's name and student number. Other sections can be added, for recording quiz scores (or scores on dictations or homework assignments), for marking attendance, or for other purposes according to the nature of the class. Figure 4 is a sample of what a newly created index card might look like.

Figure 4: A Student Index Card

3	Quizzes	# Absences
Taro Sato		

Preparation of the cards need not be a burden on the teacher. Using the blackboard as an aid, it takes only a few minutes to explain to even the lowest level students how to make up their own cards.

The set of student index cards comprises a very useful deck for the teacher. The card functions both as an efficiency device and as a means of personalizing the classroom (and hence enhancing motivation), as is implicit in the four basic uses described below.

As an Attendance-taking Device

In essence, this is a way of transferring the task of attendance-taking from the teacher to the students and, in the process, of helping students take charge of their own learning. Cards are arranged in envelopes in an attendance rack, such that names and student numbers are clearly visible. Upon entering the classroom, each student removes his or her card from the rack and puts it in an attendance box. The instructor removes all cards from the box as class begins; he then knows who is present and can call on students by name. After class, the instructor marks absent those students whose cards remain in the rack. Students whose cards have turned up in the attendance box after the initial pick-up are marked tardy.

As a Grouping Device

Dividing large classes randomly into groups for matrix quiz games or other activities can be time-consuming. Index cards provide a quick and efficient way to do this. First, the instructor mentally calculates how many groups he wants to form and how many students should be in each group, depending on the day's attendance. An appropriate number of cards for each group (selected randomly from the deck of attending students) is then placed on desks at different points of the room. Students move

around the room, find their cards, and group accordingly. The whole procedure takes only a few minutes.

Conversational Activities

Being able to refer to individual students by name, though not easy in large classes, is a definite plus for creating a positive class environment. By keeping the deck of cards of attending students in a pocket, the instructor is able to call randomly on students by name, at any time, without having to refer to a big, awkward attendance book.

The deck can also be used as a tool for promoting conversation among students, either as a class or in groups. Drawing cards from a deck enables students to call randomly on students other than just their friends.

As a Communication Channel Between Teacher and Student

Important information, such as scores on quizzes or homework papers, or numbers of absences, can be recorded on designated sections of each student's index card. The information is then automatically available for students to review before each class period, when they take their cards out of the attendance rack.

A Taxonomy of Organizational Strategies

Figure 5 presents a model for classifying activities by organizational strategy. The taxonomy should for the most part be self-explanatory, but I will mention a few points here that are particularly relevant to the preceding discussion. The model defines organizational strategies and activity types along two dimensions. First, there is the focus of activity—whether control of the learning situation is ultimately in the hands of the teacher (T) or the students (S). Second there is the size of units into which students are grouped—class (C), groups (G), pairs (P), or individuals (I). Of course, neither of the parameters is absolute. Most activities are probably somewhere between being totally teacher- or totally student-centered. Furthermore, 'group', as a label for a size of units is ambiguous, in that one can imagine a continuum of possible group sizes from three students to half the class. As a model, nevertheless, Figure 5 can prove quite useful.

The two-dimensionality of the model is an important attribute which distinguishes it from other models of classroom organization.

Figure 5: A Taxonomy of Classroom Organizational Strategies

FOCUS OF ACTIVITY →

SIZE OF UNITS ↓

	TEACHER (T) (The teacher is in control of the learning situation.)	**STUDENT (S)** (The students are responsible for their own learning.)
CLASS (C) (Class members work on same activity, by themselves or collectively.)	**Type T-C** Sample Activities: 1. Dictations 2. Cloze exercises 3. Real-life information gaps 4. Jazz chants 5. Class discussions	**Type S-C** Sample Activities: ?? (perhaps Community Language Learning activities)
GROUPS (G) (3 or more students in each group, depending on class attendance.)	**Type T-G** Sample Activities: 1. Matrix quiz games	**Type S-G** Sample Activities: 1. Group discussion/ problem-solving exercises 2. Drama exercises 3. Card games 4. Board games
PAIRS (P)	**Type T-P** Sample Activities: ??	**Type S-P** Sample Activities: 1. Dialogues 2. Information gap exercises 3. Pair dictations 4. Problem-solving exercises
INDIVIDUALS (I) (Students work on their own individual activities.)	**Type T-I** Sample Activities: 1. Teacher-student conversations 2. Oral interviews 3. Private tutoring	**Type S-I** Sample Activities: 1. Independent study (students working on their own activities at their own pace)

(See, for example, Hughes-d'Aeth 1984: 16 and Kramsch 1987: 18.) It is often assumed that a teacher focus implies a class orientation, and that a group (or pair) orientation for activities automatically implies a student focus. However, as attested to by the matrix quiz games described earlier in this article, teacher focus and group orientation can coexist (type T-G in Figure 5). Futhermore, activities of this T-G type are particularly suited to large classes in Japan, as they appeal to the group-mindedness of the students, and also to the students' expectations that the teacher will maintain a position of authority. My own experience tells me that group activities that place too much of the responsibility for the learning on the students are more likely than not to fail. Clearly there is a need for a balance between teacher and student foci.

Using Figure 5, suggestions can now be made for the teaching of communicative English in large classes in Japan:

1. Organizational strategy T-C, the strategy that students are most accustomed to through the educational system, is probably the easiest to implement. Although many of the activities that fit in here do little to promote communication, they can be valuable, especially if an element of relevance is incorporated.
2. Strategy T-G works well in the Japanese context. Although my own experience with it is primarily with matrix quiz games, I believe that there are other ways that the strategy might be successfully implemented, and urge classroom teachers to experiment accordingly. Strategy T-P is also worth investigating, especially for classes that are somewhat smaller than the usual. Taken together, T-G and T-P activities might prove useful as a transitional stage between the traditional T-C oriented class, and classes that assume a greater degree of student control (S-G and S-P).
3. In most classes, tasks of types S-G and S-P need to be very rigidly defined in order to work (e.g., involving a specific writing task, as with pair dictations). However, if the number of contact hours and student motivation are sufficient, an instructor may wish gradually to introduce activities that are more student-focused.

Conclusion

I would like to return briefly to a question suggested at the beginning of this article: can anything be accomplished in a year's

time under the conditions commonly found in Japanese college and secondary school English classes? My answer is "Yes" but just what is it that we can expect to accomplish? Major improvements in the students' linguistic or communicative competency? Very unlikely. Just consider for a moment that the number of yearly contact hours at a typical Japanese university is somewhere in the neighborhood of 35–40. In an intensive ESL program in the United States, it takes only about two weeks for students to get in the same number of classroom hours under much more favorable learning conditions—small classes, rigidly determined levels, and genuine motivation to learn, all in the context of a larger English language environment. And yet, even under such favorable conditions, improvement after two weeks is often negligible. How much improvement, then, can we reasonably expect to see in students' lingustic abilities after a year of classes at a Japanese university? Probably a miniscule amount.

The message is clear: EFL teachers new to Japanese schools may have to lower their expectations drastically. Likewise, school administrators and students should not expect the mere presence of a native English-speaking instructor to cause linguistic miracles.

But by creatively developing strategies that promote interaction among students, as well as between teacher and students, even within a highly constrained system, instructors can accomplish some important things. First, they can give the students a sense of how language is more than grammar and translation, of how it is a versatile and dynamic system of communication. Second, non-Japanese instructors can help the students get accustomed to interacting with people from other countries, which is becoming increasingly important considering Japan's status as a world economic power.

In short, instructors can work to accomplish a change in attitude, to create positive feelings toward the learning of English as communication, which the students can carry with them into their later lives. If they are ever in a position to learn English under more favorable classroom conditions, they will then be mentally prepared.

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Cultural Differences in Non-Verbal Communication: Practical Activities for the ESL/EFL Classroom

Peter Gardner

Introduction

Studies dealing with cross-cultural communication have traditionally centered on the verbal component of human interaction and neglected the enormous realm of non-verbal communication, which has been viewed as interesting, and perhaps amusing, but not necessarily important. With Birdwhistell's pioneer work, *Introduction to Kinesics* (1952), the systematic study of non-verbal communication as a field in its own right had begun. Birdwhistell maintains that verbal communication represents less than 35% of the "social meaning" of a situation while more than 65% is expressed through non-verbal communication (1970:50). Albert Mehrabian stresses even further the importance of non-verbal communication, maintaining that the total emotional impact of a message is composed of a 7% verbal element, a 38% vocal element (pitch, pronunciation, volume, and intonation), and a 55% facial element (1972:182).

It is important, however, not to view non-verbal communication as an isolated phenomenon divorced from the total system of human communication. Non-verbal behavior is interdependent within the context of communication. Although at times it can be viewed as a separate entity (for example, the use of "emblems" such as "V" for victory), it is generally integrally connected with verbal communication serving such different functions as repeating, substituting for, complementing, accenting, and regulating speech

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(Knapp 1980: 11-15). In addition, non-verbal communication expresses, consciously and unconsciously, individual emotions and social attitudes such as likes/dislikes and domination/subordination (Argyle 1975:118-121).

The question inevitably arises as to whether non-verbal communication represents a universal or a cultural phenomenon. Proponents of Darwin and his conclusions in *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1872) would side with the "universalists," and others, such as Birdwhistell, with the "culturalists." (Studies of universality usually deal with facial expressions of emotion.) This article assumes that although the same gestures and body movements may be observed in different cultures, their meaning is highly culturally determined and learned consciously, and unconsciously, as one would learn a spoken language.

Therefore, it is important to stress the relativity of non-verbal behavior: it may have multiple meanings and uses and is not easily reduced to explicit verbal meanings. Non-verbal forms of communication vary highly among different cultures and often within the same culture, being influenced by such factors as sex, ethnic background, age, social class, occupation, rural/urban life-style, contexts such as formal and informal, and individual personality traits.

By introducing the concept of non-verbal cummunication, the instructor can help students avoid the tendency to stereotype on the basis of non-verbal behavior. Wolfgang warns us of the danger of "non-verbal ethnocentrism"; of assuming that our own forms of non-verbal communication are necessarily the "natural" and "correct" ones and that those of other cultures are "unnatural" or "strange" (1979:168). What we should strive for is to view cultures not as superior or inferior but rather as different from our own. Interpreting an overt behavior of an individual of another culture in terms of the values and assumptions of one's own culture often results in dangerous generalizations and judgements about personal and national character. Encouraging an appreciation of cultural diversity can help minimize such superficial value judgements.

Despite the wealth of material that has been written in cross-cultural communication and ESL journals about the theoretical implications of non-verbal communication (its various types, functions and relationships to language, cultural differences vs. universal similarities in non-verbal communication, and the need for the instructor to be aware of his own non-verbal behavior in

the classroom), far fewer practical materials have been developed for use in the ESL classroom to help students gain an appreciation of these cultural differences. This article attempts to bridge that gap.

The following exercises deal with three major types of non-verbal communication: (1) kinesics (body movements such as gestures, eye contact, and facial expressions), (2) proxemics (the interpersonal use of space), and (3) haptics (various forms and patterns of touching). Preceding each section of practical exercises in the classroom is a brief review of the general theoretical issues involved with the particular form of non-verbal communication. These summaries can serve as background information for the instructor or can be read aloud to, or read by, the students.

Although these exercises are designed for a multi-cultural ESL class, many can be adapted to EFL and single-cultural classes. Their purpose is to sensitize students to differences in culturally learned patterns of non-verbal behavior and to common misunderstandings that may arise from these differences. A variety of activities is included (such as role-plays, observations, values clarification studies, and verbal/non-verbal scripts), that are associated with particular forms of non-verbal communication but that the instructor can freely apply to any type.

Kinesics

Gestures and Body Movements

Birdwhistell maintains that "just as there are no universal words, no sound complexes, which carry the same meaning the world over, there are no body motions, facial expressions, or gestures which provoke identical responses the world over" (1970:34). Every culture has its own forms of non-verbal expression, which individuals learn to recognize and interpret at a very young age. Different cultures establish different restrictions regarding the appropriate use of certain gestures (when, where, to whom, how, and to what extent). Gestures are thus part of every culture's "silent language," and represent not a *universal natural* expression of ideas and emotions, but a *culturally* learned form of communication.[1]

[1] See E.T. Hall's *The Silent Language* (1959) for an in-depth study of how non-verbal behavior reflects cultural values, concepts of time and space, and attitudes toward such areas as work, recreation, and learning.

Misconceptions involving gestures may range from being merely humorous and somewhat embarrassing to being confusing and insulting, may lead to serious value judgements, and may even exacerbate international tensions. On the basis of simple gestures, or their absence, we often make profound judgements about personal and national character. Misconceptions often occur when one fails to understand the meaning of non-verbal expressions (either fails to recognize that they are expressive gestures, or misinterprets them according to the accepted patterns within one's own culture).

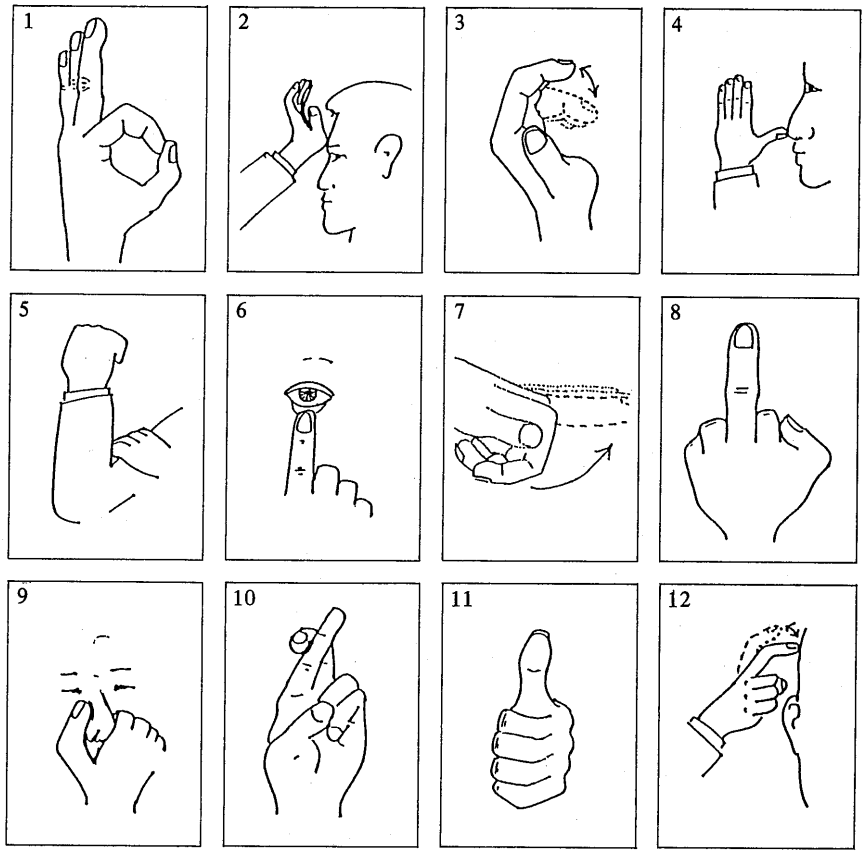
Emblem Quiz

Gestures often represent blends of different emotions and sentiments, but sometimes can have a direct verbal translation. Gestures that have a specific verbal meaning are referred to as emblems. Although some emblems may be universal—such as those for eating and sleeping—most are culture specific. Even if the same gesture has the same basic meaning in two cultures, the contexts in which it can be used will never be exactly the same.

The following activity was inspired by Desmond Morris' research into the origin and distribution of certain emblems (1979:XXVI). Following are twelve common emblems found in Europe and North America. Some of these gestures are also, of course, seen in other parts of the world. The emblems are listed in figure 1. Their common meanings follow.

This activity can serve as a good starting point for a discussion of cultural differences in non-verbal communication. It provides an accessible and entertaining introduction to a topic that will later be examined in more detail, and usually results in lively discussions where students share experiences and demonstrate gestures in their own culture. The emblem quiz can be presented in the following manner: the teacher illustrates the twelve gestures and, after each one, asks the students to jot down the common meaning(s) in their own culture; students then compare their answers and discuss how each of the twelve sentiments might be expressed non-verbally in their culture. (Some of the emblems will not exist in certain cultures, some will have different meanings, and some of the gestures may vary within a single culture.) The teacher can also add other common emblems from various cultures to the list. Emblem #4 can lead to a discussion of gestures that are often restricted to par-

Figure 1: Emblem Quiz*



1) The Finger Ring: O.K., good (Europe, North America), zero (Belgium, France).
2) The Forehead Slap: "That was stupid," "I just remembered" (Europe, North America).
3) Come Hither: "Come here" (many cultures).
4) The Nose Thumb: "You're stupid," an insult, mockery (many cultures).
5) The Forearm Bird: a sexual insult (Europe), a sexual comment (Ireland, England, northern Europe).
6) The Eye Pull: Mockery (Japan), "I am alert," "Be careful" (Europe).
7) The Shoo: "Go away" (Europe, North America), "Come here" (Japan).
8) The Finger Bird: sexual insult (North America).
9) The Nose Plug: to indicate a bad smell (Europe, North America).
10) The Finger Cross: good luck, protection from bad luck (northwest Europe, North America).
11) The Thumbs Up: good (many cultures).
12) The Temple Tap: "He's crazy" (North America, northwest Europe).

*inspired by Morris, D.P. et al. 1979. *Gestures: their origin and distribution.* New York: Stein and Day.

ticular subgroups or contexts within a culture, for example, those generally only used by children, among friends, members of the same sex, social class, ethnic background, or occupation. Teachers should also be prepared for a brief discussion of non-verbal insults and obscenities. Those who feel uncomfortable dealing with sexual insults can omit the corresponding emblems from the list and substitute others if they wish. However, without going into detail, it usually suffices to say: "This gesture represents an obscenity."

As a follow-up activity in a multi-cultural class, groups of students can come up with their own emblem quizes, which they then present to each other. In this way, they can become familiar with common gestures in different cultures.

Body Movement Demonstrations

In this activity, students demonstrate body movements in their own culture to illustrate various emotions, states, statements, and so on. Some movements may involve simple emblems, but many will be blends of head, facial and body movements, and paralinguistic noises such as sighs and hisses. Many body movements will have a number of different interpretations, especially the expression of emotions. Some items on the list may be easier to express in certain cultures than others, and this observation often leads to interesting discussions of cross-cultural differences.

The function of this activity is to give students a greater sense of the complexity of gestures compared to emblems and it can be used as a game (similar to charades) with the teacher passing around slips of paper on which are written the various items listed below. Individual students act out what is written on the slips of paper and the others try to guess what he or she is trying to express. Several students can be asked to demonstrate the same sentiment and their responses compared, and students can add their own items to the list. They should be encouraged to carefully observe as many forms of non-verbal behavior as possible: gestures, body, head and eye movements, and facial expressions.

Following are some suggestions: hellos/goodbyes, yes/no ("I agree/disagree"), good/bad, "Come here/go away," "Slow down/go faster," "I'm finished," "It's alright," "That's expensive," "I don't know," "Good luck," "Oh, I forgot!," "I'm bored/tired/hot/cold," "It's me," "You talk too much," "I can't hear you," "The meal was delicious," "I'm full," "She's beautiful," "That hurt," "Stay

calm," "How could I be so stupid!," "Be quiet!," "What time is it?," "I'm not interested," "He's crazy/he's intelligent," friendship, marriage, "I want to make a phone call," "I feel angry/frustrated/happy/sad/afraid/nervous/surprised/excited/disgusted/ashamed."

Greetings and Partings

The above body movement demonstrations can be further expanded in the following role plays with students taking turns performing in ways appropriate to their culture. Body movements, facial movements, eye contact, touching, space, posture, gait, and the duration of each, should be closely observed.

1. Two good friends who have not seen each other in two years/two weeks/two days greet each other on the street. (Students should role-play various combinations: two women, two men, and a man and a woman. Different ages might be considered, as well as different relationships: two acquaintances, a professor and a student, and so on.)
2. Students show how they would greet the following people who are being introduced to them for the first time (again they should consider two females, two males, and a male and a female): someone younger than they are, someone their own age, someone older, a dignitary, and a large group of people.
3. The groups in exercises 1–2 show how they would say good-bye to one another.
4. For those cultures using handshakes in greetings and partings, the strength, duration, and the number of pumps of the handshake should be observed. Do these differ between men and women (two men shaking hands, two women, or a man and a woman)? Under what circumstances do students shake hands in their culture? Are there cases where it is optional?
5. Students demonstrate different types of social kissing and bowing involved in greetings and partings in their culture.
6. How do students signal in their culture that they wish to end a conversation? (For example, some people might look at their watch, decrease eye contact, start shifting their weight from one foot to another, or gradually move away from the other person.)

Films

The silent viewing of films can be very helpful in encouraging careful observation of non-verbal behavior and in reassuring stu-

dents that even if they don't fully comprehend what is being said, they will often be able to infer meaning by focusing on non-verbal cues. Students will be amazed at how much they can understand by concentrating on body and facial movements, posture, gait, use of space, touching, clothing, and so on.

Any film or television program can be used, although a selection with interaction between several people who are using a lot of body movements in easier for the students to comment on. After silently watching the film for about five minutes, students can be asked to summarize the plot, predict what they think will happen next, and discuss any impressions they have or value judgements and inferences they can make based on their observation of characters' non-verbal behavior. Interesting discussions of religious, racial, and character stereotypes often ensue.

Verbal/Non-Verbal Scripts

The following exercise emphasizes that non-verbal behavior does not merely substitute for speech but, equally important, accompanies it (complements, accents, and regulates), gives us information about how verbal messages are to be interpreted, and also expresses emotions and conveys individual and social attitudes.

Take a short verbal script, ideally an interchange between two or more characters, and supply an accompanying "non-verbal script" consisting of possible head, facial, and body movements. The non-verbal script should concentrate on the body movements of the person speaking, but can also include the non-verbal reaction of the persons(s) listening. The class breaks up into small groups and, using the same verbal script, comes up with non-verbal accompaniments. After role-playing the verbal and non-verbal scripts simultaneously (and recording them on audio-video equipment, if possible, for playback), the groups compare their results. It will quickly become apparent that non-verbally, as in speech, there are many different ways to express the same idea. Groups of students can also be given different verbal scripts for which they come up with non-verbal counterparts. They then exchange the non-verbal scripts, and the groups try to write down an appropriate verbal dialogue, which they compare to the original.

Verbal scripts can be taken from literature, ESL texts (asking for directions, for example), or students can write their own. The instructor can also write down a short exchange between several

characters in a film (this works especially well with the on-going viewing of a film in class), and students, after composing their own non-verbal scripts, observe the original scene and the relationship between verbal and non-verbal "language."

Role-Plays and Non-Verbal Scripts

Students, either spontaneously or after brief preparation, concentrate on verbally role-playing the following situations while others observe their non-verbal behavior. Spontaneous verbal role-plays stress that non-verbal behavior usually unconsciously accompanies speech and, except in the case of emblems, should not be considered an isolated phenomenon. As a follow-up activity, students can divide into small groups, write verbal scripts based on the situations, and then come up with accompanying non-verbal dialogues as above, both of which they then role-play.

Possible situation for role-pays: 1) a student talking with his or her teacher about a course (The teacher can become involved in this role-play); 2) a sales representative and a customer in a department store; 3) a doctor and a patient; 4) a job interview between a personnel manager and a job applicant; 5) a man and woman meet at a party, introduce themselves, and one asks the other to dance. The man then makes advances towards the woman, who first expresses her disinclinations and then makes inclinations towards him. The same is done for the woman expressing initial interest in the man with his varying reactions; 6) students add their own situations.

Student Observations

Students observe non-verbal behavior in public and report back to the class. They should be aware of head and body movements, facial expressions, posture, gait, touching, and the use of space. Good places for observations are airports, bus and train stations, lines for buses and movies, schools, restaurants, shopping centers, hotel lobbies, and cultural and sports events. Observations work particularly well in an ESL setting where cultural differences become readily apparent, but can also be used with EFL students to get them used to concentrating on non-verbal behavior in general.

An evocative exercise is to have students go to a restaurant and for a short period of time discretely observe a couple or group of people at another table, jot down all of the non-verbal behavior

they see, and make inferences about what is being discussed and the personalities of the people involved. Of course, students should be aware of the dangers of jumping to conclusions and that they are not making definitive statements but describing general impressions. (To avoid possible misunderstanding, students should be very careful not to appear to be staring at other people.)

Eye Contact

Eye contact and the meaning attributed to different eye movements can vary greatly from one culture to another. The direction and duration of a gaze, when a gaze turns into a stare, and under what circumstances one establishes or avoids eye contact are all, to a large extent, culturally determined.

Cultures have been traditionally divided into those with sustained and direct eye contact (for example, Arabs, Latin Americans, and Southern Europeans), and those lacking sustained contact (such as Asians, Pakistanis, Northern Europeans, and Northern Americans) (Argyle 1976:27).

Direct eye contact in some cultures may be viewed as a sign of attention, concern, and confidence, whereas in others it may be seen as disrespectful, threatening, dominating, or carry sexual connotations. Avoiding eye contact is viewed by some cultures as a sign of deference and by others as an indication of inattention, disrespect, dishonesty, or insecurity. It is thus extremely important when observing a non-verbal behavior in another culture to realize that it might not carry the same meaning as in one's own culture.

Cultures also differ as to the patterns of eye contact during conversations. For example, when speaking, white middle class Americans tend to avoid eye contact about 60% of the time. However, when they become the listener, they establish eye contact over 80% of the time (Duncan 1977:80). Several studies suggest that Black Americans, on the other hand, show the reverse pattern. When they speak, they tend to establish eye contact more often than when they listen (LaFrance 1976:547–552).

Observations

Students observe people in public places, concentrate on eye behavior, and report back to the class. They can, for example, watch two people having a conversation and note how eye contact varies according to changing roles as the speaker or listener. Where

do the individuals tend to focus their gaze during conversations: on the other person's eyes or somewhere else? Students can also observe patterns of eye contact between men and women at a bar or party.

Breaking the Rules

Students might judiciously experiment with eye contact, for example, in public places such as on buses and in elevators. How long can they establish eye contact with another person before either of them feels uncomfortable and looks away? What is the other person's reaction and the student's own feelings as he or she increases and decreases eye contact during a conversation? (Students should be very careful not to offend other people and discontinue the activity if they feel they are doing so.)

Discussions

As a class, students discuss patterns of eye contact in their cultures. They should particularly consider (1) the appropriate direction and duration of gaze in public and private situations, (2) what constitutes "staring," and what it might mean in different contexts (does it, for example, have hostile or sexual connotations?) and, (3) patterns of eye contact during conversations (between two women, two men, a man and a woman of different ages and with varying degrees of familiarity).

Verbal Role-Plays

Students from the same cultures and then from different cultures perform the following role-plays while the observers concentrate on eye behavior. The participants can discuss their feelings during the role-plays, for instance if they felt more comfortable when they established or avoided eye contact in different situations. Following are some suggestions:

1. Greetings and farewells: students set up role-plays with people of different ages, sex, social class, and so on.
2. Two people (again with different ages, sex, degrees of familiarity and status) approach each other on the sidewalk. What are their patterns of eye conduct? Americans, for example, tend to "eye" each other until they are about eight feet apart at which point they cast down their eyes (Goffman 1963:84). Are there other patterns in other cultures? Students should

especially consider common patterns between two men, two women, and a man and a woman.

3. A conversation: students observe patterns of eye behavior of the speaker and listener.
4. Reproving: a teacher scolds a child at school for not bringing in his or her homework; a boss reprimands an employee for failing to fulfill his or her responsibilities.

Haptics

Touching patterns differ in kind, amount, and duration within and across cultures. For example, many cultures touch a great deal during greetings, partings, and conversation, whereas others touch very little or not at all. Such peoples as Arabs, Latin Americans, and Southern Europeans are traditionally considered "contact" (or "high-contact") cultures, whereas those such as Asians, Indians, Pakistanis, Northern Europeans, and Northern Americans are thought of as "non-contact" (or "low-contact") groups (Knapp 1980:82–83). (High-contact cultures usually, but not always, coincide with cultures that have sustained eye contact, and low-contact groups usually avoid sustained eye contact.)[2] Again, as with other forms of non-verbal behavior, differences may vary within a particular culture according to such factors as place (public/private), age, sex, ethnicity, social class, and the relationship between the parties involved.

Type of Touch

There are a number of different kinds of bodily contact: patting, slapping, punching, pinching, stroking, shaking, holding, kissing, hugging, kicking, tickling, grooming, and so on. Students can discuss the circumstances under which they might engage in some of these touching behaviors (generally excluding sexual contact), and the parts of the body typically involved. For example, "patting" in many cultures is often done with the hand on someone's head or back, it often expresses congratulations, encouragement, consolation, and is a form of greeting. Students can also add other forms of touching to the list.[3]

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[2] See Watson's controlled studies of non-native college students during conversation where "contact" groups tend to touch each other more than "non-contact" ones, look more directly and for longer periods of time at each other, face each other more directly, interact at a closer distance, and speak in a louder voice (1970).

[3] For a more detailed study of the types of touch and areas generally involved in "Western" culture, see Argyle 1975:287.

Discussions/Observations

1. Students discuss touching patterns between males and males, females and females, and males and females in their cultures. What types of touching are considered "appropriate" in public places? For example, do women hold hands or walk arm-in-arm down the street? Do men? How do men and women express affection in public? Students can also discuss differences in touching patterns between family members: brother/brother, brother/sister, son/mother, son/father, daugher/mother, and daughter/father.
2. Students consider touching in crowds of people, and how they feel about coming into contact with people they don't know. Do they feel uncomfortable being jostled by people in a public place? If they accidentally brush against someone in public do they immediately excuse themselves or generally say nothing at all? Is it considered disrespectful to remain silent if they bump into someone?
3. ESL students observe patterns of touching in public and report back to the class. Do people tend to touch each other a lot during conversations? If so, where? Does this seem to vary according to age or sex?
4. Students can be referred to a study conducted by S. Jourard where he observed the frequency of contact between couples in cafes in four different cities with the following results: (1) San Juan, Puerto Rico: an average of touching 180 times per hour, (2) Paris: 110 times per hour, (3) Gainesville, Florida: two times per hour, and (4) London: no times (1966:221–231). They can then conduct their own study in several cafes or restaurants and compare their results.

Proxemics

Edward Hall uses the word "proxemics" to describe the patterns of spatial relationships between people within a particular culture. He maintains that "proxemic patterns differ. By examining them it is possible to reveal hidden cultural frames that determine the structure of a given people's perceptual world. Perceiving the world differently leads to different definitions of what constitute crowded living, different interpersonal relations, and a different approach to both local and international politics" (1966:164). The use of space is thus culturally determined and reflects many of the attitudes and values of the particular culture.

Hall describes four general distance "zones" for white middle class Americans, each of which is associated with different emotions, activities, and relationships, and has a "close" and a "far" phase depending on the degree of involvement (1966:116–125). Every culture, according to Hall, has its own culturally conditioned "invisible bubbles" of varying size with different rules as to under what circumstances another person can enter into that bubble, and what the consequences are.

The first zone in called the "intimate" zone, from zero to 18 inches, and is seen in whispering between two friends, contact sports, sitting in a bus, and so on. In many cultures the use of the initimate zone often has sexual or hostile connotations. The second zone is the "personal" zone, from 1-1/2 to 4 feet. This is the distance of normal personal interaction among friends, family, and people at a party. The third is the "social" zone, from 4 to 12 feet, the usual distance for impersonal business such as requesting information from a sales clerk. The fourth is the "public" zone, from 12 feet on up, which is the distance of public lectures and plays. (Of course, these patterns may vary in the United States according to age, sex, ethnicity, and so on, but these are the general patterns for middle class "Anglo-Americans.")

All cultures have intimate, personal, social, and public zones, but they can differ greatly from culture to culture and have different associations. What Americans consider the intimate zone might be seen in many parts of the world as the personal zone. For example, two unacquainted adult males in North America would normally feel comfortable conversing at a distance of about 2 to 3 feet, whereas in most South American countries this distance would be reduced to between 1 and 1-1/2 feet (Davis 1973:95). The "high-contact" cultures listed previously usually have small spatial "bubbles," whereas the "low-contact" cultures have larger ones. Different uses of space can result in profound judgements of personal and national character and lead to serious misunderstandings.

Discussions

1. Students compare the four American spatial zones mentioned above with those in their own culture. Do they find an overlapping of zones? Does the American intimate zone, for example, overlap with another culture's personal zone? Are there

differences for male/male, female/female, and male/female interaction?

2. If students were in a public place (for example, in a hotel lobby) where there were a number of free chairs and only a few people, would they sit down near one of the other people? Would they ever take the seat right next to the other person?

Role-Plays

1. Students perform the role-plays in the previous section, "Role-Plays and Non-Verbal Scripts" and also those dealing with greetings and farewells, and observe the use of space.
2. Students role-play conversations between good friends, acquaintances, a student and teacher, someone in a higher or lower social position, etc. and discuss the spatial distance in these interactions.
3. Students are forced into close quarters with a group of other people (for instance, in an elevator or on a crowded bus). How do they hold their body? Where do they look? What do they say?

Observations

1. Students observe the use of space in public places and report back to the class.
2. They can also comment on how people tend to wait in line (for example, for a bus or movie). Are the lines generally compact? Do people usually wait orderly, or is there a lot of moving, jostling, and barging to the front of the line?

Values Clarification Exercises (Case Studies)

A number of short case studies can be used as a final activity to sum up the types of problems that can arise from cultural differences in non-verbal communication. Each highlights a cross-cultural misunderstanding caused by differences in non-verbal communication that are perceived as personal or national idiosyncracies.

In small groups, students discuss the situations, the non-verbal sources of misunderstanding, and identify problems, stereotypes, and value judgments explicit or implicit in the studies. After considering these issues, how they themselves might have responded in the same situation, and whether or not the problem could have been avoided, students summarize their discussion to the rest of the class.

Below are a number of short studies listed according to type of non-verbal behavior. Students can also come up with their own studies.

Gestures

A quarter of a century ago, the Russian Premier, Kruschev, visited the United States on a good-will trip and at one public gathering thrust his arms up into the air, clasping his hands above his head. Many Americans were enraged at his behavior. (Problem: what was intended as a symbol of international goodwill was interpreted by some as an imitation of a boxer having just knocked out his opponent.)

An American professor lecturing in Colombia on language acquisition made reference to the fact that young children of four or five already have an extensive knowledge of their native language. While referring to the children, he emphasized their young age by gesturing with his right arm extended outward and palm facing down, indicating their small size. The audience burst out laughing, and the professor, interpreting their laughter as a sign that they considered his statements simplistic, continued the lecture in an abrupt and defensive manner. (Problem: in some cultures the professor's gesture is only used to indicate the size of animals, not humans.)

Greetings

A number of businessmen and women of different cultures were talking informally with one another before a meeting, waiting for their special guest to arrive, the head of the host country's labor union. As the guest speaker entered the room, most of those who were seated rose to their feet, but four remained seated. One of the people standing in the back of the room whispered to his neighbor, "These foreigners have absolutely no manners!" The neighbor, a man from the same culture, replied, "It's not a question of manners. They don't agree with the man's politics and are trying to make us all aware of that." (Problem: one culture expresses respect by standing up and the other by remaining seated. In addition, one person interprets the act of remaining seated as a lack of manners, while another person of the same culture sees it as a conscious sign of disapproval. This study points out how the

same non-verbal behavior can have different meanings within, and across, cultures.)

Facial Expressions

A group of businessmen from two different cultures was conducting contract negotiations concerning a merger of several firms. After the head negotiator from the first group had presented his proposal, he observed several people from the other group nodding their heads and smiling. Although they didn't reach a decision that day, the negotiator from the first group felt confident from the visual cues that they were very close to an agreement. A couple of days later he was extremely disappointed to learn that the second group had decided to look elsewhere for a business partner. He thought to himself, "Those people are incredibly deceptive. They lead you to believe you're close to an agreement, and then they stick the knife in your back!" (Problem: the leader of the first group interprets the head nodding and smiling as a sign of agreement. The second group is merely trying to be polite and acknowledging the validity of the first group's proposal and not necessarily their approval. They are non-verbally saying something like, "That's an interesting point you're making.")

Two American women in their early twenties were travelling together through South America. As they were walking through the center of one town, they passed several men who looked at them and gave them a friendly smile. The women looked back, returned their smiles, and continued on their way. After about five minutes, they noticed that the two men were following them. They walked another five minutes hoping that the men would leave, but they were still behind them. Finally, one of the women turned around and angrily yelled in English, "Get the hell out of here or we'll call the police!" One of the men turned to his friends and said, "These American women are crazy. They ask for something, and when you try to give it to them they turn on you like a pack of wolves!" (Problem: the men interpret the women's smiles as flirting, whereas the women are merely returning what they considered to be a friendly greeting.)

Eye Contact

A white American English teacher in New York was scolding a newly arrived Jamaican student for failing to bring in his homework

two times during the first week. The student dropped his head and avoided eye contact with the teacher, who barked at him, "Look me in the eye when I'm talking to you!" The student continued to look at the floor and was sent to the principal's office. (Problem: the teacher expects the student to show respect by establishing eye contact. The student's culture, however, expresses deference by avoiding eye contact.)

A personnel manager was conducting an interview with someone of a different culture for a position in his store. The job applicant tended to avoid eye contact with the manager throughout most of the interview. After the interview, the manager wrote on the application: "Continually looks down, insecure, unreliable. Don't hire." The job applicant told his wife later on that night, "That manager kept staring at me the entire time. He's just as arrogant as all the rest of them!" (Problem: the manager interprets the applicant's avoidance of direct eye contact as a sign of insecurity and unreliability. The applicant avoids eye contact to signal respect and construes the manager's focused gaze as an arrogant stare.)

Haptics

Two college classmates, a man and a woman from different cultures, met each other on the street and started talking about what classes they were taking together. As the man spoke, he occasionally touched the woman on her arms and shoulders. She felt extremely uncomfortable whenever he would touch her and thought to herself, "This guy definitely wants something from me!" (Problem: the male student is used to casually touching another person during conversation, whereas the woman avoids contact and interprets his touches as a sexual overture.)

Two people from different cultures were waiting in line to board a bus, and one accidentally bumped into the other without excusing himself. The person who had been bumped into thought to himself, "What uncivilized people these foreigners are, never saying they're sorry!" (Problem: one person comes from a "high contact" culture where incidental contact is routine and not accompanied by an apology. The other is from a "low contact" culture where one customarily apologizes after accidental contact.)

Proxemics

Two diplomats, an Arab and an American, met at a party after an international conference in Vienna. As they were conversing, both were clearly becoming uncomfortable with the physical distance between them. The American started to slowly back away, and each time he took a step backwards, the Arab would take a step forward. The American thought to himself, "Why doesn't he give me a little breathing room? These Arabs can be so pushy!" The Arab was meanwhile thinking to himself, "A typical American, cold and aloof like all the rest!" (Problem: the two diplomats have different personal spatial zones. The American is used to conversing at a greater distance than the Arab and interprets his attempts to lessen the distance as aggressiveness. The Arab, meanwhile, sees the American's moving away as a sign of unsociability.)

A female English teacher in her early thirties had a twenty-five year old male student from another culture who was making her feel extremely uneasy. He would often come up to her after class and ask several questions about grammatical points he didn't understand. What concerned the teacher was that whenever the man addressed her, he would come up to within about a foot and a half of her. She assumed that he had something other than grammar on his mind. (Problem: the man is used to conversing at a closer distance than the woman. She interprets his closeness as a sexual advance.)

Conclusion

The primary aim of the previous materials is to sensitize students to cultural differences in non-verbal communication. Cross-cultural understanding requires an awareness of culturally determined values, assumptions, and perceptions, many of which are reflected in non-verbal behavior. Interpreting a non-verbal action of an individual of another culture in terms of the patterns within one's own culture, often results in stereotyping and misunderstanding. As Aaron Wolfgang reminds us, "When we become aware of how loud and powerful non-verbal language can be in its silence in communicating our attitudes towards others, our likes and dislikes, our feelings, and make an attempt to understand its social and cultural implications, then we have the seeds for improving and humanizing intercultural communication" (1979:172).

The real non-verbal barriers to cross-cultural communication are not usually the overt behaviors that may radically differ between two cultures (such as greetings and partings) but the more subtle differences (for instance, the use of space and eye contact) which often lead us into making superficial judgements about personal and national character. Encouraging a consciousness of cultural differences can help prevent such hasty generalizations.

Actions indeed often speak louder than words. We as language teachers should thus help our students develop not only an awareness of verbal patterns of communication, but of non-verbal patterns as well. Incorporating the study of non-verbal communication in the classroom can foster an appreciation of cultural diversity and provide an engaging forum for sharing experiences.

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Developing Basic Conversational Management Skills

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Introduction

A frequent problem of non-native English speakers is the inability to make small talk: that is, to participate in a conversation on a general subject which, in a sense, one is obliged to prolong. When speaking with fluent speakers, language learners often do not know how to respond or interact in general conversations concerning everyday topics such as weather, the work day, hobbies, personal interests, and so on. As minor as this sometimes seems, it is a major problem. Although small talk may seem somewhat artificial because it is not propelled forward through sheer interest and enthusiasm, it is important as it lays the groundwork for further conversation and relationships to develop. It is a kind of conversation which one is likely to be engaged in when dealing with business associates or new acquaintences. In this context, it can be extremely important; men and women often have to make small talk over lunch, at the office, on the golf course, or at parties. Indeed, in a study of Japanese employees of NEC Corporation in the United States, many conversation-related problems were cited:

> Some employees admitted that they consciously avoided meeting customers because they didn't know what to say in social situations. An American manager, reflecting this fact, complained that the Japanese tended to isolate themselves in their own community too much, and avoided socializing with Americans.
>
> (Hough 1980:6)

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> Numerous Americans said that Japanese employees should be taught to ask for clarification when they don't understand. They also said that the Japanese use of the English word "yes" constantly caused problems. (Hough 1980:8)

Student interaction both inside and outside of the classroom reinforces these observations. Teachers often complain that students are not "discussing" enough, or are not asking for help when they do not understand something. In listening to student conversations, we can isolate these and several other major problems:

1. Topic—Students do not know which topics are potentially too personal for some people. They do not know which topics native speakers usually select for "small talk."
2. Asking for clarification—When students do not understand, they often do nothing.
3. Balance—Some students do not talk at all; others dominate the conversation.
4. Interrogation vs. conversation—Conversations tend to become a series of questions and short answers.
5. Silence—Pauses in a conversation tend to be uncomfortably long.
6. Showing interest and sympathy—Students have little idea how to show that they are paying attention in order to encourage the speaker to continue.

How then can we help remedy these problems? It seems obvious that foreign language students should have some help in how to effectively participate in a general conversation—how to make small talk. This article will look at these problems and then propose some classroom exercises which will help make students aware of the problems, monitor themselves in similar situations, and give them practice interacting.

The exercises can be divided into three stages. The first stage is designed to simply bring the aforementioned problems to the attention of the students. This involves analyses of sample conversations and student interviews of other teachers. The second stage is a series of exercises designed to develop each of the necessary skills. The third stage integrates the previously-introduced language into a more spontaneous situation.

Stage One: Making Students Aware of the Problem

The importance of an ability to converse or a wide variety of

subjects should be introduced as quickly as possible in order to leave adequate time for practice. The first exercise consists of a series of questions which might be asked in an introductory conversation (see appendix—student hand out #1). Various questions which a wide range of native speakers find either too personal or entirely appropriate should be used; students should be able to see the difference between examples of both good and bad personal questions. For example, question D on the handout (Are Canadians generally tall people?) is included because of the stream of comments about a teacher from Vancouver who was somewhere over 6′6″ tall. This points out that seemingly innocent questions such as, "How tall are you?" may be acceptable to some people, but may be considered impolite to others—thus the necessity for having a number of opinions about what constitutes a personal question. The general procedure is as follows:

1. Explain to the students that the purpose of the exercise is to make them aware that some topics sometimes may be considered too sensitive or too personal. This often has to do with the manner in which the question is phrased. The teacher must emphasize that the students are not being asked to answer the questions, but are being aked to decide how appropriate these questions are for the type of conversations they will be having in English. Once the exercise begins, the teacher should circulate among the students in order to check that they have understood. If they have not, a gentle reminder of the necessity of asking for clarification is in order.

2. Divide the students into pairs or triads and have them go through all the questions one by one and try to decide whether they are polite or impolite. Often students will offer conditions for politeness. They may say, for example, that if a man is asking another man this question, it is polite. This sort of contextual commentary should be encouraged, but the teacher should not give his or her own opinion. A time limit should be set for this exercise; do not let it go too long.

3. Go through the questions with the students and elicit their opinions. Differences of opinion should be noted for future reference.

4. Ask the students to talk to at least one other native speaker before the next class. In an intensive program, this is a minor problem because of the large amount of contact students and

teachers have. In other situations, the cooperation of the staff may be required before any interviews. The teacher should provide the students with a conversational opener, such as, "We were talking in our class about topics for conversation and I was wondering what you thought." The students should not conduct this as a formal interview; they should not bring a sheet of paper with their questions. They should informally discuss appropriate and inappropriate topics, what to do when asked a question which they consider personal, and which topics are very good ones for general conversation. The teacher should keep in mind that this is not an easy task for many basic students and that some will come back empty-handed. The information received should be shared with the class. An alternative is to have another teacher come to the class and have a group discussion.

5. The last step is for the teacher to help the students express what they discovered from the other teachers and to give his or her own opinion.

Generally, this exercise does not take up much class time and it helps alleviate students' difficulty selecting appropriate topics for conversation.

The next exercise is designed to give students an opportunity to look at two semi-authentic conversations and compare them (see appendix—student handout #2). These 'semi-authentic' conversations are based upon actual conversations; they were constructed to focus on specific aspects of conversation. The procedure is as follows:

1. Explain that the purpose of this exercise is to make students aware of certain conventions of conversation in English.

2. Divide the students into pairs and give them the two conversations. Allow the students to ask questions about anything that they do not understand. If they have trouble asking for clarification, write several sample sentences on the board, such as "What does _____ mean?"

3. Have them take one part (A or B) and go through the conversations. They should not read the conversations, but rather look at the sentences and then say them while looking at their partner (not at the page). Usually several attempts are necessary before they can do it smoothly. When they are doing fairly well, have them switch roles. (This is a good time to discuss the importance of eye contact.)

4. Ask the students which conversation is better, #1 or #2. Have them compare the two in as much detail as possible. If this is very difficult for the students, the teacher should help them express their ideas by restating and asking if that is what was meant. The teacher should be able to elicit the following:

Conversation 1:

1) Speaker A asks only yes-no questions. This makes it easy for B to give short answers.
2) Speaker B says only yes or no; no details are given. This indicates a lack of balance.
3) Speaker B is silent for a long time at one point, which can often cause uneasiness among westerners.
4) No clarification is asked for when something is not understood.

Conversation 2:

1) Speaker A asks open questions, that is, questions which allow a choice of answers. These include "why" and some "how" questions.
2) Speaker A uses listener expressions, such as "uh-huh," to indicate that he or she is following the conversation and is still interested.
3) Speaker A also asks follow-up questions, such as "What don't you like about America?," to keep the conversation going. In addition, speaker A restates the question, "What's it like?," when speaker B does not understand.
4) Speaker B asks for clarification. He or she also uses such expressions as "Well" and "Let me see" to indicate that the question has been understood but that she or he needs time to reply. By doing this, he or she avoids an awkward silence.
5) Speaker B's answers in #2 are more complete, so that the amount of speech is more balanced between A and B.

After the students have discovered this information, write it down in the form of "Guidelines for Successful Conversation" on a large piece of paper and hang it on the classroom wall. This will make it wasy for the teacher to remind the students when they do not follow them. During a discussion, the teacher can simply point to the problem area without an oral interruption. The guidelines should be similar to the following:

1. If you don't understand something, ask for clarification or repetition.

2. Try to have a balanced conversation. Everyone should contribute to the discussion. Nobody should talk all of the time.
3. Give complete answers to questions. Add as much information as possible.
4. Avoid silence. More than three or four seconds of silence makes many native speakers uncomfortable.
5. Give some signal that you are following the conversation (Uh-huh).
6. If you need time to think of an answer to a question, say something that indicates that you understood the question but need time (Let me see).

Stage Two: Exercises for Specific Skills

Listener expressions:

One of the most important ways in which we encourage people to keep talking is to show interest in what they are saying by using short expressions which do not interrupt the flow of conversation (see appendix–student handout #3). A detailed description of exactly where to put these expressions in the conversation is beyond the scope of this article; generally however, between sentences is the most obvious place. Moreover, speakers often pause to take a breath or to check whether the listener is indeed listening. This is the student's opportunity to use listener expressions. The general procedure for this exercise is as follows:

1. Explain that the purpose of the exercise is to introduce the students to ways of showing that they are interested in the conversation in order to encourage the speaker to continue.

2. Give the students the handout entitled "Listener Expressions" (see appendix–student handout #3) and go over it in class explaining anything that they do not understand. This handout includes a list of requests for clarification. Teachers should lose no opportunity to remind students that they are responsible for their own understanding.

As soon as the students have gone through the handout and understand the phrases, the teacher should give the students a chance to practise them. A written exercise that allows the students time to discuss and examine the list is a good way to start. This is generally a conversation where the listener's comments are left blank. The students must fill in the B lines only with expressions

from the list. A sample is given below:

PRACTICE FOR LISTENER EXPRESSIONS

Fill in the blanks with expressions from your list.

A: I took my dog to the veterinarian yesterday.
B:
A: He didn't want to go.
B:
A: He weighs about 45 kilograms.
B:
A: When I tried to put him into the car, he turned around and bit me.
B:
A: I struggled with him for a while and finally got him to the veterinarian.
B:
A: Then, I went to the hospital.
B:
A: The bills totalled $315 for the vet and my doctor.
B:

Note that the conversation basically requires sympathetic responses. Students should also be given practice conversations which require responses to happy and neutral situations.

After two or three written exercises, the students should be ready for a verbal exercise. One exercise involves three or four students sitting in a group. The "A" student reads a statement from a sample conversation; "B" gives an appropriate response. A reads the next statement; C gives an appropriate response. A reads one more statement; D gives an appropriate response. B then begins the next section of the conversation; C gives an appropriate response. This continues until the exercise is finished. The students will have some problems at first since there will be unfamiliar vocabulary in the story. They should be allowed to practise it until everything goes smoothly. In order to avoid problems, make sure that the students choose their responses only from the list of listener expressions. After the students have finished exercises aimed at introducing these expressions, they should consistently be reminded to use them. The teacher should monitor their use and tell them how they are doing. Once again, the exercise can be modified to elicit different types of listener responses. Following is an example:

LISTENER CUES: MORE PRACTICE

Read the following lines. Wait for responses between lines.

A: I had a great weekend!
B: (B can say, for example, "Really?")
A: I went up to the mountains on Saturday.
C:
A: I had a wonderful view.
D:
B: I didn't have a very good weekend.
A:
B: I had to go to the office on Saturday.
C:
B: The boss made me work until seven o'clock at night.
D:

Giving complete answers

One common problem noted in the conversation analysis exercise was the lack of complete answers. This is partly due to grammar problems and a lack of vocabulary, but it is also something which can be improved through practise. A simple elaboration exercise reminds the students of the necessity of giving more than just a minimum response. Below are five statements. The students' task is to expand the information to make the sentence more interesting. They should read them one at a time and take about the minute to visualize the scene in their minds. They should then write down the details that they see.

1. I went to Miami for my vacation. The weather was nice. (Example: It was warm, but not hot. It only rained once for a short time. The nights were cool.)
2. Beethoven is my favorite composer. (Students' opinions always cry out for reasons.)
3. It was a beautiful house.
4. I don't like my job.
5. I'm going to New York on Thursday.

Asking open questions

A great deal of improvement can be made in the area of keeping a conversation going simply by realizing that, as far as conversations are concerned, there are only two types of questions: closed and open. Closed questions have only one possible answer and therefore leave little room for expansion. An example is, "How old are you".

Open questions, however, require the listener to give a more detailed answer. They often involve opinions and reasons for opinions. Native speakers often use an open question as a follow-up to a closed question. For example: "Have you ever been to England?" or "How did you like it?" Just having the students provide examples of each type and showing them how open questions prolong any discussion is useful. (For detailed exercises concerning this skill, see Chan and Underdal 1986.)

Stage Three: Consolidation Exercises

Once the importance of managing a conversation has been introduced and specific exercises have been given, students need an opportunity to practise integrating all these skills in a more open-ended exercise. Such an exercise provides a better opportunity to point out the importance of conversational balance and avoiding long silences than the controlled exercises focusing on only one skill. An exercise using cuisinaire rods to monitor the number of turns each student takes can be used. The primary advantage of this conversation game over others is that the students must work together against the teacher in order to win instead of against each other: to be successful, they need to work together for a balanced conversation. This simulates the social aspect of a real conversation, which is friendly rather than competitive.

In the initial conversation, a definite topic should be decided upon; this narrows the range of knowledge necessary. The teacher or the students choose a topic such as food, hobbies, or sports. In the following conversation, music is the topic. Because many students need vocabulary expansion, this first exercise is simply one in which they examine, as homework, a series of adjectives and circle all that could be used to describe music (see appendix—student handout #4). This guarantees that the students will be exposed to at least a small stock of descriptive terms for music. The teacher can go over this briefly in class.

The second phase of preparation is to give the students practise giving opinions and to expand their knowledge of words which classify different types of music. The students are given a list of ten categories of music, such as jazz and reggae. They then listen to a tape which has the first thirty seconds of ten pieces of music which correspond to the ten categories. They rate each piece from one (like very much) to five (don't like at all). After rating, they

discuss their opinions in pairs or small groups. Emphasize that the students should try to use the adjectives from the previous exercise to describe the pieces and make sure that the students provide adequate reasons why they like or dislike a particular piece.

The actual game can be a bit complicated for the students, so it is necessary to explain it slowly and clearly beforehand. The students will probably require a practise round or two before they completely understand what they are supposed to do. The procedure is as follows:

1. Explain that the purpose of the game is for everyone to equally participate in a conversation, to avoid silence, and to practise everything that they have learned about managing conversations.

2. Draw two columns on the blackboard; label them 'teacher' and 'class.' Tell the students that if they have a successful conversation, they will get one point. If they do not, the teacher will get one point.

3. Divide the students into groups of six or seven. Put each group in a circle sitting around a table. Appoint a timekeeper for each group. Make sure he or she has a watch. If there is only one group, the teacher is the timekeeper.

4. Hand out seven rods to each student. If possible, the seven rods should be the same color so that it is easy to tell which rods belong to whom.

5. Tell the students that each rod is a turn in the conversation. Whether they simply say "Uh-huh" or speak for a long time, their turn is still one rod. Each student will, therefore, speak seven times in this conversation.

6. Tell the students that every time someone finishes a turn, that person must put one rod in the middle of the table. When a student has no more rods, that student must be silent. This will mean that the more talkative students will have to allow the more reticent ones to speak.

7. When the conversation is finished, all students must have used up all of their rods. If one student has not been talking as much as the rest of the group and still has two or more rods, the group loses and the teacher gets one point. In order to avoid that, the students should be advised to look around to see who has the most rods. The other students should then direct questions to that person, for example, "What do you think, Mr. or Ms. _____?"

8. Explain to the students that the timekeeper is going to time the length of silence between sentences. If there is more than a four-second period of silence at any time in the conversation, the students lose that round of the conversation and the teacher gets one point. The conversation will start over.

9. Write a sample opening line on the blackboard, such as "What kind of music do you like?" Tell the students that the timekeeper will begin the conversation with this sentence. After that, one of the students must continue the conversation.

10. The teacher should try very hard to get the students to win. Bend the rules if they are doing well. Remember to change timekeepers between rounds so that everyone has a chance to participate. After each round, analyze their problems and remind the students about the importance of giving reasons and using listener expressions.

Following is a sample game:

Teacher: What kind of music do you like?
Student A: I really like jazz. (places rod in middle of table)
Student A: I really like jazz. (places rod in middle of table)
Student B: I really like classical. (places rod in middle of table)
Student C: I used to play the violin. (places rod)

(*Silence for 5 seconds*)

Teacher: All right, the silence was too long. I get one point. We'll begin again, but first I need to remind you of some things about conversations. First, Student A and B are both answering my question. However, once Student A has answered my question, Student B should focus on Student A's response, "I really like jazz," to expand the conversation. For example, you could ask student A why he likes jazz, or what kind of jazz music does he like best. Second, Student B could agree or disagree with Student A's statement and give reasons for his opinion. This provides more information. You must give reasons for your opinions so that the others have something to discuss. Try to give fairly long comments. Let's try again. What kind of music do you like?
Student D: I like jazz because it's always different. (places rod)
Student B: I don't really like jazz because it's too crazy. I love classical. It's very dramatic, especially Beethoven. (places rod)

(*Game continues.*)

If the students grow bored with the topic as the game continues, change to a topic of their choice. Sports, hobbies, and food are good topics for small talk.

Generally, I feel that this activity focuses on what a conversation is and is not. Dissect each conversation at the end and tell the students exactly how natural it seemed. If there were problems, let them know. Be sure, however, to also let them know what they did well.

A second exercise that is very good for presenting a whole conversation to a group of students is a sentence scramble. It has the added advantage of being extremely simple to do. The most difficult part for the teacher is finding a suitable conversation. If the lesson is listener expressions, for example, it may take some time to find a sample conversation with enough of them. After the conversation has been chosen, the teacher simply types up the conversation and supplies each pair or group of students with a copy. The teacher cuts the page into sentence strips and mixes the sentences up. The students reconstruct the conversation using their knowledge of conversation management. The teacher should make sure, however, that the sentences the students are putting together do not come from the same page or the students will reconstruct the conversation by fitting them together like a jigsaw puzzle. It works very well with movies such as *The Graduate* or *Foul Play* which contain episodes with small talk.

Conclusion

Almost any discussion activity can be used to give the students a chance to work on conversation management skills and can serve as an opportunity for the teacher to diagnose the students' abilities. Simulations are very helpful since the teacher has the opportunity to sit back and take note of problems. If a video or movie is used in class, an analysis of the dialogue from this perspective adds another dimension to study. If possible, the students should be given the chance to talk with other teachers or even fluent speakers from outside the school. Interview assignments similar to the personal questions exercise are sometimes helpful.

It should be remembered, however, that the exercises presented so far are rather limited in scope. It is generally the case that when presented with a more difficult or more open-ended problem such as a simulation, the students' use of these conversational skills

decreases. The students may be focusing so much on the problem at hand that they forget to ask for clarification or to use listener expressions. This is understandable, but should be commented on at the end of the exercise.

There are several areas which I have not dealt with. These include openings, closings, turn-taking, interrupting, changing the topic, and returning to a previous topic. In my bibliography, I have given references to all sources related to conversation management which I have found helpful. They are mainly general information sources which are non-technical or descriptions of specific exercises with detailed instructions for classroom use. Although this is a very important area of ESL, it has been somewhat neglected. The transition from the theoretical description of conversation to practical guides for teachers has just begun. I hope that it will continue.

APPENDIX

STUDENT HANDOUT #1

POLITE AND IMPOLITE TOPICS FOR DINNER CONVERSATION

At our school, many people will be asking you questions. Some of these may seem to be too personal (rude). READ THE QUESTIONS BELOW AND DECIDE WHETHER THEY ARE OK OR IMPOLITE. If the situation is important, discuss this also. For example, you may feel that the sex or age of the speakers is important. When you finish, answer the questions below.

POLITE IMPOLITE

A. RELIGION
   1. Do you believe in God?
   2. Are Americans very religious people?

B. SPORTS
   1. Do you play tennis?
   2. How do you think the Yomiuri Giants will do this year?

C. MARITAL STATUS
   1. Are you married?
   2. Are there a lot of divorces in America?

D. PERSONAL STATISTICS
   1. How much do you weigh?
   2. Are Canadians generally tall people?

E. POLITICS
   1. Do you support Nakasone?
   2. Is Nakasone popular?

F. SEX
   1. What do you think of American women?
   2. Do Japanese women usually work after marriage?

ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS

1. When someone asks you a question which you feel is too personal, what should you say?
2. Write down two topics that you think are good for general conversation with someone you've just met.

STUDENT HANDOUT #2

WHICH CONVERSATION IS BETTER?

Conversation #1

A: Are you from Japan?
B: Yes.
A: Do you like America?
B: Yes.
A: Have you been to New York yet?
B: . . . . . (long silence)
A: Did you go to the Statue of Liberty?
B: Yes.
A: Will you go back to America?
B: No.
A: Goodbye.
B: Goodbye.

Conversation #2

A: Are you from Japan?
B: Yes. I'm from Odawara. That's about one hour southwest of Tokyo by car.
A: Oh, really. I've never been to Odawara. What's it like?
B: I'm sorry. Could you repeat that?
A: Could you tell me about Odawara?
B: Well . . . It's a beautiful city because there are many mountains and it's on Sagami Bay.
A: Uh-huh.
B: And there's a nice castle there.

A: It sounds very nice. How do you like America?
B: I think that it's very interesting. It's very different from Japan.
A: How is it different from Japan?
B: Hmmmm, well, for one thing, there are fewer people.
A: Uh-huh.
B: In Japan there isn't much flat land.
A: Really?
B: When I go outside of the cities here, I'm very surprised.
A: I know what you mean.
B: Also, the houses are bigger.
A: What don't you like about America?
B: Let me see. That's a difficult question. I worry about crime.
A: Yeah, me too.
B: Especially when I'm alone on the streets at night. Also, sometimes people seem impolite.
A: Yeah, I sometimes worry about my wife being out alone at night.
B: I feel the same way sometimes. Well, excuse me, I want to get another drink. It was nice talking to you.

STUDENT HANDOUT #3

LISTENER EXPRESSIONS

Showing interest or attention

I see.
Uh-huh.
(Head nodding)
Yeah.
Really.
Ummm.
No kidding.
Asking questions. (How long were you there? Did you enjoy it?)

Showing Surprise

Really?
Oh, wow!
Fantastic!
Oh, my God!
Incredible!
I can't believe it!
Did he/she really!
Are you kidding?

Showing sympathy
Oh, that's too bad.
I'm sorry to hear that.
That's terrible.
That must have been difficult.
That must have been terrible.
How sad!

Showing That You Are Happy for the Speaker
That's wonderful!
That's fantastic!
Sounds great!
That must have been fun!
That must have been fantastic!
That must be wonderful!

Clarification
Could you repeat that?
What does _____ mean?
Excuse me, could you speak more slowly?
How do you spell _____?
I'm sorry, but I didn't catch that.
Pardon me, but I didn't understand that.
Could you explain that?
Could you be more specific?
Could you give me an example of that?

What to Say While You're Thinking of a Reply
Hmmmmm . . .
Well . . .
Let me see.
Let me think.
That's a difficult question.

STUDENT HANDOUT #4

CONVERSATION PREPARATION

You are going to have a conversation about music. As preparation, look at the following list of words and decide which words could be used to describe music. Circle all appropriate words.

lovely	inspiring	relaxing	hard
loud	blonde	soft	scientific
fast	gigantic	slow	exciting
realistic	sensual	lazy	rough
Spanish	wonderful	happy	smooth
sad	boring	interesting	depressing
classical	modern	contemporary	dramatic
complex	simple	gentle	primitive
romantic	quiet	noisy	traditional
unpopulated	clean	dirty	bright
dark	urban	ugly	crowded

MUSIC SAMPLES

Listen to the following ten selections and rate them from one to five.

1 = I like it very much.
2 = I like it.
3 = It's OK.
4 = I don't really like it.
5 = I don't like it at all.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Jazz					
2. Classical					
3. Rock					
4. Country					
5. Reggae					
6. Funk					
7. Swing					
8. Disco					
9. Bluegrass					
10. Pop					

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Assessing the Spoken English of Non-Native Trainee Teachers

John B. Curtin

Today, there are more and more non-native speakers teaching English. As home country nationals become more linguistically proficient, there is less need for "foreign experts" to teach. Contemporary language teaching methods make heavy demands on the oral competence of these non-native teachers of English; the current predominance of communicative techniques makes it imperative that the teacher be fluent in the target language and have confidence when speaking it. How good then, should non-native teachers' English be, and how should their spoken English be evaluated? In the past, oral skills were evaluated by using some absolute of theoretically-derived standard often based on native speaker ability. Given the number of non-native teachers, and the problems they often encounter in learning English, this may not be the best way.

This article will briefly discuss some of the common problems in oral testing, consider some of the problems inherent in learning English outside of an English-speaking country, and describe a way of assessing oral competency that expresses a realistic attitude about what should be expected of the teacher. This is done by comparing a teacher's oral proficiency with a known standard or norm: that of a typical practising teacher.

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General Problems

All language testing is difficult; perhaps the testing of oral competence is the most problematic. Some of the problems inherent in oral testing are:

The size of the sample

If the accuracy of a result is in proportion to the size of the sample, how much time must be allowed for the oral test in order for it to constitute a valid sample? How long does a candidate need to provide an adequate sample of what he or she can do with the spoken word? As language is intrinsically unpredictable and contains the elements of an astronomical number of combinations and permutations, this question appears to be unanswerable except, perhaps, by saying, "As long as possible." Thus, only the practical exigencies of the time available for testing can set the limits, and these will always be too narrow.

The affective and subjective problems of interviewing

Interviews consist of the interaction of two or more people. It has to be admitted, therefore, that interviews are likely to be influenced by such factors as age, sex, character, charisma, degree of relaxation, and topics chosen or imposed—to mention only a few of the typical characteristics of interview which can prejudice or even invalidate assessment. If, however, two interviewers can first make individual assessments and then compare, discuss, negotiate, and finally come to an agreement on the marks awarded, the subjective element can probably be reduced in importance.

This is even more desirable when an interviewer already knows the candidate and is unconsciously biased, for or against. Paradoxically, when there are two interviewers present, it may be desirable for one of them to have some personal knowledge of the candidate in order to be able to intercede in cases where a sole interviewer, meeting the candidate for the first time and under examination conditions, might get a false impression. The important thing is that there should be more than one examiner present. Unfortunately, the increased pressure which this places on the candidate can also be prejudicial. One is therefore left in the position of having to weigh disadvantages.

The method of grading

This is perhaps the most intractable problem in the field of oral testing. In certain circumstances, however, it may be possible to

solve it—or at least partly overcome it—by adopting a 'relativist' approach: that is, by comparing a candidate's English with that of a practising teacher. Another partial solution to the problem may lie in the grading of a number of subskills rather than simply awarding a global mark. Nevertheless, the adoption of a system of subskills opens yet another debate: which subskills should be graded; how many subskills should be chosen; and how much should each subskill be weighted?

An Approach to the Problems of Oral Testing in Brazil

Background

A private language-teaching organisation in Rio de Janeiro (Curso Oxford) has adopted the method of oral testing which follows; it has now been in operation for three semesters. The organisation is one of the oldest in Rio and has seven branches scattered throughout the large, growing city. It provides courses for both children and adults—from beginner to preparation courses for the University of Oxford's preliminary and higher examinations in English as a Foreign Language (for which it is a licensed examination centre). Some ten thousand students follow its normal courses and some twenty to thirty trainee teachers complete the two-year cycle of teacher training: four one-semester courses in English Literature, English and American Drama, Educational Psychology, and Teacher Training. These four courses are preceded by a Study Skills course; this includes an aural comprehension component of an innovative nature, which is used to train future teachers to understand spoken E.A.P. (English of Academic Purposes). The complete Study Skills course has been designed to prepare the students for the rigours of the two years of teacher training, and is one semester long. It should be emphasised that the language of instruction throughout the teacher training course is always English.

Problems faced by the non-native teacher of English in Rio de Janeiro

Perhaps one of the biggest problems in learning English in this situation is the lack of native models; students often do not have the opportunity to listen to a native speaker. Although they may have studied at one of many private institutions or within the state system, they will be lucky if they have heard a native American or

British speaker speak in person; they will be extremely fortunate if they have been taught by a competent teacher who is also a native speaker. Government policy over recent years has not encouraged organisations to contract native speakers to teach at the secondary or university level. Native speakers are not likely to be paid salaries which they would consider acceptable unless, of course, they are being subsidised. For lucrative reasons, therefore, most of the native British or American teachers are to be found teaching business executives and state enterprise employees in 'in-house' situations.

The trainees will have heard tapes; they will also have heard non-standard English spoken by their teachers. Chances are that they will have heard much more of the latter than the former. In the course of their passage through a private language-teaching organisation, they may have heard half a dozen non-native teachers' voices, each with a different way of speaking English. As a result, the trainees may well have been exposed to a pronunciation of the past tenses of regular verbs in which all the endings are pronounced as a separate syllable /ed/. They may have accepted the Brazilianised version of English words as standard pronunciation, for example, /ōliwūdi/ for 'Hollywood' and /fūtibōl/ for 'football.' Unless they have been assiduous in their attendance at the cinema when subtitled rather than dubbed films are being shown, or they can afford video cassette-players, they will have no standard against which to measure the teacher-English to which they have been exposed. A privileged few will have spent a few weeks or even months in the United Kingdom or the United States. The vast majority will not have had such an opportunity.

The trainees' progress is also often hampered by their inability to complete the components of the teacher-training course in the right sequence without interruption. This may be the result of concurrently completing courses at a university or a technical college, or, very often, of the need to earn a living while studying. It should also be mentioned that many trainees intend to become teachers in order to add a second string to their bow. They may be undergraduate engineers or medical students who hope to be able to teach English part-time in order to support themselves, and possibly their families, as they finish their university studies or begin their professional careers. As in so many third world countries, aspiring professionals have to face the fact that they may need two or more different jobs in order to make ends meet.

When they have completed the teacher-training course, they may apply (or be invited) to stay and teach for the organisation; they may enter a pedagogical or Arts degree programme at a university (to which they have an automatic right of entry if they have qualified on the organisation's government-approved training course); or they may register with the Ministry of Education or in another private teaching organisation. It is against this background, then, that both the level of oral competence of the trainees, and how to test it, must be considered.

Testing Criteria

The size of the organisation under consideration means that time limits have to be set for oral assessent. In order to reduce the importance of the final interview, a case could be made for the trainees having their interview marks heavily weighted by the accumulation of marks awarded by their instructors during the four-month course period on a continuous assessment basis. Unfortunately, continuous assessment is an approach which has only recently begun to gain acceptance in Brazil. Trainees, therefore, have to be judged to a considerable extent on the basis of their final interviews.

This is not to say that there is no provision for continuous assessment during their course. Trainees are assessed monthly and the sum of monthly marks, a mark for the content of their final written examination (a lesson plan), and a mark for the quality of their written English are all taken into account in the awarding of the diploma. Nevertheless, a pass/fail oral mark is awarded (although the trainees have the right to be re-examined if they fail, and some return six months or a year later, very often with successful results.

The standardisation of the testing procedure is particularly important as the interviews may be held at any of the seven different branches and with different examiners. It was agreed that a ten-minute interview length be made standard and that the examiners should be allowed five minutes between interviews for discussion and negotiation. (This allowance was found in practise to be all too short).

Interview teams

The instructors very naturally want to interview their own trainees; they feel that their background knowledge of them makes

a fairer judgement possible. They feel much more capable of putting their own students at ease during the interview, thereby giving the candidate a chance to perform as well as they possibly can. They accept, however, the need for a second opinion by another assessor present at the interview but have initial concerns about the inhibiting effect of the other assessor on their trainee's performance. A compromise was reached whereby the trainee's instructor, in many cases, conducted the interview and the other assessor was present only as an observer, a 'fly on the wall.' A particular advantage of this system is that the observer is not distracted by his or her own participation in the interview and is thus in a better position to make a dispassionate assessment. By concentrating the mind on the grading of subskills, the instructor is able to reduce affective interference and achieve a fairer and more accurate result. This concentration on specifics helps examiners keep their minds focused on the interview, undistracted by, say, pretty earrings or an attractive baritone voice.

Testing objectives

To define testing objectives, the following statement was devised:

> To see whether the trainees' English was good enough to enable them to take their places in the organisation's classrooms and acquit themselves with dignity, confidence and efficiency as noviciate teachers.

The simplicity of the above statement is deceptive because we must still define how good "good enough" is. Moreover, any experienced Director of Studies knows that a teacher whose English is somewhat defective but who has an instinctive "feel" for teaching will be far more successful in the classroom than the teacher with impeccable English but mistaken pedagogical attitudes. As language teaching is not just instruction—a kind of cut-and-dried, Skinnerian-type stimulus-response activity—we cannot judge a language teacher on technical proficiency alone. Affect and empathy have to be taken into account even if they are not readily quantifiable. Technical proficiency is only part of a language teacher's requirements; sensitivity to people he or she is working with, an intuitive flair for positive, personal interaction, and an ability to *educate* (e(x)—

ducere: "to lead out" or "to draw out")—these are among the less definable and difficult-to-test qualities without which a teacher is incomplete and which can actually weigh more heavily in a teacher's favour than impreccable pronunciation and a mastery of the structure of the language. Unfortunately, these gifts—and gifts they are—may only reveal themselves under actual classroom conditions. Thus, we must think very carefully about how to assess a young teacher whose pronunciation is defective but who demonstrates such precious qualities. True, in the system under consideration here, the teacher can always come back for another test. However, we have to face the fact that it may be extremely difficult for the non-native teacher in countries like Brazil to get enought exposure to the native tongue to enable him or her to reach an acceptable standard of "good pronunciation.

So we come to a major problem: how "good" can we expect non-native teachers of English to be if they have not had the luck or the means to spend some time in the United States or the United Kingdom, that invaluable exposure to the language as it is spoken by native speakers? Ought we to exclude all those who have not been abroad? By doing this, we are saying in effect, "If you are not from a family affluent enough to finance a trip abroad, you are unlikely to be approved as a teacher of English." And, of course, as the gap widens between the have's and the have not's of this world, this problem grows more acute. To sum up, every year more teachers are needed, but how many of them can get that exposure to the target language which is generally required to achieve an acceptable level of oral competence?

In the face of all these difficulties and doubts, it is still necessary to establish some standard. Also, it is necessary to ensure that all examiners apply the same criteria with equal severity or tolerance. It seems best, therefore, for the testing procedure to be based on objectives which fit the practical needs of the teaching organisation, and to work from the assumption, not always true, that teachers have to be tested for their fitness to teach in the same organisation which trained them. What are the practical requirements of the organisation? It was concluded that they were: "*to obtain new teachers who would be at least as good and if possible better than the existing teachers.*" "Existing teachers" means those who have taught for at least a semester. These teachers provide a norm by which the new teachers can be judged. If they are com-

parable, they pass. If they are a little less than comparable, they can also pass provided the examiners feel that they are likely to improve through practise or they have a "feel" for teaching. This, however, is very difficult to judge. In this way, conditions are established to determine the "pass" candidates and also the marginal candidates who might be expected to improve to "pass" level within about six months.

The principle which emerges from this approach is as follows: the oral English of trainees can be quite accurately compared with that of practising teachers. We know how well the average practising teacher speaks; we hear him or her daily, not only in the Teachers' room (where, unfortunately, not always as much English is spoken as one would like) but also in lesson observation and monitoring procedures in the classroom.

We come now to the practical details of the method of assessment and the different skills to be considered. It is possible to establish various combinations of subskills, which can then be assessed separately. This is not to say that the subskills exist as completely separate aspects of the total oral production: they are, in fact, closely interrelated. The selection of subskills which are itemised in the facsimile assessment form (see figure 1) is the result of several years' experimentation. In their assessment, the examiners have to agree on a mark for each subdivision and base it on its relation to the norm. They then circle the number they have selected. From the sum of these numbers they derive a total mark.

Notes on the theoretical basis of the marking matrix (figure 1)

A. Ability to convey meaning: one could argue forever about the relative importance of the skills (ABCDE). It is, however, possible to agree on the need for a teacher to be immediately and absolutely intelligible. The reasons for the presence or absence of intelligibility are to some extent dissected in BCDEF, but in A, an overall judgement is made.

B. Pronunciation: a blanket term, in this case. Again, it is necessary for a teacher to be able to establish a correct model for the students to imitate. The subdivisions help examiners to consider and balance the various aspects of the problem. The sounds enumerated are among those which tend to present problems for Brazilian-Portuguese speakers of English.

Fig. 1 ORAL ASSESSMENT OF TEACHER TRAINING COURSE CANDIDATES

N.B. The completed sheets are to be returned to COORDINATION as soon as possible, for research and statistical purposes.

Branch: _____
Class no.: _____
Candidate's name: _____
Examiner's name: _____
Date of test: _____
Length of interview: _____

Examiner should circle the appropriate number in each column.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	Possible Total	This candidate's total
	ABILITY TO CONVEY MEANING	PRONUNCIATION (**)	GRAMMATICALITY (***)	CLARITY & PLEASANTNESS OF DELIVERY	LEXIS (****)	AURAL COMPREHENSION		
EXCEPTIONALLY GOOD	22	20	19	16	10	8	95	
CONSIDERABLY BETTER	20	18	17	14	9	7	85	
SOMEWHAT BETTER	18	16	15	12	8	6	75	
THE NORM (*)	17	15	14	11	7	6	70	
SLIGHTLY WORSE	16	14	13	10	7	5	*65	
SOMEWHAT WORSE	14	12	11	8	6	4	55	
CONSIDERABLY WORSE	12	10	9	6	5	3	45	
EXCEPTIONALLY POOR	10	8	7	4	4	2	35	
							* (PASS) GRAND TOTAL	

Students failing will have the right to be re-assessed.

* The Norm: a young, average competent CURSO OXFORD teacher who has already taught for one semester.

** PRONUNCIATION
Subdivisions to be considered

1. Weak forms
2. Contractions
3. Catenation (linking)
4. Rhythm and Stress
5. Certain contrasts :
   /i/iː/ /ə/əː/
   /z/s/ /ð/θ/
   /tʃ/dʒ/ /ʃ/ʒ/

*** GRAMMATICALLY
Subdivisions to be considered

Syntax: Declarative, interrogative, negative and exclamatory sentence forms
Verb tenses, choice and sequence
Logical connectors
Prepositions
Adverbial position

**** LEXIS
Subdivisions to be considered

Appropriacy
Range
Register
Colloquialisms
Phrasals
Idioms

The choice of subdivisions is partly the result of selecting phonological aspects which appear to be critical in the assessment of intelligibility and social acceptability, partly the result of selecting items which are likely to suffer from mother-tongue interference, and partly the result of selecting items which can be readily identified by the examiner. A splendidly precise series of phonological criteria which only a specialist is capable of identifying and assessing is useless.

C. Grammaticality: some difficulty was encountered in establishing a short list of subskills; it is hoped that the one which is reproduced in the facsimile will prove useful and reasonably valid. Again, it is no use establishing a list of criteria which begins to look like the index of a pedagogical grammar. The examiner has to be able to assess the items with reasonable facility. This list represents items which are essential to intellibility and social acceptability and are likely to reflect the degree of mastery of aspects of the structure. It is strongly felt that a correct phonological model is more important, even, than a correct grammatical one, especially in the early stages.

D. Clarity and appeal of delivery: this is closely related to intelligibility, but not quite the same thing. The objective is for the teacher's voice to be both clear and pleasant to listen to—not necessarily the same thing. A sergeant-major's voice is undoubtedly clear but, to most people, has a singularly unpleasant sound. We have no right to inflict a teacher on students if his or her voice is aggressive, monotonous, or otherwise likely to "turn them off."

E. Lexis: the list of desiderata represents areas which, if lacking, are likely to prejudice fluent and expressive speech. Unfortunately, ten minutes is not a very long time for a conversation to reveal all these parameters. Nor is it easy to assess a speaker's success in using them. Nevertheless, a serious shortcoming in any of the subskills is likely to result in non-standard or substandard speech. They are therefore aspects of a teacher's oral performance which need to be assessed.

F. Aural comprehension: this looks a little odd, coming, as it does, at the end of the list. It is, however, the teacher's probable performance in the classroom which is being assessed, and not the cadet teacher's ability to instantly understand a wide range of aural input. In a sense, it may be sufficient for the teacher

to understand the tapes that are being used in the classroom or in the language laboratory and, of course, to understand what the students are trying to say. Never the less, the capacity of a teacher to improve his or her spoken English will be impeded by a weakness in this area. Such a weakness is often found, in fact, in teachers whose pronunciation is notably defective.

Items A–D have been deliberately weighted somewhat more heavily than E and F in their divergence from the norm. There is, however, little difference between one item and another: the reduction in importance across the page is arithmetical rather than geometrical. It can also be seen from the matrix that a candidate achieving the level immediately below our 'norm' will receive a pass mark–65' In practise, of course, all the skills will not be equally balanced: a process of compensation takes place. Strength in one area is allowed to compensate for weakness in another.

The System in Practise

The examiners make every effort to create a positive, constructive atmosphere during the interviews, not to mention a friendly and relaxed one. Nevertheless, it is clear that the arch-enemy of oral testing–tension–has by no means been eliminated. The interviews are conducted in a fairly traditional way: before the candidates enter the room, they are asked to read a short item of interest to language teachers. Some gems chosen are from Mary Finocchiaro's *English as a Second Language*[1], concerning the various 'myths' which the author discusses, for example 'The No Native language myth,' 'The No Grammar myth,' and so on. The trainees are told that these are going to serve as conversation-starters and that under no circumstances will they be tested on the content of the texts. They are then drawn into conversation on the topics. In practise, however, this was found to be less effective and more tension-producing than letting them talk about themselves: their lives, their studies, their hopes and ambitions. Even this, unfortunately, can cause stress in some of the shyer candidates. Two of the candidates collapsed into speechlessness after a few minutes of very stilted conversation. In this respect, it may be licit to pose the following question: After everything has been done to make the circumstances as relaxed and friendly

[1] Mary Finocchiaro, *English as a Second Language: from theory to practice.* New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc. 1974.

as possible, if the interview creates undo tension on the trainee, should we not consider how that trainee is likely to cope in the tension-fraught world of language teaching?

More than sixty trainees have now been tested in this way and the results are encouraging. The author has taken part in the testing of thirty of the students, sometimes as interviewer, sometimes as observer. From these sessions, two points have emerged:

There had been some doubt as to whether two examiners could agree on the marks for the various subdivisions. In practise, this was found to be relatively easy when each examiner explained to the other the reason for the proposed allotment of marks. Agreement was then reached by one or both of the examiners yielding a little. It was, however, consistently noticed that differences in assessment were to some extent the result of one of the examiners having some personal knowledge of the candidate. Familiarity with the candidate seemed to interfere with an objective assessment of the student's skills. This made it difficult for the other examiner to accommodate his or her marks and thus reach an agreement. Examples of examiners' comments will exemplify the problem. The examiners who knew their candidates would suggest that their performance was not typical of their average performance because "they were under stress" or "they were not giving their best" in the examination situation. Of course, what was being said might well have been true, but these justificatory remarks and pleas for leniency were only made when there was personal knowledge of or acquaintance with the candidate. Therefore, if one made concessions on that basis, a most unfair discrimination would have been made in favour of those candidates who happened to be known to one of the examiners.

We are well aware that what is being stated here is not new; everyone who has to conduct interviews knows of these problems only too well. What must be emphasised is that they become even more acute when we are measuring a person's oral competence in a second language, every language teacher knows how easily the second-language learner's performance can be prejudiced by what may be roughly described as "nerves." Unfortunately, however desirable friendship and a willingness to make exceptions may be in the classroom, they are dangerous and can result in gross unfairness during an interview.

For these reasons, two examiners should be present, whenever possible; one of them should have no personal knowledge of the candidate. It would be interesting to know whether readers think that neither of the examiners should have personal knowledge of the candidate. A final point about assessment procedures: it is vital for the two observers to make their independent assessments of the individual items before discussing them together. In this way, they avoid being 'contaminated' by their partner's ideas and have the obligation to justify their own marks. These discussions as to what constitutes oral proficiency are also very valuable to the interview teams.

By means of these procedures then, it may be possible to considerably reduce the effects of subjectivity in oral testing. Even more important, perhaps, is the fact that the system described takes into account an existing trend in language teaching today: the increase in non-native teachers. This system attempts to evaluate non-native speakers within the constraints which are often found when teaching English in a non-English speaking country.

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Bright Ideas

Games for Children

Paul Lehnert

When I began teaching children about a year ago, I found them quick to learn, generally interested in English, and energetic. There were, however, some frustrations involved in teaching them; the biggest, perhaps, being their short attention span. This is especially a problem in a multi-level class—if you go slowly for one student, others get bored; and if you move along quickly, someone gets lost. This is, of course, a problem common to all teaching; however, it is often much more obvious with children, who do not always have the patience to sit back and quietly accept boredom or frustration.

One way to try and overcome this problem is to use games to introduce a structure or to reinforce it. Games are also very useful as drills; quick learners enjoy the game aspect, while the slower ones receive necessary reinforcement. However, a danger in using games is that they become nothing more than games; teachers often use them merely to keep the students' attention and make lesson planning a little easier. Unfortunately, in this case, children are not always learning any language.

I would like to present here a few games which are enjoyable for children and which contribute to learning. These games can be adapted to teaching different skills (listening, vocabulary, speaking, and spelling) and to different levels of ability. It is easy to change the focus to suit a particular skill or level, as this does not generally require a change in the format of the game.

The degree of difficulty in all of the following games is controlled by the teacher. For example, the teacher can demand a one word answer—"box," "thin," "yes"—or a longer one—"It is a box," "He is thin," "Yes, I am." This helps the teacher adjust to the different linguistic and age levels that are often found within one class and ensures that lower students receive tasks which they

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are able to do and that higher students are challenged. This is particularly important when there are very shy or sensitive children in the classroom; the teacher should use this control to make sure that these students are not embarrassed in front of the class. This control also makes it possible to use one game with many different ages and abilities. Another point to remember is that, although only one example of how to use each of the games is given here, the teacher can easily adapt the game to suit a particular structure or level.

Duck Duck, Goose Goose

This is based on an old children's game and can be used to teach any language skill. To set up, arrange chairs in a circle, facing outward, with one less chair than the number of students. Select a student to begin, or ask the students to sit down; the student left standing begins. Give that student something to touch another student with (I use a plastic hammer that makes a totally obnoxious sound—the students love it). To teach vocabulary, the teacher (or the student who is beginning) shows the class a vocabulary card but cautions the students *not* to say it. The standing student (#1) then walks around the circle. When he or she wishes, he or she taps another student (#2) on the thigh with the hammer. Student 2 then picks up the hammer and must say the word on the vocabulary card. He or she then chases student 1 around the circle, trying to tap him or her with the hammer before they get to the empty seat. If student 2 succeeds in doing this, he or she sits down again; if not, student 2 takes student 1's place. This can also be used to teach other skills, such as writing (write several words on the board, and the teacher or student points to one of them), questions and answers (the standing student asks a question—"Do you like cars?"—and the taped one must reply—"Yes, I do" or "No, I don't"—before giving chase), and the progressive (students either mime an action or point to a picture). Of course, depending on the level, students can be asked to do much more.

Blindfold

This game can be used for oral practise—making statements, asking and answering questions, and using possessives. One student is blindfolded, and another is asked to say something (preferably a structure the class has been working on). Encourage this student to

change his or her voice; the blindfolded student must then guess who is speaking. When practising the use of possessives, ask the student to reply with "His/her name is_____." Alternately, the students could use "Is is_____?" or "I think it's _____." Students always seem to enjoy this, as it is a guessing game for the blindfolded one and the student speaking has the opportunity to disguise his or her voice. There is rarely a problem with boredom on the part of other students, as they enjoy watching. To prevent the blindfolded student from using location to guess the identity of the speaker, ask three or four students to stand up and come to the center of the class; only one will speak. Students could also be encouraged to ask for repetition; begin by using simple expression such as "Once more please," and teach more complex structures as the students progress.

Sound/Spelling/Vocabulary

Divide the students into two teams (ask them to choose a name for the team) and put two identical sets of alphabet cards on a table or write them on the blackboard. Ask a student from each team to come forward and show them a picture card. They must first say the word and then pick up or point to the alphabet card which corresponds to the first letter of the word. The student who does it first wins one point for the team. For example, the teacher points to a picture of a cat. The students must say "cat" and then pick up or point to the letter "c." Alternately, this could be used to teach phonetics. The teacher says the word, and the students pick up or points to the first letter of word. With more advanced students, problematic spelling combinations can be used: *ph,* the various pronunciations of English vowels, and so on.

Concentration

This is modeled after the old television program of the same name and can be used to teach any number of language skills. As the game moves slowly, it is recommended for older students. It also might be advisable to set a time limit. To practise the progressive, make up two identical sets of picture cards which illustrate actions. Arrange them so that the picture is not facing the students; one way to do this is to put them on and above the blackboard and write numbers between them which correspond to the pictures above and below. A student asks "What is number 6?," and is

shown the corresponding picture. To continue, she or he must use the progressive tense to identify the action shown on the card. The student then picks a number from the other set and again identifies it. If the pictures match, they are given to the student. Careful observation in necessary to find a matched set, so the students who are waiting for a turn also pay attention. To involve more students, ask them to manipulate the cards and ask a question ("What is he doing?"), or ask two different students to find a matched pair. This game can also be used to teach vocabulary, reading, and many other language skills.

Circle Seat Change

Arrange the chairs in a large circle, facing inward. There should be one less chair than the number of students. One student stands in the middle of the circle and the teacher shows the students a vocabulary card or asks a question. If the standing student answers correctly, everyone changes seats and the standing student tries to find one. The student who does not get a seat stands in the middle. If the standing student answers incorrectly and a seated student moves, the two must change places. For example, the teacher shows the student the word "girl" and asks, "What is this word?" If the student says "girl," everybody changes. If not, no one should move. When students understand this well, they will try and trick the others by answering incorrectly or using a negative—"It's not a girl." If a student begins to move, she or he must come to the center. This can be used for practising vocabulary, reading, correct responses to questions, and much more.

Line-Up/Out the Door

This can be used at the beginning of class or when class is over. The students line up in a row. Show them a vocabulary card, ask them a question, or review whatever is needed. If they answer correctly, the student may sit down (or go home). If not, she or he goes to the end of the line. If a student answers incorrectly the first time, make sure that he or she gets the same task the second time around.

These are just a few of the games which I have used successfully in teaching children. Many other classroom exercises can be turned into a game by making it more lively or by awarding points.

Although this may seem too easy to be true, children seem to derive endless pleasure from such simple activities. Following is a short reference list of sources where games may be found. Although not all of these games are for children, many can be used with children by simplifying the language and format.

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Modified Cloze Procedure as a Method of Measuring Reading Comprehension

Neil McBeath and J.H. Marshall

The Sultan of Oman's Air Force operates two language schools, English Language School (North) in the Capital Area, and English Language School (South) in the Southern Region. These schools are responsible for teaching EFL to all three services of the Sultan's Armed Forces and to most of the branches within those services. English is taught for military purposes, so the task might more correctly be regarded as one of teaching low-level ESP. Moreover, as some of the servicemen who come to classes are absolute beginners, the contraction between their initial lack of ability in language and the complexities of the structures and lexical materials which they are required to master has led to a certain amount of experimentation in teaching methods, and a refusal on our part to become too closely associated with the approach of any one particular methodology.

To this end, at the beginner level, we have largely discarded textbooks. This decision was in part forced upon us because there is no textbook ideally suited to our needs. Omani servicemen will not be required to make conversation about the weather or participate in the ubiquitous party-going which is such a regular feature of EFL texts aimed at the European market. On the other hand, they will have to recognise such low-frequency words as "beret," "rifle," and "missile," and, in order to proceed beyond the absolutely basic level of education, they will have to be able to manipulate the present simple, present continuous, and simple past aspects of time.

Testing structural competence could, of course, be done by using multiple choice questions at the end of a reading passage, but we feel that this may not be the best way.

As some of our students arrive completely unable to read and write in English, and with a minimal Arabic education, the artificial

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nature of a multiple choice test would make it the simplest of tasks to teach them to indicate one answer only as correct. Merely by indicating the first of four possible answers, there is a statistical probability that a candidate would achieve a score of anything up to 25%; but this would tell us nothing about his ability. Neither would this method of testing allow any learning to proceed, for each item in a multiple choice test appears independently, and any attempt to place the items in context simply undervalues the test as a whole. Furthermore, this technique assumes a knowledge of examination techniques which many of these students do not possess, and thus discriminates against them. As Oller (1979:233) states," the multiple choice format is intrinsically inimicable to the interests of instruction," and with this statement we are in total agreement. Successful completion of a multiple choice test depends upon a process of selection, but the student knows that one answer is correct. A last consideration for not using multiple choice is the difficulty inherent in preparing them. To again quote Oller (1979:233), "the preparation of sound multiple choice tests is sufficiently challenging and technically difficult to make them impractical for most classroom needs."

For these reasons, therefore, we have developed tests based on a modified version of cloze procedure; asking our students to rewrite a passage in such a way that they are forced to manipulate the language and so reveal their awareness of its structural modifications. The passages we use are specially written and are generally concerned with familiar aspects of military life or with some place in Oman. This serves as a method of reinforcing previous instruction and allows the students the opportunity to practise reading what is, to them, a fairly lengthy passage with a definite informational content. The students are given a passage such as the following:

> Muscat is the capital of Oman. It is a small town, but Muttrah is near it and Muttrah is very big. Between Muttrah and Ruwi is Jibroo. There is a new mosque in Ruwi, and in Muscat there is the palace of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos. Thirty five kilometres from Muscat is Seeb, and Seeb International Airport.

Working from this stimulus, the students are asked to rewrite the passage by inserting the correct words in the appropriate spaces of a cloze exercise. This is a tightly controlled task, but it is one in which the students are asked to demonstrate a certain amount of heuristic ability.

In this particular example, we are mainly concerned with spatial relationships, but when the passage is rewritten we can determine whether or not the students have understood its informational content. Again, in this particular instance, we have limited ourselves to the use of one verb because Arabic does not normally employ the present tense of the verb "to be" (though there is a rarely used classical form), and we feel that it is important for our elementary students to accustom themselves to its use in English. The fact that only the verb 'to be" is used in the stimulus passage need not, of course, restrict the lexis in the second passage, as can be seen from the example below.

> The capital of Oman . . . (1) . . . Muscat. It . . . (2) . . . a big town. . . . (3) . . . is very big. It is . . . (4) . . . Muscat. . . . (5) . . . is between Muttrah and Ruwi. Ruwi . . . (6) . . . a new mosque but it . . . (7) . . . not have a palace. His Majesty's palace is in . . . (8) . . . Seeb is 35 kilometres from . . . (9) . . . It . . . (10) . . . an airport.

In this exercise, the emphasis in on 1) the noun group, 2) the formation of adverbials, and 3) the order of items in the typical English descriptive sentences outlined above. Students are asked to manipulate these patterns:

1. Muscat is the capital.
   S V C
2. It has a mosque.
   S V O
3. There is a mosque in Ruwi.
   (S) V C A
4. The palace is in Muscat.
   S V A
5. In Muscat there is the palace of His Majesty.
   A (S) V C
6. Seeb is 35 kilometres from Muttrah.
   S V A

A student who can successfully manipulate these sentences within the passage demonstrates not only considerable awareness of some of the complexities of English grammar, but also shows that the information contained in the passage has been understood. To demonstrate how this is achieved, we shall examine the items one by one.

(1) The inversion of the subject and the complement is a deliberate distractor and emphasises the importance of "is" in English. The stimulus passage contains a sentence which, by omitting "is," could be translated directly into Arabic. With an inversion of the subject and complement, Arabic would demand the insertion of a pronoun, but in both cases the demands of English are satisfied by "is."

(2) Only full comprehension of the passage will produce the negative of "is." Furthermore, the subject of the verb is the anaphoric "it,.. where Arabic would demand a feminine pronoun.

(3) Again, cognitive skills are required for the naming of the place and matching the place with its description.

(4) Another matching exercise, but in this case demanding recognition of the spatial dimensions in the original passage.

(5) For the second time, an inversion of subject and complement with the use of "between" giving another spatial clue.

(6) Introduces a second verb—"has"—in a context which is unlikely in Arabic.

(7) Requires the formation of the negative of "to have," which complements the use of the third person singular in item (6).

(8) To complete this item, the student must comprehend the use of "there is" with the adverbial at the start of the sentence. A student who does not understand this construction will be confused by the fact that His Majesty has another palace in Seeb, and hence the mere identification of the words "palace," "Seeb," and "Muscat" will not lead to any clarification.

(9) Another inversion of subject and complement, demonstrating the logical point that if Seeb is 35 kilometres from Muttrah, then Muttrah must be 35 kilometres from Seeb. In other words, the same information can be presented in different ways: while the language alters, the facts do not. This premise is an essential starting point for teaching comparisons in any dimension.

(10) Again the anaphoric "it"—this time referring to Seeb, and further demonstration of the verb "to have" in this third person singular form.

From this demonstration, we feel that we can support Coe's statement that cloze tests are "a powerful tool for both testing and learning" (1979:17), and it is this emphasis on learning which leads

us to reject Alderson's (1979) criticism of cloze as "essentially sentence-bound." At our level of instruction, the students are still incapable of comprehending more than very simple sentences, but the use of a stimulus passage avoids the problems which weight cloze tests against students with field-dependent learning styles (see Stansfield & Hensen 1983). The original passage ensures that the demands on the students' cognitive restructuring abilities do not take place in a vacuum.

At this level of teaching, we have deliberately limited our aims, but even so, by using this approach we are able to 1) test comprehension, 2) develop cognitive skills in a potentially more varied way than is possible in other forms of testing, and 3) associate in the reader's mind functions of English writing with the varied structures used in its production. We feel that this type of exercise could be employed at all levels and that the knowledge gained from the contrastive analysis could be used to demonstrate that two versions of a passage contain the same information. This, in turn, could lead to more variety in students' written work, and would lead them to a greater appreciation of the possibilities of paraphrase (see Nash. 1986). We would be interested to hear of other teachers' experiences in using cloze with students at a low level of proficiency.

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Book Review

THE FOREIGNER'S LANGUAGE: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE. Karol Janicki. Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd., 1985. Pp.86.

British situational language teaching went bankrupt in the 1960's when it was not able to adequately defend itself against the Chomskian challenge that language is creative, hence, unpredictable. Since there are an infinite number of possible situations, it became clear that the language for each situation could never be totally delineated in advance. But it would be wrong to assume that this was the end of situational language teaching. The advocates of such teaching regrouped and reappeared in the 1970's under the banner of the notional/functional approach. More recently, Halliday has promoted his "systemic grammar" as an answer to Chomsky. But when one strips away much of the rhetoric of this "grammar", one finds, at base, situational language teaching updated: the only difference is that now one deals with percentages and probabilities. Admitting the creativity of language, the new situationists claim that, practically speaking, certain situations will produce certain language a reasonable amount of the time. Careful research will be needed to see if this claim is strong enough to affect the future direction of language teaching. It is at this point that Karol Janicki appears.

In *The Foreigner's Language,* Janicki claims to be a strong advocate of Halliday's views on language. Janicki (as does Halliday) sees language as social interaction and sees Chomsky as trapped within the idealized, decontextualized, and standardized language of the sentence. If language is interaction, then it must at least be contextualized. Janicki believes that if one can delineate the context (situation) and the language it produces through careful empirical research, then one can make a great contribution to foreign language teaching. It would certainly be difficult to argue with him on this point.

To reach this noble goal, Janicki proposes the study of what he terms sociolinguistic "deviance" in the foreign language situation (SDFLS). Deviance is defined as variation from some norm. In

terms of language, this norm is that found in either the native language situation (NLS) in which all participants are native speakers, or the foreign language situation (FLS) in which at least one participant is recognized as a non-native speaker. The reader should be aware of the fact that "deviance" is intended to be a neutral term. Thus a non-native FLS participant may be variously viewed as extremely friendly or extremely strange, both of which may be considered as deviant behavior.

Quite clearly, Janicki is going to have problems defining the norm in either situation. Variables such as age, sex, race, national origin, and what Janicki calls "historical-attitudinal complex" (roughly speaking, the events which mark our lives and form our various attitudes), make the establishment of any norms for conversational situations difficult, if not impossible. In addition, deviance itself contains a certain relativity with respect to the subjective judgements of native speakers participating in or observing the situation. Janicki realizes these things, but it does not deter him from attempting to define the norm; or at least setting up methods through which it can be assessed.

The main tool for the establishment of norms is error analysis. The second chapter of the book attempts to justify studying SDFLS in this way. In this type of error analysis, the preferred norm of comparison seems to be the FLS. One should not compare deviance with the NLS due to the fact that native speakers in an FLS will accommodate foreigner behavior which, if produced by a native speaker, would be considered "deviant." Of course, the goal of error analysis would be to predict errors via some kind of sociolinguistic contrastive analysis. Yet, at the current stage of FLS knowledge, Janicki admits that "with reference to the sociolinguistic system, all we can predict now is based on intuition and a few fragmentary contrastive studies" (p.28). So it is that by the end of the second chapter one feels the goal of empirical validation of sociolinguistic deviance to be even more distant than it was when one first opened the book.

Undaunted, however, Janicki goes on to describe "specific analytical frameworks and categories applicable for the study of SDFLS" (p.33) in chapter three. "In other words, we will attempt to answer in detail the superficially simple question of 'what to study'" (p.33). And the first part of the chapter does exactly that. One can study deviance from numerous perspectives. For example,

how does the speaker's sex influence the perception of deviant behavior? How does topic affect the FLS? How can a non-native speaker handle such things as formality, politeness, directness, and so on? No new ground is broken here, but Janicki clearly shows each perspective.

Midway through the chapter, the author diverges somewhat to point out that native speakers may claim certain elements of language as their property alone. These elements form "intergroup distinctiveness" (p.41), Janicki points out, and such territory must not be encroached upon by non-native speakers. He claims that such linguistic elements as slang, swearing, and "hypercorrect pronunciation" (p.41) may irritate native speakers. Thus another problem arises in the study of deviance. Should we discourage non-natives from becoming too "good" in certain linguistic domains; should we encourage fossilization at certain points? Or as Janicki puts it "what are the optimal levels of linguistic convergence on the part of the foreigner in the foreign language situation" (p.42). Again, what this optimal level is will vary with each native speaker.

Towards the end of this chapter, Janicki deals with the relationship between "linguistic behavior and sociopsychological context" (p.42). Basically, how does the native speaker size up the foreign speaker along such lines as friendly/unfriendly, aloof/sociable, and so on? Among other possibilities, the author, correctly I believe, enlarges on the role of nonverbal behavior in either augmenting or softening the impact of an utterance. For example, "You liar" said with a smile carries a much different impact than if said with a straight face. Eventually, Janicki goes on to name four categories along which a native speaker may react to a foreigner's utterance. A native speaker may react with 1) irritation, 2) amusement, 3) acceptance, or 4) appreciation. Janicki is aware that each category only marks a spectrum. Irritation may run from uneasiness to annoyance, for instance. Complicating the researcher's attempt to assess the participant's emotions during a non-native speaker's utterance is the fact that the native speaker may not show any external reaction, and even a smile may not always indicate amusement. Even more complexities arise when one realizes that an utterance seldom occurs in isolation. More commonly, the emotional reaction to an utterance is caused by the utterance plus the accompanying nonverbal behavior plus the utterance-reaction events preceding the specific utterance. There appears, then, to be

no simple link between a specific utterance and a specific emotional reaction on the part of native speakers. At this point, it has become clear that the perception of deviance seems to have become so relative and surrounded by so many variables that one now wonders if any truly significant research can be done on the topic.

So well has the author delineated the problems of research on deviance that he himself cannot escape from them. For that reason, chapter four, "Methods for Studying the Foreigner's Language," is, in my opinion, the low point of the book. What Janicki advocates as "most rewarding" is the study of deviance via "contrived foreign language situations" (p.55). In such situations, the native speaker should provoke "with his own behavior the occurrence of specific types of behavior on the part of the foreigner" (p.56). "Surreptitious tape-recording" is the recommended style of data collection. Besides the ethical considerations of such research, one certainly must question the value of "contrived" data. By keeping the native speaker participant's behavior constant, no matter what the attitude of the non-native speaker, one defeats the purpose. What we want ideally is natural behavior. It does us no good if, for example, the native speaker remains angry while the non-native speaker in truth appears as friendly. We may provoke some sort of behavior, but that behavior will vary with the temperament of the individual foreign speaker. The author gives one example of provoking non-native speakers away from "avoidance techniques." "The analyst has to concentrate, among other things, on how to arrive at data which would naturally emerge were it not for avoidance techniques" (p.62). My question is simply, why aren't avoidance techniques natural, and, if they are, isn't the alternative only serving to provoke the non-native speaker into some sort of unnatural behavior? Though I can understand Janicki's desire to control as many variables as possible, it is not clear that controlling native speaker behavior will produce controlled non-native speaker responses.

Methods of studying deviance are divided into four stages, each stage relating to advances of knowledge acquired in the previous stage. Still, the ultimate research weapons, at least at the first two stages, are the "contrived interview" and the "contrived case study," both seemingly unnatural environments. In any event, Janicki claims that areas of possible research discovered in stage I and II may allow for more controlled experiments at stage III and IV.

But in the end, it seems that we must abandon the 100% predictable hope that Janicki clings to. Studies of natural interaction assessed by native speaker judges on the basis of intuition will give us possible directions for more finely tuned research later on. We may find that certain behaviors will be labelled as more deviant than others in the FLS and we, in turn, may be able to pass on certain suggestions to our students.

The connection to pedagogy is given by the author in the book's last chapter. With very little warning, Janicki throws a haymaker at what he calls the conversational and notional (CN) courses. As he states, "CN type course design should be abandoned, not so much for practical as theoretical reasons... To cut the story short, if we want to teach something (especially in a systematic manner) we must first of all have to know what to teach. In reality the CN courses as promoted at present are based on fragmentary, extremely shaky and unreliable linguistic material" (p.70). "With our present knowledge of both NLS and FLS, CN courses are highly unlikely to gain theoretical justification in the immediate future" (p.71).

Now some may find this language a bit strong. Be that as it may, Mr. Janicki does have a point. When grammar-based teaching ceased to be the "in" thing, there was a mad stampede into the communicative camp. Few bothered to ask for empirical justification or for studies on the delineation of specific speech acts. Communication for communication's sake seemed justification enough. Only later did empirical findings show that communication/conversation was a much more complex phenomenon than it was at first realized. It has since become clear that serious teachers must take such research into consideration.

Much sociolinguistic research has been and is being done. Certainly some sociolinguistic information can be used in the classroom and the situation is probably not as bleak as Janicki indicates. However, he is correct in pointing out the close tie that must exist between the classroom teacher and the researcher. I expect this will be the big thrust in our field in the near future. For as Janicki writes, "the teacher cannot tell the student not to use certain forms if he himself is not sure the restriction is sociolinguistically justified" (p.74). This is especially true for non-native teachers of English who have no native intuition to fall back on.

In the end, Janicki is forced by his dedication to high empirical ideals to recommend "extended GVP" (grammar, vocabulary, and

pronunciation) teaching—that is, teaching, mainly based on grammar with extensions into sociolinguistics when conditions justify it. As for teaching deviance in the FLS, the teacher is cautioned to be extremely careful due to the "enormous relativity of what is labelled deviant or not." Nothing is mentioned on how one might correct deviant behavior most effectively.

It is true that in the end we are left with really very little as far as dramatic new approaches to sociolinguistic-based teaching is concerned. In a sense, the book grinds to a halt due to the author's own high ideals. He pursues to its logical end the dilemma of trying to attach scientific stability to human individuality.

Though one may not like the book's conclusion, it is nonetheless interesting to see how the author arrives at it. Janicki realizes that some may consider his conclusion a shortcoming. "Some readers may become disillusioned in that they expected from SDFLS analysis more pedagogical guidance than it appears to be able to offer. We think, however, that this disappointment is not justified" (p.80). And indeed it is not. I would certainly recommend this book to anyone interested in the numerous pitfalls of sociolinguistic research, in sociolinguistically-based teaching, or in both. The book, despite being openly theoretical, is not difficult to read. An unhealthy amount of printing and editing errors may make one suspect the seriousness of the work. It is a serious work, however, and may be especially helpful to those teachers interested in expanding their knowledge and their teaching base into the relatively new realm of sociolinguistics.

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Announcements

2nd JERUSALEM TEFL-TESOL. July 12-14, 1988; Jerusalem, Israel. For further information, please contact: English Teachers' Association of Jerusalem, P.O. Box 7663, Jerusalem 91076, Israel.

13th JALT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING. November 21-23, 1987; Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. The conference will feature over 200 presentations dealing with all aspects of language teaching and learning in a foreign language setting. This year's conference will feature an expanded Job Information Center to serve the needs the 1,500 expected participants. For further information, please contact: JALT Central Office, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Building, 8F, Shijo Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600, Japan.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE IN SPECIAL EDUCATION. May 17-20, 1989; University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. For further information, please contact: Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education, Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia, 2125 Main Mall, Vancouver, BC, Canada V6T 1Z5.

11th UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN CONFERENCE ON APPLIED LINGUISTICS. October 9-11, 1987; University of Michigan, Michigan, USA. The theme for this year's conference is "Variation in Second Language Acquisition." For further information, please contact: Conference Coordinators, English Language Instutute, University of Michigan, Ann Arbour, MI 48109, USA.

Call for Papers: **THE TEACHER TRAINER.** *The Teacher Trainer* is now accepting articles which contribute to the field of teacher training. All inquiries and submissions should be addressed to Tessa Woodward, Editor, *The Teacher Trainer,* c/o 8 Vernon Place, Canterbury, England.

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Call for Papers: **MITESOL NEWSLETTER.** The *MITESOL Newsletter* is now accepting articles which contribute to the field of foreign and second language teaching and learning in both 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, USA.

Call for Papers: **13th JALT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING'** November 21-23, 1987; Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. Proposals for papers, demonstrations, workshops, or colloquia relevant to the conference theme are welcomed. The deadline for proposal consideration is July 1, 1987. For further information, please contact: JALT Central Office, c/o Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Building, 8F, Shijo Karasuma Nishi-iru, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600, Japan.

The American Language Institute of the School of Continuing Education of New York University and Language Innovations, Incorporated (LINC), are pleased to announce the inauguration of the annual **FRED W. MALKEMES PRIZE.** The prize of $1000 will be awarded for an article in English published in the two years preceding the submission deadline. Articles on any topic which make a contribution to our knowledge of teaching and classroom practice will be welcome. Special consideration will be given to articles which explore topics of interest to Fred Malkemes, such as helping adults develop listening, speaking, and conversational skills; the application of the principles of Sector Analysis to classroom practice; teaching English in Puerto Rico and Kenya; materials development for beginning ESL students; adult literacy;

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Joseph F. Buschini and Richard R. Reynolds
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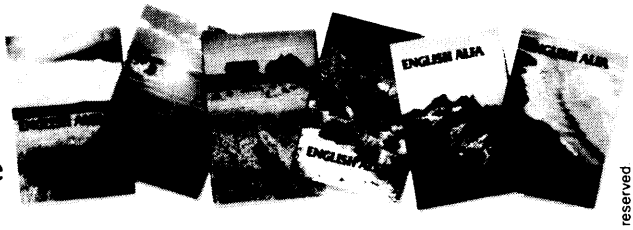

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