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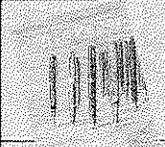
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# THE JALT JOURNAL

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The Journal of the Japan Association of Language Teachers

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## IN THIS ISSUE

For every reader who wishes we would include more practice-centered articles in each issue, there is another reader supporting inclusion of more academic or theoretical papers. This issue, with contributions on error analysis, test evaluation, international communication, writing research, and classroom technique, reflects also a range of interests in those who have submitted their work to be read.

\*William Bryant pursues an illuminating discussion of interlingual errors made by Japanese students of English. Based on data from 200 essays, his analysis highlights typical errors in morphology, syntax, semantics, and style and attempts to account for the occurrence of these errors.

\*Mary Heise investigates whether or not the Nelson-Denny Reading Test is an appropriate measure of foreign students' ability to compete with American students in the area of reading. She concludes from the results of an experimental study that this test should not be used as a factor in college admission nor as a predictive indicator for non-native speakers of English.

\*Teruyuki Kume reports on his study of the Nagoya and Seoul bids for the 1988 Olympics. He gives a detailed analysis of the events which comprised this salient example of international persuasion and communication.

\*Ho-Peng Lim starts with an overview of writing research in English as L1 and moves to an examination of ESL writing research. He emphasizes writing proficiency as a major prerequisite for university study and calls for more research in this area.

\*Masayo Yamamoto explores the possibility of sign language as a classroom technique for language teaching. She

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proposes this activity as one that may reduce dependence on the native language and enable the student to kinetically encode the new language.

\*In the *Reviews* section Graham Thurgood takes an insightful look at Earl Stevick's *Teaching and Learning Languages*.

We hope this May issue is a pleasant surprise in your mailbox.

Donna Brigman  
Patrick Buckheister

# TYPICAL ERRORS IN ENGLISH MADE BY JAPANESE ESL STUDENTS

William H. Bryant

## Abstract

There are several kinds of errors in English which Japanese ESL students often make: 1) interlingual (i.e., mother-tongue, or L1) errors; and 2) intralingual (or L2) errors, which are usually the result of misinterpretation and of syntact overgeneralization. While most errors committed are L2 errors, it is the L1 errors which most hinder communication. Based on a survey of L1 and L2 errors contained in some 200 English essays written by Japanese ESL students, the present study seeks to identify those English structures (morphological, syntactic, semantic, and stylistic) which present special difficulties for Japanese ESL students.

The grammatical errors which Japanese ESL students usually make in English are typically of several different kinds. Some of those errors are interlingual (i.e., mother-tongue, or L1) errors, the interference arising from an unconscious attempt to transfer to English certain native Japanese structures. Another major type of mistakes made by this group

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are intralingual (or L2) errors, which are often the result of misinterpretations, and of syntactic overgeneralization (with resultant grammatical simplification) of English grammar rules (Corder, 1967; Selinker, 1969; Richards, 1971a, 1971b). This type of L2 errors is to be distinguished from so-called developmental errors, which the ESL learner would normally make as a native-born, English-speaking child in the course of learning to speak his mother tongue.

While it may be true that the majority – or, at least, many – of the errors committed by ESL learners are L2 errors (Scott and Tucker, 1974), it is nevertheless also true that it is usually the L1 errors which do the most to hinder comprehension and clear communication, and which most confuse the native anglophone listener. This being the case, the primary focus of this paper will be on certain L1 errors frequently made by Japanese ESL students, with only a brief mention of several L2 errors commonly made.

Based upon an analysis of L1 and L2 errors found in some 200 English essays written over a three-year period by different groups of Japanese university students enrolled in our Intensive English summer program at Western Washington University, the present study deals with a broad range of morphological, syntactic, semantic, and stylistic errors made by these students, all of whom had previously studied English for a minimum of six years in Japanese schools. In presenting these findings, it is our aim to identify certain English structures which are, frequently, areas of particular difficulty for Japanese ESL students.

### I. Interlingual (L1) Errors

In this section are discussed certain mistakes made in English which would appear to be the result of, and directly traceable to, the intrusion of the mother tongue, Japanese.

## Typical Errors

Following convention, an asterisk (\*) indicates that a specimen sentence is ungrammatical. Corrections are written in superscript italics.

### A. Incorrect Omission of Definite and Indefinite Articles

- (1) \*"Everything is <sup>a</sup> symbol of life or <sup>a</sup> symbol of death. For example, <sup>the</sup> soldier(s), <sup>the</sup> sun and <sup>the</sup> cannon, <sup>the</sup> snake, <sup>the</sup> flower(s), <sup>the</sup> blood, <sup>the</sup> river, <sup>the</sup> spider, and everything else."

This type of mistake is frequently encountered, especially among Asian and Slavic students, many of whom speak languages in which definite and indefinite articles do not exist. In these languages, the noun stands alone, often being modified only by descriptive and/or limiting adjectives (i.e., possessive adjectives, relative adjectives, interrogative adjectives, demonstrative adjectives, and indefinite adjectives). This is not to say that nouns in English are always and necessarily preceded by definite or indefinite articles. They are not, as is well known. But in the example given above in sentence (1), both types of articles (definite and indefinite) are indeed required modifiers. The indefinite article *a* is used, in this case, to single out a quality, action, object, or individual from among a number of class of similar things. Thus, since there is more than one symbol of life, just as there is more than one symbol of death, the phrase \*"Everything is symbol of life or symbol of death" must be corrected to read: "Everything is *a* symbol of life or *a* symbol of death."

The anaphoric definite article *the*, which points back to a thing or person already mentioned, specifies, identifies, and individualizes the various things which serve as symbols of life and death in a film which the student had seen: *the* soldiers, *the* sun, *the* cannon, *the* snake, *the* flowers, *the* (man's) blood, *the* river, and *the* spider. Without these definite

and indefinite articles, sentence (1) would be not only grammatically incorrect in English, but also extremely vague and nonspecific, and thus not a adequate linguistic expression for the thought behind it.

**B. No Singular/Plural Differentiation**

(2) \*“(A) Few month(s) later . . .”

(3) \*“(I think *that* human being (s) must live fully.”

In sentence (2), it will be seen that the word *month* must be pluralized, that is, must bear the plural “s” since the preceding indefinite adjective *few* modifies only plural nouns in English. Similarly, the indefinite adjectives *some* and *several* also qualify only plural nouns. Sentence (3), on the other hand, presents several different problems. Not only is the subordinating conjunction *that* missing (it being usually necessary, in formal English prose, in order to introduce a subordinate clause), but also the subject of the subordinate clause, *human being*, may be used, with modifiers when necessary, in either the singular or in the plural, depending upon the intended meaning.

If the term *human being* is used in the singular, as in an aphorism, then it must be preceded by the indefinite article *a*. If, on the other hand, the term *human being* is used in the plural, then it will not be preceded by an indefinite article and must, at the same time, be made plural, i.e., *human beings*. Thus, it would be correct to write either of the following sentences:

(4) “I think that a human being must live fully.”

(5) “I think that human beings must live fully.”

## Typical Errors

### C. Incorrect Inflection of the Verb

- (6) \*"It seem(s) that this film show(s) the contrast between life and death."

In this incorrectly written sentence, the writer has failed to attach the proper inflection to the verbs *seem* and *show*. This error is probably due to the fact that the writer apparently temporarily forgot that, in contra-distinction to Japanese, which does not inflect the verb to show person and number, English does indeed do so. This is true especially in the third person singular of the present indicative, with its characteristic verb endings of *-s* and *-es*. Naturally, this does not apply to the modal auxiliaries (*may, might, can, could, shall, should, will, would, must, and ought*), which make no distinction at all between persons.

### D. Incorrect Verbal Aspect

- (7) \*"Each things in the film were showing the characteristics of the scene very well."
- (8) \*"I don't know his mind but I think that he is loving her."
- (9) \*"He is also playing ping-pong well."
- (10) \*"A person who is checking hearing aids and inspecting ears is an audiologist."

In these sentences, we have examples of some very common mistakes which Japanese ESL students frequently make in English. With regard to example (7), one can immediately see that, although the use of the past tense of the verb is

correct, in this instance the student has used the wrong form of the verb, having chosen the past progressive, rather than the past nonprogressive or simple past form. The problem here is to understand what it is, in the semantic context of this particular sentence, that requires the simple past tense of the verb rather than the past progressive form. Involved here of course, is the question of aspect, which is a verbal category which indicates whether the state or action denoted by the verb is viewed as being momentary and instantaneous, repetitive, or enduring, as being completed or as being in progress and, thus unfinished. Concerning the sentence in question, sentence (7), the main interest lies not in describing the actual duration of the activity, or its incomplete status, but rather in making a simple predication about what each thing in the film did; i.e., show the characteristics of the scenes. To state this fact, and also to indicate that what is important to know is that the activity in question was finished or completed and not in progress at the time of writing, the student should have used a simple past tense to convey his thoughts about the film. This should have been done in order to show that the student was viewing the activity reported as a punctual act, rather than as a durative act.

That the student did not use the simple past tense is understandable, however, if one considers this question from the point of view of Japanese syntax. As is well known, it is not at all uncommon to find such progressive-form structures in Japanese as *tabete iru* ("he is eating") or *hanashite iru* ("he is talking"). By the same token, it is not uncommon to find structures like *aishite iru* (\*"he is loving"), *shitte iru* (\*"he is knowing"), and *misete iru* (\*"he is showing"). As these examples demonstrate, Japanese extends the notion of progressive aspect into the semantic domain of verbs which indicate not only mental activity (e.g., *love*, *know*), but also sensation or perception (e.g., *see*, *hear*, *show*). As a rule, this extension is not possible in English unless the verbs are being

## Typical Errors

used as present participles (e.g., "Knowing the truth, he left without a word") or as gerunds (e.g., "Loving someone is a beautiful experience"). In Japanese, on the other hand, it is quite possible to use verbs in this way, and when native speakers of Japanese do so, they fully understand that what is being expressed is a progressive, enduring state of affairs, and that this is the progressive form of the verb which they are using to express their thoughts. In relation to this particular syntactic device, then, one may say that there is definitely not a one-to-one correspondence existing between Japanese and English, and that what is perceived as being aspectually progressive in one language may not be so perceived in another language.

This type of mistake being a fairly common one, the student, whether describing present or past events, should be especially mindful of this progressive/nonprogressive dichotomy, and of the precise aspectual meaning of each component of the dichotomy.

What is important for the ESL student to understand about English grammar is that the progressive form of the verb is required only in certain contexts, while the simple, or nonprogressive, form is required in others. These linguistic contexts are, for the most part, mutually exclusive. That is to say, the progressive and nonprogressive forms of the verb are, generally speaking, context-specific and do not normally co-occur. In particular, the progressive form of the verb is the only one usually employed to express habitual activity in a *limited* period of time, whereas the nonprogressive form is normally used to express habitual, iterative activity in an *unlimited* period of time.

Concerning sentences (8), (9), and (10), the basic problem again is one of aspect. That is to say, the progressive form of the verb, which indicates duration and, as was just mentioned, habitual activity in a limited period of time, has been incorrectly used in the sentences under discussion instead of

the nonprogressive form, the correct form. The nonprogressive present-tense form is the correct one for the simple reason that the activity referred to in each of these sentences is habitual, iterative activity in an unlimited, rather than a limited, period of time. In example (8), as we can see, there is no need of a progressive form of the verb *love* to indicate duration since a sense of duration is already implied by the lexical meaning of the word. Love is usually, by its nature, durative. The other problem with this sentence has to do with the wrong choice of idiom. In English, one may say "I don't know what's on his mind," or "I can't read his mind," but not \*"I don't know his mind." This is not to say that it has never been said, or that it cannot be said, but it would be an extremely rare occurrence in any dialect of English with which the author is familiar. In sentence (10), the subject of the sentence, *A person*, presumably engages in the activity mentioned on a daily basis, over an unlimited period of time. These same remarks may apply also to sentence (9), whose subject presumably plays table tennis or ping pong well, all of the time.

It may be useful, at this stage of our discussion, to restate the English verbs which are not commonly used in the progressive form. First, there are the verbs which indicate a state or condition: *belong, contain, consist, cost, deserve, have* (meaning "to own"), *mean, matter, own, please, and resemble*. Next, the verbs which denote mental activity: *believe, forget, know, like, love, need, prefer, remember, seem, understand, want, and wish*. Finally, the verbs which indicate sensation or perception: *hear, see*, and, when used intransitively, *feel, smell, and taste*. In spite of the foregoing, however, it will be remembered that all of these verbs may be used as gerunds or as present participles, as was mentioned above (p. 0).

## Typical Errors

### E. Incorrect Use of Impersonal "IT"

(11) "*Futari wa tagai ni shitashiku nari hajimeta.*"

(11.1) "*Futari wa tagai ni yujo o mochi hajimeta.*"

(11.2) \*"It began to have a friendship with each other."

When composing this incorrectly written sentence about friendship, the student writer may quite possibly have had sentence (11) or sentence (11.1) in mind. Following a not uncommon Japanese linguistic procedure, the student has dropped the putative subject in sentence (11.2), incorrectly replacing it with the so-called Impersonal "IT" to serve as the subject of the sentence. There are, in fact, many situations in which Impersonal "IT" would be perfectly appropriate as the subject of the clause but, in this instance, such is not the case. In English, semantically speaking, only human beings are, ordinarily, deemed to be capable of having friendship with others. Since Impersonal "IT" normally refers only to inanimate objects or to nonhuman animate objects, it cannot therefore be the subject of this particular sentence, which should read: "They began to have a friendship with each other," or, perhaps, "They became friends," or, even "They struck up a friendship with each other."

### F. Incorrect Omission of Locative Preposition

(12) \*"A few years ago, they travelled *to* Paris."

In the above sentence, as can be seen, the preposition *to* has been omitted, thus making ungrammatical the locative phrase *travelled to Paris*. In English, this particular preposition is regulated by the preceding directional verb *travel*,

and must occur between the verb and the place mentioned towards which the action is directed. In colloquial Japanese, of course, this omission of the locative particles *e* and *ni* is not only tolerated but seems to occur rather frequently. Thus, one could say: “*Tokyo ikimashita*” instead of the more formal “*Tokyo e ikimashita.*” It is strictly a matter of language and style, in Japanese, whereas in English it is a matter of grammaticality and correctness.

### G. Incorrect Subjective Complement

(13) \*“Frank’s part-time job is a newsboy.”

The main problem with this sentence is that it is not logical; it makes no sense, from a semantic point of view. The reason is that Frank’s job is not – and cannot be – a newsboy. Frank is the newsboy; not his job. The noun *newsboy* is what is called a “Predicative Appositive” by Curme (1947). According to this grammarian, a predicate appositive comments on the statement of which it is a part, or completes, explains, or modifies it, often being preceded by an *as*-phrase or an *as*-clause, both of which point to a following explanatory remark. Be that as it may, sentence (13) should properly read: “Frank has a part-time job as a newsboy,” or “Frank is a part-time newsboy.” There really are no other ways to say it correctly, and still use the word *newsboy* in the predicate.

### H. Unnecessary Emphasis

(14) \*“Eyes can say a person’s mind. I believe it.”

In this example, there are two problems to be considered. The first problem has to do with the verb *say*, which requires a human subject. It would be much better English to use the verb *reflect*, rather than *say*, when the subject of the verb is

## Typical Errors

*eye* or *eyes*. This is simply a matter of English usage. Although eyes are part of a human body, they are not the whole, thinking person who can *say* something and, thus, they cannot therefore be the subject of the verb *say*.

The main stylistic mistake in sentence (14), however, lies in the second sentence: "I believe it." In Japanese, it would be perfectly proper and natural to say this (*So, shinji masu*), in order to emphasize the preceding proposition; i.e., that eyes can reflect a person's mind. In English, however, it adds a jarring note of unexpected and unwarranted emphasis. It would be much more natural in English to say something like: "I believe that eyes can reflect a person's mind." Since this type of stylistic error sounds so strange in English, it would be better for the student to avoid it completely. To be sure, English contains linguistic and stylistic devices to express emphasis, but this is definitely not one of them.

### I. Unidiomatic Reversal of Negative Clause

(15) \*"I thought he couldn't live."

(16) \*"I think that humans must not kill other humans."

In sentences (15) and (16) there is nothing that is really incorrect, from a grammatical point of view, but they are, nevertheless, very strange-sounding to the native speaker of English. This is so because of a reversal of the negation clause. In English, generally speaking, native speakers of English usually prefer to negate the verb of the main clause (in this case, *think*), thus allowing the subordinate clause to express a positive or affirmative, rather than a negative, predication. Thus, the sentence "I didn't think that he could live" is preferable to the sentence "I thought he couldn't live." Similarly, the sentence "I don't think that humans should

kill other humans" is preferable to the sentence "I think that humans must not kill other humans." In Japanese, on the other hand, the situation is just the reverse. Stylistically, it would be preferable in Japanese to say "*Ikanai to omoimasu*" than to say "*Iku to omoimasen.*" Just as in English, both types of sentences are possible in Japanese also, but the one type is much more popular than the other. The exact reason for this particular English stylistic and semantic preference is unclear, at the present time, and awaits clarification through further research in this area.

#### J. Misplacement of "I think" Judgmental Clause

- (17) \*"The equality for women is <sup>a</sup> good thing, I think."

Again, we have a problem concerning the expression *I think*, of *to omoimasu*, and again we have a problem concerning misplacement of a clause. In Japanese, of course, placing *to omoimasu* at the end of the sentence is the correct grammatical thing to do. But in English, placing the expression *I think* at the end of the sentence, in apposition as shown in example (17), has the effect of weakening the validity of the whole predication. In English, it is certainly possible to have this expression in apposition, as shown in the example above, but having it in this particular position implies that the speaker has grave doubts about the assertion which he has just made. Thus, positioning *I think* at the end of the sentence is a practice to be avoided, unless the student, for some reason, purposely wishes to weaken the impact of his statement. Otherwise, the sentence should read: "I think that equality for women is a good thing," with the expression *I think* as the main clause and first element of the sentence. This makes for a much more positive assertion.

## Typical Errors

### II. Intralingual (L2) Errors

In this final section are included several grammatical mistakes from the essays which are more the result of confusion within English itself (i.e., misinterpretation or overgeneralization, with resultant simplification), than the consequence of language transfer, or interlingual interference.

#### A. Incorrect Verb Tense

(18) \*"She wondered what her boyfriend wants."

(19) \*"If I was in the same situation as Phoebe, I *would* tell someone about it."

(20) \*"If she *had* had such friends, she didn't need to be troubled."

(21) \*"I have stayed with the Jones family from July 25th to August 2nd."

In this section, we shall discuss several common mistakes in verb tense which students often make. First, in sentence (18), we note that the verb of the main clause, *wondered*, is in the past tense, whereas the verb in the subordinate clause, *wants*, is in the present tense. If the situation described by the action were universally true, or were a habitual one, then *wants* would probably be the correct form of the verb to use. However, since this is not the case, a different tense must be employed; namely, the past tense, in this case. This is so because in English, generally speaking, the verb in the subordinate clause usually agrees in tense with the principal verb of the main clause, especially if it is simultaneous action that is to be expressed. Naturally, if anterior action is what is to

be expressed, then the subordinate-clause verb must express action happening prior to that expressed by the principal verb of the main clause. This is called "the sequence of tenses." More precisely:

(22) "She *says* that her father *is* ill."  
(PRESENT) (PRESENT)

(23) "She *said* that her father *was* ill."  
(PAST) (PAST)

(24) "She *said* that her father *had been* ill."  
(PAST) (PLUPERFECT)

Thus, as we can see, sentence (22) expresses present simultaneity; sentence (23), past simultaneity; and sentence (24), past anteriority. That is to say, the girl's father had been ill before she spoke of it.

The second common mistake that Japanese ESL students often make has to do with expressing unreal, nonexistent, or contrary-to-fact events, facts, or situations, as exemplified in sentences (19) and (20). To express a present unreal situation in English, the verb in the "IF," or "Condition," clause is regularly put into the past tense, while the verb of the main clause, or "Result" clause, is put into the conditional tense. Thus:

(25) "If I *had* enough money, I *would travel* around the  
(PAST) (CONDITIONAL)  
world."

Of course, the two clauses could exchange places if one so wished, so that the same sentence would read:

## Typical Errors

- (26) “I *would travel* around the world if I *had* enough  
(CONDITIONAL) (PAST)  
money.”

Except for emphasis, in which the first element may be seen as being somewhat more important than the second element, there is no appreciable difference in meaning of these two sentences. It will be noted that the only formal difference is one of punctuation, the comma disappearing when the “Condition” clause comes last in the sentence. The verb tenses remain as they are, with no change of relative position in the inverted sentence.

Similarly, to express a past unreal, nonexistent, or contrary-to-fact situation in English, the verb in the “IF,” or “Condition,” clause is put into the pluperfect, or past perfect tense. Thus:

- (27) “If I *had had* enough money, I *would have travelled*  
(PLUPERFECT) (CONDITIONAL PERFECT)  
around the world.”

Some grammarians have called this the “tense of regret,” for it frequently does, indeed, express regret that a certain action, event, or situation did not take place, or that one had not followed a certain course of action. As in sentences (25) and (26), the two clauses in sentence (27) may exchange places without any essential loss of meaning. It will also be noted that, in sentence (20) above, the verb phrase in the main clause (*wouldn't have been troubled*) is in the passive, rather than the active, voice, the verbal adjective *troubled* describing a state of being, the result of prior action.

Concerning sentence (21), the problem is one of time relations. The student-author, using the present perfect tense of the verb *stay*, wrote “have stayed,” instead of “stayed,” which is the past tense of *stay* and which is the proper form of

the verb to use in this particular sentence. This problem could have been avoided had the writer but realized that such adverbial phrases as *last month* or *yesterday*, or the one in question, *from July 25th to August 2nd*, regularly occur with past (perfect) tense verb forms only, and never with the present perfect tense, which is not used with adverbials indicating purely past time (Palmer, 1974).

Summing up, it is essential that the ESL student, when using English verbs in a complex sentence, pay close attention to: 1) the sequence of tenses of the verbs; and 2) the reality or the unreality of the predication as it is expressed in the sentence.

#### B. Incorrect Use of the "S-Genitive"

(28) \*"If she tells her school's teacher . . ."

(29) \*"I think that the boy lived in his imagination's world."

Generally speaking, present-day English restricts the "S-genitive" to animate objects, living things, whereas the "OF-genitive," the usual form used with lifeless things and objects, may also be used with living things, as well. Thus, while we may say either "that boy's family" or "the family of that boy," we most often, in so-called Choice English, say "the wings of the airplane," rather than "the airplane's wings." It goes without saying that this rule does not always hold true in general, colloquial English. To be sure, there are exceptions to this living-versus-lifeless rule. Such phrases as *for safety's sake*, *the plane's passengers*, and *the yacht's crew* are common enough. Furthermore, there are survivals of older usage in the so-called genitive of measure; e.g., *a day's journey*, *a stone's throw*, *a dollar's worth*, *a minute's notice*, an

## Typical Errors

*hour's delay*, and so forth. Finally, there are certain metaphorical expressions in which the idea of life is pictured in a figurative sense; e.g., *at death's door*, *the ocean's roar*, etc. Notwithstanding these exceptions, however, the general rule that says that the "S-genitive" is restricted to living things still stands, and the non-native speaker of English would be well-advised to follow it.

Thus ends our survey of various mistakes in English grammar which Japanese ESL students frequently make. While the present sample does not, obviously, contain all of the errors discovered in the corpus, it is hoped that those presented and discussed herein are representative, and that their having been highlighted will ultimately be of use to ESL teachers and writers of ESL materials alike.

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## THE NELSON-DENNY READING TEST: FAIR MEASURE FOR NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS?

Mary Heise

### Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine whether reading test intended for native speakers of English can be used to determine the reading proficiencies of non-native speakers of English. The test was administered to groups of both native English-speaking and Japanese freshmen at Creighton University in Omaha, Nebraska, U.S.A. This article includes a description and critical analysis of the test and a statistical analysis of the test results for each of the two groups of students. The conclusion is that the test is inappropriate for use with non-native speakers of English, and that the test should not be used as a predictor of academic success or as an admissions criterion for non-native English-speaking applicants to North American universities.

The purposes of this study are to determine whether or not the norm-referenced *Nelson-Denny Reading Test* (NDRT) can be used as a criterion in determining a foreign student's readiness to compete with American students in the skill area

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of reading at an American university, and to compare the relative performance of this select group of non-native English-speaking freshman students with a typical group of American freshman students.

The sample groups in the study are quite small. Nevertheless, a statistical analysis of the test results has been prepared. This analysis includes means, ranges, medians, standard deviations, item difficulty and item discrimination indexes, reliability quotients and correlations with the *Test of English as a Foreign Language* (TOEFL).

The NDRT is intended to serve predictive, screening, and broadly diagnostic purposes. The test provides measures of vocabulary, comprehension and rate for students in grades 9-15+.

The vocabulary subtest of 100 multiple-choice items has a time limit of ten minutes. Most of the items are presented in isolation, although a few have minimal context. The words are presented as an incomplete definition which the student is asked to complete by choosing the correct option. Fifty of the items are prefixed; 50 are non-prefixed.

The comprehension and rate subtest consists of eight passages with 36 multiple-choice questions. The time limit is 20 minutes. The questions require the students to find details, draw conclusions, make generalizations, recognize relationships, styles and moods, as well as to determine the writer's purpose and the main idea. The readings and the questions deal equally with subject areas within the humanities, natural and social sciences. Reading rate is tested by asking the students to mark the number of words they read during the first minute of the reading comprehension subject.

Four forms of the NDRT are available. Forms A and B were published in 1960; forms C and D in 1973. The authors state that the four forms reflect slightly different emphases of subject matter and levels of difficulty; therefore, they should provide greater opportunity for users in selecting the

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most appropriate form for a given situation. However, no guidelines are provided for selecting the best form (Buros, 1978: 1207).

The norms for the NDRT, Forms C and D, were established following testing in 1972. The reliability of comparing the scores of a sample group in 1980 to these norms is questionable. The norms include percentile ranks and grade equivalents. The test manual contains a thorough description of norms for grades 9 through 12. However, the data supplied for grades 13 through 16 was based on a significantly smaller test population. The make-up of this last sample group is unusual for a test which reports norms for grades 6 through 15+, as the sample group included college students of all levels as well as graduates and faculty.

### Method

The NDRT, Forms C and D, was administered to two sample groups. The first group consisted of 24 Japanese students who had begun their freshman year at Creighton University in August 1980. Form C was completed by 14 students; Form D by 10. The test was administered to this group on July 14, 1980 on a volunteer basis. There was a range in the English language abilities of these students as evidenced by their TOEFL scores. The TOEFL scores of these students as of May 1, 1980 ranged from 430 to 557.

The second test group consisted of 31 American college freshmen. Form C was completed by 16 students; Form D by 15. The two testing dates for this group were September 10, 1980 and September 30, 1980. These students had also begun their freshman year at Creighton University in August 1980. Three of these students had been placed in a remedial reading course during their first semester of college as a result of their American College Testing Program (ACT) scores and/or their

high school records. According to their ACT scores, the academic abilities of these students as reported by this particular measure (ACT) ranged from low to extremely high.

## Results and Discussion

### Mean, Range, Median and Standard Deviation

All scores were computed on the scale provided for grade 13 in the examiner's manual. A close observation of the data for the vocabulary subtest reveals that both the percentile ranks and the grade equivalent scores are substantially lower for the Japanese than for the American students (see Appendix B). The medians in the case of each form are equally if not more indicative than the means. The range of the Japanese students' percentile ranks is narrow compared to that of the American students.

An observation of the data for the comprehension subtest (Appendix B) shows an even sharper discrepancy between the two groups. In general the comprehension scores are much lower for the Japanese students. In Form D the ranges of the comprehension scores for the two groups are quite close. However, in Form C there is a startling difference at the higher end of the range of the percentile ranks (28 for the Japanese; 96 for the Americans).

The total scores (total = vocabulary + comprehension scores, Appendix B) confirm the results discussed for the two subtests, i.e., the generally lower scores of the Japanese students, which are much narrower in the percentile ranks than in the grade equivalents.

Statistics for reading rate were not included in the reported data because a significant number of students neglected to report their rates. Moreover, the norm data in the manual was not complete enough to allow for sufficient interpreta-

## The Nelson-Denny Reading Test

tion of the reported scores as a group. However, a glance at the reported scores reveals that there is a wide range in the scores of both groups, with the scores of the Japanese being generally lower.

### Reliability

The reliability of the test according to the examiner's manual varies according to the subtests. The vocabulary subtest is reported to be the most reliable, and the reliability of the comprehension and rate subtests are low. The intercorrelations of the subtests are high (Buros, 1978: 1209). According to one authority on reading and reading tests, subtests are often too short to have adequate reliability (Farr, 1969: 64). This could be true in this case.

The reliability quotients for the two test groups in question were calculated according to the Kuder-Richardson formula. The results are in Table 1 (Appendix A).

In most cases (the exception being the vocabulary subtest for the Japanese students), the reliability of Form D is better for both groups. For the American group the reliability of Form D is quite good.

The reliability of the measure of reading rate was not obtained. The reliability and face validity appear to be low for three reasons. First, rate should be tested over a period of at least three minutes, with five minutes being preferable (Farr, 1970: 223). The second reason is that under normal circumstances most readers experience a slack in their speed. Readers are in effect being told to read fast during a test of reading rate, and therefore their speed will often increase by as much as 40 percent (Farr, 1969: 50). The third reason is that there is no one reading rate for an individual. The various reading rates of an individual vary according to the nature of the material as well as according to the purpose of the reader (Farr, 1970: 222).

Caution must be used when using the NDRT for diagnostic purposes because of the questionable reliability of many of the subtests. It is especially presumtuous to make any diagnosis with reference to a student's reading rate based on the one-minute sample in the NDRT.

### **Item Difficulty and Discrimination**

According to more than one source, the level of material presented in the NDRT is quite difficult (Pumfrey, 1976: 126). For example, if one accepts the widely-accepted criterion which states that a test will discriminate among a test population in which half of the items are answered correctly, one would have to go up to the grade-16 level before this is true of the population described in the examiner's manual (Buros, 1978: 1210).

Presented in Table 2 (Appendix A) are the item discrimination data for both groups. Provided for each subtest are the percentages of test items with a satisfactory item discrimination index of  $+0.30$  or above. The information was obtained by using the upper and lower 25 percent tests of each group (Forms C and D combined) according to their raw total scores.

There is little beneficial information which can be gained from this data other than the fact that Form D discriminates better than Form C for both groups.

The item difficulty information is presented in Table 3 (Appendix A) as percentages of excessively easy items (over 90 percent correct) and excessively difficult items (under 30 percent) in each subtest.

The high percentage of difficult items on the vocabulary subtests for both groups are in large part due to the time limit. The total number of items out of the 100 present in the vocabulary subtest completed by all members of the group ranged from 34 for the American students on Form D to 48 for the Japanese students on Form D.

## The Nelson-Denny Reading Test

In summary, both tests were significantly more difficult for the Japanese students. The time pressure did not appear to be the only factor, as a significant number of errors were made on the questions which were answered by all the students. Each subtest is discussed below together with some possible reasons for its apparent difficulty.

One major factor contributing to the difficulty of the vocabulary subtest is its time limit. Students have only ten minutes to answer 100 items. A strict time limit may increase random guessing which in turn affects the test reliability. No data relating to the effect of the time limit is supplied in the manual. Strict time limits reduce the test's validity as a measure of vocabulary. When both speed and vocabulary are tested together, what is actually being measured is some unknown combination of these two skills (Farr, 1969: 35).

The test manual refers to a study by Holmes and Singer which has been widely criticized in part because of its inappropriate interpretation of the reading process. The manual refers to three factors which influence vocabulary according to this study: vocabulary in context, vocabulary in isolation, and prefixes. The manual advises that since one factor (prefixes) could be related to the NDRT items, such information should be used for diagnosis (Buros, 1978: 1210). The information provided in the manual, namely which items are with or without prefixes, is of no value in this study. No pattern developed among the answers of either group.

For the most part the vocabulary items are presented without context. In a few cases there is minimal context. As the test is one of reading, and a reader relies heavily on semantic and syntactic clues to determine word meanings, the validity of asking students taking a reading test to define words largely out of context is questionable.

Assessing a student's performance in reading comprehension on the basis of the Nelson-Denny reading comprehension subtest is a complex matter. Some factors affecting scores

in many reading comprehension tests are time limits, interest, the subject matter, the level of the material, organizational patterns, structural language patterns, the reader's purpose, the reader's command of basic decoding skills, the level(s) of questioning used, whether the examinees are allowed to refer back to the selection, and scheduled or unscheduled interruptions during the test (Farr, 1969: 52ff.). Those factors which apply are discussed below.

The time limit is quite strict for this subtest as well. Twenty minutes are allowed for the reading of eight passages of varying length and difficulty and for the answering of 36 questions. Most students in both groups did not complete this particular subtest. The students were allowed to refer back to the selections when answering the questions.

The reading levels of the passages were checked with the Fry Readability Graph (West, 1978: 31). The results should be viewed as approximations, because of the reliability of not only the Fry Graph but of any readability formula and because most of the selections are too short to obtain the suggested number of three samples for the use of the Fry Graph. For Form C the readability estimates range from grade levels 10.0 to 17.0+ with an average of 12.5. For Form D the passages range in difficulty from 7.0 to 17.0+ with an average of 10.8. These figures represent a wide range of levels. A discrepancy in the difficulty of the two forms may or may not be present, depending on the accuracy of the graph and the possible altering of the results due to the short length of the selections.

The manual provides information regarding the authors' alternative to the traditional levels of questioning. They include only the literal and interpretive levels in the above category, while evaluations are considered with details and writer's purpose in a category devised according to the levels of abstraction presented by the questions. For the purposes of this study, concentration was given chiefly to the literal,

## The Nelson-Denny Reading Test

evaluative and interpretive levels of questioning. The method employed to determine "easy" and "difficult" questions is that method described in the section of the study concerned with "Item Difficulty and Discrimination." On Form C, all of the easy questions (6/6) for the American group fall into the literal category. Most (5/6) of the difficult questions are at the interpretive or evaluative level. On Form D for the same group the one easy question is literal, while the one difficult question is interpretive. On Form C for the Japanese group there are no easy questions, while approximately two-thirds (13/18) of the difficult questions are at the interpretive or evaluative levels. Note that a significant number (5/18) are, however, at the literal level. On Form D, there is both one easy and one difficult question for the Japanese at the literal level, while most (15/16) of the difficult questions are at the interpretive or evaluative level. On both forms and for both groups time was evidently a distinct factor in the above results. Many of the difficult questions are often clustered in the last half of the 36 questions. In spite of this factor, the results described above indicate that, in general, even literal questions are not easy for the Japanese, while they constitute about 50 percent of the easy questions for the Americans. Most of the difficult questions for both groups are at the interpretive or evaluative levels, but there are many more difficult questions for the Japanese than for the Americans.

The comprehension questions are divided into subject areas (humanities, natural sciences, social sciences) in the manual. On Form C, four out of six of the easy questions were in the natural sciences for the American group. There was not a sufficient number of easy questions for this group on Form D to make a similar assessment. On both forms for the American group, a significant number of questions was answered correctly by a majority of the students (88 percent); however, no pattern emerges which points to any one or two subject areas as strong points for this group. On Form C for

the Japanese students there were no easy questions. The difficult questions are distributed in the following manner: out of a possible total of 18, 2 are in the natural sciences, 6 are in the humanities, and 10 are in the social sciences. The expected pattern above does not, however, hold true for Form D. The one easy question for the Japanese is in the humanities. The distribution of the difficult questions is as follows: out of a total 16, 7 are in the natural sciences, 3 are in the humanities, and 6 are in the social sciences. Therefore, for this select group of Japanese, subject area does not appear to have played a role in item difficulty.

There are factors related to the general effectiveness and validity of the standard type of reading comprehension tests (tests which include a reading passage and questions). One such factor is passage independence, that is, when questions can be answered without reading the text. In one study it was found that inferential questions are more passage independent than literal factual questions (Duffelmeyer, 1980: 131-33).

Prior knowledge and guessing are influencing factors. According to Farr, a comprehension score of 55 percent (this figure as meant merely as an example, not as a point of reference) without reading the selection would not be unusual due to these combined factors (Farr, 1969: 46).

Passage dependence, that is, matching the possible answers to phrases in the reading passages, is another factor. In a recent study 8 items from the Nelson-Denny test were used. The "stem" or opening phrase of each question was removed. The appropriate reading passages and only the four possible answers to each of the 8 questions were given to 27 graduate students. The students were instructed to select the correct answers by selecting those answers which included words that also appear in the passage or by selecting the one with words mentioned most frequently in the passage. The mean score for this group was 6.7 out of 8. Upon analyzing the test

## The Nelson-Denny Reading Test

items, it was found that even a slight change of word form increased the difficulty of word matching and counting. For example, if "pursuit of perfection" in the passage was changed to "pursued perfection" in the answer choice, some students were confused. The point of this study was that in tests of reading comprehension there are two alternative possibilities: words from the passage should be used in every answer choice, or the answer choices should be entirely reworded (Pyrczak, 1980: 162).

In view of the factors mentioned above, it is questionable whether such reading comprehension tests provide an accurate measure of achievement or proficiency.

The recording of the students' reading rates after the first minute of the reading comprehension test is a critical interruption. The interruption is not worthwhile for a number of reasons, some of which were discussed previously in this article. Another major difficulty with such a measure is that speed is not important unless at least a minimal level of comprehension is maintained (Farr, 1969: 45f.). One problem with the NDRT is that rate and comprehension are measured independently of each other.

### Correlations

Correlation figures for the NDRT and the *Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test* (PSAT) and the *Scholastic Aptitude Test* (SAT) were quite high according to the examiner's manual (Brown, 1976: 30). Most of the students who participated in this study took the academic tests offered by the American College Testing Program (ACT). There are no tests offered by this program which are solely devoted to reading comprehension or vocabulary knowledge. The tests which do not include reading comprehension have, in addition, general background questions. Therefore, correlations with the ACT are not included in this study.

Twenty-one of the Japanese students who participated in this study also took the TOEFL examination on May 1, 1980. The TOEFL includes subtests in reading, structure and listening comprehension. As the skills measured by the TOEFL are diverse, a correlation was not made between the Nelson-Denny reading subtests and the TOEFL total. However, the correlations presented in Table 4 (Appendix A) were made. There is little correlation between the two tests.

The evidence in the NDRT's examiner's manual presents weak evidence of predictive validity. The scores are related to scores in several college courses as well as overall grade point averages (Buros; 1978: 1209). No attempt was made to correlate the NDRT with grade point averages of the students in this study, as none of the students had completed a full semester of at least 12 credit hours at the time this study was completed.

### Conclusion

In spite of the small size of the two test groups, the following conclusion can be drawn. As any standardized test of reading comprehension and vocabulary, the NDRT has severe limitations, especially for an audience for which it was not originally intended. These limitations, some of which are the time limit, difficulty, guess factor, etc., seriously affect the validity of the test results. Therefore, the test should not be used as a factor in college admission or as a predictive device for a group of non-native English speakers.

The study does indicate statistically that a group of non-native speakers does experience, for the most part, a tremendous amount of difficulty in competing with native English-speaking American college students in situations comparable to a standardized test of reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, their deficiencies in reading will adversely affect their performance in tests, especially when a severe time limit is imposed.

# The Nelson-Denny Reading Test

## Appendix A

### TABLE 1 – RELIABILITY

	Form C			Form D		
	Voc.	Comp.	Total	Voc.	Comp.	Total
Americans	.77	.75	.79	.93	.93	.96
Japanese	.58	.73	.59	.52	.84	.84

### TABLE 2 – ITEM DISCRIMINATION

	Form C		Form D	
	Voc. (100 items)	Comp. (36 items)	Voc. (100 items)	Comp. (36 items)
Americans	26%	28%	57%	72%
Japanese	34%	11%	42%	63%

### TABLE 3 – ITEM DIFFICULTY

	Form C		Form D	
	Voc. (100 items)	Comp. (36 items)	Voc. (100 items)	Comp. (36 items)
<b>Easy Items</b>				
Americans	9%	36%	3%	3%
Japanese	0%	0%	0%	3%
<b>Difficult Items</b>				
Americans	49%	17%	41%	3%
Japanese	85%	50%	69%	44%

### TABLE 4 – CORRELATIONS WITH TOEFL

	TOEFL Reading Subtest	TOEFL Total
Nelson-Denny Reading Subtest	.21	—
Nelson-Denny Total	.39	.45

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## Appendix B

Following is the raw score data for the vocabulary and reading comprehension subtests and the total scores for both test groups.

FORM C		Voc.	Comp.	Total (Voc. + Comp.)
Mean	American	54	45	50
	Japanese	15	12	11
Range	American	28-93	8-96	17-90
	Japanese	1-46	0-28	1-27
Median	American	43	41	41
	Japanese	12	8	10
Standard Deviation	American	19.7	23.3	22.3
	Japanese	11.6	9.0	7.5

FORM D		Voc.	Comp.	Total (Voc. + Comp.)
Mean	American	68	57	62
	Japanese	12	14	11
Range	American	19-99	1-99	1-99
	Japanese	2-35	2-83	1-57
Median	American	77	72	79
	Japanese	7	4	6
Standard Deviation	American	27.2	35.9	35.5
	Japanese	10.0	23.4	15.8

FORMS C and D		Voc.	Comp.	Total (Voc. + Comp.)
Mean	American	61	45	55
	Japanese	13	13	11
Range	American	19-99	1-99	1-99
	Japanese	1-46	0-83	1-57
Median	American	57	43	52
	Japanese	10	8	7
Standard Deviation	American	24.5	26.7	27.6
	Japanese	10.7	10.7	11.7

## The Nelson-Denny Reading Test

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**A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF  
THE INVITATIONAL SPEECHES AT BADEN-BADEN  
BY NAGOYA AND SEOUL FOR  
THE 1988 INTERNATIONAL OLYMPICS  
— A Case Study in International Persuasion —**

Teruyuki Kume

Abstract

On September 30, 1981, the International Olympic Committee announced in Baden-Baden their decision to award the 1988 Summer Olympics to Seoul. Those who were involved in the invitational activities for the Nagoya Olympics as well as the people throughout Japan were taken by surprise at the news of the landslide defeat of Nagoya, because the majority of them were convinced of Nagoya's victory until the last moment.

In order to explore the reasons why this stunning result was brought about, the author develops the context and surrounding circumstances which preceded the delivery of the invitational speeches. The author then speculates that those invitational speeches made by both Nagoya and Seoul's representatives on September 29 played a significant

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part in influencing the voters – 79 IOC members.

This is a conspicuous example of international communication and persuasion which the author analyzes by applying Kenneth Anderson's (1978) framework, breaking persuasion into (1) attention, (2) comprehension, and (3) acceptance. A detailed rhetorical analysis of the invitational speeches by four speakers is made. The analysis shows that Seoul's presentations were more effective in persuading the audience by skillfully dramatizing the event and meeting the expectations of the audience that were internationally represented.

The author finally examines possible relationships between this international communication event and English education in Japan.

### Introduction

In spite of a sizable amount of money and manpower mobilized for over four years in her efforts to secure the invitation, Nagoya failed to realise her dream of becoming the host city for the 1988 Summer Olympic Games. The outcome of voting at the International Olympic Committee (IOC) General Meeting in Baden-Baden on September 30, 1981 resulted in a landslide victory for Seoul with a clear vote of 52 to 27, and surprised the majority of the Japanese.<sup>1</sup> The Japanese press had consistently been reporting that Nagoya would, after all, be selected, even though by a slight margin. The enormous power of the press to influence its readership might have intensified the degree of shock on the part of the Japanese. As a matter of fact, however, even the delegates from Seoul could not predict such an overwhelming victory.<sup>2</sup>

Why, then, did such a dramatic shift take place? Why had the prediction by the press been completely reversed? And

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how did such a turn of events occur? While there are numerous factors involved that might have contributed to the outcome, I speculate that the invitational speeches made by Nagoya and Seoul the day before the voting played a significant role in shaping the minds of the voters, i.e., the 79 IOC members.

During the presentations, each candidate city no doubt concentrated her energy on obtaining the majority votes of the IOC members, who are cross-nationally represented and yet at the same time owe allegiance to the Olympic ideals. The delegates of both cities used mainly English as their means of communication to get their messages across to this international body. I believe, therefore, that an analysis of their invitational speeches will enable those involved in English education to shed some light on the nature and characteristics of international persuasion.

In this paper, I will first describe the background of the presentation, and then compare and contrast the rhetorical strategies employed by Nagoya and Seoul. Through this analysis, I will explore the crucial elements in international persuasion, and will suggest ways the Japanese style of communication in international settings can be improved. Finally, I will draw some implications from this analysis for English education in Japan.

### Background

#### International Campaign

On August 24, 1977, a press conference was held with Governor Nakaya of Aichi Prefecture where the city of Nagoya is located. He proposed that Nagoya be the host city to the 24th International Summer Olympic Games to be held in 1988. A very influential local newspaper reported this with a bold headline reading, "Nagoya to Invite '88 Interna-

tional Olympics.”<sup>3</sup> Mayor Motoyama of Nagoya was rather cautious about revealing his intension. He said, “What is necessary first of all is that both the national and local governments reach consensus. I myself would like to see how my fellow citizens of Nagoya would react to it.”<sup>4</sup>

Despite Mayor Motoyama’s humble statement, one can imagine that a considerable amount of *nemawashi* or ground work with at least several leaders of government, business and sports world must have been laid out by this time. The fact that Governor Nakaya had a press conference indicates that it was not purely his own idea any more.

It is quite conceivable that Governor Nakaya made such a proposal at this moment. Nagoya, a major city in the central part of Japan, with a population of over two million, had been lagging behind the other two major cities of Tokyo and Osaka in terms of “internationalization.” Tokyo, the capital of Japan, hosted the Olympic Games in 1964, the first Olympics ever held in Asia. This international event in Tokyo marked a milestone in the process of Japan’s postwar modernization. It was often said that after this event Japan was recognized as a full-fledged member of the international community. Six years later, Osaka hosted the Japan World Exposition 1970 (EXPO ’70), the first time it had ever been held in Asia. A total of 77 countries and other international organizations participated to make it the largest world exposition since the first one held in London in 1851.<sup>5</sup> Thus Osaka also became known to the world.

Sandwiched between Tokyo and Osaka geographically, Nagoya had not gained the benefit from holding such an internationally-recognized event. Under such circumstances, Governor Nakaya probably made his proposal to activate the regional industries and accelerate the development of Nagoya as an international city.

Let us briefly describe the selection process for the host city. In order to host the Olympic Games, a candidate city has

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to be chosen by the IOC. The host city has to guarantee that all the games are organized in such a way as to satisfy and meet the requirements of the IOC.<sup>6</sup> It is not enough for the city to meet the requirements fully; it also has to put up with the time-consuming selection process. First, the mayor of the host city approves her candidacy. Second, the candidacy needs to be approved by the National Olympic Committee (NOC). Third, it must be approved by the national government.<sup>7</sup> When this process is completed, the city sends her application to the IOC headquarters in Lausanne, Switzerland, by a given deadline. Next, the city must provide detailed answers by another due date to IOC's questionnaires that include (1) general questions, (2) questions from the International Sports Federation (ISF), and (3) questions on media coverage.<sup>8</sup> Finally, the decision is made at an IOC general meeting by secret ballot of the members. Before the final decision is made, each candidate city is given an opportunity to exhibit her display for about a week during the sessions of the IOC meeting and then to make her presentation for about an hour and a half, usually the day before the actual voting.<sup>9</sup>

It can be said from the explanation made so far that invitational activities by cities for Olympic Games somewhat resemble political election campaigns, particularly the U.S. presidential election, which can be divided into two distinct periods. The first period lasts until a candidate is nominated by the party convention. The second stage involves vigorous campaigning by each candidate throughout the country, until the day before election. Campaign speeches by the candidates greatly influence the potential voters. A T.V. debate between the two candidates is a good case in point. It can be speculated that in a similar way, the presentations given by cities play an important part in influencing the voters, in this case the IOC members. In the case of this rivalry between Nagoya and Seoul, the calm and peaceful city of Baden-Baden turned into the stage for this dramatic confrontation.

### Chronology of Nagoya and Seoul's Candidacy

Nagoya made the first move in attempting to host the 1988 Olympics. As was said earlier, Governor Nakaya of Aichi prefecture proposed in August, 1977 the idea of the '88 Nagoya Olympics. Nakaya disclosed his idea at this time, because the host city for the '84 Olympics would be finalized in October, 1977 and attention would be directed to the host cities of the '88 Olympics shortly after.<sup>10</sup> In fact, Sydney had already expressed her desire to be the host city. Also other cities such as Brussels, Algiers, Teheran and Melbourne announced their interests one after another in their bids for the '88 Olympics shortly after Nagoya's declaration.<sup>11</sup>

The year 1979 found Seoul also interested in making a bid.<sup>12</sup> The Republic of Korea had a plan for hosting the Asian Games during the 1980s and the Olympics during the 1990s. Some officials of both the government and national athletic association said, however, that "we are aiming at the next Olympics after Los Angeles. It is the most feasible year in view of the IOC's principle that Olympics should be held on every continent in turn."<sup>13</sup> Thus, the campaign for the '88 Olympics had become a very tough endeavor for all candidates, as there were many interested cities.

In the meantime, an IOC Council Meeting was held in Nagoya during the period from October 23 to 26 in 1979. Nagoya capitalized on this occasion to impress the IOC council members with Nagoya. The participants at the meeting made an inspection tour to the site of the main stadium and other sports facilities, in and around Nagoya.<sup>14</sup> Unfortunately, in Seoul on October 26, 1979, President Park of the Republic of Korea was assassinated, something which shocked the whole world.<sup>15</sup> Due to the political turmoil after this incident, very few invitational activities by Seoul was reported during this time period.

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On the international scene, U.S. President Carter warned the Soviet Union on January 6, 1980 of his intention of boycotting the Moscow Olympics unless the Soviet Union withdrew her troops from Afghanistan.<sup>16</sup> The Kremlin did not respond. President Carter lost no time in asking his allies to act in concert with the United States. Ultimately, Japan made the tough decision not to send any delegation to the Moscow Olympics held during the summer of 1980.<sup>17</sup>

In spite of the above, the campaign by Nagoya continued. On October 17, 1980, the Japanese government finally approved Nagoya's bid.<sup>18</sup> This approval, however, did not mean that the government would extend as much financial assistance as Nagoya needed. Compared with the Tokyo and Sapporo Olympics, the attitude the central government showed toward Nagoya was far from that of enthusiasm, reflecting the nation's financial difficulties and the world-wide recession.<sup>19</sup> By the deadline of November 30, 1980, Nagoya, Melbourne, and Athens submitted their applications to the IOC.<sup>20</sup> In addition, Seoul's delayed application, which arrived a few days after the deadline, was accepted by the IOC as "a delay in postal service."<sup>21</sup>

Of all the candidates, Melbourne was considered to be Nagoya's most powerful rival.<sup>22</sup> Melbourne held the Olympics in 1956 and hence had the facilities for most of the games available, and what's more, is well known all over the world. However, she suddenly gave up her bid on February 25, 1981, giving the Nagoya contingent much more hope of realizing their dream.<sup>23</sup> By the end of February, 1981, the due date for answers to IOC questionnaires, only Nagoya and Seoul had completed the submission of their answers. It was disclosed on March 3 that Athens had given up her bid, thus leaving only Nagoya and Seoul to compete.<sup>24</sup>

From this time until September, both Nagoya and Seoul actively campaigned for their bids, for example, by inviting

IOC and NOC members to their cities, and by sending their representatives to various countries to solicit the support of each IOC member.<sup>25</sup> Throughout this period, the Japanese press had been reporting that Nagoya was well ahead in the race.<sup>26</sup> The IOC Council Meeting held in Lausanne on April 9 decided that the ballot for the host cities of the '88 Olympics would be cast in the afternoon of September 30, during the IOC General Meeting to be held in Baden-Baden.<sup>27</sup> Both Nagoya and Seoul decided to send large delegations to Baden-Baden to make their final appeals for hosting the Games.<sup>28</sup>

### Campaign Activities at Baden-Baden

Reviewing how Nagoya and Seoul carried out their invitational campaigns, one is surprised to find sharp contrasts between the two. One sharp contrast was in the composition of the delegation. Another contrast was in the displays at the Exhibition Hall. A third one was in the manner the delegates behaved in Baden-Baden, especially in their approaches to IOC members.

As to the composition of the delegation, Nagoya's 47-member delegation was largely composed of old dignitaries from central and local government; whereas Seoul's approximately 30-member delegation was mainly composed of young diplomats, members of sports organizations and reporters well versed in English.<sup>29</sup> This sharp contrast may reflect the basic differences between the two cities in their criteria for selection of the delegates. In the case of Japan, the ability of speaking English was not considered so important as with the case of the Korean delegates. Looking at the differences in delegates from Seoul and Nagoya, it is also important to question what type of English speakers we intend to foster in Japan. Are we looking for persons who can speak English for propriety only, or do we want to develop the talent to exert

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a positive effect in communicating with non-Japanese?

The display was opened on September 22 at the Exhibition Hall. Japan's section looked simple and modest. The 48 panels featuring Nagoya were put up on the wall. In the center was a miniature of the main stadium. The hall was accentuated by 25 *Gifu Chochin* or paper lanterns made in Gifu, hanging from the ceiling, and by the alcove set up in one corner in which a scroll with "Nagoya" in Chinese characters, was hanging. The hall was on the whole simply made and looked spacious, designed to allow the smooth traffic of visitors.<sup>30</sup>

Seoul's display was a contrast to the simple, Oriental tone of Nagoya's. More than 200 panels featuring Seoul's sports and cultural facilities were displayed. And a gorgeous miniature of Seoul's National Sports Center in the center caught the attention of visitors. Above all, a large T.V. monitor placed at one corner gave visitors dynamic views of Seoul and her sports facilities. Many Korean beauties were serving as hostesses, giving away lavishly such small gifts as badges, paper weights, fans, and pennants, together with pamphlets.<sup>31</sup> Two German newspapers reportedly said, "Seoul's heart-warming displays are attracting visitors' attention."<sup>32</sup>

Realizing that Nagoya's display was much less popular, the staff of Nagoya looked for alternate strategies. They telephoned the headquarters in Japan to send more gifts such as badges and fans. They were also busy xeroxing their leaflets because they were in short supply. They asked Japan Air Lines to send more stewardesses to look after visitors, although these stewardesses did not know much about Nagoya.<sup>33</sup> It was obvious, however, that Seoul's exhibition was more favorably received. Local papers in West Germany reportedly made such comments as, "Seoul's displays are more colorful, attractive, and eye-catching," "Nagoya's displays are simple and flat. They look inactive, spiritless, and even apathetic."<sup>34</sup> Another paper wondered "if Nagoya is

just waiting for the final judgment.”<sup>35</sup> One European reporter asked a Japanese reporter, “Why don’t they campaign actively?”<sup>36</sup>

Reporters agreed that the Korean team was more active in lobbying, too. In addition to the official members of the delegation, more than 100 diplomats and dignitaries based in Europe and North and South America were mobilized to contact IOC, ISF and NOC members.<sup>37</sup> Seoul’s delegates were reported to be contacting the IOC members who were in favor of Nagoya, but were concerned about the decision of the host city for the ’88 Winter Olympic Games.<sup>38</sup> The Koreans’ aggressive lobbying activities can be summarized in such reporting as, “Koreans are admirably active and brave, knowing the ultimate loss of the game,”<sup>39</sup> and “Korean members are visible everywhere — halls, conference halls, lobbies, etc.”<sup>40</sup>

Nagoya’s campaign was more passive and formal. Most of the time, the delegates were staying together in the same hotel.<sup>41</sup> Whenever dignitaries from Japan arrived in Baden-Baden, the lower-ranking members were busy welcoming them rather than selling Nagoya to IOC members.<sup>42</sup> They behaved modestly during this period, thinking that they had done enough in securing the majority of votes. So only a few members, such as Mr. Kiyokawa and Mr. Takeda, two IOC members from Japan, were paying courtesy calls to IOC members.<sup>43</sup> Gradually, however, they became apprehensive about the final outcome, and realized they had to do more to retain their lead over Seoul.

One big headache for Nagoya was the existence of anti-Nagoya Olympic demonstrations, active and visible in Baden-Baden. They decided to send a letter to each IOC member pointing out that the opposition movement was minimal in Nagoya, and would not influence the staging of the Olympics.<sup>44</sup> Also, to try and keep pace with the aggressive campaigns initiated by the Korean delegates, Dr. Azuma sent

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cables from Japan to those IOC members he knew, for final solicitation.<sup>45</sup> Despite these rollbacks, Nagoya's campaign on the whole left just a modest impression. To some IOC members, Nagoya's delegation looked optimistic and even arrogant, being confident of their desired outcome, without showing a gesture of sincere appeal to the IOC members.<sup>46</sup> As a matter of fact, the two most important figures from Japan arrived in Baden-Baden at the end of the game. Mayor Motoyama arrived on September 26 and Governor Nakaya on 27.<sup>47</sup>

In this particular context, we can question why Japanese delegates in Baden-Baden, who had access to English media depicting their efforts as flagging, did not react more vigorously. Is it the case that they did not believe the media since it was in English? This is of course a speculative consideration, but it may reflect the Japanese desire to learn English without using it.

## Discussion

### Target Audience

It was decided by lot that Nagoya's presentation be made first, beginning at 3:00 P.M., to be followed by Seoul at 4:30 P.M. the same afternoon. Each city was allowed to send six official delegates to the conference hall for presentation.<sup>48</sup> The audience consisted of IOC, ISF and NOC members, and any others such as reporters were excluded as the presentation was part of the agenda of the IOC General Meeting.<sup>49</sup> As the secret votes were cast by 79 IOC members, let us briefly identify the characteristics of the IOC members.

The IOC was first formed by Count Pierre de Coubertin in 1894, the founder of Modern Olympic Movement. To realise the Olympic ideals — to promote world peace through sports

for one — Coubertin organized a committee composed of those aristocrats who sympathized with the Olympic ideals, and contributed to promotion of sports. He wanted to keep the committee free from outside political influence to maintain their ideals. (Miller, 1979:27)

As of September 1981, the total number of IOC members was 82.<sup>50</sup> They had been selected on such criteria as past sports records, region, contribution to Olympic movement. Many of them were old. Some were 80 (Miller, 1979:20). For more than 80 years since its foundation, the IOC had functioned in its own way and had managed to organize Olympic Games every four years except during wartime. Nevertheless, it had received various criticisms from outside. It was often nicknamed as “an undemocratic organization,” “an outdated organization composed of old aristocrats,” or “a dogmatic coterie of senior citizens (pp. 3-16).” Despite these criticisms, the IOC had been active and kept this world-wide sports event relatively free from the political powers of the times (pp. 25-52).

Unlike many other international organizations, IOC members do not necessarily represent their own countries. For instance, the two Japanese members of IOC, Mr. Masaji Kiyokawa and Mr. Tsunenori Takeda, were chosen as IOC members due primarily to their outstanding contributions to the Olympic movement. In this sense, each IOC member is like an “ambassador” of IOC dispatched to each nation (p. 17). There is a rule of thumb in nominating IOC members. Usually, one is selected from each country, and two from the countries where Olympics have been held in the past, or from some countries which have made significant contributions to the Olympic movement. For example, such nations as U.K., France, Spain, Greece, U.S.A., U.S.S.R., India and Japan have two members each. Out of these, Spain and India had not staged the Olympics, but have made unique contributions to the Olympic Movement (p. 24).

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In summary, IOC is a unique organization, composed of 82 members, relatively old and wealthy with a brilliant record of contributions to the Olympic ideals. Even though their professional and cultural backgrounds differ considerably, they owe allegiance to the Olympic ideals which are embodied in the Olympic Charter (pp. 40-50). With this audience in mind, both Nagoya and Seoul formed their strategies for presentation. Each presentation included a film show, an introductory speech, and a main invitational speech, as well as questions and answers.<sup>51</sup> Due to a lack of sufficient information concerning the film show and questions and answers, I will focus my analysis on the introductory and main invitational speeches.

### Methods of Analysis

As I will make a rhetorical analysis to find out to what extent the messages given by both contenders had been effective in inducing IOC members' cooperation to support their candidacy, this analysis necessarily deals with elements of persuasion. In my analysis, I apply Kenneth E. Anderson's theory of persuasion which analyzes persuasion in terms of three stages: attention, comprehension, and acceptance (Anderson, 1978:198-207). He argues, "the basis of evaluation of language and style in persuasion is the effect of these elements in determining persuasion outcomes" (p. 198). Since the outcome of the presentation is already history, it is necessary to make a thorough analysis of the effect of these elements that might have led to the outcome. Anderson continues, "this approach yields a judgment of language and associated stylistic feature in terms of their effect on the mediational process of attention, comprehension, and acceptance" (p. 198). While it is sometimes difficult to make clear distinctions among the said three stages, I will use these stages for clearer understanding of organization, language and style of the messages which are the keys to the examination of

rhetorical strategies employed in the speeches. Throughout my analysis, I will assign combinations of positive, neutral, and negative ratings to the results of multitudinous verbal and discourse strategies used by each contender, to secure the attention, comprehension, and acceptance of the IOC "target" audience.

Attention, the first stage of persuasion, can be defined as "a set or posture, by which we select out of our environment those stimuli that are related to our interest and needs" (Brembeck and Howell, 1976:270). In this connection, Anderson argues, "Not everything in a communication can receive maximum emphasis. Some things must be placed in the sun, some in the shade" (Anderson, 1978:199). He also states, "departures from the norm that are not incorrect are stylistic . . . . To the degree that these departures must be novel, unusual, and have elements of change and variety, these methods serve to select attention" (p. 198). In my analysis of attention, I will pick up the parts which seem to draw attention, because they are somewhat unusual or deviant from the norm in view of the invitational speeches.

Comprehension, the second stage of persuasion, is defined as clarification of the intended messages. Anderson argues, "proper word choice is the key to comprehension by the communicator" (pp. 201-202). He asserts, for example, "definition may be offered through restatement, through the context, by examples, by negation" (p. 203). One can estimate that these skills serve to increase comprehension. In my analysis of comprehension, I will examine how the main themes and arguments are introduced and to what extent these factors served comprehension.

The last stage of persuasion involves acceptance. Kenneth Burk argues, "Persuasion occurs as the source and receiver become identified with each other through the linguistic strategies employed" (p. 204). Anderson calls this state

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identification (p. 204). In order to induce identification, the speaker needs to either convince the listeners that his idea is right or he offers a new idea that will work better or satisfy the self-interests of the listeners. Internalization is a step forward from the state of identification. I define internalization as a process in which one is engaged in taking the idea presented as his own so that it might easily lead to his action, embodying such an idea. In order to induce internalization, the speaker must link his new ideas with the hypothetical or actual situation with the reinforcement of illustration and confirmation. What is crucial in campaign speeches is to make sure the listeners internalize the ideas and values of the speaker. In addition to these states, the traditional three proofs, that is, logical, emotional and ethical proof, will be taken into consideration in evaluating acceptance (pp. 162-165). With these factors in mind, I will examine the components that might have led to acceptance.

### Analysis I: Attention

#### A. Nagoya

##### 1. Strong Personal Tone of an Old Face (Positive-Negative)

Following the introduction of the six official members from Nagoya, and showing of the 16-minute movie "Nagoya," the two-minute taped message by Dr. Azuma was played back.<sup>52</sup> This arrangement was made because Dr. Azuma, President of the Nagoya '88 Olympic Council, could not come to Baden-Baden due to his poor health.<sup>53</sup> The taped message was concerned mostly with his apology for not coming to Baden-Baden. For instance, he said, "I retired from the active membership and became an honorary member in 1968. . .my Olympic friends in Japan persuaded me, an octogenarian, to come out of the retirement."<sup>54</sup> He vividly reminded the

majority of the IOC members of his old, familiar face, for he was a well-known figure, particularly among old members involved in the Tokyo Olympics. Despite his age, he decided to accept the presidency of the Nagoya Olympic Council, "remembering the excitement, . . . 20 years ago, . . . to lead the Nagoya Delegation. . ."

Nevertheless, Dr. Azuma was advised by his doctor not to fly to Baden-Baden. He said, "To my deep regret, my doctor's advice has prevented me from . . .," and went on, "alas, my old bones are creaking, so to speak." Thus, he made quite an emotional appeal to the listeners. Finally, he hoped that the IOC would "give us the chance to see another Olympic Games in my country during my lifetime." When this taped presentation finished, there occurred an unexpectedly big burst of applause.<sup>55</sup> Actually, his message was filled with his strong personal tone and direct appeal. I presume, however, that this applause was to express the audience's sympathy with Dr. Azuma personally, suggesting that his message attracted attention, but did not necessarily serve in Nagoya's favor.

## 2. Omission of Main Issues of Concern (Neutral-Negative)

Mr. Shigemitsu Miyake, Chairman of the Executive Board of the Nagoya '88 Olympic Council, made his major invitational speech for Nagoya. After expressing a few words of typical greetings, Mr. Miyake said, "The words of Dr. Azuma have already expressed the aspirations, hopes and expectations of the citizens of Nagoya, . . . Therefore, my presentation will concentrate on concrete issues: how. . ., and how. . ." The audience must have felt something important was missing at this moment. Dr. Azuma honestly expressed his hope and appeal, but he did not mention very much about why Nagoya wanted to host the Olympics. So, Mr. Miyake was expected to touch on this point. However, this crucial issue of why the Olympics would have been significant for Nagoya was

avoided. Perhaps, this omission of an important issue could have caught attention, but negatively. Of course, Mr. Miyake touched on Nagoya, describing her as the third industrial metropolis in Japan. This statement probably assured the listeners of Nagoya's ability to manage the Olympic Games, but failed to adequately explain why Nagoya, not Seoul.

Mr. Miyake employed itemization which probably did not work well in maintaining attention. In explaining the major points of Nagoya's plan, he said, "The first regards timing." "The second point concerns the number of sporting events." "Now the third point. Concerning the Olympic village, . . ." He went on to describe Nagoya's plan in terms of sports facilities, accommodations, transportation, entry, public support, and financing, etc. Indeed, these are important considerations, but these technical matters had already been fully communicated to the listeners.<sup>56</sup> In other words, those itemizations were not logically connected with each other, but rather fragmented. Only salient points should have been presented, so as to gain attention. It can be said that the itemization in such a way might have served to gain attention at first, but later it gradually lost the attention of the audience.

In this connection, I believe that language educators in Japan should make more efforts in introducing the sense of exploratory spirit or spirit of language play available in English expression. Through the mastery of such creativity in language use, one can stimulate or entertain his listeners more effectively.

### B. Seoul

#### 1. Creation of Temporal Thrill and Sensation (Positive)

As soon as the introduction of the six official delegates was over, Mr. Young-su Park, the Mayor of Seoul, went to the plat-

form to deliver his introductory address. He allegedly read his speech in Korean which was translated consecutively by someone in English.<sup>57</sup> Probably the choice of the mayor of the host city as a first speaker gained favorable attention in terms of credibility, for he was the person most responsible for the invitation. This speech was effective in creating a sense of temporal thrill and excitement through skillful use of connectives, use of present progressive forms of verbs. He said, for example, "At this very moment, the 38 million people of the Republic of Korea. . . are focusing their attention and expectation on this IOC session."<sup>58</sup>

In a similar manner, Mr. Sang-ho Cho, President of the Korean Olympic Committee who made a major invitational speech, was skillful in creating a vivid imaginative representation of the Olympics in Seoul as if they were being staged at that exact moment. For instance, towards the end of his presentation, he said:

I sincerely hope to have the opportunity of welcoming all the IOC members gathered here at the grand ceremony for the 1988 Summer Olympic Games in the main stadium in Seoul. It will be a great honor and pleasure for me personally as well as in my official capacity.

## 2. New Vision through Gradual Build-up (Positive)

Mr. Cho chose to itemize several issues in the middle of his presentation. He said, "First, Seoul is the capital of . . .," "Second, the city of Seoul has successfully organized . . .," "Third, except for . . ., Seoul already has most of the necessary sports facilities . . ." Unlike the itemization of Nagoya's, Mr. Cho itemized each issue in a coherent manner so that each issue was organized as an essential unit in a gradually accumulating whole, unfolding like a story being told. Moreover, explanation of each theme was made to highlight the contrast

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with her rival city.

In an attempt to communicate why Seoul would be a better choice, Seoul's presentation employed a variety of devices such as the use of negation, direct appeal, proper choice of conjunctions, adjectives, and verbs. Particularly noteworthy was the carefully constructed sets of sentences that might have helped to change the attitudes of the audience by gradually building up their assertions. Mayor Park, for instance, stated:

I am not proposing Seoul as the site for the 1988 Olympics, simply because facilities both already built and now under construction would best meet the requirements of Olympic Games. This is, of course, a very important consideration. But even more important, we believe that Olympic Games would accomplish the goal of the Olympic Movement of contributing to world peace.

Another example of gradual build-up was observed in Mr. Cho's speech which probably served to command attention on Seoul's sore spot, i.e., the division of the country. He approached this issue with great care, politeness, and self-confidence:

I would like to specially address some members here who might be concerned about the reality of the division of my country. I wish to express my deep appreciation on this occasion to the delegates of those countries with whom we have as yet no formal invitations for their initiative. . . and for their participation in sports events in our country.

In order to refute this weakness, Mr. Cho was not in a hurry. First, he expressed his appreciation to those who were concerned about the issue, and then touched on the status quo.

Later, he proposed a new idea for solution. This was one of the best examples of slowly but steadily building up one's claim, thus serving to gain attention.

## **Analysis II: Comprehension**

### **A. Nagoya**

#### **1. Japan has Experience and Technology (Neutral-Negative)**

Mr. Miyake stressed that Japan could successfully organize the '88 Olympics, because she has experience and technology. He guaranteed smooth operation of the Games based on "the experience already gained by Japan in organizing the Olympic Games in Tokyo and Sapporo." Further, he stressed "we will utilize the latest and highest technology being developed in Japan. . ."

It may be true that Japan has more experience than ROK in organizing international sports events. But what about Nagoya vis-a-vis Seoul? The speech did not touch specifically upon Nagoya's capability. Mr. Miyake said, "given the seven years of preparation time, Nagoya can assure you that the most modern facilities will be readied, utilizing the best of Japanese technology." The emphasis on Japanese technology was placed probably to refute the weakest point of Nagoya, that is, there were no facilities at that time. Nevertheless, this strategy did not work well, partly because the statements were rather abstract, without supportive evidence, and partly because the relevant sentences used too many qualifiers, future tenses, and superlatives. Moreover, emphasis was put on the technical aspects of Japan rather than conveying the enthusiasm of the citizens of Nagoya.

### 2. Political Stability and Guarantee of Smooth Operation (Neutral-Negative)

What kinds of strategies were employed in communicating Nagoya's foremost advantage and Seoul's clear-cut disadvantage? The speech resorted to the frequent use of direct statement without much substantiation. Mr. Miyake stated, "Japan is a very politically stable country," "Japan is the safest nation in the world, and security for the proper conduct of the Games will be ensured. . . ." Referring to the opposition groups, Mr. Miyake refuted, "As Japan's political situation is quite stable, . . . we will surely be able to carry them quite successfully, even if there might be such groups."

It is questionable whether such direct messages about the political stability of Japan served the intended purpose. It was clear that Nagoya stressed this stability as her foremost advantage. Was this strategy in Nagoya's favor? Probably not. As a matter of fact, this was the point the press criticized most severely after they learned that Nagoya lost her bid. They criticized that the emphasis on this point might have invoked a sense of "self-complacency" and "optimism" of Japan as an economic super power.<sup>59</sup> The listeners probably got the impression that Japan was kindly offering a refuge or shelter for the IOC and athletes, for the Olympics in the past had suffered a lot politically. To put it differently, it conveyed a protector's attitude. "Please come to this safe place. Then, you don't have to be worried about anything." It seemed, however, that most of the IOC members had been aware of this political stability of Japan. By employing direct appeals too frequently, the audience's favorable attitude might have turned into an unfavorable one, thus helping to advance the cause of Seoul.

Another question that comes to mind was whether or not this strategy was in accord with the Olympic ideals. The

Olympic Charter states that the Olympics should promote better understanding among people from all over the world (Miller, 1979:240). Nagoya's assurance of smooth operation sounded rather a conservative one, short of positive contribution to the Olympic ideals. Thus, the rhetorical strategy of Nagoya, together with frequent use of direct appeal, future tenses, adjectives, and adverbs probably did not work well. On the contrary, the speech communicated a sense of uncertainty, complacency, as well as lack of spirit for challenge and enthusiasm.

## **B. Seoul**

### **1. A Forum for Dialogue and Communication for Peace (Positive-Neutral)**

Political tension in the Korean peninsula was a disadvantage for Seoul. As was discussed earlier, Seoul's strategy was to recognize this first, and to appreciate the listener's concern about this issue, and then refute it with a new perspective. Specifically, the speech emphasized this weakness as an area where IOC members could play an important role, that is, bringing peace to this region and the whole world by actually going to Seoul. Mayor Park declared:

The Olympic Games in Seoul would accomplish the goal of the Olympic Movement of contributing to world peace, since the spirit of international goodwill through fair sportsmanship would help insure a true and lasting peace on Korean soil.

To further his assertion, Mayor Park stated, "Olympic Games in Seoul would truly be a forum for peace and broadened mutual understanding among all mankind." In a similar manner, Mr. Cho provided a new perspective by saying, "one

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of the most important roles the IOC plays in the quest of world peace is to provide a forum for dialogue and communication . . .”

The above is a beautiful example of “rhetoric of conversion” that turned a Seoul’s disadvantage into an advantage. Seoul’s speeches were in this sense successful in refutation, satisfying the ego-needs of the audience with suggestions for possible actions to be taken by the listeners. The audience must have felt that they were the ones who could bring peace to the troubled land. Provision of a new insight and new proposal with moral overtones might have impressed the listeners and hence served to command positive comprehension.

### 2. Facilities Almost Ready for Games (Positive)

How did Seoul communicate the reportedly clear-cut advantage? A brief look at the speeches reveals a number of devices employed to impress the listeners. Mr. Cho stated, for instance, “construction has been under way already for a number of years, . . . the city in 1977 secured a sports site of 545,000m which will include as its centerpiece the main stadium with a capacity of 100,000.” He also added, “the stadium will be ready for use by 1983.”

One can find out that the Korean speakers tried to avoid using personal pronouns as subjects in the sentences when speaking of these facilities. This seems to be effective in making an objective description of the situation in the speaker’s favor, without invoking a negative response from the rival city. Other devices employed are proper use of adverbs and nouns to emphasize their strength. In addition, restatement, figures, and factual information seemed to work in favor of Seoul. Through effective use of rhetorical devices, these speeches spotlighted a vivid contrast to Nagoya, making the most of Seoul’s strength: its almost completed facilities.

Moreover, it is worth noting that Seoul used testimony and

even irony to dramatize its strength. For instance, Mr. Cho said, "this point [the sports facilities being almost completed] was well borne out by the delegates of the IOC, NOC and ISF who visited. . .to look into the sports facilities and related environment of Seoul." To endorse this point, Mr. Cho later said, "we have been too busy constructing facilities and somehow neglected to inform the sporting world about it." This sounded quite ironic, suggesting that Nagoya has been too busy informing the sporting world of their plan, and somehow neglected to construct the facilities.

### 3. Burning Enthusiasm for Invitation (Positive)

The Korean speakers conveyed their burning enthusiasm to welcome the Olympics to Seoul. Both speakers of Seoul directly appealed to the listeners, expressing their sincere appreciation of the listeners' attention, and the excitement of the citizens of Seoul. For instance, Mayor Park stated, "I have been deeply touched by the warm hospitality shown to all of us by the citizens of Baden-Baden, . . . I sincerely solicit your active support for all of our endeavors." Similarly, Mr. Cho appealed, "the people of Seoul join in this expectation for hosting the Games and they enjoy the full support and encouragement of all the people and the government of Korea."

In communicating their enthusiasm, Mr. Cho touched upon the Olympic principle of universality. He stressed, "it is important, . . . to share the hosting role among nations and thus spread the Olympic Movement throughout the world." He then boldly declared:

I sincerely appeal to you the members of the IOC to support the courage and efforts which the City of Seoul has demonstrated, the first such endeavor ever undertaken by a developing country.

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One can easily imagine how painful it is to call his own country a developing country, even though she is rapidly catching up with advanced countries. Such a bold definition of themselves must have been perceived as an expression of their sincerity and confidence. And at the same time, it indirectly suggested that Japan had already staged two Olympic Games in the past, and Nagoya's candidacy is not consistent with the Olympic principle of universality. Thus, comparison and contrast to Nagoya and reinforcement by strong appeal probably gained a high degree of comprehension.

### Analysis III: Acceptance

#### A. Nagoya

##### 1. Three Proofs (Neutral)

Dr. Azuma's proof was mostly emotional. It was full of strong personal tones. Hence, attention was naturally directed to Dr. Azuma himself, rather than helping to accept Nagoya's solicitation.

Mr. Miyake's proofs were rather counterproductive. There were some inconsistencies in his logical proofs. For example, he said, "two-thirds of the residents of Nagoya supported. . .," while later he stated, "an overwhelming majority of the Japanese are enthusiastic about inviting." Realistically, it is difficult to prove such a statement. Concerning his emotional proof, he used it rather improperly. For example, he condemned the opposition groups strongly, claiming that "their real aim is to destroy the Olympic Movement itself." The listeners, however, were not fully persuaded why those groups aimed to do so. He could have used a logical proof by asserting, for instance, that while these groups were concerned about the environmental effect the Olympics would have on

our living condition, the recent study done by the city revealed that such effect would not be too serious.

Some favorable points were observed in Mr. Miyake's speech. He stressed:

Since our coming here to Baden-Baden, we have further renewed our understanding of the tremendous potential and increasing importance the Olympic Movement has in the modern world, . . . we may add another successful chapter to the history of the Olympic Movement in 1988.

The noble and lofty ways of presenting his ethical proof might have helped in gaining the listeners' acceptance, even a little.

## 2. Identification and Internalization (Neutral-Negative)

Despite the carefully formulated strategy, Nagoya's presentation did not link its assertions with the ideas, values and frames of reference of the audience. With lack of such links between the speakers and the audience, chances are few that the listeners would identify themselves with the speakers' arguments and appeals. Actually, little was mentioned about the IOC members and Olympic ideals. Nagoya's assurance for smooth operation was overemphasized. Under such circumstances, it was difficult for the listeners to identify themselves with Nagoya, or to internalize the speakers' values so that they could vote for Nagoya.

What's more, the presentation failed to impress the listeners about Nagoya. They were not persuaded why it was significant to hold the Olympics in Nagoya, not Seoul. The speech of Mr. Miyake only partially succeeded in creating the sentiment of the moment. The language employed, however lofty it was, did not arouse in the minds of the listeners a feeling of sympathy, empathy or willingness to support Nagoya. Prob-

ably, those in favor of Nagoya had a neutral reaction, while those in favor of Seoul had a strongly negative reaction against Nagoya.

### B. Seoul

#### 1. Three Proofs (Positive-Neutral)

Seoul's speeches worked well in logical proof. As was discussed already in previous sections, Seoul's speeches employed various devices in their discourse to draw attention, and increase comprehension. These devices were also helpful in inducing identification and internalization. Above all, the manner in which Seoul's "Achilles' heel," political tension in the Korean peninsula, was refuted, was a good example. Important to note in this regard is that the audience's ego-needs were fully satisfied. *The Japan Times* reported:

They [the IOC members] have no reason to be displeased by the prospect of being instrumental in promoting the spirit of reconciliation and peace between the two Koreas.<sup>60</sup>

The Korean speakers skillfully introduced various devices to change, modify and reshape the listener's ideas and values, thus making it possible to induce attitude change of the audience.

Campaign activities until the last moment of voting, even after the presentation, were crucial. Lobbying activities, greeting and final solicitation in front of the conference hall were important in reinforcing or strengthening the voters' choice in candidate's favor. In this respect, too, the Korean delegation wound up their final efforts in inducing identification and internalization.<sup>61</sup>

### Conclusion

As soon as Nagoya's loss was made public, the Japanese press devoted quite a large space identifying the possible major causes. Ranging from IOC's principle of sharing the role among nations to lack of enthusiasm on the part of the citizens of Nagoya; more than a dozen reasons were cited.<sup>62</sup> While these criticisms and comments were freely made since Nagoya's loss is already history, there was very little discussion of the possible impact the presentations of both cities might have had on the final outcome. As a matter of fact, while the presentations by both cities were completed, only Nagoya's was favorably reported in the Japanese press, and very little was reported on Seoul's. So Japanese readers could not make a fair and comparative judgment of which one was more effective.

The Japanese readers had been handicapped by biased reporting by the news media. The reporters from each major Japanese newspaper had been dispatched to Baden-Baden, but they had difficulties covering what was going on in the competition between Nagoya and Seoul. Even though many Korean delegates were visible and active everywhere, the Japanese reporters did not have access to them, partly because of language problems.<sup>63</sup> As a result, they had a tendency to stick together and rely on the same sources of information for their reporting.<sup>64</sup> There is no wonder, therefore, that the contents of the reports among the major Japanese newspapers were almost identical with each other.

Rhetorically speaking, Seoul's presentation was more effective in many aspects. The speeches are the product of serious study. Their rhetorical strategies were formulated to refute their weakness while providing a new insight, and to stress their advantages without invoking a sense of resentment from the opponent. Also what was noteworthy was the

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clarification of their basic attitudes to the invitation of the Olympics, organization of discourse, paragraph development, use of logical, emotional, and ethical proof, as well as proper choice of words.

As for Nagoya's presentation, one can point out that there was a lack of coherent rhetorical strategy. Even though some devices incorporated into the speeches were partly effective, the problem was rather with the overall impression of the invitational speeches. Particularly, the manner in which certain themes of mutual concern were presented to the audience which turned out to be counterproductive. For instance, Nagoya's strength — political stability of Japan and experience gained by the Tokyo and Sapporo Olympics — had probably invoked strong negative reactions, just by the way these particular points were presented to the audience.

One can speculate at least two reasons why Nagoya's presentation lacked coherent rhetorical strategy. First, Nagoya's delegation was not adequately aware of the importance of presentation in terms of its influence on the outcome. Probably they regarded it as one of the rituals or ceremonies that accompany invitational campaigns. Hence, the speech was not considered to be a subject worthy of serious study. This was clearly not the case with Seoul. Second, Nagoya's delegation identified themselves with Japan, and they probably took a rather traditional view of Korea with certain stereotypes (Woon, 1983:3). For this reason, Nagoya might have underestimated the power and ability of her rival city in terms of her skill in international persuasion.

Persuasion in an international arena involves many factors that do not require careful consideration when the speech is intended for homogeneous or mono-cultural audiences. People from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds have different values and assumptions about their lives, their human relations, and their approaches to the problems they face. For instance, one dominant feature of American social

interaction is based on "equality," whereas the Japanese place importance on "vertical relationship." Likewise, people from different cultures are likely to be persuaded for different reasons.

However, a number of international organizations are developing in the present world. The U.N., I.L.O., International Rotary Club, just to name a few. Those international organizations have gradually developed their own values and ideals through interaction among members from different cultures. The IOC is a good case in point. IOC members are united through their devotion to the Olympic Movement, and they share a lot of common experiences through their activities to promote Olympic ideals. Consequently, they come to share common sets of values, as well as sets of expectations of their own. The speaker, therefore, is required to study their values and expectations, before he engages himself in a campaign of persuasion.

In this connection, formulation of rhetorical strategies for presentation is quite necessary. In the case of Nagoya and Seoul rivalry, both parties used mainly English as a means of communication. Since English has its own logic, consideration on such matters as organization of the speech, methods for argumentation, proper choice of words must be incorporated into overall strategies.

To be more specific, many other questions can be asked in devising your rhetorical strategies. How should your weakness be refuted? How do you present your strength without directly criticizing your opponent? What about the traditional proofs? Do you need a lot of inside stories or anecdotes to make the speech interesting and alive? Is dramatization necessary? How serious should you be in communicating your view? How do you meet the expectation of the listeners? How are the self-interests of the listeners satisfied? How much detail should there be in your report? What kinds of evidence are you going to use? Will direct appeal work? These ques-

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tions must be seriously asked before planning your rhetorical strategies.

In view of the complexities involved in formulation of strategies, we should realize that drafting of an invitational speech in international setting is a much more difficult task than is generally imagined. We should also bear in mind that the speech draft be left for last-minute revision, for the speech should be adjusted to the changing mood of the audience. And at the same time, a decision must be made who can most effectively communicate your views. The speaker's credibility may be very influential under certain circumstances.

Equally important is a need for the study of your rival, particularly his national character and communication characteristics. It just happened that the competition for the '88 Summer Olympics was between Nagoya and Seoul, close neighbors in North East Asia. A study shows that Koreans are more verbal, emotional as well as aggressive than Japanese in interpersonal and public communication situations.<sup>65</sup> In addition, because of unfortunate historical relations with Japan, the Koreans' attitude toward Japanese is far from that of respect and affection (Woon, 1983:7). It reports also that Koreans have a value system of expediency.<sup>66</sup> Several assumptions could have been drawn from these findings that the delegates from Seoul would make surprisingly energetic efforts even at the last stage of the game. Furthermore, because of some unfortunate historical relations with Japan, the Koreans' enthusiasm and tenacity to beat Japan could not have been underestimated. Without making careful studies of your rival, presentations in international settings cannot be effectively made.

One can draw several implications from the foregoing discussion for those involved in English education in Japan. First, we should realize that we are still poor in communicating in English what we really want to say to the international community. It may be true that enthusiasm among Japanese

of learning English is even higher nowadays than before, and teachers are devoting themselves more to upgrading the speaking ability of the Japanese. However, the image of the Japanese abroad as poor English speakers is still prevalent. One major reason for this is, I believe, the mentality of the Japanese toward English. There seems to be a deep-rooted fear among Japanese that if you become too good at speaking English, you would be ostracized from the group you belong to. For instance, a very fluent speaker of English in Japan is likely to be regarded as less of a leader in political or industrial world, even though he may be considered an important liaison person with the world outside Japan. In other words, if you become an expert of English, you are no longer regarded as pure Japanese, so that you cannot occupy the highest position in Japanese organization. Perhaps for this reason, many Japanese students of English are learning English as necessary knowledge for understanding the world but not as a necessary skill to communicate with others. This passive attitude of the Japanese toward English should be changed, for I believe that it is possible for a Japanese to be a perfect Japanese and at the same time to be a capable international communicator.

Second, the Japanese attitude toward language should also be changed when they study English. Kunihiro argues that language has not received the same emphasis as in the West and it has been a poor policy to use words to express one's views and to persuade the other fellow (1973:97). In a similar way, public speaking or presentation is often regarded just as a ritualistic or ceremonial one. In such occasions as wedding reception, graduation ceremony, and political campaign speech, distinguished guests are invited and are expected to deliver their speeches. However, the speeches are rather ceremonial or ritualistic, reflecting the tradition in Japan. T.V. debates among political contenders are yet to be seen in Japan. On the contrary, the invitational speeches at Baden-

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Baden clearly demonstrated that they were used not for ceremonies but for persuasion. I believe we should be more aware of the effect of spoken communication in international persuasion.

In this particular connection, I would suggest that English education in Japan should incorporate such fields as speech, group discussion and debate, most of which had been considered as a part of the extracurricular activities in Japanese universities. If students are given ample opportunities to express their views in English, they can learn how to speak to effectively influence others. At the same time, they can acquire the logic and reasoning patterns of English if properly guided. It is equally important for them to be given more time to evaluate or criticize the presentations of others so that they can develop their critical and analytical faculty. By so doing, they can come to grips with rhetoric which plays a vital role in persuasion as was discussed in this paper.

The failure of Nagoya provided a number of lessons for the Japanese. We often talk about Japan's "internationalization," but it is important for us to become aware that we still have a long way to go until we will be able to communicate effectively with the people from different cultures.

### NOTES

1. *Asahi Shimbun* or *Asahi Newspaper* (Oct. 1, 1981).
2. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Evening Edition), Oct. 1, 1981).
3. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Aug. 25, 1977).
4. *Ibid.*
5. Osamu Miura and Ruichi Kanko, ed. *Events – News Stories in English, Japan: 19751-1981* (Tokyo: Tsurumi Shoten, 1981), pp. 30-32.

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6. *Nagoya Olympics* No. 4 (Dec. 15, 1979), p. 31. This periodical was issued six times for public relations' purpose by the Council for Olympics during the period from 1978 until 1980.
7. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Evening Edition, Sept. 25, 1979).
8. The Nagoya '88 Olympic Council, ed. *Report on Invitational Activities by Nagoya City and Tokai Area for the 24th Summer Olympic Games* (Aug. 30, 1981), p. 22.
9. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Aug. 30, 1981).
10. *Ibid* (Aug. 30, 1981).
11. *Ibid* (May 18, 1978).
12. *Ibid* (Evening Edition, May 2, 1979).
13. *Ibid* (May 18, 1979).
14. *Ibid* (Evening Edition, Oct. 26, 1979).
15. *Asahi Shimbun* (Evening Edition, Oct. 26, 1979).
16. *Ibid* (Evening Edition, Jan. 21, 1980).
17. *Chunichi Shimbun* (May 25, 1980).
18. *Ibid* (Evening Edition, Oct. 17, 1980).
19. *Ibid*.
20. *Ibid* (Dec. 2, 1980).
21. *Asahi Shimbun* (Dec. 5, 1980).
22. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Dec. 17, 1980).
23. *Ibid* (Feb. 25, 1981).
24. *Mainichi Shimbun* (March 3, 1981).

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25. *Nihon Keizai Shimbun* or *Japan Economic Newspaper* (April 4, 1981).
26. *Mainichi Shimbun* (July 22, 1981).
27. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Evening Edition, April 10, 1981).
28. *Asahi Shimbun* (Sept. 7, 1981).
29. *Ibid* (Sept. 9, 1981).
30. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Sept. 22, 1981).
31. *Chubu Yomiuri Shimbun* Sept. 27, 1981).
32. *Ibid*.
33. Personal Interview with Yohji Kawamura, Special Correspondent to Baden-Baden for Chunichi Newspaper Company, conducted on May 15, 1982.
34. *Asahi Shimbun* (Evening Edition, Sept. 24, 1981).
35. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Sept. 25, 1981).
36. *Ibid* (Sept. 27, 1981).
37. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Evening Edition, Oct. 1, 1981).
38. *Ibid* (Sept. 27, 1981).
39. *Ibid* (Sept. 25, 1981).
40. *Ibid* (Sept. 26, 1981).
41. Personal Interview with Yohji Kawamura.
42. Personal Interview with Yukihiro Ueda, Special Correspondent to Baden-Baden for Chubu Yomiuru Newspaper Company, conducted on May 26, 1982.

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43. *Yomiuri Shimbun* (Oct. 1, 1981).
44. Personal Interview with Yukihiko Ueda.
45. *Chubu Yomiuri Shimbun* (Sept. 25, 1981).
46. *Asahi Shimbun* (Oct. 1, 1981).
47. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Sept. 26, 1981).
48. Ibid (Sept. 1981).
49. Personal Interview with Yohji Kawamura.
50. *Chunichi Shimbun* (Sept. 29, 1981).
51. Ibid (Sept. 30, 1981).
52. Ibid.
53. Ibid (Sept. 20, 1981).
54. The text of the Japanese presentation used for this paper was drawn from the *Report on Invitational Activities by Nagoya City and Tokai Area for the 24th Summer Olympics* (pp. 49-55) published by the Nagoya '88 Olympic Council in December 1981. Consequently, all of the quotations of Dr. Azuma and Mr. Miyake's words, phrases, and passages were drawn from this version.
55. Personal Interview with Tsutomu Aoyama, one of Nagoya's six official delegates who participated in the presentation, conducted on May 26, 1982.
56. For example, Mr. Miyake made an invitational speech in Lausanne for ISF members on April 8, 1981. See *Chunichi Shimbun* (April 9, 1981).
57. Personal Interview with Tsutomu Aoyama.

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58. The text of the Korean presentation used for this paper was drawn from a copy of the presentations distributed to reporters during the presentation. Accordingly, all of the quotations of Mr. Park and Mr. Cho's words, phrases, and passages were drawn from this version.
59. *Asahi Shimbun* (Oct. 1, 1981).
60. *The Japan Times* (Oct. 2, 1981).
61. *Asahi Shimbun* (Oct. 1, 1981).
62. Ibid.
63. Personal Interview with Yohji Kawamura.
64. Ibid.
65. R. Dereck Liebenberg, "Japan Incorporated" and "The Korean Troops": A Comparative Analysis of Korean Business Organization, M.A. Thesis, University of Hawaii, 1982.
66. Ibid.

### APPENDIX

The text of invitational speeches by the representatives of Nagoya and Seoul is attached as follows for reference.

#### TEXT OF PRESENTATIONS

##### NAGOYA

- 1) **Taped Message by Ryutaro Azuma, President of the Nagoya '88 Olympic Council**

Mr. President and Members of the International Olympic Committee. Although I retired from the active membership and became an Honorary Member in 1968, my Olympic spirit and my interest in the Olympic movement has remained as ever.

When the City of Nagoya decided to invite the Games of 1988, my Olympic friends in Japan persuaded me, an octogenarian, to come out of retirement and accept the Presidency of the Nagoya '88 Olympic Council.

Remembering the excitement I, then Governor of Tokyo, experienced at the Munich Session of I.O.C., 22 years ago, when the honour to stage the Games of the 18th Olympiad was bestowed upon us, I have made up my mind to lead the Nagoya Delegation to Baden Baden for the official presentation of candidature.

To my deep regret, however, my doctor's advice has prevented me from making a travel abroad. Yes, my spirit is high but alas, my old bones are creaking, so to speak. And, therefore, I have asked Mr. Shigemitsu Miyake, one of the eminent leaders of Nagoya community and whom many of you have become acquainted with, to take my place. I sincerely hope, my dear Colleagues, that you would support him in order to give us the chance to see another Olympic Games in my country during my lifetime.

May I thank you, Mr. President and Members of I.O.C. for giving me the opportunity to address you through this tape?

2) Presentation by Shigemitsu Miyake, Chairman of the Executive Board of the Nagoya '88 Olympic Council

Mr. President, Distinguished Members of the International Olympic Committee, leaders and representatives of International Federations and National Olympic Committees, Ladies and Gentlemen:

It is indeed a great honour and privilege for me to explain our plans for hosting the Games of the 24th Olympiad in Nagoya in 1988.

The words of Dr. Azuma, which you have just heard, have already expressed the aspirations, hopes and expectations of the citizens of Nagoya, and the Japanese nation as a whole. Therefore, my presentation will concentrate on concrete issues: how we are planning to organize the Olympic Games in Nagoya, and how we can assure you that – in the event we obtain your support and approval – the Games will be held in accordance with the traditions, spirit, and regulations of the Olympic Movement, while at the same time, meeting the requirements and wishes of the International Federations and National Olympic Committees which will be participating from throughout the world.

Nagoya, which we are proposing as the Olympic City for 1988, is rich in natural blessings, with long and rich cultural and historical traditions, flourishing industries, and a well-developed communications net-

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work. This region is one of the three largest industrial and cultural centers in Japan. The climate is mild, there are many scenic beauty spots and historic sites nearby, and the people are dedicated and industrious.

Thus, speaking from geographical, economic, cultural, and other perspectives, our region is fully capable of successfully organizing and managing the Olympic Games. And, in addition to these guarantees, I would like to stress that we will utilize the latest and highest technology being developed in Japan to ensure the Games' success.

The spirit and character of the people, the experience already gained by Japan in organizing the Olympic Games in Tokyo and Sapporo, our earnest wish to embody the true international understanding and world peace through the Games — these are, Ladies and Gentlemen, the foremost and solid guarantees we offer for the successful staging of the Games in 1988.

Now, allow me to explain a few major points of our plan for the 1988 Games that may interest you.

The first regards timing.

We propose holding the Games from October the 8th to the 23rd. The climate at this time is comfortably mild, with the daytime temperature around 20 degrees Centigrade, or 68 degrees Fahrenheit.

As you have seen in the film, at the time of the Games, you will be surrounded by beautiful scenery coloured with autumn leaves. There will be numerous traditional festivals as well.

The second point concerns the number of sporting events.

The sports program will be organized in accordance with the I.O.C. rules. All 21 sports of the Olympic Charter will be staged. The program of events will be adapted in accordance with any further changes proposed by the I.O.C. in the future.

Now, the third point:

Concerning the Olympic Village, it is our intention to build only one, accommodating 12,000 people, in the city area, which will be located within easy reach of the sites of all sports events. The planned site is quiet and pleasant, surrounded by trees. The village buildings, which are to be newly constructed for the Games, will be converted into a public housing complex after the Games are over. The village will also be provided with adequate practice grounds, medical facilities and other services. Detached accommodations for improved access to particular sports can also be provided if necessary.

One further point I would like to mention is that all Olympic facilities will be located within a radius of 30-40 kilos from the village. Even the yachting events will be within 90 kilos, which is very close

when compared with recent Olympic Games.

The fourth point I would like to discuss concerns sports and training facilities.

In our plans we have estimated that some 31 sites will be required for competition. Of these, 21 already exist. The rest will be newly built. Here I wish to stress that, given the seven years of preparation time, Nagoya can assure you that the most modern facilities will be readied, utilizing the best of Japan's technology.

In addition, a total of 78 training facilities will be provided for various sports.

We have explained details regarding each sports facility and consulted with the leaders of the respective summer federations on the occasion of the meeting of the International Federations held in Lausanne in April this year. We were fortunate in receiving their kind advice, guidance and understanding.

The fifth point:

Turning to accommodations and other facilities, we can assure you that comfortable accommodations will be prepared for delegates, officials, visitors, and also the press, radio and TV personnel. Especially we are considering to provide quite pleasant and comfortable ones for the I.O.C. and IF members.

Also, many conference halls with modern facilities are available for the I.O.C. Session, the I.F. Congresses, the N.O.C. Assemblies, and other meetings.

Radio and TV centers and other working press facilities will also be readied. I can assure you of the highest possible standards for ensuring full world-wide coverage of the 1988 Games.

In terms of medical care, as we have numerous modern facilities with excellent doctors and staff, we are ready to observe all the instructions of the medical commission of the I.O.C.

The sixth point:

The transportation network in and around Nagoya includes taxis, buses, subways, and private and national railway systems, and visitors to Nagoya can take advantage of inexpensive, thoroughly safe and convenient transportation throughout the region.

We will furnish large and small buses and cars for officials and teams, to give them mobility for their special training and competition.

Special devices for traffic control similar to those used during the Tokyo Games can also be installed if necessary.

The seventh point:

Entry is fully guaranteed. Let me quote the letter of confirmation

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signed by Mr. Zenko Suzuki, Prime Minister of Japan. Quote:

“The Japanese Government states that it will comply with the provisions of the Olympic Charter and will grant the right of entry into Japan to all persons duly accredited by the International Olympic Committee.”

unquote. Japan is a very politically stable country, and enjoys diplomatic and friendly relations with almost all countries in the world.

As for security, I would like to emphasize that Japan is one of the safest nations in the world. And, as a matter of course, security for the proper conduct of the Games will be ensured by the appropriate public authorities.

The eighth point:

Regarding public support. We conducted our first public opinion surveys concerning the Games just two years ago, and found that two-thirds of the residents of Nagoya region supported hosting the 24th Olympiad.

Based on these survey results, the assemblies of Nagoya City and the three prefectures making up this region unanimously passed resolutions to invite the Games to Nagoya.

Last November, the Japanese Cabinet formally approved our candidacy, and this May both the Upper and Lower Houses of the Diet unanimously passed similar resolutions.

Some 170 other official and private organizations in many fields have also passed resolutions or otherwise expressed their support.

Thus, I believe you can see that an overwhelming majority of the Japanese people are enthusiastic about inviting the Games to Nagoya, and are supporting our candidacy.

However, I do not deny that there are also some small opposition groups in Japan. During the last few days, some of them have come here to Baden Baden to conduct a campaign, not only against the Nagoya games, but also against the whole Olympic Movement. Their real aim is to destroy the Olympic Movement itself.

Such groups are very small in Japanese society, and, their self-complacent logic is nothing but deceptions and full of malice.

I hope you all will kindly understand these real facts, and please not be misled by them.

As Japan's political situation is quite stable, if we are awarded to stage the Games, we will surely be able to carry them out quite successfully, even if there might be such groups.

Now, the ninth point:

Regarding the financing of the Games. The actual figures on construction and administration expenses for the Games have yet to be finalized. However, the rough estimates we have made so far show they will not greatly burden either the central or local governments. With this in mind, the three prefectures of Aichi, Gifu and Mie, and the Government of Japan, have approved the candidacy of Nagoya and declared their full support.

Moreover, there are various devices for reducing the burden on budgets to some extent.

Finally, another important point:

We are giving serious consideration to ways and means to reduce the air fares for teams coming from faraway nations in Africa, South America and other areas.

Also, we are considering methods of keeping accommodation costs within reasonable limits during the Games for the athletes, officials and the press.

These efforts are directed toward ensuring worldwide participation and thus maintaining the universality of the Olympic Movement.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I believe I touched on some of the major points of our candidacy.

And, in conclusion, in proposing for 1988, we feel an even greater sense of responsibility. This is because, since our coming here to Baden Baden, we have further renewed our understanding of the tremendous potential and increasing importance the Olympic Movement has in the modern world. Japan is a faithful supporter of this movement, as you are fully aware.

And now, we are determined to fulfill our responsibility — faithfully — and completely, so that that we may add another successful chapter to the history of the Olympic Movement in 1988.

Thank you for your attention.

## SEOUL

### 1) Proposal to Host the Games of the 24th Olympiad in Seoul in 1988 by Young-su Park, Mayor, City of Seoul

Honorable Mr. President Juan Antonio Samaranch, Distinguished members of the International Olympic Committee, Ladies and Gentlemen!

I sincerely thank you for the honor and privilege of addressing this important session of the International Olympic Committee to express

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the earnest desire of the eight million citizens of Seoul to host the 1988 Olympic Games.

I am grateful to the members of the IOC and various national delegates for their encouragement and support of our candidature. We extend our thanks also to President Willi Daume and members of the National Olympic Committee of Germany for capably organizing this session of the IOC. I have been deeply touched by the warm hospitality shown to all of us by the citizens of Baden-Baden.

At this very moment, the 38 million people of the Republic of Korea, and especially the citizens of Seoul, are focusing their attention and expectations on this IOC session, which will decide the host city for the Games of the 24th Olympiad in 1988. They hope and desire from the bottom of their hearts that each and every member of the IOC will support Seoul's candidature.

Many years ago, the City of Seoul initiated long range plans to develop facilities suitable for holding the Olympic Games. Construction has been underway already for a number of years, and I believe our response to the IOC Questionnaire reflects the energetic and dedicated efforts we have been making in preparation for the Olympic Games.

Distinguished members of the International Olympic Committee!

I am not proposing Seoul as the site for the 1988 Olympics, simply because facilities both already built and now under construction would best meet the requirements of the Olympic Games. This is, of course, a very important consideration. But even more important, we believe that Olympic Games in Seoul would accomplish the goal of the Olympic Movement of contributing to world peace, since the spirit of international goodwill through fair sportsmanship would help insure a true and lasting peace on the Korea soil.

I'm certain that a decision by the IOC to hold the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul would be a most important act in furthering its goal of world peace. Olympic Games in Seoul would truly be a forum for peace and broadened mutual understanding among all mankind.

I sincerely solicit your active support for all of our endeavors. I should be delighted to be able to invite all of you to the Seoul Olympics of 1988 in the hope that you would enjoy the traditional warmth and hospitality that is characteristic of the Korean people.

President Sang-Ho Cho of the Korean Olympic Committee will continue to brief you in detail on Seoul's plans for hosting the Olympics in 1988.

Thank you very much.

**2) Presentation by Sang-Ho Cho, President Korean Olympic Committee**

Mr. President, Honorable members of the International Olympic Committee, Ladies and Gentlemen.

As President of the Korean Olympic Committee, I am pleased to inform you that in connection with the application submitted by the City of Seoul for hosting the 1988 Summer Olympic Games, our committee has rendered all possible cooperation and assistance as required by the spirit of the International Olympic Committee Charter and other relevant regulations.

As the Mayor, on behalf of the citizens of Seoul, has just made clear, he is determined to host the 1988 Olympic Games. The people of Seoul join in this expectation for hosting the Games and they enjoy the full support and encouragement of all the people and the government of Korea.

At this moment, 8.5 million Seoul citizens are watching this IOC session with great eagerness. They are hopeful for the support of each of the IOC members.

With a long-standing view toward hosting the Olympic Games, Seoul City, already in the 1970s, made detailed investigation into its possibilities for hosting the games and began to take concrete steps in this regard.

For example, the City in 1977 secured a sports site of 545,000m<sup>2</sup> which will include as its centerpiece the main stadium with the capacity of 100,000.

With 60% of the construction already completed, it is expected that the stadium will be ready for use by 1983.

In 1979, the city secured 2,640,000m<sup>2</sup> of land in the suburbs for building a National Sports Complex which would be appropriate for 1988 Summer Olympic Games.

I believe that the distinguished members of the IOC have a good understanding of the plan and efforts of Seoul City for hosting the 1988 Summer Olympic Games, by virtue of its replies to questionnaires submitted to the IOC. Since the time for my presentation is limited, I'll summarize only salient points.

First, Seoul is the capital of the Republic of Korea. It has transportation, communication, accommodation, cultural and other facilities comparable to those of other cities which have successfully hosted the Olympic Games in the past.

Second, the City of Seoul has successfully organized and hosted the

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42nd World Shooting Championships in 1978, the 8th World Women's Basketball Championships in 1979, the 2nd Asian Athletic Championships in 1975, and other important international events. Seoul's plan to host the Olympic Games is based upon these valuable experiences in managing international games and events.

Third, except for a few special facilities required for the Olympics, Seoul already has most of the necessary sports facilities, including the main and auxiliary stadiums, either fully completed and in use or in advanced stage of construction.

Most of the required facilities including Olympic Village are concentrated in close proximity of the sports complex, and are linked by subways and road-ways presently in existence so that we do not face transportation difficulties.

Fourth, Korea has two broadcasting stations with nationwide networks and one earth station with an international transmitting system using two Pacific and Indian circuit lines.

In addition, Korea plans to erect two more earth stations, and one reserve station, which will be adequate to cover the 1988 Olympic Games.

Fifth, Seoul receives more than one million foreign tourists each year who enjoy free and safe travelling. A large number of international sports events have been hosted in Seoul to the satisfaction of all participants. At these meetings, all affiliated federations have been invited without exception. In short, there is no cause for concern about the free and safe entry and exit of Olympic officials, athletes, and spectators participating in the Olympic Games.

In order to ensure this principle in regard with the Olympic Games, the Republic of Korea has submitted to the IOC an official letter guaranteeing the free entry and exit for all. I know that many IOC members present here have visited Korea, and I think that they are in a position to bear out my statement.

Sixth, the medical facilities and medical staff in Seoul City are entirely efficient to meet all IOC requirements, including the administration of doping tests. In this matter, we pledge full cooperation with the IOC medical commission.

Seventh, Korea has a large number of well trained and skilled people who have received advanced education. Especially, there are colleges and universities which provide instruction in foreign languages and training for language specialists. This will resolve any possible language barriers for officials and athletes who will come to Seoul for the Olympics.

Eighth, Seoul City can provide adequate Olympic cultural programs

based upon its unique cultural heritage and characteristics. Seoul will set up an Olympic Youth Camp in a scenic spot near Seoul so that the young people of the world may have glimpses of Korea, the "Land of the Morning Calm."

Ninth, Korea has maintained a high annual economic growth rate of 10% in the 1970s and is expected to sustain its economic growth in the 1980s.

Given this prospect of economic development, Seoul will be able to provide even better facilities and environment to meet the needs of the 1988 Olympic Games.

Tenth, I wish to emphasize as an important point that Seoul and the Republic of Korea, have never hosted the Olympic Games. Considering the Olympic principle of universality, of free and full participation of all peoples and nations, it is important, and indeed stated many times at this congress, to share the hosting role among nations and thus spread the Olympic Movement throughout the world. Accordingly, award of the Games to Seoul is acting along the principle laid down with the Olympic Charter.

I sincerely appeal to the members of the IOC to support the courage and efforts which the City of Seoul has demonstrated by its initiative to host the 1988 Olympic Games, the first such endeavor ever undertaken by a developing country in the history of the Olympics.

Mr. President, The Republic of Korea faithfully upholds the spirit of sportsmanship stipulated in the Charter of the IOC!

I would like to specially address some members here who might be concerned about the reality of the division of my country. I wish to express my deep appreciation on this occasion to the delegates of those countries with whom we have as yet no formal relations, for their invitations to our officials and players to participate in the sports events held in their countries, and for their participation in sports events in our country.

I am convinced that one of the most important roles the IOC plays in the quest for world peace is to provide a forum for dialogue and communication through sports events for countries having differing political ideologies.

I believe that Seoul has sufficient capabilities to hold the 1988 Summer Olympic Games in view of its conditions and of the international status enjoyed by the Republic of Korea.

This point was well borne out by the delegates of the IOC, NOC and ISF who visited Korea early this year to look into the sports facilities and related environment of Seoul.

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Mr. President, Distinguished Members of the IOC, we have perhaps been too busy constructing facilities and somehow neglected to inform the sporting world about it.

The City of Seoul firmly pledges to you that it will promote friendship among other participating countries through the 1988 Olympic Games, and that it will contribute to the advancement of world peace by the effective and harmonized management of the Olympic events. It appeals to you to take the principle of spreading the Olympic Movement throughout the world into your consideration. It guarantees mentally and logistically that it will be ready to host the Games.

Our motto is Friendship, Harmony, and Peace.

I sincerely hope to have the opportunity of welcoming all the IOC members gathered here at the grand opening ceremony for the 1988 Summer Olympic Games in the main stadium in Seoul. It will be a great honor and pleasure for me personally as well as in my official capacity.

Finally, I am pleased to announce that I have with me a film which shows the existing and planned facilities in Seoul and the overall developing situation of the city. This will assist to bring closer to reality what I have stated in my presentation.

I hope those members who have never visited Seoul will gain some insights into the City of Seoul, and after the film the Korean delegation would be very glad to respond to any questions you might raise.

Thank you.

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## MEASURING WRITING PROFICIENCY OF COLLEGE ESL STUDENTS

Ho-Peng Lim

### Abstract

Previous studies on writing proficiency of college students have focused primarily on native English writers; few have focused on writers for whom English is a second language. The current educational trend shows that more and more ESL students are pursuing college-level education in English-speaking universities abroad, and that proficiency in writing is a major academic requirement for these ESL students. Many of these second language learners may have obtained the required basic qualifications to allow them to undertake college work but they still need additional writing instruction and practice before they can meet the standards set in traditional freshmen composition courses. This paper addresses the need for more research in the area of assessment of writing proficiency of college ESL students. Research in the writing of college ESL students is still in the infant stages. More research will be needed in order to help determine how college ESL students function as writers, how competent they are, or how they differ from or are similar to native speakers in their writing abilities.

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### Introduction

Teachers preparing English as a Second Language (ESL) students for college-level work have for some time felt the need for a direct measure of their students' ability to produce syntactically mature prose. An instrument that could directly measure second language learners' ability to control syntactic structures while attempting to produce mature writing, would be of practical value to ESL teachers interested in facilitating the language development of their students.

The purpose of this paper is to highlight the need for more research in the assessment of writing proficiency of college ESL students. Previous studies on syntactic maturity levels, and on differences in syntactic structures, have focused primarily on native English writers; few have focused on writers for whom English is a second language.

### Research in the Area of Writing

For several decades now researchers in the area of writing have tried to describe in objective, quantitative and revealing terms what syntactic differences can be observed in the writing of schoolchildren and adults at varying stages in their language development. Following the publication of Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* (1957), considerable research has been carried out that examines various performance aspects of syntactic complexity.

Research in the writing of college ESL students, however, is still in the beginning stages. There are many articles which present research results of groups of students but little information is readily available regarding how college ESL students function as writers, how competent they are, or how they differ from or are similar to native speakers in their writing abilities.

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In addition to the fact that research in ESL writing has not provided us with universally accepted theoretical or practical answers, there is the fact that current research in second language learning has developed in several directions.

In the last two decades, although there was strong concern for research on writing and on written products, Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer (1963:5) came to the conclusion that "today's research in composition, taken as a whole, may be compared to chemical research as it emerged from the period of alchemy: some terms are being defined usefully, a number of procedures are being refined, but the field as a whole is laced with dreams, prejudices, and makeshift operations." After surveying much of the then existing research on writing, Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer outlined basic problems in conducting research in writing, and showed potential researchers how to refine the "structure and technique" of their studies.

Although Braddock, Lloyd-Jones, and Schoer (1963:31-32) identified new questions which were likely to lead researchers into "unexplored territory," and indicated the need for "direct observation" and case study procedures in their suggestions for future research, they heavily emphasized pedagogical, comparison-group studies. They raised pertinent questions, such as "What is involved in the act of writing?" and "What does skill in writing actually consist of?", which could lead to basic research in writing, but their emphasis was on studies that appeared to assume we already had a thorough understanding of writing and the written products.

Unlike those researchers cited by Braddock, et al., many researchers in the 1970's and 1980's like Hunt (1970a, 1977), Odell, Cooper and Courts (1978), Faigley (1979), Sharma (1979, 180), Flahive and Snow (1980), Gaies (1980), Ferris and Politzer (1981), McKay (1981), Buchanan (1982), Harris (1982), Jones (1982), and Zamel (1983), make no such assumption. Rather, these researchers raise questions which

invite us to test, to examine, and to modify our basic assumptions about writing and syntactic complexity among college students.

### Research in First Language Composition

Early researchers into syntactic complexity, such as Loban (1963), Hunt (1964, 1965, 1966, 1968) and O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris (1967), concentrated their studies mainly on children who were native speakers of English. Hunt (1964, 1965, 1966, 1968, 1970a, 1970b and 1977), the name most often associated with research in syntactic development, adopted the technique of dividing groups of words into what he identified as "minimal terminable units" or T-units.

In one of his early studies Hunt (1965) investigated the free writing of schoolchildren in grades 4, 8, and 12, and the writing of skilled adults who wrote for *Harper's* and *Atlantic* magazines. Each grade group consisted of a total of 18 students, nine male and nine female. The group of skilled adults who were native speakers of English was made up of nine from each magazine. In this study Hunt used the T-unit as his main measuring device to examine the syntactic development in the free writing of his subjects. The study by O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris also used the T-unit as one of their measures in studying syntactic development in both the speech and free writing of kindergarten and elementary schoolchildren.

The findings by Hunt (1965) and O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris (1967) reveal that there is evidence to indicate that throughout the school years, from kindergarten to graduation, English-speaking children learn to use a larger and larger number of sentence-combining transformations per main clause in their writing.

The studies by Hunt (1965) and O'Donnell, Griffin, and

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Norris (1967) have dealt with two different kinds of free writing. It is therefore possible to assume that the influence of subject matter upon the sentence structures produced by the subjects could be an important factor for consideration in determining the progressive increase in syntactic complexity. Generally, older writers tend to write on more sophisticated subjects or to deal with ordinary subjects in more sophisticated ways, and in studies like these, the subject and the treatment of the subject might have had as much to do with the sentence structures chosen as the age and syntactic capabilities of the writers.

Since the studies by Hunt (1965) and O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris (1967), a vast amount of research on writing ability of native speakers of English has been carried out. Investigators such as Mellon (1969), O'Hare (1973), Combs (1976), Maimon and Nodine (1978), Mulder, et al. (1978), Daiker, et al. (1978), Morenberg, et al. (1978), Faigley (1979) and Haswell (1981), have used the T-unit as an index of syntactic maturity to demonstrate that sentence-combining exercises can accelerate significantly the syntactic growth of widely disparate age groups among native speakers of English.

Other studies on the assessment of writing proficiency of native speakers have been carried out by Hunt (1970a, 1977), Stewart (1978), Freedman (1980), King (1981), and Corwhurst (1980). Collectively, these studies have demonstrated that syntactic complexity (that is, the effective use of subordinate clauses) develops chronologically in the writing of English-speaking subjects.

Hunt's study (1970a) makes use of a rewrite passage with native speakers of English. He studies the rewriting abilities of groups of students, 50 in each group, at grades 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12, and then compares these with groups described as "average" and "skilled" adults. Hunt examines a number of factors and measures syntactic development in his subjects.

From an analysis of syntactic structures written by the

subjects, Hunt finds that the level of syntactic complexity of all his subjects increases consistently as they mature and progress through the formal education system. "Average" adults are shown to be slightly above grade 12 while there is a sharp rise in the level of complexity shown by "skilled" adults over that of the grade 12 and "average" adult groups.

Using the same instrument and procedures employed in 1970 by Hunt to measure writing proficiency, Stewart reports on an experiment to determine whether growth in syntactic maturity continues to increase as a person leaves high school and proceeds through six years of study in a university. His native English-speaking subjects are drawn from 126 students from grades 10, 11, and 12, and 176 university students. Stewart finds Hunt's procedures and measures to be useful in measuring writing proficiency among his subjects.

From his experiment Stewart concludes that:

(a) students in the first three years of university do not display significant gains in syntactic maturity over levels reached in the last years of high school;

(b) students in the fifth and sixth years of university do display gains over high school and lower level university students; and

(c) mean words per T-unit appears to be the best of those measures of syntactic growth employed by Hunt.

Stewart (1978:46) advocates replication of his study and further research in the area of writing proficiency of college students in order that the entire question of the nature of syntactic maturity and the measurement of its development "be re-examined and subjected to much more investigation." Stewart concludes that "the identification and assessment of desirable changes in students' writing are no mean chores,

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and right now, this particular line of approach looks most promising." (46)

Although all the studies mentioned so far have implicitly or explicitly indicated growth in syntactic complexity in the writing of native speakers of English, there is reason to believe that the impact of syntactic development, vis-à-vis the writing proficiency of college ESL students has not been adequately examined.

## Research in ESL Composition

The history of this research is limited since only a very few studies to date have involved the measurement of writing proficiency of ESL or foreign language learners at all levels of education. It appears that research on writing in general and on ESL writing in particular, has yet to produce work that would ensure wide recognition for the value of process studies in composition. One possible limitation of work done to date is methodological

Perl (1979:317), describing the state of research on writing, indicates that narrative descriptions of the writing process "do not provide sufficiently graphic evidence for the perception of underlying regularities and patterns." Without such evidence, she contends, it is difficult to generate well-defined hypotheses and to move from exploratory research in writing to more controlled experimental studies. Perl points out that one limitation pertains to the subjects studied: to date not many examinations of the writing process have dealt primarily with subjects for whom English is a second language.

With the recent growth of and interest in the assessment of writing proficiency in ESL, researchers like Larsen-Freeman and Strom (1970), Larsen-Freeman (1978), Sharma (1979, 1980), Kameen (1979), Flahive and Snow (1980) and Gaies (1980), have acknowledged the need for an index of develop-

ment by which an ESL learner's proficiency in the English language should be gauged.

Kameen (1979:343) argues that in order to "better prepare composition teachers to help their ESL students learn to write," it is essential to have "a more thorough understanding of the relationship between syntactic skill and ESL writing quality, an understanding based on a solid body of empirical data." From the results of an exploratory study to determine if there was a correlation between syntactic skills and scores assigned to compositions written by college-level ESL students, Kameen (1979:349) concluded that "in terms of length of writing units, T-unit length and clause length appear to be much more reliable indices of rated quality than is the time-honored index of sentence length."

While Flahive and Snow (1980) concede that "there is far more writing than length of T-unit or clause per T-unit," they acknowledge that these measures are "relatively useful in determining levels of overall ESL proficiency and in predicting the overall effectiveness of writing ability."

Consequently, the T-unit as an index of measurement for writing proficiency, first used by Hunt (1970a, 1970b, 1977), has found favor in ESL research in recent years. The T-unit was first adopted in the form of error-free T-unit by Scott and Tucker (1974), who wanted an index of measurement which reflected error frequency as well as syntactic complexity in the writing of their experimental subjects. Both the T-unit and the error-free T-unit have come to be recognized by both first language and second language researchers as easily computable, objective measures of syntactic growth in writing proficiency, and are far more valid than the traditional measures, such as sentence length.

Larsen-Freeman and Strom (1977) state that the T-unit is a viable measure on which to base an index of ESL development. In fact, in her research, Larsen-Freeman (1978) has found that the average number of words per error-free T-unit

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discriminates very well between different levels of ESL proficiency. Her study, however, poses a problem with an uneven distribution of subjects among her groups, and there have been several overlapping standard deviations. Larsen-Freeman points out that her groups are not homogenous regarding proficiency, which means that any one individual may fit into more than one group based on any one of her indices of writing proficiency taken alone.

Other studies on language development and on college-student writing that have utilized the T-units in an ESL context, have been carried out by Arthur (1979), Celce-Murcia and Santos (1979), Perkins (1980), and Ferris and Politzer (1981).

Arthur's study on the measurement of writing proficiency of English as a Second Language students at the University of Michigan indicates that assessment of writing proficiency does provide an objective look at some short-term changes that could occur in the writing skills of learners of ESL. Using nine measurements made on each of 152 compositions written by 14 lower-intermediate level ESL students, Arthur determines a number of changes in the writing skills of his students. From his analysis Arthur (1979:342) concludes that "the most notable improvements were in writing speed and in vocabulary size." Although Arthur has used T-units in three of the nine measurements to measure grammatical sophistication, he reports that "there was no significant change" in the frequency of grammatical errors. Although an exploratory study, Arthur's work is an example of research that has used measures based on the T-units to measure language development of students based on samples of their writing.

Drawing on the work of Larsen-Freeman (1978) and Arthur (1979), Celce-Murcia and Santos (1979) have utilized T-units and error-free T-units to measure the writing proficiency of a native user of American Sign Language studying ESL over a

period of one year. At the end of the year both researchers found that there was a "striking increase" in ESL language development, particularly in the number of words, the average length of T-units, and the average length of the error-free T-units. This study by Celce-Murcia and Santos appears to be the first to utilize T-units and error-free T-units in studying the developing features of the inter-language of a native user of American Sign Language studying English as a Second Language.

Perkins (1980) has utilized T-units and error-free T-units as two of ten objective measures of writing proficiency to evaluate compositions written by advanced level ESL students at the Center of English as a Second Language, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale. Perkins (1980:67) finds that "objective measures which take the absence of errors into account discriminate among holistic qualitative judgments of compositions from one level of proficiency." His conclusion is that whatever measures are isolated will have to be error-free if they are to discriminate among compositions written by advanced-level students of English as a Second Language.

Ferris and Politzer (1981) adopt the T-unit evaluation of writing proficiency to measure differences in ESL writing skills of a group of Spanish-speaking junior high school students. The investigators use three indices of writing measurement for their research: (1) the average clause length, (2) the number of words per T-unit, and (3) the number of clauses per T-unit. Although their findings do not reveal significant results for clause length and average number of clauses per T-unit, Ferris and Politzer (1981:267) contend that ESL students "who write large T-units are generally accepted as better writers by teachers and writing authorities because they possess greater flexibility in the kinds of sentences they can write."

In summarizing the trends in experimental procedures and analyses of the writing proficiency studies with college ESL

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learners, it is possible to see that, by and large, variables such as sex, age, major subject area, or length of time studying the English language, have not been controlled for nor have subjects been specifically described in terms of some standardized measures, such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, which could facilitate replication. In the major findings and conclusions of the studies on college ESL writers, no single index has proven satisfactory as *the* predictor of ESL writing proficiency.

### Conclusions

In language learning the development of a learner's syntactic component is a continuous process. The syntactic component responds to demands made upon it rather as muscles respond when working with increasingly heavy weights. This process is as active with second language college students as with native speakers of English.

Many second language learners who have obtained the required proficiency to allow them to take college-level courses often need additional writing instruction and practice before they can meet the standards set in traditional freshman competition courses.

Proficiency in writing is a major academic requirement for learners of ESL preparing for college-level work, whether in overseas or local colleges. ESL teachers preparing such students have for some time felt the need for a direct measure of their students' ability to produce syntactically mature prose. Many existing language tests and measurements, because of their emphasis on objectivity and reliability, have encouraged the use of indirect measurement of writing skills.

Facilitating second language learners' control over written structures to a degree approximating that of native speakers

is the major objective of most college ESL teachers. To evaluate this facilitation, indirect measures like the TOEFL, the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, university placement and proficiency tests such as the English as a Second Language Placement Examination (ESLPE) at the University of California at Los Angeles are generally used. These measures have, at best, concurrent validity. Recognition of correct syntax is generally not synonymous with correct production of syntax. An instrument which could directly measure second language learners' ability to control syntactic structures while attempting to produce mature writing, would be of more practical value to college ESL teachers interested in facilitating the language development of their students.

At present, in most colleges where there are ESL classes, syntactic structures are taught at a variety of proficiency levels with some structures being taught at the "low" level, some at the "intermediate" level, and others at the "advanced" level. It might be difficult to define precisely the "low," "intermediate," and "advanced" levels except in qualitative and subjective terms. Some syntactic structures have to be taught first, and some last. If teachers of ESL knew what structures tended to be used at the different levels of proficiency, such knowledge might be one consideration, though not the only one, in helping them decide what should be taught when.

The main aim of this paper is to emphasize that as long as native speakers of English are the focus, it remains unclear as to how research on writing will provide teachers with a firmer understanding of the needs of college ESL students with serious writing problems. Due to inadequate research or to the manner in which the data has been elicited or the insufficient amount of data in the samples, not much is known about the syntactic characteristics in the writing of college ESL students at varying stages in their English lan-

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guage development.

A more thorough understanding of these syntactic characteristics in the writing of college ESL students, an understanding based on a body of empirical data, will better prepare composition teachers of ESL to meet the writing needs of their students. The findings of such studies, based on a body of empirical data, apart from the contribution to knowledge of college ESL learners' mastery of the English language, will provide useful information for curriculum planners preparing writing courses in ESL, and for teaching methods in the ESL writing classrooms. These studies will also contribute knowledge to the field of applied linguistics by shedding some light on the difficulties and successes college ESL learners encounter in developing control over the written language.

It is hoped that more studies in the area of writing will focus on students for whom English is a second language. The results of such studies would be extremely useful to teachers preparing ESL students for college-level work both in the local and foreign institutions of higher learning.

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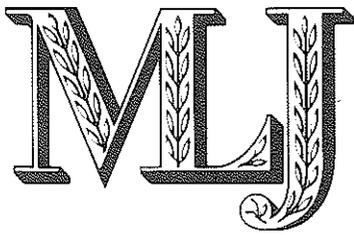
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# SIGN LANGUAGE IN ESOL

Masayo Yamamoto

## Abstract

Recent research implies that, under certain conditions, English may be taught more effectively when it is used as the medium of instruction than as the subject. This paper explores the possible use of sign language as an activity in ESOL classrooms to be conducted in the medium of English. The physical and graphic qualities of sign language may make it uniquely useful in linking previous experiences to the target language without reference to the native language, thus breaking the translation cycle which hinders expressive use of the target language.

## Introduction

In Japan, English is taught in the public schools beginning at the junior-high level. From my teaching experiences, I find that by the end of the first semester students can be classified into two groups: those who are still curious about English and are interested in studying further, and those who already find themselves humiliated and confused, have begun to detest English and have given up further devotion to its study,

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except as another chore to be done. Even if the actual difference in language proficiency is not great, the motivation gap is very real, becoming more pronounced with increasing years of study. In searching for something to bridge this gap, I have begun to consider the use of sign language as an additional technique for the ESOL classroom.

### **Why Sign Language? Some Rationales and Justifications**

One of the most interesting finds to come out of recent research is some confirmation of the notion that English used as the medium of instruction is more valuable for the mastery and retention of English language skills than the study of English per se (Lambert & Tucker 1972; Saegert, Perkins & Tucker 1974; Tucker & D'Anglejan 1974; Harrison, Prator & Tucker 1975; Krashen & Terrell 1983). The implications of these studies are very profound in terms of both teacher qualifications and curriculum design. One implication would seem to be that teachers' non-linguistic skills, talents or knowledge (e.g., auto mechanics, cooking, etc.) may find valid expression in the ESOL classrooms. Another implication is that the subject chosen for teaching via the English medium should be interesting, relatively unfamiliar to all the students equally, and a subject in which progress is easily observable even by the students themselves. Sign language could fit these criteria.

The use of sign language for ESOL teaching may give the poorer students — and the better students, as well — the opportunity of a new challenge and, by returning all the students to an equal footing again, might be able to alleviate the humiliation factor, at least temporarily.

Despite its current state of theoretical disrepute, the translation method still prevails in Japanese school systems, as well

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as in many other foreign language teaching situations. This method has some economic and administrative advantages: non-natives can teach without actually being good speakers themselves and it is relatively easy for the non-native teacher to evaluate the students' mastery of assigned material. Also, in Rivers' words, "[t]he teacher does not need to show much imagination in planning his lessons since he usually follows the textbook page by page and exercise by exercise" (Rivers 1968:17). We need not dwell upon the defects, however, for Rivers again sums them up concisely: ". . . communication skills are neglected; there is a great deal of stress on knowing rules and exceptions, but little training in using the language actively to express one's own meaning, even in writing" (Rivers 1968:17). Students who have been taught through the translation method tend to translate each word into their native language; the thrust of recent research is to strongly suggest that this cycle be broken.

The question is, in order to break the cycle, how to build direct links between new L2 vocabulary and previous experiences. To the students, a new word is little more than a meaningless sequence of sounds or letters. The crucial difference between the native language and a foreign language, however, is the fact that words may evoke past experiences more easily in the mother tongue. The native speaker encountering a new word in his own language may vividly recall experiences in his mother tongue to relate this new word to, but the foreign student must build up links somewhat artificially and purposefully, not naturally and spontaneously. One way to build up these links is to establish a route via the first language, which is, of course, the translation method. Breaking the translation cycle involves building these links directly. Meaningful experience is seen as a very important – perhaps the most important – factor for learning (which is, of course, what ESOL theoreticians have been saying for years, but which is not easy to implement).

Among ways of increasing the number of meaningful experiences in the language classroom, those involving physical activity have been in the forefront of the "new methodologies."

For example, the drama approach offers alternative attempts to achieve the mission without the intermediate translation step. Via writes:

The drama method offers a chance for the students to use and understand the language from the gut level. They can become involved in the situation and discover the how and why of the language. They are learning through the experience of communicating in the language; thus, their understanding of the language is greatly enhanced. (1976:6)

And Maley and Duff say:

Drama attempts to put back some of this forgotten emotional content into language – and to put the body back too. (1978:2)

Asher, who is the leading advocate of Total Physical Response (Asher 1969, 1972; Asher, Kusudo & de la Torre 1974), believes that meaningful experience helps to link new vocabulary items directly to the set of concepts which are internalized in each individual. Asher words it as follows:

It seems clear . . . that most students (about 80%) can rapidly internalize the linguistic code – the structure of the language and vocabulary – when language is synchronized with actual movements of the student's body. (Asher, Kusudo & de la Torre 1974:26)

Sign language may also be a useful tool for breaking the translation cycle. If we could enable the student to internally

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visualize an input more graphically (Hall 1976), we might be able to tap the internalized concepts without going through the mother tongue.

Before formally proposing the use of sign language as a TESOL tool, allow me first to present a brief technical description of it, so that its unique advantages may be more easily appreciated.

### The Sign Language Systems and Sign Categories

#### A. The Sign Language Systems

“ . . . There is no such thing as a single Sign Language. The terms [sic], Sign Language, refer to any and all gesture languages” (Fant 1972:iii). Although there are many sign languages in the world that might be considered for use as a TESOL activity, considering all of them is beyond the scope of this paper. By *sign language* here I wish to limit my meaning to the language used exclusively by deaf people in the United States. The prototype language of deaf signs was introduced to America in 1817 by Thomas Gallaudet and Laurent Clerc from France, where it had been developed and refined for about 60 years at the Abbe de l'Eppe's school for the deaf. At present there are two main patterns of sign language used most by deaf people in the United States: Siglish and Ameslan.

##### 1) Siglish (Signed English)

Siglish was promoted to teach English to deaf people. It follows the grammatical order of English. It substitutes signs for English words and uses fingerspelling frequently. “It is English presented visually on the hands, rather than orally by the voice” (Fant 1972:iii).

## 2) Ameslan or ASL (American Sign Language)

Ameslan has its own syntax, different from that of English. The signs convey concepts and facial and body expressions play a very important role to convey meanings. Fingerspelling is little used.

In order to avoid confusion, hereafter I will use the term *SIGN* in upper case letters to refer to either of these two systems. In lower case letters, *sign* will refer to the visual representation of a word or letter.

### B. Categories of Signs

Signs may be categorized into three groups, depending on the closeness of the relationship between the signs and their referents.

- 1) Natural signs: those which seem to be universally understood without any explanations; very close to mime.

<i>eat</i>	<i>drink</i>
<i>hear</i>	<i>push</i>

- 2) Signs requiring some explanation:
  - a) Basic signs requiring some explanation but whose forms exhibit a reasonable resemblance to their referents.

<i>teach</i>	<i>hot</i>
<i>learn</i>	<i>cold</i>
<i>training</i>	<i>water</i>

- b) Signs consisting of combinations of other signs; some are rather conceptual.

<i>student = study + person</i>
<i>agree = think + same</i>
<i>disagree = think + opposite</i>

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*wife = female + marriage*

*gentleman = male + fine*

*sister = female + same*

- 3) Arbitrary signs: those whose forms do not have any evident relationship to their referents.

*careless*            *color*

*skillful*            *queer*

The layman's initial impression might be that most signs are mime-like and not arbitrary, but in reality, most of them "are not so iconic that a nonsigner could immediately guess their meaning. Historically, signs have become less pantomimic over time, becoming more systematically related to each other and assuming more arbitrary shapes and positions" (de Villiers & de Villiers 1978:238).

Deaf people depend predominantly on vision. Therefore, the visualization of SIGN is a crucial aspect. SIGN might be described as a language with built-in facial and body expressions in pictorial images. In fact, SIGN may be characterized as having three aspects, all vital to effective communication: (1) the signs themselves, (2) facial and body expressions, and (3) imagination -- the visualization or pictorialization of situations. Therefore, an idea may not be properly conveyed merely by signing the proper sign:

Head movement and facial expression can completely change the meaning of a sign. For instance, when the sign for "like" is accompanied by a pleasant expression it is clearly indicative of enjoyment, while exactly the same sign accompanied by a negative shaking of the head will portray dislike. Deaf persons do not focus so much on reading each other's hands as they do on reading the face and the overall body language. (Riekehof 1978:9)

### A Suggested Application of SIGN

How can SIGN be applied to the teaching of English? I would like to propose one application, which would be to teach one of the SIGN systems using English as the medium of instruction. It is most important that English be spoken during instruction. It is also important that the students' native language not be used; otherwise the value of English as the instructional medium would be lost. Probably in the beginning, a modified direct method would be used: lots of pictures, miming and actions would be required in order to convey the sign's meaning. The difference here is that the teacher should keep the running English commentary while teaching the signs. The result is that the students would in fact be acquiring English as they concentrated on the signs they were supposed to be learning (cf. Krashen & Terrell 1983:55, on the topic of "comprehensible input"). For example, here is the procedure for signing *satisfy*:

Both open hands, palms down, are placed against the chest, right above the left, and pushed down. (Riekehof 1978:75)

The teacher would perform the action while giving the instructions in English. Then the teacher would require the students to perform along with him/her, in the classical TPR manner. After that, the student might be asked to perform without the teacher, merely following the instructions. This proposal is twofold: it may be seen, on the one hand, as an ESOL activity on the order of using English as the medium to teach another subject and it could be viewed, on the other hand, as a specialized form of TPR. It would provide both "teacher talk" and visual aid for comprehensible input, and at the same time physical activity for meaningful experience.

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The choice of which SIGN system to teach should remain with the teacher: Deaf people seem to feel more comfortable with the high-speed, more abstract and less redundant Ameslan system, but other people, especially hearing signers, may feel more at ease with the more detailed Siglish, which is a visual representation of English. Regardless of which system is taught, however, the teacher will not be able to completely ignore fingerspelling. In SIGN classes for hearing persons learning to communicate with the deaf, vocalization is not used for spelling out the word along with the spelling hand-signs, but it is used for pronouncing the word syllable by syllable in time with the hand. It seems wise to follow this precedent in the ESOL SIGN class, too, in order to present both eye and ear with more real language stimuli. For example, *book* should not be vocalized as /bi:-ou-ou-kei/ but as /buk/.

### Possible Problems in Implementing the Use of SIGN

#### A. Teaching Training

The most predictable problem would be teacher training. Because the technique is still largely untried, the teachers' burden would be heavier than before. This means that teachers wishing to try SIGN as a TESOL technique would have to exert considerable effort; it is obviously not a technique that every teacher would wish to adopt. On the other hand, many other techniques now commonly in use required a significant amount of teacher training and exertion for the sake of enhanced professionalism. To begin with, the teachers themselves would have to know how to sign to a reasonable extent. Sincere there are not many people who know SIGN outside of the United States,<sup>1</sup> intensive workshops would be needed. According to Riekehof:

. . . One should usually count on a period of 1 or 2 years before attaining an adequate level of competency. To become a proficient interpreter for the deaf, an additional learning period of 1 or 2 years is required. (Riekehof 1978:8)

One or two years, as Riekehof suggested, might be necessary for a person to communicate with deaf people. However, teachers who want to use SIGN as a device for helping their students learn English more effectively would not necessarily have to be that skilled. Furthermore, although it would be preferable for teachers to attain an adequate level of competency, necessary training in SIGN depends on the extent to which each individual teacher may want to apply it.

#### **B. Selecting and Applying a Particular SIGN System**

No matter how long or short the training, without understanding the underlying principles involved, SIGN will become just another chore. The teacher must understand the basic principles, be aware of the specific learning difficulties, and know how (in what way and for how long) to apply SIGN to solve the problems at hand.

As noted above, SIGN refers to Siglish or Ameslan. The two systems use basically the same signs, with the following exceptions: (1) there is some variation in the signs which refer to concepts, and (2) each system has signs which the other system lacks, the most notable example being the signed representations of morphemes such as *-ing* or *-ness*, used in Siglish but not in Ameslan. The main difference between the

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<sup>1</sup>Even in the U.S., SIGN is basically used only for communication among the deaf or between deaf and hearing people who have been specifically trained in SIGN. However, to my surprise "it is estimated that ASL is used by more than 500,000 deaf and hearing people in the United States alone. This makes ASL the fourth most frequently used language in the country (after English, Spanish, and Italian)." (Terrace 1979:67)

## Sign Language

two systems, however, is that each has its own syntactic frame.

Which system or what combination of systems to use in any given situation is left to the individual teacher's discretion. Teachers trying to make use of SIGN by basically focusing on concepts may choose the Ameslan system, since it is the more heavily concept-based. Of course, the immediate problem is that Ameslan has its own syntax, which is different from that of English, so its usefulness may be limited.

ASL uses one sign concept to cover several English words. Example: Although the phrase "after a while" contains three words, it is made with one sign representing the concept "later." The sign for "past" can also mean "in the past," "once upon a time," or "a long time ago," depending on how large the sign is made. (Riekehof 1978:11)

On the other hand, if the teacher wants to focus on grammar, Siglish should be a natural choice, since it was invented to teach English syntax to deaf people.

Siglish is the method being promoted by some educators, formalizing signs into a system that parallels the English language exactly through the use of markers (prefixes, suffixes, plural endings, tenses, and various word-form changes). Also included are signs to designate articles and infinitives. This use of English along with signs, markers, and fingerspelling is generally supported for classroom use in order to give students an exact representation of the English language. (Riekehof 1978:11)

Unfortunately, deaf people say it is legalistic, redundant, unnecessary for comprehension, and boring to watch. Siglish tends to slow communication.

Bearing this in mind, different possibilities exist: One system can be used exclusively or features of each system can be

used alternately, in a sequence, or in combination. Arbitrary signs can be avoided. Coherent planning is necessary, however.

Although fingerspelling is not often used in the Ameslan system, it should be very useful for ESOL purposes and could easily be taught under either system applied. Students may see it as fun and it might make them more intently aware of spelling. It should be kept in mind that, as previously noted, words pronounced in syllables as they are fingerspelled would provide more real language input than the mere vocalization of the spelling would.

Although it may be difficult to achieve, the use of SIGN as a language learning activity may be effective. At this point it is still only a suggestion and closer consideration is necessary before it could be used as an English teaching activity.

#### Summary and Suggestions for Future Research

This paper has presented a proposal to teach sign language in the medium of English as an ESOL activity. The rationales for this proposal are (1) that some (though not all) signs are highly graphic and may thus help to break the excessive dependence on translation into the native language, (2) that signs may help to form links between new English vocabulary and the student's previous experiences, and (3) that activating one's body may help the student internalize the linguistic code. The paper discussed an application of sign language and considered two possible problems in implementing the proposal: teacher training and the selection of a particular SIGN system.

Future research should center on gathering objective data regarding the efficacy of sign language teaching within language classrooms, to test the writer's subjective assessment of it as a workable language learning/teaching tool.

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## REVIEW

**TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES.** Earl W. Stevick. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982. pp. 215.

Although written as a practical guide for beginning teachers, Stevick's *Teaching and Learning Languages* is neither a 'how-to-do-it' cookbook nor an explication of the 'Stevick method.' Instead, the focus is on the understanding of the principles of language learning coupled with the description of a "large number of techniques drawn from a wide variety of methods – some old, some new, some widely used, some relatively unknown" (Preface, p. 2). Stevick's focus is on understanding and then adapting and using these techniques in the most effective way. In part, Stevick's ease in choosing techniques drawn from such a diverse variety of methods results from his own answer to the riddle he posed in *Memory, Meaning & Method* (1976:105): "Why does Method A (or B) sometimes work so beautifully and at other times so poorly?" The answer depends on understanding the valuable distinction (ultimately derived from Anthony (1963)) between principles, methods, and techniques. Essentially, *principles* are assumptions about the nature of basic language learning and teaching, while methods are matched sets of techniques, while *techniques* themselves are teaching procedures, i.e., the use of choral drills, the memorization of dialogues, and so on. The riddle is posed by the fact that a particular teacher gets better results using a specific method than another teacher using the same method. The key to the solution is found in the wide range of individual variation in the adaptation and implementation of the methods and techniques themselves: some variants are far more compatible with basic underlying principles than are other variants. From this it follows that *any method* should succeed *to the degree that its actual classroom use* is consistent with underlying principles of language learning and teaching.

Another part of the focus on understanding and adaptation

results from the realization that, while the choice of materials, books, and even methods used is often far beyond the teacher's control, how these are adapted and used is not. Further, even under the most ideal conditions techniques and materials have to be adapted to the specific students and situation. Finally, part of the focus on understanding and thus making more effective use of some of these techniques is an acknowledgment that the greatest potential for influencing teaching lies in improving the techniques already being used rather than in proposing new ones.

A major theme implicit in the book is that in the acquisition of language linguistic images, patterns, and rules can be all mutually supporting. And, although a wide range of variation exists among individuals in where their strengths lie, each of these areas contributes at least in part to acquisition (cf. pp. 33-35). That patterns if not rules contribute to acquisition is something that is apparent on some level to most experienced language teachers, despite the current movement totally away from 'grammar.'

The overall orientation of the writing itself as well as the basic outline of the book reflect that fact that "it started out to be a book for teachers who are just beginning" (Preface, p. 1). With the beginning teacher in mind, the main points are underscored by the skillful use of subheadings, numbers, abundant italics, and frequent summarization. In addition, due to a healthy awareness that what is obvious to an experienced teacher is not necessarily obvious to a potential teacher, the text seldom leaves important underlying assumptions unstated. Nonetheless, the text although clear and well-written is not undemanding — parts of the text require the reader to both focus and think.

While the original intent was to produce an introductory book for beginning teachers, during the course of the writing the volume became, in addition, "a book for experienced teachers who are ready to take a fresh look at some of the

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things they've been doing all along" (Ibid.). In this sense, it is a layered book. The inexperienced teacher will be able to read and follow the main points without undue frustration; nonetheless, the more experienced teacher due to the additional background will have access to a much deeper level of understanding. This is particularly true with respect to the detailed discussions of the design, structure, and implementation of drills and activities, which will have much more meaning for the more experienced teacher.

The text itself is organized thematically into three parts, each dealing with a different aspect of teacher preparation. The first part, entitled 'Before you begin,' deals with things to consider before beginning to teach, with the nature of language learning and acquisition, and with what we know about memory which is relevant to teaching. The second part, entitled "some techniques and what's behind them," comprises the bulk of the text. The table of contents for this section reads as follows:

6	Building auditory images: pronunciation	50
7	Memorization: building usable composite images for meaningful material	67
8	Building grammatical patterns	82
9	Building patterns through drills	89
10	More about grammar	99
11	Audiovisual and other aids	106
12	Ways to oral activity: the teacher's questions	119
13	Ways to oral activity: games	128
15	Writing for your own students	146
16	Adapting printed texts	155

A superficial analysis would note that it is a rather ordinary list of topics with a strong emphasis on oral language; however, at least the first two hint that these ordinary topics will not be treated in the ordinary way. While the technique being treated is often a standard technique, Stevick has taken

it and added bits and pieces to it drawn from his knowledge of language learning and of memory. The resulting hybrid is a technique which has been brought into line with underlying principles of language learning. In the section on pronunciation, for instance, occurs an almost parenthetical comment (p. 54): “. . . in dealing with individual repetitions, it's a good idea to concentrate the student's attention and your own on the sound rather than on interpersonal confrontation. . . .” The value of this is obvious: since we value interpersonal interaction more highly than pronunciation, it is useful to avoid interpersonal confrontation when we wish the student to focus on pronunciation. Similarly, the section on ‘Mimicry-Memorization’ in which he is discussing the memorization of complete dialogues, Stevick lists as the very first part of the very first instruction (p. 70): “Let the students hear the whole conversation a time or two.” The value of this is also obvious: once the student has heard the whole dialogue several times, subsequent repetition of the parts has a much higher likelihood of constituting comprehensible and meaningful input; hence, the value of the whole exercise has been increased. As a final example, in the section in which Stevick discusses building grammatical patterns, he suggests that advantages exist in drawing information out from members of the class, adding (p. 86): “You will make the most of these advantages *if you can avoid the body language and the tone of voice of a teacher working on grammar*, and play the part of a human being who is vigorously interested in what you and your interlocutors are saying” [italics mine]. The reasons for this are again obvious: given the holistic nature of memory, part of what is memorized is whether or not something is used for ‘real’ communication. Further, ‘genuine’ interest on the part of the teacher often evokes a corresponding interest on the part of the student.

None of this, of course, is completely new; good teachers have doubtless been doing much of it for centuries. What is

## Review

new is treating them as a significant part of the description of teaching techniques instead of as a peripheral aspect of largely-irrelevant variation in teaching styles. In fact, it would not be surprising if some readers dismiss Stevick's additions as peripheral and then find what is left 'outworn or at least outmoded.'

The book finishes with a section that includes some phonetics, some phonology, the sound system of English, some comments on 'grammar,' and a very valuable list of recommendations for further reading.

A decade ago in a review that served to introduce Curran's then relatively-unknown *Counseling-Learning* to much of the teaching profession, Stevick (1973 [1976:87]) wrote while explaining why even the more 'conventional' language teachers should read Curran's *Counseling-Learning: A Whole-Person Model for Education*: "...the thinking and practice of Curran, like the thinking and practice of Gattegno and precious few others, draw our attention beneath the structure of what we do, and deepen our understanding of why we do it and how it works." He then added, "...even a language teacher who decides to reject their methods will be wiser and more effective for having experienced them." This, with but a change of names, would serve as a review not just of Stevick's book but of Stevick's work.

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