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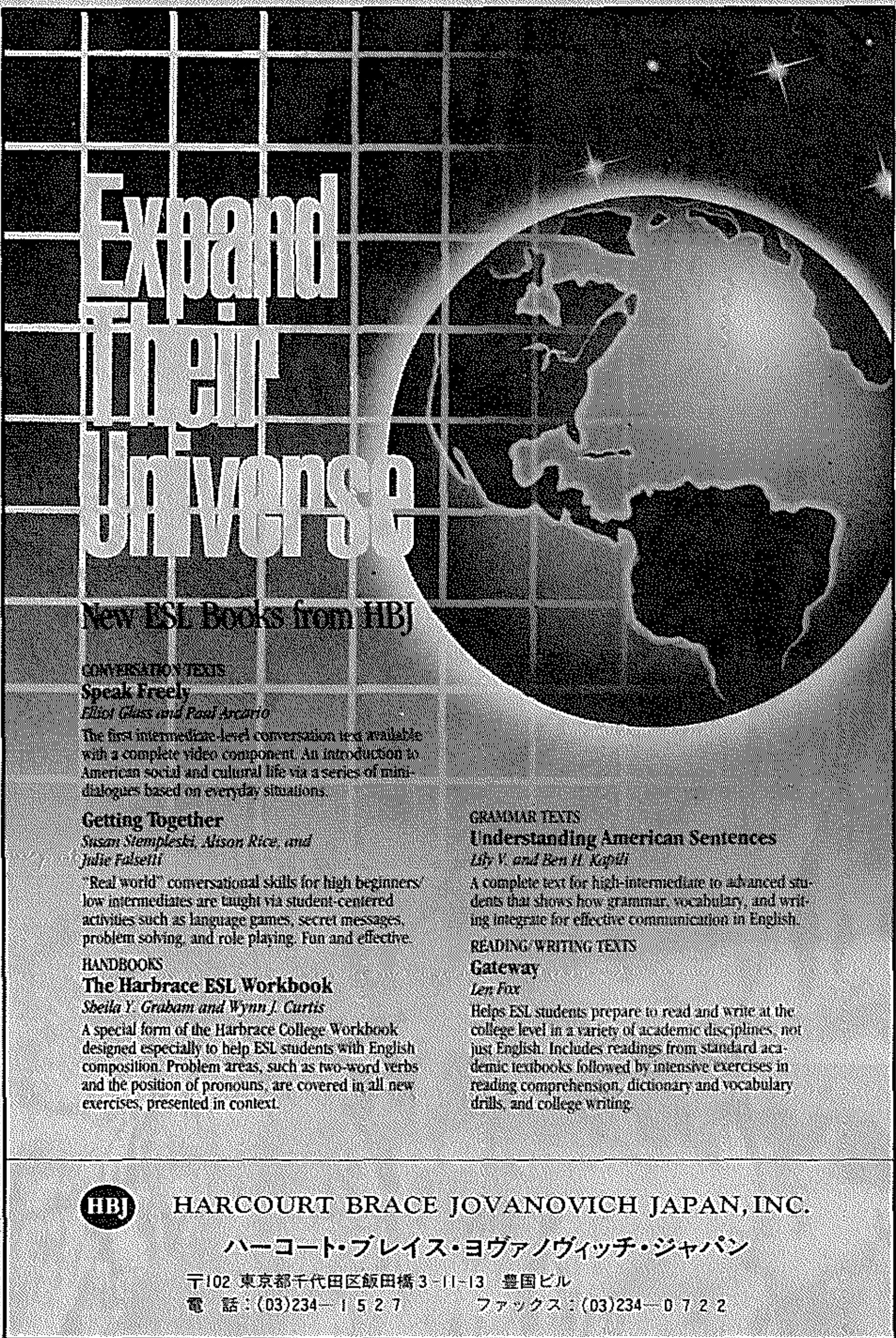
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Contents

Yoko Shimada
The Acquisition of English Interrogatives
by a Japanese Speaker 1

Hywel Coleman
Evaluating Teachers' Guides:
Do Teachers' Guides Guide Teachers? 17

Christine Uber Grosse
Teaching and Learning Styles of
ESL Student Teachers 37

Michele Chan
Teaching Writing as a Process of
Communication at the Tertiary Level 53

Hanna Touchie
Second Language Learning Errors:
Their Types, Causes and Treatment 75

Frances Horler and Junichi Yamazaki
Response Styles of Japanese and
American College Students 83

Book Reviews Section 91

Call for Papers.................................... 106

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IN THIS ISSUE. . . . . .

**YOKO SHIMADA describes how her daugher, June, acquired English interrogatives during an 11-month period spanning 1983 and 1984. The author notes that the question-answer pattern is a fundamental of communication and reports a "striking similarity between [June's] developmental stages [for interrogatives] and those of English monolingual children." Single case studies in second language acquisition are getting rarer these days (the recent interest in diary studies as a form of SLA methodology notwithstanding) so we are pleased to return to a research tradition so well pursued by Hakuta and others.

**HYWEL COLEMAN makes a valuable contribution to a largely neglected area in English language instructional planning, namely critical examination of the suitability of teachers' guides for use by non-native speakers of English. Coleman notes several problems during his discussion: almost nothing in the literature on teachers' guides by writers of teachers' guides or reviewers of English language teaching materials, odd or unsupportable assumptions about language, language learning, language teaching and culture which frequently find their way into teachers' guides, and lack of criteria for critically evaluating the guides – a problem which he rectifies in the article.

**CHRISTINE UBER GROSSE looks at teacher training from the interesting perspective of teaching and learning styles among ESL student teachers. The implication here is that teaching and learning styles may be usefully matched between teachers and learners of a language but that it is going to be necessary first to develop profiles of teachers' styles. Based on her research the author outlines a general profile among the sample group of teacher-trainees. One interesting finding is that teachers apparently have quite different approaches to learning and teaching, preferring, as learners, to have better student-teacher relations and learner-centered presentations and, as teachers, to maintain control and structure in the classroom.

**One of the major challenges facing college level and adult ESL/EFL teachers is construction and implementation of a good writing syllabus. MICHELE CHAN outlines how her unit at the Chinese University of Hong Kong handles this challenge in a way which applies the best research on teaching writing to what the learners' do in their writing classroom. The author stresses the importance of writing to communicate for specific purposes and offers a helpful description of how to carry out the instructional program. We think readers will find the discussion of peer correction (and preparation for peer correction) most useful.

**We are pleased to present two shorter subjects of general interest to readers. The first is HANNA TOUCHIE's article on language learning errors which zeros in on the teacher's perennial instructional dilemma: What is the significance of students' errors and how are they to be treated in the classroom? Finally, we have a comparison of *response styles* on questionnaires between Japanese and American college students by FRANCIS HORLER and JUNICHI YAMAZAKI. Their focus is on the extreme responses ("strongly agree," "strongly disagree") and on the ubiquitous "undecided." We think this area of research could have important applications in language policy planning, language needs assessment and other forms of language-related research which entail opinion surveying.

** Rounding out this issue's diverse contributions are two book reviews we think will appeal to readers who would like to see how current issues in second and foreign language learning are being treated in the literature. REUBEN GERLING evaluates Kurshid Ahmad's discussion of computers, language learning and language teaching, and ROBERT INGRAM reviews Gail Robinson's recent book relating cross-cultural understanding to language teaching.

As always we would like to invite our readers' comments and hope to encourage critical response to what appears in the *JALT Journal.*

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THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH INTERROGATIVES BY A JAPANESE SPEAKER

Yoko Shimada

Abstract

Much syntax-based research in second language (L2) has given us useful information on the developmental processes of acquisition, although such research is difficult to apply towards improving teaching materials and teaching methods in English as a second language. This article examines the process by which the author's 11-year-old daughter acquired interrogatives and outlines some of the syntactically interesting features of her question forms. The data collected during 11 months are compared with those compiled by other researchers in this field and suggestions are offered for teaching English in Japanese junior and senior high schools.

This paper reports some of the major developmental features of acquiring interrogatives by a second language learner. It analyzes the English utterances of an eleven-year-old Japanese girl learning English as a second language in a natural setting and examines the process by which she acquired interrogatives, comparing the data with those compiled by other researchers in this field.

Yoko Shimada is a graduate of Nara Women's University. She received an Ed.M. in Bilingual Education from Boston University and taught English in high school in Kyoto. She is now a part-time instructor at Osaka University of Foreign Studies and Shitennoji International Buddhist University.

The following are the main reasons why, from among various structures in English, interrogatives were chosen for this study:

a) As questions and answers are the most basic pattern in communication, the learner's developmental stages appear clearly in her utterances of questions and answers.
b) As questions and answers are one of the most popular methods used in classrooms, a knowledge of the difficulties L2 learners encounter in this area is useful in teaching English as a second language.
c) The syntax of interrogatives in the subject's L1, Japanese, is sharply different from the syntax of interrogatives in her target language, English, so transfer from L1 will be clearly seen, if it exists.

In this paper the following problems are discussed on the basis of empirical data.

1) What developmental stages do L2 learners go through in acquiring interrogative constructions?
2) Is there any difference in the acquisition order of English question formation between L1 and L2?
3) Does learners' L1 interfere with L2 in the acquisition process of English interrogatives?
4) What roles do "chunks"[1] play in the acquisition of interrogatives?
5) Does comprehension of L2 learners always have superiority over production as regards questions and answers?

Data Collection

The subject in this study is the writer's daughter, June. In April, 1983, when she came to the U.S., she had had four years of elementary school education in Japan and acquired almost all the grammar of her native language. On the other hand, she knew nothing of English except for some borrowings and the alphabet. Her exposure to English came in April, 1983, when she was enrolled in grade four at a monolingual public school in Belmont, Mass., at the age of 10. At school she was exposed mainly to English, but at home Japanese remained her language. Lessons at school, American friends and, later, TV were her major sources of L2 input.

Her English was observed over a period of 11 months, from May, 1983 (age 10;11) until March, 1984 (11;10). But during the first 7 months some aspects of her L2 acquisition process were recorded unsystematically, depending on my interest as a parent. Data collection focusing on interrogatives began at the beginning of January and continued until the end of March, when June went back to Japan. About every two weeks during the three-month period she was asked to engage in conversations with my husband and me in English for at least 30 minutes and her spontaneous speech was recorded. Her conversation with her American friends was also recorded on March 24. In addition, tests for production and comprehension of interrogatives were given four times at regular intervals in February and March. The tests consisted of translation from Japanese into English and questions and answers.[2] The same materials were used in every test.

Results

Developmental Stages

An analysis of interrogatives in June's utterances in English showed a striking similarity between her developmental stages and those of English monolingual children. Unlike her native language, structures of English interrogatives require transformational rules, specifically, wh-preposing, subject-auxiliary inversion and do-insertion. These are discussed in the literature on L1 acquisition, in particular, by Klima & Bellugi (1966) and Brown (1968). Klima & Bellugi posit the following three stages in the development of questions observed in their subjects. At Stage I the most common questions are a nucleus with a rising intonation or some version of a chunk like 'what's that?'. This stage is clearly pretransformational, since no conscious question transformation occurs. At Stage II constituent questioning develops, but there are still no auxiliary verbs, and so there is no subject-aux inversion in Yes-No questions. The wh-words merely serve as question introducers. By Stage III certain auxiliaries are inverted, though rarely, in wh-questions. The wh-words are moved to the beginning of the questicn by wh-transformation (see Klima & Bellugi 1966:200-207).

Interrogatives produced by June show similar stages with some differences at Stage III. The following are her developmental stages:

Stage I One- or two-word sentences were used with different intonation and gestures (May-June)

e.g.: Play?
Jump rope?
What this?
What's drink?
Daddy, where going?

Stage II No inversion was made in either Yes-No or wh-questions (September-November)

e.g.: Play jump rope?
You want this?
What's drink you like?
Why so funny?
Amanda, when you have to go home?

Stage III Both Yes-No and wh-questions were sometimes inverted and sometimes not. (December-March)

e.g.: Can I play jump rope?
You want this?
Do you want this one?
What kind of drink you like?
Which do you like best?
When Tomoko is coming?
When is she coming?

An examination of the data indicates the following features:

1. Through all stages June adopted rising intonation for Yes-No questions but never used it for wh-questions. From the

earliest period she seemed to use properly either intonation or wh-words as a question signal.

2. In Yes-No questions the developmental stages I observed in are the same as those described in Cancino et al. (1978:228):
   i) no inversion (i.e., sentence with rising intonation)
   ii) some inversion, gradually increasing, but with variability

   The stage where Yes-No but not wh-questions are inverted (Klima & Bellugi 1966) was not observed in the data on my subject. The data on February 5 shows that out of her 18 Yes-No questions, 6 were not inverted and out of 22 full-sentence wh-questions, all of which require inversion, 5 were not inverted (see Appendix A). Viewed from the ratio of uninverted questions to inverted ones, Yes-No questions are more frequent than wh-questions. This does not mean, however, that inversion in the former case is more difficult for my subject to acquire than inversion in the latter case. As a very little consideration will show, I reach the opposite conclusion for the following reason. Inversion is optional in Yes-No questions and most of 6 uninverted Yes-No questions in my data are as natural as their inverted counterparts. In contrast, inversion is obligatory in wh-questions except when the wh-word serves as the subject; the 5 ungrammatical uninverted wh-questions, therefore, reveal an incomplete stage of question acquisition.
3. Yes-No questions meaning request (Can I . . . ?, May I . . . ?, Will you . . . ?) were perfectly inverted from the very beginning. I assume that June heard such request forms in her daily life more frequently than any other question form and memorized such aux + S forms as a single unit. This seems to have enabled her to utter correct request forms.
4. Whether June used inverted forms or not did not always depend on her syntactic knowledge. She tended to use uninverted forms when they were easier for her to utter or when they sounded more natural to her. She sometimes rearranged word orders of her own English, saying "Sounds

strange!" (The first and third examples are inverted, of course; the second and third are not.)

e.g.: When is she coming?
Why Mr and Mrs Inada is coming today?
Can we eat dinner outside?
Or we eat at home?

5. There was no evidence that June depended on the rules of her native language in forming questions. She never uttered Yes-No questions without rising intonation or never placed a wh-word within a sentence, both cases of which often occur in Japanese questions. Nor did she produce subject-verb or verb-object inverted sentences like 'Play I jümp rope?' or 'Jump rope play?'. Such examples are noted for Rune by Ravem (See Butterworth 1978:240-241) and for Ricardo (Butterworth 1978), but rarely found in case studies of Japanese children.
6. The order of appearance of inverted auxiliaries in June's case is

   can, may, will → do → be-copula → did, does.

   This acquisition order seems to reflect the frequency of occurrence in the input, and the early acquisition of 'do' could be partly explained by chunking (see 'Role of Memorized Chunks', below).
7. The order of acquisition of question patterns by June is

   Yes-No Q., what, where → alternative Q., when, why → tag Q., who → which → indirect Q., how.

   This order excludes what seem to be 'memorized chunks'. She used lots of chunks including 'how . . . ' (e.g., How do you do?, How are you?, How old are you?, How much is it?, How about you?) at an early stage, but as of March, 1984 she had not yet acquired questions including 'how' as a manner-adverb. She used 'how to' both in direct and indirect questions.

   e.g.: I don't know how to open this can.
   Daddy, how to make this?

   After she learned the expression 'how come', she preferred to use it instead of 'why'.

8. June had also not yet acquired the use of indirect questions completely. She did not distinguish between simple and embedded wh-questions in production, nor did she distinguish between 'Do you know . . . ' + wh-question and wh-word + 'do you think . . . ?'.

   e.g.: What time is it now?
   Do you know what time is it now?
   Why you can't play with me now?
   Do you think why Tomoko is crying?

   In Yes-No indirect questions without a wh-word she did not invert subject-aux in the object clause.

   e.g.: Is it raining now?
   Do you think tomorrow is raining?
   Do you know this milk is bad or not?

L1 Interference

As previously mentioned, there was no clear evidence of transfer from Japanese in my data. Similar observations were reported by Gillis (1976) on the acquisition of interrogatives by two Japanese school-age children learning English in Canada. Hakuta (1976:347), however, came up with an argument against Gillis. He asserted that "interference errors are not the only manifestations of the process of language transfer, . . . " and that other possibilities such as structural avoidance and the overall rate of development should be taken into consideration. My data are too limited to either support or refute his argument. All I can say now is that interference errors were not found, and if there were any, they were negligible in my data. Most of the errors as well as the acquisition order are similar to those observed in English mono-lingual speakers.

Akiyama's study of Yes-No answering systems (1979) is of interest to the present discussion. Different languages require quite different systems for answering negative questions. In English the speaker answers 'yes' or 'no' depending on the speaker's intention about the matter. In Japanese the speaker answers 'yes' or 'no' in agreement or disagreement with the literal meaning of the question. (e.g. In answering the question "*Asagohan tabenakatta-no?*" ("Didn't you eat breakfast?"), if the speaker ate it, he answers in Japanese, "*Iie tabemashita.*" ("No, I did."), and if the speaker did not eat it, he answers, "*Hai tabemasendeshita.*" ("Yes, I didn't.")) Akiyama reports that these two sytems interact in Japanese bilingual children. It is true that these different answering systems are difficult for Japanese students to master and cause a lot of trouble in English classrooms in Japan. I tested June on March 1 using the same type of materials as Akiyama used for his 18 subjects (see Akiyama 1979:491). A total of 32 Yes-No questions were asked in English and in Japanese. There were four types of questions (positive, negative, positive tag and negative tag questions) and four verbs (is, are do and can) giving 16 verb-question combinations. June gave correct answers 100% of the time (Appendix B). She seemed to have no difficulty in answering them without delay. This is perhaps due to the fact that she had already acquired the Japanese answering system and that she could code-switch between the two languages without translations from one language to the other.

Role of Memorized Chunks

Hakuta (1976:332-333) argues that using memorized chunks (that is, prefabricated patterns) plays a very important role in language acquisition. The data on his five-year-old Japanese subject shows that "(1) patterns using the copula including all allomorphs of 'be', (2) the pattern 'do you' as used in interrogatives and (3) the pattern 'how to' as in embedded how-questions were all prefabricated in the sense that they all showed a characteristic rigidity in usage and lack of variability, as well as misuse in linguistically inappropriate contexts." He says that prefabricated patterns "enable learners to express functions which they are yet unable to construct from their linguistic system, . . . " (p. 333). He also supports Huang's suggestion cited in Hakuta (1976:332; also Huang 1971) that the strategy of sentence imitation did not disappear altogether when the L2 learners began producing utterances out of their own syntactic system.

My data support Hakuta's argument. I noted that June had produced a large number of memorized chunks. She was able to express a wide range of functions from the beginning by employing this strategy together with gestures. And from October she had begun to generate sentences by replacing some constituents of the expressions she had learned. For example, "Can I take one?" was expanded to various utterances for asking permission.

Can I play with Amanda now?
Can I eat this one, too?
Can I use this pencil?
Can I get dinosaur's egg?
What's that?
What's her name?
What's name is that store?
What's you drink?
What's the matter?
Do you want drink?
Do you have a lot of friends?
Do you like . . . ? Do you know . . . ? Do you think . . . ?
I don't know how to open it.
Tell me how to do it.
I know how to call, but I don't know what's her number.
How to spell 'New Hampshire.?

Chunking could explain the reason why she had acquired 'do you' at an early stage and why she misused 'how to' in simple how-questions. In the former case, she successfully extended the memorized chunks to the pattern of 'do you', while in the latter case, overgeneralization of 'how to' was observed. When she began to produce tag-questions, she attached 'isn't' or 'don't' to every sentence.

e.g. Funny, isn't it?
They are so cute, isn't it?
You are busy now, don't you?

Although these are also considered to be errors of overgeneralization, they facilitated her acquisition of tag-questions. In a week or so she acquired the rules of tag-questions.

Comprehension/Production

In L1 acquisition, general superiority of comprehension over production is observed. According to Dale (1972:90-91), at Stage II (in Klima and Bellugi's case study) "many wh-questions are answered appropriately, but they are not formulated correctly. Why questions, on the other hand, are asked but apparently not comprehended." Menyuk (1971:123), citing Fraser, Bellugi and Brown (1963) also notes: "Finally it has been found that children approximately 3 years of age comprehend grammatical contrasts which they do not produce."

Through all stages June showed much higher competence in comprehension than in production of any type of interrogative. She not only correctly understood the questions whose syntax she had not yet acquired completely but also responded correctly to them. The following are some questions June could not produce.

How did you come home with Meg?
– By car. Her mother pick up us.

Who did you eat lunch with?
– With Meg and her mother.

When do you think Tomoko is coming?
– I think she's coming around four.

As for why-questions, June's production was limited to memorized chunks at Stage II, but she could comprehend and respond properly to why-questions other than memorized chunks. The logic required to answer why-questions is more complicated than logic needed to answer other types of wh-questions. As Brown (1968:286) points out ". . . learning to answer why-questions means learning what explanation is"; there must be some logic for explanation between why-questions and their answers. Such explanatory logic as June already had in her L1 seems to have enabled her to answer why-questions, since it works effectively in English as well.

June's speaking ability suddenly began to make rapid progress when a certain amount of L2 input accumulated and her listening comprehension advanced to a certain degree (in her case, about six months after she began to be exposed to L2).

Conclusion

Through my daughter's case study, I have outlined some syntactically interesting issues related to acquiring English interrogatives by L2 learners. Based on my findings, I now want to offer some tentative answers to the questions raised at the beginning of the paper.

1. There is a great similarity between English as the L1 and English as the L2 in the acquisition order of question formation.
2. June's case supports the contention that children acquiring English as a second language in a natural setting make few interference errors during production of interrogatives.
3. Many question forms produced by L2 learners in the earlier stages are considered to be memorized chunks. Chunking seems to play an important role in the process of second language acquisition.
4. There are some types of question which L2 learners cannot produce but whose meaning or concept they can understand correctly. As for interrogatives, comprehension is decidedly superior to production. This was clearly reflected in June's case.

In addition, to understand the developmental process, we need to know about the *appropriateness* of syntactic choice, an area of research which will require a great deal more work.

Some implications can be drawn from this study for teaching English as a foreign language in Japan. I want to suggest the following for our junior high school English teaching.

1. Even if students produce sentences which do not have well-formed structures, their errors show their developmental stages just as the data for my daughter shows. Errors are not only inevitable but also offer evidence of students' growth through language use. Thus, students should be encouraged to communicate in English and not deprived of spontaneous speech by overcorrection of their syntactic errors. The more they speak, the better their English will be.
2. The teaching of English should be tied to real, concrete situations, which will reduce interference from the first language. Authentic English should be taught from the beginning.
3. Students should be asked to memorize useful expressions as chunks. Chunking helps learners, especially beginners, exercise communicative ability.
4. As many opportunities as possible for students to listen to natural English should be provided. There is some evidence suggesting that listening comprehension is essential for communication and helps to develop production.

I hope that further studies, with larger and more accurate data, will reinforce my suggestions.

Notes

[1] Chunks are also called 'prefabricated patterns' by Hakuta and 'formula utterances' by Wong-Fillmore. See the definition of 'prefabricated patterns' given by Hakuta (1976:331).

[2] The test were based on "The collection of sentence patterns and grammatical items for a junior high school English course" in *Koko Eigo Shido Shiryo* (The data on senior high school English courses of study), Tokyo: Kairyudo (no date).

Appendix A

Some of the following questions were uttered while June was talking to Gerbils, her pet. The rest were uttered when she was talking with my husband and me before and during lunch. Sentences (a) to (r) are Yes-No questions and (1) to (22) are wh-questions. An asterisk shows uninverted forms.

Hi, guys. (1) How are you? Dinner is ready. Today I'll give to you special dinner. Special rice. (a) Don't you like rice? It taste yummy. Here you go. O.K. Go ahead. Kuro, [a pet's name] go ahead. (2) How do you like it? Hey, Noro, [another pet's name] (3) what's you doing? You, bad boy! . . . (4) What do you want to do? (5) What do you want to do, next? (b) *You wanna go the outside? O.K. I'll take you out. Go! (c) Noro, do you want to eat some peanuts? Kuro, how about you? (d) Do you think Noro is very fat? I think Noro is too fat, so maybe . . . forget it . . . .

(e) *We go out somewhere, then we eat?
(f) *Or we eat at home?
(g) Daddy, can we eat dinner outside?
(6) *What kind of rice you have? Just white rice?
(h) Do you have Japanese tea - - - er - - - *mugi-cha*?
(i) Are you listening, mummy?
(j) Do you think I wear skirt or pants?
(k) *Pink sweater - - - pink sweater little white rabbit on it - - - is OK?
(7) What did you say?
(8) *What kind of dress you wear?
(9) *Then why you don't wear?
(10) *You have other kind. Why you don't?
(1) Can I eat this one, too?
(11) Where's *surume*?
(12) Where's carrot?
(13) Which can I have, this one or that?
(14) What time will you have dinner?
(15) *When the bus coming?
(m) *Mine's important?

(n) *You mean 'always'?
(o) Do I have to say it to everybody?
(p) Are you serious?
(q) Mummy, may I have a glass of Japanese tea?
(r) Uh, is that cup or glass?
(16) What did you say?
(17) What time is it?
(18) Where can I get it?
(19) What's name is that store?
(20) What's your problem mean?
(21) What do you mean for that?
(22) What are you doing, daddy?

Appendix B

Out of 32 Yes-No questions in English, 16 are listed here together with June's answers.

QUESTIONS	ANSWERS
Is it hot today?	No. Today is cold.
Isn't it hot today?	No, it isn't.
It's hot today, isn't it?	No. Today is cold.
It isn't hot today, is it?	No, it isn't.
Are you a boy?	No, I'm not.
Aren't you a boy?	No, I'm not.
You are a boy, aren't you?	No. I'm a girl.
You aren't a boy, are you?	No. I'm a girl.
Do you have any Japanese books?	Yes, I have a lot.
Don't you have any Japanese books?	Yes, I have a lot.
You have some Japanese books, don't you?	Yes.
You don't have any Japanese books, do you?	Yes, I have a lot.
Can you speak English?	Yes, a little.
Can't you speak English?	Yes, I can.
You can speak English, can't you?	Yes.
You can't speak English, can you?	Yes, I can speak a little.

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EVALUATING TEACHERS' GUIDES: DO TEACHERS' GUIDES GUIDE TEACHERS?

Hywel Coleman

Abstract

This paper is concerned with TGs and looks at them from the point of view of the NNS teacher. It considers the role of the TG and looks briefly at previous discussions and evaluations of TGs by materials writers themselves and by reviewers. An inventory of factors which need to be taken into consideration when evaluating TGs is proposed. Finally, some attention is given to the possibility of evaluating TGs in training courses for NNS teachers.

Background

Extensive observation of a group of young, inexperienced and relatively untravelled non-native speaker (NNS) teachers of English in an Indonesian university – people lacking confidence in their own command of English – has revealed a striking uniformity of classroom styles, whoever is teaching, whoever is being taught, whatever materials are being used (Coleman, n.d.).

To some extent this uniformity can be seen as the manifestation of a very strong tradition of what 'teaching' is. That

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is, it is a product of the expectations of both students and teachers of what 'ought' to happen in the classroom. To some extent, also, this uniformity can be attributed to the teachers' exposure to a limited variety of classroom events in their own educational experience, and to the fact that teacher training in Indonesia does not normally concern itself with the mundane details of what happens in the classroom. In any case, many university teachers of English have undergone no teacher training.

Lack of training – or experience of only a very abstract and theoretical training – contributes to the phenomenon of a uniform teaching style in other ways. Firstly, teachers have no training in the evaluation of teaching materials and are apprehensive of making evaluations. Further, they have no training either in the *interpretation* of the teachers' guides (TGs) which accompany teaching materials or in the *evaluation* of TGs. Consequently teachers are reluctant to undertake their own interpretations and evaluations.

Are Teachers' Guides Necessary?

There is little in the literature which describes the attitudes of NNS teachers towards textbooks and even less concerning their evaluations of TGs. However, the author of a review of Parkinson (1978), who admits to being 'an overseas teacher of English,' makes it clear that the NNS teacher does require guidance in the use of textbooks. She says (Moya 1978:30-32):

> It will be very hard for any overseas . . . teacher of English to work with this book because it is rather short of explanation as to how it should be taught . . . . As far as the format of the book is concerned, I would have liked to see in it . . . more explanations on how to use the book (i.e., some sort of guide for both the teacher and the student).

The difficulties which the NNS teacher of English has to struggle with are frequently underestimated by the writers of ELT materials and by writers on ELT. Many NNS English teachers feel themselves to be only a hair's breadth away from where their learners stand, in terms of competence and experience in the target language. In Indonesia, for example, it is probably safe to say that the majority of high-school English teachers have never spoken to a native speaker of English, and most university English lecturers have had only very occasional contact with native speakers. Potter (1983) recognizes that NNS teachers of English frequently lack confidence in their own competence in the language which they are teaching. This confirms a point made by Willis, who argues that the problems faced by NNS teachers are 'more daunting than the problems faced by native speaker teachers' and that therefore 'non-native speaker teachers of English are sometimes forced to lean heavily on the textbook and depend too much on it' (1981:41f).

Allwright (1981) argues that teaching materials have only limited usefulness in the management of learning and yet, conventionally, they have been given a disproportionately important role. Allwright believes, also, that teachers do 'too much' work in the classroom and that they must be trained not to do so much work. This is all very well, but the NNS teacher who has little confidence in his own grasp of the language, and who has had little exposure to alternative methods of managing learning, is not able to stop doing 'too much' from the position of strength which a native speaker teacher has. If NNS teachers are to stop doing too much (and this is certainly necessary) they will have to do it from a position of relative weakness. This implies a continued reliance on teaching materials and on the TGs which accompany the materials. But it need not mean that teaching materials must continue to play the same role which they have traditionally had. Teaching materials – in the widest sense – can supplement the NNS teacher's competence in the target language, whilst TGs can bolster the teacher's confidence. As the teacher's competence increases, so he can gradually modify or dispense with teaching materials. At the same time, as the teacher's confidence increases, so he can become increasingly selective in his reliance on the TG.

Materials Writers on Teachers' Guides

The literature is remarkably devoid of discussion by materials writers themselves of the role of TGs. Swales (1978), for example, says that he believes the teacher-variable is of great importance in ESP work, yet there is no evidence elsewhere in his description of the writing of *Writing Scientific English* (Swales 1971) that any attention at all was given to the potential problems of teachers in using the materials. Allen and Widdowson (1978) describe the creation of *English in Physical Science* (Allen and Widdowson, 1974a) but they give no indication that they thought very much about the prospective teachers when they were writing their textbook, nor do they describe how the TG for this textbook (Allen and Widdowson 1974b) was written. Bates (1978), describing the writing of *Nucleus: General Science* (Bates and Dudly-Evans, 1976a), makes occasional references to teachers' perceptions of their classroom roles, to student-teacher rapport, and to traditional teacher attitudes to teaching materials. However, he does not attempt to show how these matters were taken into consideration in the writing of the accompanying TG (Bates and Dudley-Evans, 1976b).

An interesting exception to this general failure of materials writers to describe how TGs are prepared is to be found in the collection of papers describing the University of Malaya project (Chitravelu 1980c). Chitravelu (1980a:xiv), for example, defines the role of a TG as:

> to assist the teacher to obtain the best possible results from the lessons. It should contain a statement of the aims of each lesson and activity, suggestions on procedure, advice on feedback and information on the location of the materials for each lesson. It should also provide answers and, where necessary, give explanations for answers.

A paper by Cooper in the same collection (Cooper 1980:9) describes deficiencies discovered in an early draft of the TG and the characteristics of a revised version which provided:

> proper attention to the specification of general and specific aims (linguistic, behavioural, methodological, attitudinal), cross referencing to related lessons, adequate advice on presentation and effective feedback.

In a further paper (Chitravelu, 1980b), the additional help for the teacher which was incorporated into the final version of the materials is described. It may be no coincidence that these materials were originally designed for a specific group of NNS teachers and that NNS teachers were involved in the writing of the materials. Apart from this particular case, however, there is little evidence that materials writers, when given an opportunity to describe their materials, pay much attention to TGs.

Textbook Reviewers on Teachers' Guides

If materials writers seem generally not to attach much importance to TGs, the same can be said of the reviewers of ELT materials. Elliman's model for coursebook evaluation (Elliman. 1981), for example, makes no mention of TGs and indeed Elliman appears to conclude that teachers should be selected with regard to their appropriacy for the materials to be used, rather than that materials should be explicated with regard to the competence of teachers! Williams (1981) suggests that ESP textbook evaluation be included in teacher training courses, and proposes an interesting method for doing this, but he has given no attention whatsoever to TGs.

Drobnic (1978) collects 38 textbook reviews by 12 reviewers. In general, if a TG is available, reviewers refer to this fact but provide no analysis. A typical example, in a three-page review of Glendinning (1974), is this one-line comment (Malmsten 1978:77):

> There is a teacher's edition with a key to exercises . . .

On the other hand, when no TG is available, reviewers tend to regret its absence in rather greater detail. The review by Alyta (1978:170) of Hawkey (1970) is a typical case in point:

> The book has no preface, introduction or notes to the teacher so the intentions of the author will remain unknown.

Such brief observations apart, the overwhelming emphasis of these reviews is on the materials for students.

Something of an exception is provided by Ewer and Boys (1981), who evaluate 10 leading EST textbooks. In performing this evaluation the writers ask themselves to what extent the explanations given for particular teaching points are adequate, and what supplementary help is given to teachers. Their comments fall into three categories: explanations of teaching points, keys to exercises, and suggestions for extra exercises.

It is noteworthy that what attention is given to TGs (limited though this is) comes largely from people working in the field of ESP. One suspects that this is because it is considered legitimate for even a native speaker teacher of ESP to feel a certain degree of uncertainty or nervousness about the language of the specialist field into which he is venturing ('Will my students ask me for definitions distinguishing between *energy* and *power*?). It is therefore acceptable for the ESP teacher to demand backup support and this explains the frequency of reassuring comments in the TGs accompanying ESP texts, such as the following by Hall and Bowyer (1980:1):

> The teacher does not in fact need to know more than is in the book in order to use the book.

On the other hand, it is not often recognized that the NNS teacher of English may feel a very similar unease about English in general ('Will my students ask me what one says if one wants to go to the toilet when visiting somebody else's house?' or 'Will my students ask me why the simple present is not used in "I'm forever blowing bubbles" '?). It is not, therefore, conventionally acceptable for the NNS teacher of English to demand the same sort of support on linguistic and sociolinguistic matters from general ELT textbooks. Yet if this sort of support is not provided, textbooks may be underexploited or ignored.

Evaluating Teachers' Guides

In this section an instrument for the evaluation of TGs is proposed. The instrument comprises 10 factors which need to be considered when evaluating the usefulness of a TG. These factors fall into five categories: (a) primary factors (assumptions about the nature of language and language use, and about language learning and teaching); (b) materials content; (c) implementation; (d) evaluation; and (e) presentation. The purpose of this instrument is to indicate the ways in which a TG may be inadequate for the purposes of NNS teachers, and the illustrations are therefore largely negative examples.

Primary Factors

Assumptions about shared attitudes towards the nature of language and language use. Does the TG assume – without clarification – that the teacher shares the writer's attitudes to the nature of language? Cases in which such an assumption is made are legion. One example is Stone (1969) which claims, from its title, to teach reading skills. From a close perusal of the book it can be deduced that the author believes that the key to successful reading lies in a minute understanding of every word in a text and that exactly the same procedure should be used in reading a recipe and a short story. But the introduction for the teacher (*op. cit.*: iv-vii) and the accompanying TG (Stone *et al.* 1979) make no attempt to define the nature of written language or the reading process.

An example in which no assumptions about shared attitudes towards the nature of language and its use are made is Candlin *et al.* (1977), which provides a detailed discussion of the dichotomy between language function and language form. The authors' attitudes are founded on their research into doctor–patient communication, which is well documented and to which they make repeated reference.

Assumptions about shared attitudes towards the nature of language learning and teaching. Does the TG assume, without an explicit statement, that the teacher shares the writer's interpretation of the language learning process? In other words, does the TG assume both a particular methodology and also that the teacher is already familiar with that methodology? There are innumerable instances in which such an assumption is found. A less obvious but increasingly common phenomenon is for the textbook writer to claim that a particular approach is being adhered to (usually 'communicative') but without clarifying exactly what this means in practice. From the point of view of the poorly trained NNS teacher, the writer's use of a label such as 'communicative' is not helpful, unless it can be supported by a detailed explanation of what this really means when the teacher, the learners and the materials come together in the classroom.

Equally unhelpful is a deliberate refusal to provide any assistance at all, presumably on the grounds that advice on how to use materials would restrict the teacher's freedom. A particularly glaring example is Long *et al.* (1980:xiii):

> We offer no recommendations on how to use these materials. It would be presumptuous of us to do so given the appalling ignorance about the necessity, sufficiency or efficiency of classroom teaching and learning behaviours in general, and those related to reading skills in particular.

This is admirably undogmatic but it is of absolutely no value to the teacher who lacks the experience and skill required to make confident decisions about how to use materials.

As if to compensate for their extreme rejection of dogmatism, the writers then go on to claim academic respectability for their book by listing the influences on their work (*op. cit.*: xiv-xv):

> A guide to materials is not the place to indulge in long explanations of the rationale behind them. That is for conferences and journal articles. Any teacher who is familiar with the applied linguistic literature will, however, have recognized several of our allegiances, and other debts will become obvious as you read and use the materials themselves. We would like, therefore, to acknowledge the thinking of the following people: Donald Adamson, Charles Alderson, Patrick Allen, Dick Allwright, Michael Breen. Christopher Candlin, Fernando Castanos, Gary Cziko, Evelyn Hatch, Steven Krashen, Ron Mackay, Alan Mountford, Ken Moody, John Munby, Larry Selinker, Frank Smith, John Swales, Dick Yorkey, and Henry Widdowson. None of them saw *REAS* prior to its publication.

This is undeniably a magnificent intellectual ancestry for any materials to have (although it is a little difficult to see how the thinking of some of these people can be made compatible and be integrated into one textbook!). But unfortunately there are still vast numbers of English teachers in the world who are not familiar with the applied linguistics literature and who have never heard of Christopher Candlin or Larry Selinker. This recitation of some significant names in the world of ELT is simply not useful for the teacher who wants to know how he can best use the materials which the book contains. In effect, the authors are abdicating their responsibility towards the potential users of their product.

Factors Relating to the Content of the Materials

Assumptions about shared culture in lesson content. Is there assistance in the TG for the teacher who may be unfamiliar with the cultural content of the materials? I once observed an English lesson at a technical college in Central Java which was being taught by a teacher who herself had never been outside Java. Lesson 3 of *Kernel Lessons Intermediate* (O'Neill *et. al.*, 1971a) was being used and the class was discussing the first picture in the lesson. This shows a box and a teapot on a table. The box has the word CORNFLAKES written on it. One of the students asked the teacher what a 'CORNFLAKES' was. The teacher was unable to answer immediately, she was too embarrassed to ask me, and there was nothing to help her in the TG (O'Neill *et al.*, 1971b). At last, after some hesitation, the teacher explained that cornflakes is an alcoholic drink and that many Westerners drink cornflakes for breakfast. Of course, it may be that the material which was being used in this lesson was culturally inappropriate for the learners, but then it may be that the purpose of the lesson was to prepare the learners for life in the West. What is clear is that the NNS teacher was unable to answer the student's question by relying on her own experience and competence, and she was also unable to refer to the TG to solve her problems.

Assumptions about the teacher's ability to deal with ambiguity. Does the TG expect the teacher to tolerate ambiguity or uncertainty and to manage these in the classroom? An example is found in Swales and Fanning (1980a:64) in which learners are asked to classify verbs which describe change into one of seven categories of change. In the TG which accompanies the textbook, the authors comment (Swales and Fanning 1980b:18):

> Some verbs may fit into more than one category, but it does not matter.

It is quite true that some verbs may fit into more than one category. However, this is not enough, since the NNS teacher may need to know exactly which verbs can be categorized in more than one way, and exactly what those categries are. A very common characteristic of young NNS teachers who lack confidence in their own English is an extreme unwillingness to accept uncertainty like this and to demand absolute answers (even when they may not be available).

Factors Relating to Implementation

Assumptions about shared culture in teaching methodology. Does the TG recommend behaviour which is inappropriate in the culture of the learners and their teacher? Although this is not a very common failing of TGs, some particularly interesting illustrations can be found. Lynch (1975:21) gives some advice to teachers on how to conduct the debriefing after a role playing session. He suggests:

> If students took their roles seriously some interesting confrontations may have arisen during the debate. It might be useful to discuss how these confrontations developed and were resolved.

Teachers therefore are required to encourage learners to publicly introspect about their confrontations with their peers. This is totally inappropriate in Indonesia, for example, where the avoidance of confrontation and the achievement of consensus are the fundamental tenets of social intercourse.

Assumptions about the teacher's ability and willingness to deal with incompleteness. Does the TG assume that the teacher has the time, the resources, the linguistic competence and the self-confidence to elaborate on what the author provides? In the section above on shared attitudes towards the nature of language learning and teaching, we discussed TGs which either take for granted a particular methodology or which renounce all responsibility for determining methodology. Here we look at TGs which do provide guidance on implementation but which still surrender some responsibility to the teacher. Two examples are given to illustrate this. The first comes from Swales and Fanning (1980b:9):

> You will have noticed that the passage is full of spatial prepositions and thus provides an opportunity for revising and developing these.

This is a relatively modest instance which requires the teacher to identify 'spatial prepositions' and then to decide how to 'revise' and 'develop' them. We should not be surprised if the recommendation is ignored, however, for many teachers will lack the time, the linguistic competence or the confidence to 'develop' exercises for revision.

It is to be hoped, incidentally, that the teacher is able to identify these 'spatial prepositions,' for the term is not explained anywhere else by Swales and Fanning, nor is it used in any of the standard descriptions of English to which the teacher is likely to have access, such as Hornby (1975), Thomson and Martinet (1980) or Quirk *et al.* (1972).

In the second example, much greater demands are made of the teacher. Candlin *et al.* (1977:34) discuss the ways in which particular discoursal functions may be manifested:

> The purpose of the *Code Characterisation* section is to lay out for the Instructor *typical* but not *unique* realisations (*grammatical, lexical* and *phonological*) of the FUNCTIONS in question. We hope that the instructor will be able to extend this set of realisations from his own observations of doctor–patient communication, and relate them to some communicatively oriented grammar . . . . The set of formal realisations given is *not* intended to be complete, but merely typical and illustrative.

The teacher is asked to make his own recordings of doctor–patient communication, identify realizations of discoursal functions, and then classify these using the categories employed in a communicative grammar! Many well-trained native speaker teachers working in well-endowed institutions with no shortage of facilities would quail before such a prospect. For the NNS teacher working with limited facilities and with a heavy teaching load, this advice is meaningless.

Factors Relating to Evaluation

Assumptions about the teacher's ability and willingness to deal with open-endedness. Does the TG provide assistance for teachers wishing to evaluate learners' responses to activities and exercises for which there cannot be predictable answers? Alexander (1967:127), for example, contains the following instruction for students:

> Write a composition in about 300 words on one of the following:
> (a) A visit to a factory.
> (b) Machines that do housework.

It is of course impossible to provide a 'key' to exercises of this type. But the introductory sections for the teacher (*op. cit.*: vii-xv) give no guidance to the teacher as to how students' responses to this task are to be evaluated. Consequently the

NNS teacher who is uncertain of his own ability to evaluate students' writing – and there are many such teachers – will either not ask his students to perform the task at all or will not attempt any evaluation of the work which the students do even if they do complete it.

Assumptions about the teacher's ability and willingness to work out answers. Does the TG provide keys to those exercises which do have predictable answers? In cases where it is possible to identify correct responses to a task, the TG may still not provide the information which the overworked or undertrained NNS teacher requires. Look, for example, at the following from Harvey and Wheeler (1976a: Drillcard 2.9):

DRILL 1	we leave now . . . get there in time
PART A	*If* we leave now, *we'll* get there in time
PART B	If we want to get there in time, we must leave now
	or we'll have to leave now
	I push the caravan over here . . . get the car in beside (. . .)
PART C	In order to get there in time we've got to leave now
DRILL 2	Place 'it follows that' or 'then' in the prompts for Drill 1.
DRILL 3	leave now . . . get there in time
PART A	Leaving now means we'll get there in time
	or Getting there in time means leaving now
	Go through the prompts in Drill 1 making statements of the above type.
PART B	We got there in time because we left immediately

I leave it to the reader to work out exactly what it is that learners are supposed to do and what they are required to produce, for the TG accompanying the materials (Harvey and Wheeler 1976b) gives no help here. These drills are completely mechanical, but the teacher must invest an inordinate amount of time working through them.

Factors Relating to Presentation

Organization of guidance. Does the TG provide detailed guidance which still requires careful interpretation or cross-referencing? The following passage, taken from Fowler (1975:

29), describes a procedure for administering a listening comprehension exercise:

> Read the passage three times at normal speed. Each reading should take not more than three minutes. During the second reading, allow a pause of 10 seconds at the points marked 1, and allow a pause of five seconds at the same points during the third reading. Students should be given two minutes to read the questions after the first reading; two minutes to note down answers they are already sure of after the second reading; and three minutes to complete their answers at the end. The definitions of words printed at the foot of passages should be given to students before the passage is read.

This procedure actually consists of nine simple steps, but the order in which these steps are described is not the same as the order in which they are to be performed. It is particularly curious that the first step in the procedure is the one which is described last of all.

The TG for *Kernel Lessons Intermediate* (O'Neill *et al.* 1971b) is rich in well-intentioned guidance which is presented in such a complicated way that it becomes difficult to exploit. Unfortunately space does not permit a detailed discussion here. However, the interested reader with plenty of time to spare may like to look at Unit 11 e/f (*op. cit.*: 67 and facing page) as an example and try to make a list of everything which has to be done if all the material in the unit is to be used and if all the suggestions for use are to be followed, keeping a note at the same time of how frequently it is necessary to search back through earlier pages of the book in order to understand the instructions fully.

Linguistic complexity and clarity. Does the TG employ language of a complexity which is appropriate only for native speakers or extremely fluent NNS teachers? The following example comes from Candlin *et al.* (1977:27):

> In the light of the development of this opposition we have at last become concerned with the only proper goal of a language learning syllabus, that of leading a learner to be able to communicate and understand in a foreign language not only the meaning within linguistic form, but also meaning as the communication of functional information negotiated between speakers and hearers in the actual world of context and presupposition.

A closely related phenomenon is the failure to ensure that the advice which is given in the TG is expressed clearly and unambiguously. The example which follows -- from Panpat *et al.* (1978:20) – is given with its original punctuation:

> This dialogue leaves the student with certain options, but refer back to 3.2 if any learner is in doubt. Note however that *I hope you liked the dinner* in line 3 must mean that in line 2 the first speaker thanks for the evening. (Note: the evening not the night) with the possibilities:

	pleasant	
Thank you for a	*nice*	*evening.*
	lovely	

Conclusions

In this discussion of the factors which need to be taken into consideration in an evaluation of TGs, no assumptions have been made about what constitutes a most desirable methodology, about what constitutes a most acceptable theory of language acquisition, or about what form a most acceptable theory of the nature of language would take. I have attempted to remain neutral on these issues and to be eclectic in my selection of illustrative texts. That is to say, I have tried to ensure that the illustrations are taken from materials representing a range of approaches to ELT.

It is not my intention to suggest that materials have no potential pedagogic value simply because there are inadequacies in their TGs as perceived from the point of view of the NNS teacher. (In fact there may even be a conflict in some cases between a desirable learning procedure and the uncertain NNS teacher's need for security and certainty.) What I am arguing is that many TGs appear to be little more than incidental afterthoughts and that far less care seems to have gone into their creation than into the materials for learners. Furthermore, the inadequacies of TGs undoubtedly do influence the responses of NNS teachers to materials. If teachers perceive materials as being impenetrable or extremely complicated or requiring an excessive investment of time and energy before teaching can begin, then they may respond to the materials in one of three ways.

(a) Teachers may exploit only those fractions of the materials which are amenable to use by the restricted repertoires which they possess. In other words, if a teacher is familiar only with one teaching style, in which the teacher reads aloud to a passive class, that teacher will obviously select only those passages which he considers suitable for recitation. I have seen *Kernel Lessons Intermediate* (O'Neill *et al.* 1971a) used in exactly this way by many Indonesian teachers.

(b) Teachers may exploit only those fractions of the materials which are accessible to the restricted linguistic competence which they possess. Thus, a teacher may skip certain activities, not because he considers them inappropriate but because he is uncertain of his own ability to evaluate what the students may produce. I often see teachers rushing through two or even three lessons of *Developing Skills* (Alexander 1967) in one 90-minute class, for example. The teachers admit that this is because they dare not allow the students to work on any of the more open-ended exercises such as composition or letter writing: they do not know how to evaluate the students' work.

(c) Teachers may reject the materials altogether.

This inventory of factors for evaluating TGs is really a plea. Perhaps we can look forward to a time when all English teaching will be done by teachers who are not obliged to take on excessive teaching loads in order to keep their families alive, who work in well-equipped institutions, who have near-native competence in English, who are confident and well trained, and who are familiar with the work of Candlin and Selinker. But until that day comes it is important for the writers and publishers of ELT materials to remember the difficulties which are faced by many of their potential customers and to ensure that TGs are thorough and clear. Recommendations for use need not be equated with restrictions on teachers' freedom. The teacher who does not need advice is not obliged to follow it. But if ELT materials are to be exploited more efficiently by their users, teachers' guides must be able to guide teachers.

Postscript

What value is there in performing an evaluation of TGs? In recent in-service workshops I have been encouraging NNS teachers to undertake their own evaluations of TGs, using the inventory of factors proposed here. Not surprisingly, the teachers have frequently come to the conclusion that TGs do *not* satisfy their needs, that the guides are not guiding them. If nothing else, this has indicated to the teachers that, even by an apparently 'objective' assessment,. the problems which they experience are real and legitimate. No easy solutions to these problems have been offered, for they do not exist. But this validation of their problems has helped relieve teachers of some of their feeling of inadequacy of the TGs. At the same time, this validation of problems has contributed to an atmosphere of solidarity between the teacher trainer and the teachers, and has left the latter more receptive to what the former has to offer. A similar phenomenon was experienced by Early and Bolitho (1981:82) when working with a group of German teachers of English:

> in the process of eliciting problems from the teachers, we [found] ourselves sympathetically bearing the brunt of them. [Conseqently] we were better placed to get a hearing for our ideas now that we had shown ourselves to be aware of, and sensitive to [the teachers' problems].

The next steps are to indicate two things to teachers. Firstly, ways in which TGs can be interpreted. Even though interpreting guides can demand considerable effort, it may be rewarding if it enriches the teacher's repertoire. Secondly, ways of exploiting published ELT materials regardless of -- or in spite of -- the TGs which accompany the materials. The inadequacy of instructions is not sufficient reason to reject the materials themselves. Even if the authors' original intentions are not clear or are inappropriate, it may still be possible to exploit the materials in other ways. But these matters are beyond the scope of the present paper.

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TEACHING AND LEARNING STYLES OF ESL STUDENT TEACHERS

Christine Uber Grosse

Abstract

Researchers have generally assumed that an individual's teaching and learning styles are closely related. This paper investigates the relationship between certain aspects of the teaching and learning styles of sixty ESL student teachers. The Canfield Learning Styles Inventory and Instructional Style Inventory were the assessment instruments used in the study. The findings imply that the group of student teachers use different behaviors to react to similar teaching and learning situations. Although some similarities did exist, the differences in over half of the assessed preferences for conditions and modes of instruction were significant.

Researchers generally assume that the teaching and learning styles of individuals are closely related, and that an instructor usually teaches the way she or he learns.[1] Recent research has focused on the assessment of cognitive styles and the match of teaching and learning styles. The result of studies by Witkin (1976), Dunn and Dunn (1979), and Laosa (1977) imply that a teacher can and should vary teaching style in order to accommodate the diverse learning styles of the students.

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However, in order to vary teaching style, it is vital to understand the elements that comprise it. Thus, the question of what factors contribute to teaching style deserves close attention. Joyce and Weil (1972) have proposed a model that describes the four principal sources of individual's teaching style: social interaction, information processing (cognitive styles), personality, and behavior modification approaches. However, the question remains -- to what extent is teaching style related to learning style, if at all?

This study examines the relationship that exists between certain parallel aspects of teaching and learning styles.[2] The goals of the research were to answer the following questions:

1) What is the profile of learning styles for a sample group of ESL student teachers?

2) What is the profile of teaching styles for the same group?

3) What, if any, are the significant differences in the group's teaching and learning styles?

In order to assess the ESL student teachers' learning and teaching styles, the author used the Canfield Learning Styles and Instructional Styles Inventories for adults (1980) which are designed to measure identical aspects of teaching and learning styles. Both instruments consist of descriptions of realistic classroom situations and request a rank ordering of preferred reactions to the situations. The Learning Styles Inventory (LSI) contains learning situations and behaviors while the Instructional Styles Inventory (ISI) describes teaching situations and associated behaviors. Both inventories assess the degree of preference for the same conditions, content areas, and modes of teaching and learning.[3] Student responses are scored from 5 to 20 for the ISI and from 6 to 24 for the LSI. A low score indicates a high degree of preference for a particular condition, content area or mode.

Traditionally, the LSI and the ISI have not been used by the same sample population. Typically, teachers take the ISI while the LSI is administered to their students. The results are then compared for the purposes of identifying a "match" of teaching and learning styles. For the sake of comparison in this study, the ISI and LSI were given to the same sample of sixty ESL student teachers.

Sample and Method

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the teaching and learning styles of a group of ESL student teachers. The sample groups consisted of sixty students from five ESOL teacher training classes – three Curriculum Development in ESOL and two Special Methods of Teaching ESOL classes at Florida International University. The students who participated in the study were either working toward the Masters in TESOL degree or supplemental teacher certification in ESOL. Of the sixty subjects, sixteen were male. Eleven were under 30 years of age; twenty-seven were between 30 and 40 years old; fourteen were between 41 and 50, eight were over 50 years old. The amount of teaching experience among the students varied from 0 to 35 years. Nineteen students had less than four years of teaching experience; eighteen students had taught from four to seven years; ten taught for eight to twelve years; and thirteen claimed more than twelve years of teaching experience. With regard to ethnic backgrounds, participants included seventeen Hispanics, six Haitians, four black Americans and thirty-three Anglo-Americans.

Student scores on the Learning Styles Inventory were converted to conform to the Instructional Styles Inventory scale. The conversion involved a simple transformation of the LSI scores (ranging from 6 to 24) to the ISI scale (with a range of 5 to 20). The data were analyzed for the group mean and standard deviation of each of the sixteen variables on the Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories. Subsequently, the related variables of the two inventories were compared for significant differences through paired t-tests. (See Table 1.)

Assessment Instruments

The limitations of learning styles assessment instruments have been discussed by Gregorc (1979) and Corbett and Smith (1984). Any assessment instrument by necessity must concentrate on the measurement of certain variables, to the inevitable exclusion of others. The breadth and complexity of the field of learning styles makes it impossible to measure all of the known aspects of the styles. Additionally, according to *Student Learning Styles: Diagnosing and Prescribing Programs* (1979), "some of the styles have no generally acceptable testing technique and others are still vague enough that much more investigation is needed" before instruments can be designed to measure them. As Corbett and Smith (1984) illustrated clearly, establishing the validity and reliability of learning styles assessment instruments can be a difficult task. They have stated that ". . .the techniques and quantifiable instruments to ascertain preferential modes of learning are still in the infancy stage." Another problem inherent in self-reporting instruments is the veracity of student response. Students deliberately may not report the truth, or they may misread a statement or question in the testing instrument. Still another possibility for inaccurate responses can be attributed to students not knowing how they would react in a given situation, or which response they actually prefer. A final limitation is the probability of human error in recording answers on the answer sheet, and in interpreting the data. Nevertheless, a standardized instrument whose validity and reliability has been established is a valuable, though far from perfect tool for classroom-based research in teaching and learning styles. As Gaies (1983) notes, "direct external observation and analysis of classroom activity cannot provide accurate insights into learners' conscious thought processes." Allwright (1983) suggests that introspection, that is reflection upon one's own thoughts, feelings, and experiences, may be a more valid research method than direct observation.

The Canfield Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories for adults are relatively easy to administer and score. The results have a practical orientation that provides comprehensible feedback to teachers and students concerning their teaching and learning styles. The results describe eight conditions, four content areas, and four modes of teaching and learning styles.

The eight condition variables are *peer, organization, goal setting, competition, instructor, detail, independence,* and *authority*; each relates to preferred behaviors in teaching and learning situations. For example, the peer variable as a condition of instructional style refers to preference for using student teams and small groups in class and the encouragement of student friendships and good peer relationships. As a condition for learning, the peer variable indicates the degree of student preference for working in teams or small groups, and having strong peer relationships. Table 2 describes the sixteen variables in the study and their implications for teaching and learning styles.

The four content areas of interest to learner and teacher are *numeric, qualitative, inanimate* and *people*. These variables indicate a relative level of interest in the respective areas. The mode variables describe preferences for particular instructional procedures in the areas of lecturing (ISI)/listening (LSI), reading, iconic, and direct experience.

The Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories have a fourth section that was not used in this study, because the two sections measure different things and thus cannot be compared. The fourth section in the ISI measures the degree of responsibility that an instructor accepts for the learning process, while the corresponding section in the LSI assesses the level of performance that a student anticipates to achieve in a class.

Findings

1. Group Profile of Learning Style

The mean response of the group of sixty ESL student teachers was calculated for each variable of the Canfield Learning Styles Inventory. The profile of sample means which is depicted in Figure 1 reflects the average preferences of conditions, content, and mode of learning. Paired t-tests were used to determine the significance of differences between pairs of related variables. Preferences are described as significant at the 95% confidence level (with 59 degrees of freedom). A low score in Figure 1 indicates a strong preference; conversely a high score reflects a lesser degree of preference.

The group of ESL teachers most preferred the variable of instructor as a condition in a learning situation. As learners, they placed great importance on the teacher-student relationship and on having a good rapport with the teacher. The second most favored condition in a learning situation was independence. The ESL student teachers demonstrated a preference for working on their own and determining their own study plan. The next most preferred conditions were *goal setting, peer,* and *organization*. Of the eight conditions measured, *detail, competition* and *authority* were least preferred.

The favorite content areas of interest to the groups were *people* and *qualitative*, as might be expected from ESL teachers. The least preferred areas of interest were *numeric* and *inanimate*.

With regard to mode of learning, listening was the favored instructional approach, while reading was significantly less preferred than the other three approaches.

2. Group Profile of Teaching Styles

As instructors, the group indicated a significant preference for the condition of *organization* as the most desirable behavior in a teaching stiuation. Figure 2 illustrates the profile of sample means for the Instructional Styles Inventory. After *organization*, the group preferred *detail*. Favored classroom techniques therefore, would emphasize clear and logical organization of lessons, meaningful and specifically stated assignments, and clearly defined rules. The third most preferred condition for teaching was *instructor*. *Independence* and *competition* were the group's least favored conditions.

The number one content area of interest for the ESL student teachers was *people*, followed closely by *qualitative*. The least preferred content areas were *numeric* and *inanimate*.

The sample group reported preferences for two modes of instruction: direct experience and lecturing. *Iconic* and *reading* were the less preferred instructional approaches.

3. Significant Differences in Aggregate Learning and Teaching Styles

The findings do not support the widely held assumption that teaching styles are closely related to learning styles. In fact, preferences in teaching and learning styles differed significantly for five out of eight conditions, one out of four content areas, and three out of four modes of instruction.

Although the group preferred instructor and independence variables as conditions for learning situations, the same variables were significantly less preferred as conditions for instructional situations. Other differences appeared in the level of preference for the conditions of organization and detail. Both were strongly favored as desirable conditions in teaching situations, but were significantly less favored in a learning situation. The degree of preference for goal setting was significantly higher as a condition for learning rather than teaching.

These differences in degree of preference for conditions seem to indicate the group's desire to have more control and structure as teachers; as learners they preferred to have better student-teacher relations and learner-centered classroom. A clear distinction between preferred behaviors in teaching and learning styles clearly exists in the sample students.

With regard to content area of interest, a significant difference in preferences was found in the qualitative variable. The group indicated a higher preference for working with words and language as learners than as teachers.

Three modes of instruction also reflected different degrees of preference for teaching and learning styles. Direct experience and reading were more favored as modes of teaching than as modes of learning. On the other hand, listening to lectures and speeches is more preferred as an approach to learning than the corresponding modality of giving lectures is preferred for teaching.

Conclusions

Understanding the relationship of teaching and learning styles is a complex undertaking that presents a challenge to researchers. The results of the study suggest that teaching styles are not as closely related to learning styles as is generally assumed. The findings imply that the group of sixty ESL student teachers use different behaviors to react to similar teaching and learning situations. Although some similarities did exist, the differences in over half of the assessed preferences for conditions and modes of instruction were significant.

The need for more research concerning the relationship of teaching and learning styles is evident, so that educators may accommodate their students' diverse learning styles. Such attempts to vary teaching styles to match learning styles will be more likely to succeed with a better understanding of the nature of these styles.

Table 1

Significance Tests on the Difference Between Sample Means

Variable	LSI Group Mean	ISI Group Mean	Z Value
I. Condition			
a. Peer	12.87	13.35	1.41
b. Organization	13.15	8.42	–8.13
c. Goal Setting	12.28	13.35	2.22
d. Competition	14.75	14.78	.07
e. Instructor	8.68	11.80	5.95
f. Detail	15.12	10.48	–10.05
g. Independence	10.62	14.67	5.96
h. Authority	16.22	13.02	–1.07
II. Content			
a. Numeric	15.45	15.63	.55
b. Qualitative	9.73	10.50	2.72
c. Inanimate	15.07	15.13	.27
d. People	9.38	8.97	–1.46
III. Mode			
a. Listenihg/Lecturing	10.28	12.18	5.43
b. Reading	14.38	13.32	–2.34
c. Iconic	12.55	12.72	.46
d. Direct Experience	12.60	11.45	12.36

N = 60
The test value is significant at the 95% confidence level (with 59 degrees of freedom) when it is greater than ± 1.96.

Table 2

Summary of Condtions, Content Areas, and Modes

Learning Styles Preferences	Instructional Style Preferences
I. Conditions (of the Teaching/Learning Relationship)	
1. Peer – Working in student teams and small groups, having student friends	Using student teams and small groups, encouraging good peer relationship
2. Organization – Receiving clear and logical organization of course work, meaningful assignments and clearly defined sequence of activities	Logically organizing course work, providing meaningful assignments and clearly defining the sequence of activities
3. Goal Setting – One's own objectives, using feedback to modify goals or procedures	Letting students set their own goals, providing feedback to help them modify their objectives
4. Competition – Desire to compare oneself with other students, need to know how one is doing in relation to others	Creating opportunities for students to be compared with each other and to compete with each other
5. Instructor – Knowing the instructor personally, having a mutual understanding and liking	Encouraging the students to know the instructor personally, to develop a mutual understanding and liking
6. Detail – Receiving specific information on assignments and rules	Providing specific information on assignments, requirements, etc.
7. Independence – Working alone and independently, determining own study plan	Encouraging students to work alone and independently, letting them plan for themselves
8. Authority – Desiring classroom discipline and maintenance of order, having informed and knowledgeable instructors	Maintaining classroom discipline and order, setting high standards and demanding student performance
II. Content (Area of Interest)	
1. Numeric – Working with numbers and logic, computing, solving mathematical problems	

2. Qualitative — Working with words or language, writing, editing, talking.
3. Inanimate — Working with things, building, repairing, designing, operating
4. People — Working with people, interviewing, counseling, selling, helping

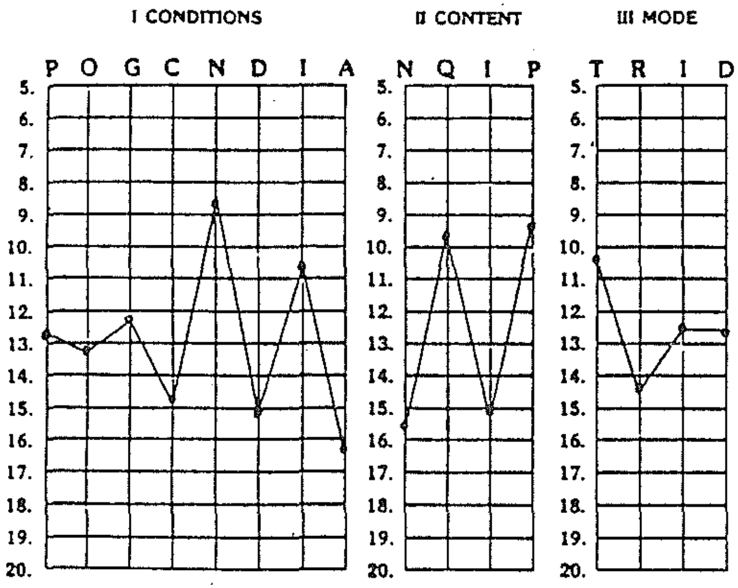
III. Mode (Instructional Procedures)

1. Listening (LSI)/Lecturing (ISI) — Hearing information, lectures, tapes, speeches, etc.	Giving information by lectures, tapes, speeches, etc.
2. Reading — Examining the written, word, reading texts, pamphlets, etc.	Providing reading texts, pamphlets, etc.
3. Iconic — Viewing illustrations, movies, slides, pictures, graphs, etc.	Showing illustrations such as movies, slides, pictures, graphs, etc.
4. Direct Experience — Handling or performing; field trips, role plays, practice exercises	Getting students to handle or perform; field trips, role plays, practice exercises

Adapted from: "Brief description of scales." Canfield Learning Styles Inventory. Plymouth, MI: Humanics, 1979.

Figure 1

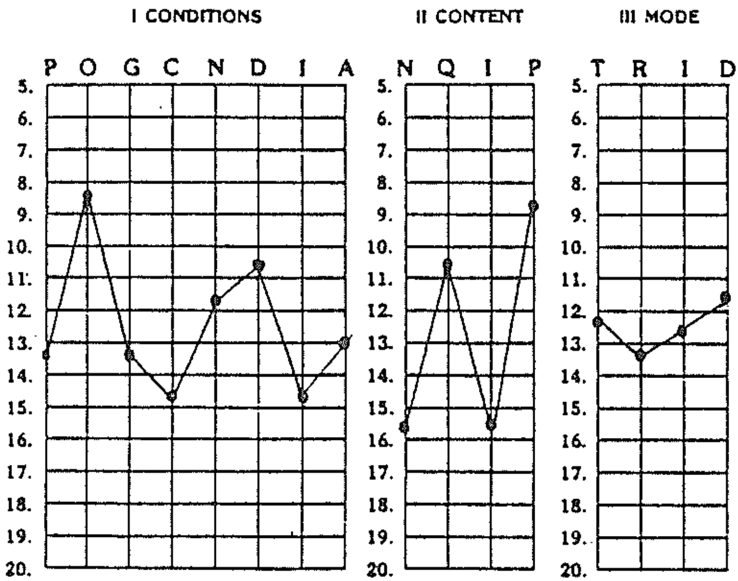
Learning Styles Inventory: Profile of Sample Means*



*N = 60

Figure 2

Instructional Styles Inventory: Profile of Sample Means*



*N = 60

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Notes

[1] A preliminary version of this paper was presented at the TESOL '85 conference in New York City on April 11, 1985.

[2] Dr. Joseph Cook, Ms. Blanca Garcia and Dr. Marisal Reyes Gavilan made invaluable comments on the research design and project. Dr. Albert Canfield kindly provided insight into the application of his Learning and Instructional Styles Inventories.

[3] The instruments are available through: Humanics Media, 5457 Pine Code Road, La Crescenta, California 91214.

TEACHING WRITING AS A PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL

Michele M. Chan

Abstract

The way composition is often taught takes no account of the processes by which people produce writing and ignores the primary purpose of writing: communication. Students write only for a teacher whose comments give students the impression that what was said is less important than how it was said. Standardized forms are taught without helping students to see that the content and purpose determine the form. Thus students find the techniques of writing and rules of language use they are taught arbitrary and sometimes irrelevant.

Recently there has been a great deal of research into how ESL/EFL writers compose. However, teachers sometimes find it difficult to translate the latest theories into a course design and day to day teaching practices. At the Chinese University of Hong Kong we have designed a writing course that takes into account research into how people compose and which emphasizes writing as communication. Our course design and the assumptions upon which it is based form the basis of this paper.

Ms. Chan earned an M.A. degree from Michigan State University. She is presently teaching at The Chinese University of Hong Kong, from which she hopes to take leave in the near future to pursue a Ph.D. program in the United States. Currently she is working on a textbook for use by ESL/EFL writing students.

In spite of the findings of researchers who are studying how ESL/EFL writers compose, many teachers of writing continue to hold outdated notions about the nature of composition and how it is best taught to students at advanced levels. This is reflected in course designs which place undue emphasis on grammatical accuracy or which are organized around rhetorical patterns of idea development. Overemphasizing grammatical correctness and teaching rhetorical patterns as containers into which ideas must be made to fit both suggest to students that concern with form is more important than concern with content. In addition, such course designs tend to provide little specific and practical guidance on how to go about writing: how to get ideas, develop and shape them, and examine them critically with a purpose and audience in mind.

Teachers at the English Language Teaching Unit of the Chinese University of Hong Kong have put together a writing program which applies the findings of recent research into the composing processes of non-native speakers of English and ways to help them develop writing proficiency. A description of one of our courses, Writing Skills, and the theoretical assumptions upon which it is based may provide some suggestions for others who teach writing to advanced ESL/EFL students at the university level.

Assumptions

How we view the way people compose, as well as our beliefs about how writing is best taught and learned, determine how we plan writing courses for our students. Viewing writing as an act of communication with readers to accomplish specific purposes has a profound effect on course design, as does being aware of the complex processes involved in writing.

This notion contains three important assumptions about writing that need to be broken down and considered separately:

1) People write to communicate with readers.
2) People write to accomplish specific purposes.
3) Writing is a complex process.

Writing is an act of communication since we usually write to be read by others. As with other types of communication, there is, as Morrow (1981) suggests, an "information gap" as writers are trying to share with readers some information or a way of thinking that they presume readers don't have. In fact this is particularly true of writing because normally readers are unwilling to use time and effort reading things that contain nothing new. At some point writers and their work get a response of some kind: an interview, action, agreement, a smile – or perhaps a rejection, a feeling of disgust, or failure to read all the way through.

McKay (1979) discusses the importance of helping students to become more aware of writing as an act of communication, and describes writing assignments which contain a target audience. She explains that including a description of the audience in assignments ensures that communication of meaning is the goal of student writers. If a teacher's purpose is to enable students to write after finishing a course, this seems more realistic and preferable to a classroom situation in which very little communication takes place. Less learning takes place in situations in which the only reader is a teacher who is very little concerned with content but only responds to how a piece is written. This is especially true when the response merely consists of pejorative comments about surface correctness and perhaps whether or not students followed the assignment. In such a situation students come to see writing as merely an exercise, not as an act of communication.

Failure to make clear to students the second point, that writing is usually done for a purpose, also leads to them feeling that writing is only meaningless drudgery. They will lack motivation to write because they will not see its relevance to their lives. But writers usually write to have some effect on readers, and this intent shapes how they present what they say. This is especially obvious when the purpose of the writing is to accomplish something concrete, such as a job application letter written for the purpose of being asked for an interview. But it is no less true of writing that aims to inform, convince, or amuse readers.

Asking students to keep an audience and intent in mind has the effect of making our instruction more meaningful and relevant – and more practical. Techniques of writing, notions of correctness, language form, rhetorical form, and style are thus taught as tools for writers to use to help them achieve an intent. Writing is then evaluated on how successful it is in achieving the writer's intent. An advantage of looking at writing in this way is that teachers are free to address student needs as they arise while writing, and students will be more motivated to learn about these technical matters in the context of writing something they care about and that they know will be read by others.

The third broad assumption was that writing, in any language, is a complex process. This is borne out by the work of a number of prominent researchers such as Zamel (1982, 1983), Raimes (1985), Lay (1982), and others. Zamel (1982) discusses important research into composing processes of native speakers of English. She also identifies a shift from focusing on the products of writing to being concerned about the process and talks about implications of this for the teaching of composition to non-native speakers. One important finding of researchers who have studied how people compose is that writing is a process that involves discovery of meaning as one writes. (See Emig 1971 and Hairston 1982.) Zamel (1983), Taylor (1981) and others have discussed the inappropriateness of teaching techniques such as outlining, beginning with a thesis sentence and rewriting solely for the purpose of correcting grammatical and usage errors, saying that these are contrary to the notion of writing as a thinking, discovering process.

Most researchers in this area attempt to define stages or elements in the process of writing. Murray (1978) explains that prewriting, writing, and rewriting are the terms most often used. Flower and Hayes (1981), however, caution that these are not linear steps. They propose a hierarchical structure for their process model. In it they emphasize writing as a thinking process, mention sub-processes, and show how these interact in the total process.

Zamel (1982, 1983, 1984) describes how ESL writers compose: how they generate ideas, write out and develop them, and then revise their work. Through observing ESL writers as they composed, interviewing them, and examining their work, she came to the conclusion that ESL writers experience the same kind of processes as native speakers do.

In addition to assumptions about the nature of writing itself, there are two additional assumptions about teaching writing. The first is that writing is best taught by having students write as much as possible. Lectures on grammar or techniques of writing, at least for advanced students, should be kept to a minimum so that as much time as possible can be used for students to write and discuss their writing with classmates. Corder (1977) talks about the effectiveness of learning by doing. He describes learning tasks in which the ability to use the language is achieved through using the language. By having students learn to write by writing, the writing becomes both the end and the means.

Another assumption about the teaching of writing is that students should be encouraged to keep separate the times when they are working with creating meaning and the times when they are thinking about how best to present their meaning to their readers. Perhaps it is possible for experienced writers to both think of what they want to write and look critically at their writing as they are producing it, but inexperienced writers such as ESL/EFL writers can do both things more efficiently if they do them at different times. This especially means that concern with grammatical accuracy must be postponed until ideas are developed.

These assumptions, then, form the basis for the design of the Writing Skills course offered by the English Language Teaching Unit of the Chinese University of Hong Kong. How they are put into practice will be discussed in the section on Course Design, below.

Students Needs and our Goals

Language courses are often made up of heterogeneous groups of students. The Writing Skills course is made up of students with a common mother tongue, Chinese, who have all studied English for more than 12 years. But they may have very little else in common: They have different majors, are at different stages in their university career from freshman to senior, have differing levels of English language proficiency, and have varying attitudes about how much effort they should devote to an elective course such as this one. Thus they will have different needs and interests, making it impossible to teach specific types of writing, such as the research paper or the job application letter. These constraints, in addition to the number of hours per week (3) and the length of the term (14 weeks) make it necessary to aim at rather general goals for the course.

Another constraint is class size. Although our class size of 15 to 20 students may seem small in comparison with class sizes elsewhere, we depend to a great extent on small group work and try to train students to give each other feedback and response to their writing. Students have to get used to not being dependent on the teacher alone for guidance and learn to trust their classmates. This is necessary so that lots of writing can be worked through the various stages in the writing process.

What we want students to gain from the course can be simply stated, but many things are involved, as will be made clear in the description of the course design. In general, however, we want students to gain the ability to write well for any audience they encounter, for any purpose they may have. We hope that by giving them general guidance, as well as an abundance of practice and opportunities to get responses, they will be able to do these things.

Course Design and Classroom Techniques

All of the aspects of good writing talked about in class are immediately practiced in short in-class assignments, and alsc in two longer, more formal, writing assignments. At the beginning of the Writing Skills course, students start work on the first of these major assignments, each taking about six weeks to finish. These projects are to be approximately 800-1,200 words in length, and no topic or form is specified, though recently we have experimented with requiring that the topic be descriptive in nature so that students can learn to use specific details to develop their ideas fully. Students have chosen topics such as the following:

- an experience as a member of the Hong Kong Air Cadet Corps
- the 1985 international dragon boat races
- the reality of technical schools
- a story about what would happen in Hong Kong were a nuclear war to break out
- Chinese funerals in ancient times
- the fitness craze
- cooking and eating dog meat

With topics in mind students are asked to clarify their intent or purpose by writing a topic proposal. An example is given to them:

> *I want to present the thesis that boredom is one of the major problems facing old people in Hong Kong today. My intent is to give reasons why I consider this problem so serious so that I can convince readers to be*

more aware of it and thus more sympathetic towards old people in their own families. From my perspective as a member of the Social Work Department, I would also like to propose some solutions to this problem.

In this topic proposal students must state what effect they wish to have on their audience: to get the audience to give them information, for example, to do them a favor or to take action of some sort, to get the audience to believe something, to entertain the audience, and so on. Sometimes student writers, perhaps because they don't have the needs of the audience in mind, aren't able to define their purpose, or if they can, it's very vague. Thus the writing they produce is vague, general, or incoherent. No amount of instruction on how to link paragraphs or develop ideas can cure the problem if students don't have a purpose clearly in mind as they write. It may be a bit more difficult to keep in mind an abstract intent or purpose, such as to inform or entertain, than it is to remember a more obvious purpose such as soliciting information or getting someone to take action on a complaint. But in academic situations the purpose is often rather abstract, and thus ESL/EFL writers should become familiar with this kind of writing.

A result of our emphasis on intent or purpose is that when teachers give feedback during the stages of composing, they can talk about both strengths and weaknesses, not in terms of objective standards, but in terms of whether or not the piece of writing is effective in achieving the writer's intent. Areas that we cover in class such as how to write effective introductions and conclusions, how to develop ideas through description and exemplification, how to do persuasive writing, and how to achieve an effective style, all seem practical and comprehensible as techniques to help student writers achieve their purposes. Instruction in points of grammar and word choice also seem relevant in this context.

Along with getting and keeping intent firmly in mind, students must keep in mind to whom they are writing. We believe that helping students analyze the audiences they will write for is very important. Our students are asked to consider various things:

- Who is the audience?
- What are its members' backgrounds, experiences with the topic, interests, opinions, ages, sex, and so on?
- Will the members of the audience tend to be receptive, neutral, or hostile?
- Are members of the audience general readers or specialists in a field?
- What effect will these facts have on the students' writing?

Although an ideal situation would be one in which many different genuine audiences would be available, it is difficult to arrange such a situation. However, one group of readers that is readily available is the members of the class. Therefore, we ask students to assume that the audience for the things they write for our course is their classmates and the teacher. Assuming this we can confirm the results of the audience analysis. More importantly, perhaps, we can then use classmates to provide feedback for unfinished pieces so that students can rewrite, and to give response to finished work. Students will then know whether or not their writing was effective for their audience. Limitations of giving exposure to only one audience may be outweighed by the advantages of students being able to get feedback and response from a real audience.

Having intent and audience in mind, students are ready to begin to sharpen their ideas and then to write their projects. Because we want to give our students specific guidance about how to go about writing we talk about elements in the process of writing, emphasizing that it is not a linear process and that individuals vary in the order they experience the elements and the amount of time they spend on each. While we are discussing each element, students are working on their own pieces of writing, trying to pay more attention to their own process of writing and keeping the times they are inventing separate from the times they are being critical.

We first talk about generating ideas and do some group work in this area. This is woven in with the work on intent and audience analysis. A central emphasis is choosing aspects of a topic that will be interesting and thought-provoking to the audience. Students are sometimes asked to get into small groups, and tell each other what their topics are. The group members write down, and then later discuss, what they already know about the topic, and thus what the writer should avoid, and what they would like to know more about on that topic. At this time we also help students to narrow and focus their topics so that they avoid being over general or trying to cover too much. Students also engage in other prewriting activities, such as those mentioned by Spack (1984).

Then students write first drafts, paying attention to content rather than correctness or arrangement of ideas. This is especially important for these students who are not writing in their native language as they tend to over-emphasize correctness or worry about it too much during the early stages of composing. The first drafts are then given to classmates for feedback which can be used when the authors revise their work.

We arrange the feedback in this way. First we give students some preparation in the form of advice on how to give helpful feedback. (See Elbow 1980 and Macrorie 1980.) We also give a checklist of specific points to consider and an old student composition that they can practice giving feedback on and that teachers can use to model giving feedback. Some of the guidelines we give the students are these: look both for things the writer has done well and things that make the piece less effective; be tactful and remember that your comments are only your opinion; remember that it's a draft and not a finished work (so comments on editing conventions will not be appropriate at this point); and most importantly, point to specific places the writer has done something well or failed to, and offer alternatives if possible. Also, writers are encouraged to ask questions about things they have had trouble with.

Questions on the feedback checklist address techniques of writing that have been discussed in class, and aim at getting student readers to be specific in their comments. Here are a few examples of questions that are asked.

Intent -- What do you think was the writer's intent or purpose, that is, what effect was he or she trying to have on you, the reader? (Please choose one from the list below and explain if necessary.)
– to inform you about ______________________
For what purpose? ______________________
– to amuse you ______________
–to convince you to change your thinking about ______
-- to get you to take action ______ What? ________
– to make you feel something ______ What? ________
-- other – explain ______________________
Did the paper have the effect on you that you think the writer intended?
yes ____ no ____ somewhat, but needs work ____
If you answered "yes," please note on the draft places you think the writer has done a good job in achieving his or her intent.
If you answered "no" or "needs work," please offer suggestions (on the draft) about how the writer could strenghen the piece so that the intent can be achieved.
Idea Development – After you have finished reading the whole piece do you have any questions? Please write them here:

Try to express the main point in one sentence:

If you are unable to do so, can you explain why?

Were there enough details and examples to support the main idea?
yes _____ no _____

If your answer was "yes," *from memory* please write as many of the writer's details, examples, reasons, arguments, as you can (in any order):

If you answered "no," could you suggest any supporting points the writer might use?

Are all of the supporting points relevant to the topic?
yes ____ no ____

If your answer is "no," please indicate on the draft any irrelevant parts.

Other areas mentioned on the feedback checklist are topic choice, idea arrangement, and style, each with several specific questions. Students are put into groups of three to four members, asked to exchange copies of their drafts and then make comments at home. They later discuss each other's work in class with the feedback checklist as a guide. Afterwards they can give the completed feedback checklist to their group members to use as reference for revision work.

Some students have questioned this feedback procedure. They have had some difficulty at first with accepting the advice of their classmates. They doubt that their peers are qualified to give them helpful advice, and they are in the habit of looking only to the teacher for judgements about the quality of their writing. However, they come to realize that since their classmates are the target audience, their comments about the effectiveness of the writing are extremely valuable. And indeed classmates are able to be more objective about their writing than are the student writers themselves. However, to help to relieve their doubts, teachers also read the drafts of the first assignment and make comments. To ensure that the student writers take the advice of their peers seriously and that they are able to examine their own work and identify problem areas, we have them enclose lists of questions about their drafts. Teachers, then, will only address the questions asked by the student writers and will restrain themselves from commenting on anything else. A good question might be something like this: "My group members said that the section on dieting is not relevant for a paper on fitness. Do you agree?" A question that would not be allowed would be, "Are there any problem areas in this paper?"

Some students have also complained that this feedback process is unrealistic since later they will have no one to give them feedback. But we inform them that the second writing project will receive no teacher input, though classmates will again be asked to give feedback. We also explain to them that by giving feedback to others they are learning skills that will help them to examine their own work more critically. In addition, we remind them that they are free to accept or reject advice given by peers or teacher.

After receiving feedback students turn their attention to revising and working toward completed pieces. This is not to say that revision only occurs late in the process, for revision may be constantly going on, even in the writing of the initial draft, since people work in different ways. But we want our students to try to wait until the initial, idea-generating step is finished before they start being critical of their work, and we also want them to learn that revision can sometimes mean extensive rewriting — something different from the editing that goes on at the end.

Sometimes students have trouble seeing that there are many ways of expressing the same idea. In order to make that point we do a simple exercise in class. Students are given a topic (recently, for example, I asked them to explain to me why lately in Hong Kong there had been so many cases of mothers committing suicide and killing their small children at the same time). In this activity students write for five or ten minutes on the topic, and their papers are collected. Then, they are asked to write once again *on the same topic*. Often I have them do it for a third time. Afterwards, we discuss the differences between the three drafts and which was better. Sometimes I ask the students to take the papers home and revise them into one perfected draft. Thus they begin to understand that even though words have been put down on paper, there is nothing final about a piece of writing until a writer decides to stop working on it. For both the revision and the editing stages we give the students advice and exercises of a traditional sort, and for the discussion of editing we provide some guidelines which mention some recurring problems of Cantonese speakers writing in English, as well as standard editing conventions. Class time is used for student peers to help with the editing.

Finally comes the response. On the day when final drafts are due the class time is used for class members to read papers they have not already read and then to write responses. A short list of questions is attached to guide the students' response. The questions are these:

— What was the writer's main point, and what was his or her intent? (Answer something like this: The writer's main point was that the problems of the elderly in Hong Kong should not be ignored or minimized with the excuse that the old people's families will take care of them. His intent was to give us more information about the problems that old people face so that we'll be more aware of the problem and try to help old people more.)

— What do you think were the *specific* strong points about this piece? (The title that attracted interest? The strong conclusion? The useful examples? The style? The clear arrangement of points? The new and thoughtful aspects of the point that were emphasized? And so on . . .)

— What is your response to this piece? (Answer more fully, but something like this: I agree that the elderly have many problems that their families are not helping them with. I suggest that the government should implement some sort of financial aid scheme and/or re-examine the mandatory retirement age. My grandmother sounds a lot like the example you have given.)

Then final drafts are given to teachers to evaluate. Zamel (1985) raises issues and gives suggestions for responding to student writing. In the Writing Skills course we try to ask questions about areas of content we don't understand or that we wonder about. We offer suggestions about how to make the writing more effective, keeping in mind the students' intents. We collect both first and final drafts and comment about the number and effectiveness of revisions. Some of our teachers have tried having conferences with students, as Murray (1979) suggests, and others make comments only on what has been recently discussed in class. In any case we try not to overwhelm students by mentioning every area in which there are problems, and certainly we will make as many positive comments as possible.

One way we have tried to make the teachers' more systematic is to have a checklist of points, with points being arranged roughly in order of importance, depending on the type of writing being done. With the idea of effectiveness (or lack of it) in communicating meaning in mind, teachers make comments going down the list, only moving to the next item if there are no major problems in the previous ones. This might be the order of points for an academic essay:

- *content* topic choice, idea development
- *idea arrangement* introductions, conclusion, titles, transitional devices, format)
- *style* word choice, sentence structure)
- *grammar*

It should be clear from the preceding description of the Writing Skills course that a large amount of the class time is devoted to working on the large writing projects: getting ideas for them, receiving feedback, revising them, getting response to them. Along the way, as has been mentioned, techniques for making writing more effective, such as use of descriptive details, are discussed, and short in-class writings are assigned. For example, in the unit on developing ideas through descriptive details, students might be asked to close their eyes while the teacher takes them on an imaginary trip, across the water to a small island, through the jungle, and up the mountain in search of the wise old man who will answer a question if he can be found. At the entrance to the old man's cave, the teacher will stop and ask students to complete the story and then write the ending, being as descriptive as possible. We believe that encouraging students to have fun with their writing is a way to motivate them and we believe that helping students to have confidence in their ability to write is essential.

The Writing Skills course features another kind of writing, though it is not generally done in class. To provide regular practice in writing, which will enhance fluency, and also to provide a balance to the formal writing assignments and in-class writings we ask students to do, we also ask them to keep writing journals. An excellent article on the benefits of using the journal in the ESL classroom is by Spack and Sadow (1983). Our use of the journal is a bit different from theirs in that we allow our students to write about whatever they like rather than just what goes on in class. We ask students to keep an exercise book and write a page in it three times per week. These are not meant to be diary entries but records of observations, responses to class, things they have read or to daily life, descriptions, and so on. These entries can often provide ideas for other writing activities. Students are asked not to be concerned with accuracy as much as fluency. The purpose of the journals is to give students whose experience with English has been mostly passive absorption of knowledge about the language a chance to use it and even to experiment with it. Students report that at the end of the term they can write much faster and with more ease.

Teachers evaluate the journals mainly for effort, thoughtfulness and correct number of entries. Perhaps because of the emphasis on content, the journals may be the most genuinely communicative aspect of the course. Teachers respond to the ideas and experiences related, expressing their agreement or disagreement, sharing similar experiences, expressing surprise, or even confusion, and so on. Dialogues between teachers and students are established, and this aids in building rapport. Students also are able to make comments about the course that they might hesitate to make in front of the class or even privately to the teachers. Some of the teachers of the course also keep journals which they make available for student inspection.

Conclusion

The intent of this article has been to describe our Writing Skills course at the Chinese University of Hong Kong and the assumptions upon which it is based so that other teachers may see how current ideas about communicative language teaching and composition can be applied to course design for students at this level. No formal study has been done to see if this course has been able to produce student writers who write better and with more ease than students who have taken more traditional courses, but intuitively we feel that it has and that we are moving in the right direction. One drawback of trying to assess students' improvement in writing skill is that it seems to come slowly and may be more apparent at some time in the future. But we would like to think that our students leave the course with a greater understanding of how to go about writing and how to write effectively for whatever purpose or audience they may need to write for in the future.

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ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE EXAMINATIONS
Conducted by THE DELEGACY OF LOCAL EXAMINATIONS
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

実用・実務英語検定試験

オックスフォード大学英語検定試験
受験案内

オックスフォード大学海外試験運営委員会事務局

IES国際教育文化交流協会

後援 学研

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☎03-563-3611(代)

受験要項

1986年の世界統一試験日(1986年度)

	11/20(木)	11/27(木)
PRELIMINARY LEVEL —Junior—	○	
PRELIMINARY LEVEL —General—	○	
HIGHER LEVEL		○

受験時間

PRELIMINARY LEVEL (初級及び中級)	第1時限	10:00～12:00
	第2時限	14:00～16:10
HIGHER LEVEL (上級)	第1時限	10:00～13:00
	第2時限	14:00～17:10

各レベルの希望試験日を上記の各日より1つだけお選び下さい。
尚、団体で受験を希望されるときは、別途日時を設けることもできます。

申込み方法

直接申込む場合

別添の返信用封筒を利用して申込書を事務局に直接送付して下さい。
また、受験料は別添の銀行送金用紙をご利用下さい。

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大学生協・丸善、紀伊國屋、旭屋、三省堂その他有名書店に備えつけの申込用紙を使用して下さい。受験料は、直接書店に支払う事が出来ます。

学校を経由して申込む場合

学校の教務課に、お問合せ下さい。

※書店及び学校を経由して申込む場合には㈱学研のセレクター及びアシスターがお手伝いします。

詳しい受験に関するお問合せは

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IES国際教育文化交流協会
〒104 東京都中央区銀座4-2-2 ヤヨイビル
☎03-563-3611(代)

申込み期限

希望受験日より20日前までに上記事務局に必着するようお送りください。

受験資格

年齢制限はありません。

合格発表

試験日より約10週間後に、試験結果をお知らせします。合格者には、オックスフォード大学海外試験委員会より、検定合格証明書を、日本事務局経由でお送りします。

受験料及び支払方法

Preliminary Level —Junior 及び General— (一般初級・一般中級試験)	¥7,000円
Higher Level(上級試験)	¥9,000円

試験の場所と日時

東京、大阪、名古屋、札幌、福岡の会場で、同日、同時刻に行ないます。会場名及び所在地詳しい時間は追って御案内致します。

試験当日持参するもの

1)受験票(所定のもの)
2)筆記用具
3)英英辞典(特に指定されたものはありませんが日本語記載のないもの)

三段階の資格と評価

PRELIMINARY LEVEL－Junior－(一般初級試験)

対象－高校生以上－大学生まで

オックスフォード大学ではPRELIMINARYのJuniorレベルは世界中の高校生を対象として作られている試験です。
英英辞典を使いながら、与えられた問題がどれだけ理解でき、その上でどれだけ、その設問に答えることができるかを見ます。
このレベルに合格された方はPRELIMINARYを受ける力を持っていることになります。

PRELIMINARY LEVEL－General－(一般中級試験)

対象－高校生、大学生以上－社会人まで

このPRELIMINARY LEVELは、大学生や一般社会人が中心となるレベルと考えられます。
このPRELIMINALY LEVELは世界的レベルでは、英語総合力はあるというレベルであります。
このレベルは合格判定が3段階にわかれます。PASS(合格)、CREDIT(良)、DISTINCTION(優良)に分かれます。
PASS(合格)＝日本の大学入試試験でそれ相応の点を得られる英語力が認められる評価点です。しかも英英辞典の使い方も基本的に、マスターしていることの証明にもなります。
CREDIT(良)＝英国・米国のカレッヂに入学出来る程度の英語力が認められます。又この評価点は、一般的なビジネス英語をこなせる能力の証明にもなります。
DISTINCTION(優良)＝この評価点が得られれば、十分英・米の大学に入学出来る程度の英語力が認められる証明になります。さらに英英辞典の活用能力にも習熟していることが認められます。

HIGHER LEVEL(上級試験)

対象－大学生・社会人以上

世界的レベルでは英語を集中的に2年間勉強した方となっておりますが、日本レベルでは、語学学校の最上級クラス、大学英文科上級者、一般企業人、および英語教育関係者、政府機関など国際的業務の方々のレベルです。
また海外で長い間生活した方々にもこのレベルがよいと思われます。
PASS(合格)＝海外の大学に入学出来る程度の文章英語力があると認められます。又、日本国内においては、英語文書に接する機会の多い職場で仕事が出来る評価点でもあります。一般的レベルでは問題ない英語力があることになります。
CREDIT(良)＝一般に、アイビーリーグとよばれているアメリカの一流大学や、英国の公立大学に入学出来る程度の文章英語力があると認められます。又、この評価点は、英語を日常使用する職場において、立派に英語をこなせる能力のある証明にもなります。
さらに国際的業務において不足をきたさない英語力を持ち、どの企業においても英語力では他にひけをとらない力を認める。
DISTINCTION(優良)＝アメリカの一流大学をはじめ、英国の大学に入学出来る程度の、文章英語力があると認められます。実社会の職場においては、最もたよりがいのある文章英語力が備わっていることの証明になります。またさらに国際的業務にたずさわる英語力は完全にできている証明のレベルです。

特　色

受験内容

PRELIMINARY LEVEL－Junior－(初級試験)
試験は二時限に分けて行われ
一時限目の試験（2時間）では：①ペンパルに手紙を書く②問い合せの手紙を書く③友人にメモを書く
二時限目の試験（2時間）では：①申し込み用紙などに自分の名前、生年月日等を記入する②パンフレットなどを読み質問に答える③単語の意味を説明する。

PRELIMINARY LEVEL(中級試験)
試験は、二時限に分けて行われ、
一時限目の試験（2時間）では：①手紙を書く（フォーマルなものとインフォーマルなもの）②伝言や掲示文、ラベルなどを書く③広告への応募文や友人への招待状などを書く。
二時限目の試験（2時間）では：①英英辞典を使い単語の意味に関する質問に答える。(英英辞典の活用能力）②各種の書式を書き込む。③パンフレット、契約書、説明書などを読んで質問に答える。

HIGHER LEVEL(上級試験)
試験は二時限に分けて行われ、
一時限目（3時間）では：おもに表現力が試され、例えば①報告文や履歴書を書く。②広告文や推薦文、抗議文などを書く③全般的な文章力をより洗練された形で表現する。
二時限目の試験（3時間）では：おもに、理解力が試され、①与えられた情報にもとずいて質問に答える。(英語による抽象的思考能力が問われる）②比較訂正をする。③必要な情報を取捨選択する。④その他の作文。

※上記の試験内容は、あくまでも過去のテストの中にみられる傾向であり、今後の試験で必ずしも同様の内容が出題されるとは限らない。

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2. 試験時間は上級レベルが6時間10分（1時限目3時間、2時限目3時間10分）一般初級と中級は4時間10分（1時限目2時間、2時限目は2時間10分）と十分に試験時間はありますので、その場でゆっくりと問題に取り組む事が出来ます。
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SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING ERRORS THEIR TYPES, CAUSES, AND TREATMENT

Hanna Y. Touchie

Abstract

Recent research in applied linguistics emphasizes the significance of learners' errors in second language learning. In this article, major types of errors in second language learning are first briefly mentioned. This is followed by tracing the sources of second language learning errors to both interlingual and intralingual or developmental factors. While interlingual errors are caused mainly by mother tongue interference, intralingual or developmental errors originate in the following factors: simplification, overgeneralization, hypercorrection, faulty teaching, fossilization, avoidance, inadequate learning, and false concepts hypothesized. The article concludes with some general guidelines for teachers in correcting errors in second language learning.

Language learning, like any kind of human learning, involves committing errors. In the past, language teachers considered errors committed by their students as something undesirable which they diligently sought to prevent from occurring. During the past fifteen years, however, researchers in the field of applied linguistics came to view errors as evidence for a creative process in language learning in which learners employ hypothesis testing and various strategies in learning a second

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language.

Far from being a nuisance to be eradicated, errors are, as Selinker (1969) indicates, significant in three respects: (1) errors are important for the language teacher because they indicate the learner's progress in language learning; (2) errors are also important for the language researcher as they provide insights into how language is learnt; and (3) finally, errors are significant to the language learner himself/herself as he/she gets involved in hypothesis testing.

In this article, I am going to discuss briefly the types of errors made by second language learners, the causes of these errors, and finally how teachers should correct them.

Types of Errors

Researchers in the field of applied linguistics usually distinguish between two types of errors: performance errors and competence errors. Performance errors are those errors made by learners when they are tired or hurried. Normally, this type of error is not serious and can be overcome with little effort by the learner. Competence errors, on the other hand, are more serious than performance errors since competence errors reflect inadequate learning. In this connection, it is important to note that researchers (cf. Gefen 1979) distinguish between *mistakes* which are lapses in performance and *errors* which reflect inadequate competence.

Other researchers (cf. Burt and Kiparsky 1974) distinguish between *local* and *global* errors. Local errors do not hinder communication and understanding the meaning of an utterance. Global errors, on the other hand, are more serious than local errors because global errors interfere with communication and disrupt the meaning of utterances. Local errors involve noun and verb inflections, and the use of articles, prepositions, and auxiliaries. Global errors, for example, involve wrong word order in a sentence.

Finally, language learning errors involve all language components: the phonological, the morphological, the lexical, and the syntactic. An example of a phonological error is the lack of distinction between the phoneme /p/ and the phoneme /b/ among Arab ESL learners; so we hear them saying *pird* and *brison*, for example, instead of *bird* and *prison*. An example of a morphological error is the production of such errors as *womans, sheeps,* and *furnitures*. A lexical error involves inappropriate direct translation from the learner's native language or the use of wrong lexical items in the second language. Examples of lexical errors are: This is the *home* that my father built, and The *clock* is now ten. Finally, examples of syntactic errors are errors in word order, subject-verb agreement, and the use of the resumptive pronoun in English relative clauses produced by Arab ESL learners as illustrated in: The boy that I saw *him* is called Ali.

Causes of Errors

There are mainly two major sources of errors in second language learning. The first source is interference from the native language while the second source can be attributed to intralingual and developmental factors.

The native language of learners plays a significant role in learning a second language. Errors due to the influence of the native language are called interlingual errors. Interlingual errors are also called transfer or interference errors. The view that the native language plays a mostly negative role was emphasized as early as the forties and the fifties by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957). Although recently researchers tend to minimize interlingual errors and emphasize intralingual and developmental errors (cf. Dulay and Burt 1974), negative transfer or interference is still acknowledged as an important factor in second language learning (cf. Jordens 1977; Kellerman 1979; Touchie 1983).

Intralingual and developmental errors are due to the difficulty of the second/target language. Intralingual and developmental factors include the following:

1. **Simplification:** Learners often choose simple forms and constructions instead of more complex ones. An example of simplification might involve the use of simple present instead of the present perfect continuous.
2. **Overgeneralization:** This is the use of one form or construction in one context and extending its application to other contexts where it should not apply. Examples of overgeneralization include the use of *comed* and *goed* as the past tense forms of *come* and *go* and the omission of the third person singular *s* under the heavy pressure of all other endless forms as in *he go*.

   It should be noted that simplification and overgeneralization are used by learners in order to reduce their linguistic burden.
3. **Hypercorrection:** Sometimes the zealous efforts of teachers in correcting their students' errors induce the students to make errors in otherwise correct forms. Stenson (1978) calls this type of error "induced errors." For example, the teacher's insistence that Arab ESL learners produce the phoneme /p/ correctly prompts them to always produce /p/ where the phoneme /b/ is required. Thus Arab ESL learners say *pird* and *pattle* instead of *bird* and *battle*.
4. **Faulty teaching:** Sometimes it happens that learners' errors are teacher-induced ones, i.e., caused by the teacher, teaching materials, or the order of presentation. This factor is closely related to hypercorrection above. Also, it is interesting to note that some teachers are even influenced by their pupils' errors in the course of long teaching.
5. **Fossilization:** Some errors, specially errors in pronunciation, persist for long periods and become quite difficult to get rid of. Examples of fossilized errors in Arab ESL learners are the lack of distinction between /p/ and /b/ in English and the insertion of the resumptive pronoun in English relative clauses produced by these learners.
6. **Avoidance:** Some syntactic structures are difficult to produce by some learners. Consequently, these learners

avoid these structures and use instead simpler structures. Arab ESL learners avoid the passive voice while Japanese learners avoid relativization in English.

7. **Inadequate learning**: This is mainly caused by ignorance of rule restrictions or underdifferentiation and incomplete learning. An example is omission of the third person singular *s* as in: *He want.*
8. **False concepts hypothesized**: Many learners' errors can be attributed to wrong hypotheses formed by these learners about the target language. For example, some learners think that *is* is the marker of the present tense. So, they produce: *He is talk to the teacher*. Similarly, they think that *was* is the past tense marker. Hence they say: *It was happened last night*.

Error Treatment

Teachers cannot and should not correct all errors committed by their students. Besides, the frequent correction of oral errors disrupts the process of language learning and discourages shy students from communicating in the target language. The following are general guidelines in correcting second language learning errors:

1. Teachers should correct errors affecting intelligibility, i.e., errors that interfere with the general meaning and understandability of utterances. In this connection, teachers should concentrate on correcting global errors more than local errors.
2. High frequency and generality errors should be corrected more often than less frequent errors. For example, the omission of the third person singular *s* is an error of high frequency and generality.
3. Teachers should put more emphasis on correcting errors affecting a large percentage of their students. This factor is clearly related to the second factor above.
4. Stigmatizing or irritating errors should be paid more attention to. This factor is related to the socioliguistic aspect of

language learning. Pupils who come from lower socioeconomic classes are conscious of and very sensitive to ridicule about their informal variety of language from students from higher socioeconomic classes who speak a more formal and prestigious variety of the language.

5. Finally, errors relevant to a pedagogical focus should receive more attention from the teacher than other errors. For example, if the focus of the lesson is the use of the present perfect tense, the correction of errors involving prepositions, articles, and demonstratives in this lesson should not be emphasized by the teacher because if he/she did, the attention of the students would be distracted from the focus of the lesson which, in this instance, is the use of the present perfect tense.

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RESPONSE STYLES OF JAPANESE AND AMERICAN COLLEGE STUDENTS

Frances Horler and Junichi Yamazaki

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the responses of Japanese and American college students on a Likert-type rating scale to ascertain whether cultural differences might be reflected in the frequency of extreme responses (*Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree*) and *Undecided* responses. If cultural differences are reflected, researchers must be sensitive to these differences in constructing instruments and interpreting results in cross cultural studies.

Although the total percentage of extreme scores of Japanese was slightly less than for American students, Japanese men recorded slightly more extreme scores than did American men. A marked difference, however, is observed in the *direction* of response; Japanese males *Strongly Agree* twice as frequently as American males, and conversely American males *Strongly Disagree* more frequently. Japanese females *Strongly Agree* more frequently than American females; American females *Strongly Disagree* twice as frequently as Japanese females. Japanese men and women recorded

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> approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did their American counterparts.

Cross cultural studies have indicated that culture may have a differential effect upon style of response to rating scales. Zax and Takahashi (1967), examining the ratings of Rorschach ink-blots on Semantic Differential scales made by Japanese and American college students, found that Japanese students made significantly more neutral responses and fewer extreme responses than did American students. The results were attributed to differences in child-rearing practices in the two cultures, particularly to the greater emphasis placed on restraint in the Japanese culture.

Using *The School Environment Preference Schedule* (SEPS), Gordon and Kikuchi (1970) analyzed the response set of twelfth grade American and Japanese students. They found that Japanese students made approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did American students. In contrast to the findings of Zax and Takahashi, they found no statistically significant differences in the frequency of extreme scores – *Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree*.

Characteristics of the two cultures suggest that differences might be reflected in response to questions of opinion. Japanese, in contrast to Americans, are reluctant to express personal opinions. Their views are softened and often communicated implicitly rather than explicitly. This reluctance is attributed to a sensitivity to the feelings of others and a strong desire for harmony and group consensus. Reactions to questions of personal opinions which involve *yes/no* answers differ in the two cultures. Japanese tend to find such questions embarrassing and difficult to answer.

> They feel cornered by being forced into making sharp distinctions between "yes" and "no" when their customary and preferred method of answering questions and communicating opinions is to blur the edges of their possibly differing opinion so that it can be harmonized with the opinions of others. (Naotsuka 1980, p. 131)

The ability to express thoughts clearly, directly, and logically, so much admired in the western world, conflicts with the Japanese understanding of courtesy. Characteristic ambiguities of the Japanese language foster the hazy, indefinite expression. From time immemorial generations of Japanese have developed to a fine art the practice of "beating around the bush" in order to avoid open conflict and hurting the feelings of others. And what is left unsaid – the silence – is as important as what is said. "Mere tabulations of responses to a public opinion poll in Japan, therefore, do not reflect what people are really thinking" (Kato 1959, p. 32).

Purpose

The questions of the present study are: Do Japanese and American college students differ in response set on Likert-type scales in respect to the frequency of extreme scores, *Strongly Agree – Strongly Disagree*, and of *Undecided* scores? And if differences exist, do these reflect cultural patterns?

Method

The data analyzed were collected for a comparative study of work attitudes. The *Work Opinion Schedule*, consisting of 43 items to be rated on a five-point scale, was administered to two-year college students in Rochester, New York (M 26, F 28) and in Kobe, Japan (M 25, F 25). The parallel Japanese version of the instrument was checked by back translation and examined for comparable constructs by bilingual Japanese and Americans. The *Schedule* was made up of such items as the following:

Administrative and supervisory positions are best held by men.
In a good job, prestige is more important than salary.
It is better to work for a large corporation than for a small one.

The percentage of responses in each of the scoring categories is presented in the following table.

	Sex	SA	A	U	D	SD	SA+SD
	M	12.8	25.0	32.6	20.8	8.7	21.5
Japan	F	8.7	26.6	31.3	25.1	8.4	17.1
	M+F	10.7	25.8	31.9	23.0	8.6	19.3
	M	6.4	29.3	15.9	36.0	12.3	18.7
USA	F	7.0	25.8	17.4	32.9	16.9	23.9
	M+F	6.7	27.5	16.7	34.4	14.7	21.4

Table 1

Percent of Responses in Each Scoring Category
For Japanese and American Students

Results

The total percentage of extreme responses (SA + SD) of the Japanese subjects (19.3%) is slightly smaller than that of the American subjects (21.4%). Contrary to expectations, Japanese males made a greater percentage of extreme responses (21.5%) than did American males (18.7%). A difference in direction, however, is to be noted; Japanese males *Strongly Agree* (12.8%) twice as frequently as American males (6.4%), but American males *Strongly Disagree* (12.3%) more frequently than Japanese males (8.7%).

The percentage of extreme responses of Japanese females (17.1%) is smaller than that of American females (23.9%). Although the difference in *Strongly Agree* responses is not large (J 8.7%; USA 7.0%), American women recorded twice as many *Strongly Disagree* responses as did the Japanese women (J 8.4%; USA 16.9%). For each of the sexes the Japanese subjects chose approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did the American subjects.

Discussion

Results indicate that Japanese and American students do not differ markedly in the *total* percentage of extreme responses (19.3% and 21.4% respectively). This finding is consonant with that of Gordon and Kikuchi (1970:146), who, using a similar Likert-type scale as the stimulus, concluded that "the extremeness response set is clearly identifiable in the Japanese culture." In the present study American women recorded extreme responses more frequently than did Japanese women (23.9% and 17.1% respectively). This is contrary to the findings of Gordon and Kikuchi, who state, "The tendency to use extreme alternatives 'SA' or 'SD' . . . is found to be equally strong in both cultures" (1970, p. 146).

Zax and Takahashi, on the other hand, using Rorschach inkblots as the stimulus, found that Japanese made fewer extreme responses than did American subjects, the difference between Japanese and American females being statistically significant ($p < .05$).

For each sex Japanese students recorded approximately twice as many *Undecided* responses as did American students. These findings are in agreement with those of Gordon and Kikuchi and of Zax and Takahashi.

Studies have shown that American subjects score higher than Japanese on measures of *Decisiveness* defined as the value placed on taking definite positions on issues (Gordon and Kikuchi, 1970:146). It would therefore be expected that on Likert-type scales Japanese would register more *Undecided* responses, a conjecture supported by research.

Although Japanese are reluctant to express personal opinions directly and forcefully and prefer the muted response, they are not so hesitant about responding to questions of fact. It may be possible that some items on the *Work Opinion Schedule* reflect viewpoints so fundamentally a part of the Japanese culture and so almost universally accepted that they were considered to be questions of fact rather than of opinion.

For example, "The rules and regulations of your institution should be followed exactly" was recorded as *Strongly Agree* by 60% of the Japanese males and by 11.5% of American males. Further studies using various types of stimuli and items are needed to clarify further cultural differences in response set.

How stable are the response styles of Japanese subjects? It has been suggested that the increasing contact with the western world will modify the Japanese response set so as to resemble more closely that of American subjects. Enormous cultural changes have taken place in both nations over the past several decades. But the Japanese preference for the vague and indefinite statement, certain ambiguities of the Japanese language, and the avoidance of adversarial positions have been for centuries such an integral part of the culture as to be highly resistant to change. Only periodic follow-up studies will provide an answer.

The evidence that cross cultural differences exist in response set to rating scales has implications for researchers in designing instruments and in interpreting results. Thus, inferences on cultural differences and similarities ought to reflect differences in the *content* of the item being measured and not the response set.

The present study is meant to be heuristic in nature -- to raise questions rather than to provide definitive answers -- and thus to suggest areas for further research.

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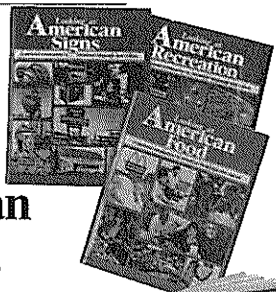

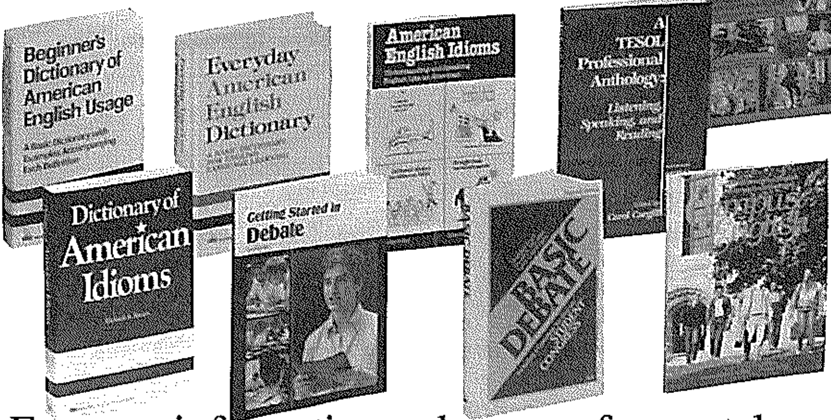

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COMPUTERS, LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LANGUAGE TEACHING. Kurshid Ahmad, Greville Corbett, Margaret Rogers and Roland Sussex. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985. 158 pp. UK 4.95

Few educational institutions have bothered to initiate their teaching staff into new technology. When the budget was there the machines were bought and the odd enthusiast did what he could with them. The book under review sets out to correct this situation by introducing computers to the language teacher in an easy manner.

The 141 pages of text are carefully divided into sections and subsections with a conclusion at the end of each chapter. The authors prefer to use the acronym CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) to the somewhat more common CAI (Computer Assisted Instruction) because they believe it is the learning rather than instruction that ought to be emphasized. The book delineates both the good and the bad about the use of computers, an important feature since there is a danger of both writer and reader ignoring the demerits of a subject once they delve into it.

There are eight chapters in the book. Some are of basic importance to the subject while others are simply meant to add information. The Introduction and second chapter explain the rudiments of the subject and are essential. Chapters Four, Six, and Seven, which carry the discussion somewhat further to conduct a more detailed examination of the issues ought to be read as well. Chapter Three deals with the history of computers in the classroom and Chapter Five provides a detailed example of a CALL program. Chapter Eight is a general conclusion which lets the reader have a glimpse of what the near future might harbor for the CALL enthusiast.

The Preface tells us what readers the authors have in mind,

". . .language teachers at all levels. . .assumes no knowledge of computers and computing" (p. vii). At the beginning of the Introduction we are told that the computer is "a tool, of itself incapable of action" (p. 2). We are also told what it can do. For example, "it can conduct a two way learning session with the student" (p. 4). It can also "be made sensitive to the learner's pace, pattern of response" (p. 5). Since the computer gives its full attention to each individual user, the student sitting at the keyboard works the hour to the full and no time is wasted during low attention periods while the teacher is dealing with other learners.

The disadvantages of the computer are then considered. Among these we learn that "computer programs are seldom portable" (p. 7), which means that one must possess the same machine (in some cases not only the same make but the same model as well) and the teacher must therefore be very careful indeed when selecting hardware. Also, the authors tell us that "the material which can be handled by a computer represents at best a tiny part fraction of the knowledge which a teacher brings to bear in a language class" (p. 7).

Chapter Two introduces computers and programs. There is a detailed explanation of all the different pieces in the puzzle, their names and acronyms, and how they all fit together. The reader learns about the micro, the mini and the CPU (Central Processing Unit), the last two of which require a VDU (Video Display Unit). The section on programs introduces the reader to computer languages with a short example of BASIC.

Chapter Four, "The Learner, Language, and the Computer," deals, especially in the first three sections, with the practical aspects of using computers in the classroom. It provides the various aspects of the environment and of the programs. We are told that, "there must be adequate room for the students to put books and writing materials next to the terminals. . .the keyboard must be large enough. . .the screen, too, must be large enough" (p. 46). Then there follows a subsection on ways of using the software. Clear instructions, easy access, easy exit are all important, and, when designing a CALL package, one of the factors to be considered is the amount of typing required from the learner.

Chapter Six goes into the details of the programming languages. Reading it will enable the teacher to judge what the programs he wishes to employ can and ought to do.

Chapter Seven defines the scope of the computer. The authors begin by admitting that experiences in which "education technologies have often been presented as easy solutions to large scale problems" (p. 101) have caused many teachers to distrust new technology. Their aim is, therefore to define exactly the roles in which the computer can be of use. Section 7.2, Areas of Language Teaching Suited for CALL, deals with limiting factors as well as suitable activities. The section explains that the computer cannot understand the natural language of the student. The learner can reply and the computer will interpret that reply only in the form of a carefully constructed program. We then have some information on direct applications with examples from gap filling and cloze exercises.

Section 7.3 deals with the important subject of monitoring. Here the computer really comes into its own since it eliminates the need for the teacher to mark each student separately. With a balanced, critical view the authors refuse to praise the method they recommend. Rather, they state, "the educational effectiveness of CALL is still a controversial issue. We can now see more clearly what kind of language learning tasks can be handled by the computer. But the nature and extent of the computer's qualitative contribution to the language learning process is not clear" (p. 120).

Chapter Three deals with the history of computers and CALL. It introduces many of the earlier innovative programs such as the PLATO system at the University of Illinois and the University of Essex program. It also describes one of the fields in which language teachers of the human sort can still feel they have got the upper hand, although for how long it is not clear: that of machine translation.

Chapter Five introduces GERAD, a program for learners of German. Two of the authors have produced this program and are using it as an example to show how a computer can help the learner overcome some simple problems inherent in the language taught.

Chapter Eight deals with developing areas. It treats such subjects as speech input/output and videodisks. It is useful since any teacher considering the installation of a CALL system can already take into account most of these developments and make provisions for their inclusion at a later stage.

The book deals with the subject in a straightforward and clear manner. It leads the uninitiated through all the stages necessary for a basic but sound knowledge of the subject.

Although there is some digression which may prove to be beyond the beginner, such as the detailed explanation of computer languages in pages 23-24, it is on the whole concise and lucid. The division and subdivision of each chapter make it easy for the reader to revise whatever he feels would benefit him most. The book also contains a useful list of addresses (p. 144) as well as a substantial bibliography, which is referred to extensively throughout the text.

The book introduces a great many terms. The interested reader can refer back to these terms by using the index. It would, however, have been useful if a glossary could have been provided.

In Chapter Four the authors deal with what they refer to as "the three main factors in CALL" (p. 45). These are, "Learner, Language, Computer." Since the readers of this book are bound to be teachers, to whom indeed the book is dedicated (p. vii), some might take offense at not being considered to be a "main factor."

Finally, upon reading subsection 7.2.2, the same teachers may also feel that there is not enough to CALL since there are not very many Straightforward Applications provided. This is a subsection the authors could have easily expanded.

None of these relatively minor points, however, reduce the readability and importance of the book reviewed.

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CROSSCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING: PROCESSES AND APPROACHES FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE, ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE, AND BILINGUAL EDUCATORS. Gail L. Nemetz Robinson. New York: Pergamon Press, 1985. 133pp.

This book is "a collection of theoretical essays on the topic of developing crosscultural understanding" (p. 6). Understanding, in the author's view, "refers to empathizing or feeling comfortable with another person"; consequently, the central question Robinson seeks to answer is "What experiences may theoretically help members of one culture positively relate to, respond to, and interact with members of a different culture?" (p. 1).

From a set of theoretical premises (discussed below), Robinson offers several implications for the implementation of crosscultural training in ESL, FL, and bilingual programs. For example, following her treatment of how culture and cultural roles are acquired (Ch. 4), she suggests the following implications:

1) support experiential, multi-modal instruction at all levels. . .
2) avoid discrete-item instruction, within and across exercises, both linguistic and cultural. . .
3) encourage subjectivity that is related to the subject matter. Elicit a synthesis between the learner's home cultural experience and the new. . .
4) consider the ages at which particular goals are most easily fulfilled. Adolescence may be the most efficient time to promote learner identification with culturally diverse groups (p. 48).

Then, she discusses the question, "How do cultural learnings affect the perception of other people?" (Ch. 5), and concludes with these implications for language programs:

1) Provide knowledge of target cultural cues, schemas, meaning systems, and the correct inferences that may be

drawn from particular cues.

2) Insure that a positive first impression is made.
3) Focus on similarities.
4) Counter negative evaluations such as low status, powerlessness, exclusion, by making each student's skills/ participation necessary for others.
5) Lessen attribution errors by focusing on background and situational factors underlying behaviors, and have learners empathize with members of the target culture by making analogies to their own experience and through the stimulation of feelings.
6) People project their feelings of self onto the evaluation of others. Avoid embarrassment in the second and foreign language classrooms, threat by mainstream students in bilingual classrooms, and powerlessness of bilingual students in classrooms.
7) Treat all parties involved in interaction – not just cultural or language minorities (p. 72).

Readers more concerned with applications than theory will also want to pay particular attention to the book's appendix, "A case study of an ethnographic interview." This study presents not only a good example of ethnographic methodology but also some very interesting contrasts between the Indian and U.S. cultures.

For the most part, however, the book is concerned with theoretical issues of culture transmission and crosscultural understanding, and it is this aspect of the book that I would now like to discuss.

Robinson's approach is avowedly (and commendably) interdisciplinary, drawing from anthropology (especially ethnography), social learning theory, perceptual and cognitive psychology, and sociolinguistics. Her epistemological foundation is Marxist and what I would call semiotic, though she makes no specific reference to the latter term or any of the literature of that school.

Robinson's major premises are that

1) cultural experiences affect perception and learning;
2) culture is transmitted and acquired
   a) through all perceptual modes,
   b) within an integrated context,
   c) gradually, through repeated exposures, and
   d) as the result of a dialectic process;
3) The teaching of culture should
   a) strive to develop positive affiliation between members of different cultural groups and
   b) focus on crosscultural similarities rather than differences.

In Robinson's opinion, perception and learning are affected by four types of cultural experience:

1. availability of particular *content* or stimuli which affects familiarity on the part of culture members,
2. *organization* of the stimuli,
3. most available or culturally familiar *mode of stimulus input*, (and)
4. most familiar *mode of response* elicited (p. 15).

It is a mistake, she argues, to present the target language only in the context of the target culture. Of course, new cultural concepts must be taught along with the target language, but, "The solution is neither a methodology based exclusively on the learner's home culture nor one based exclusively on the new cultural context, as is prevalent with most bilingual, foreign language and second language textbooks." Rather. . .

> a more effective methodology would build a bridge between the old and the new by providing culturally familiar content as a point of departure for introducing culturally unfamiliar content at every level of instruction. Jumping right into the content and context which is foreign to the learner would be less effective (p. 17).

While this argument has some intuitive appeal, it is not empirically supported, and, if extended to its logical conclusion, it would lead to a rejection of all total immersion programs. Robinson's only "proof" for her claim comes from a study of "how African children of Tiv classified and reclassified objects" (p. 16). The study (Price-Williams 1980) showed that the Tiv children grouped and regrouped objects according to culturally established norms. This finding, however, does not lead *ipso facto* to the conclusion that children (or adults) can or should learn new cultural concepts through reference to culturally familiar content. An alternative hypothesis would be that *some* individuals learn *some* new cultural concepts best from a base of culturally familiar concepts, while *others* learn best by total immersion in the target culture – and that the preference for and effectiveness of each approach is influenced by individual and cultural factors (e.g., flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, previous cross-cultural experience, analytic versus holistic perspective) as well as the time frame and context in which the culture learning takes place.

We should also not reject total immersion programs just because they introduce the learner to a high degree of unfamiliar content. It is precisely this factor – and the motivation to overcome the resulting stress – that makes a total immersion approach effective for some learners (Cf. Grove and Torbiörn 1985). In other words, Robinson's appeal for teaching the target culture from a base of culturally familiar content is probably valid for some learners some of the time, but there is not yet enough evidence to accept this notion as a universal principle of cross-cultural education.

Robinson's second major premise, after the claim that cultural experiences affect perception and learning, relates to how culture is transmitted and acquired. All people, she claims, "perceive and organize new experience based on their own experience (which is part shared or cultural, and part individual or idiosyncratic)" (p. 17). As an example, she cites the Western preference (or bias) for individual achievement, analytical ability, and objectivity versus the eastern tradition of encouraging collective effort, intuition, and subjectivity. The fundamental point here is that

> Rather than labeling students, we can diversify the organization of our instruction so as to promote the development of dual perceptual styles and patterns of organization. In other words, educators can structure tasks to develop cultural versatility within students (p. 22).

Related to this point is the recognition that some individuals learn best in one sensory mode while others learn best in another sensory mode. Multi-modal instruction not only provides the learner an option but also carries with it the opportunity for cross-modal and contextual reinforcement.

Robinson argues for her second major premise from both psychological evidence and philosophical foundations. She cites a "voluminous psychological literature which supports the idea that the perception and organization of new information is influenced by previous experience" (p. 17). In particular, she notes the work of Witkin *et al.* (1962) and others on field dependence (or field sensitivity) and field independence. Since these concepts are obviously derived from Gestalt theory, it is somewhat surprising that Robinson makes no direct reference to that school. Also conspicuously absent from her discussion are references to recent work on right brain/left brain functions, holistic learning, and neurolinguistic programming.

The philosophical basis for her premise comes from the Hegelian dialectic and Marx's interpretation of cultural change as a "socio-historical, dialectic process in which the new product (i.e., change) is the result of a synthesis between the old and the new" (p. 44). While Robinson concedes that "This idea of acquisition and change as a dialectic process. . .is not new to the literature in psychology, anthropology or education," she contends, rightly so, that "the implications have not been widely applied to student responses to culture learning in second language, foreign language, and bilingual programs" (p. 45). As an example of such a dialectic approach, she cites a class for Japanese university students on the use of American measurements. Students wrote recipes for Japanese dishes using American measurements.

Certainly, dialectic theory can contribute much to our understanding of culture learning and change, but one must be careful not to oversimplify the process. The synthesis which results from the interaction of thesis and antithesis is not always a 50-50 mixture, nor is it static. Rather, each synthesis interacts with other syntheses in dynamic temporal and contextual matrices. The challenge for the intercultural educator is to be able to gauge how much of a transition his or her students can make at a given time with given variables and to control those variables as much as possible to produce the desired outcomes.

Dialectic theory also fails to account for the apparent fact that some theses just do not synthesize. How else can we explain the fact that bilinguals often feel more comfortable discussing certain topics in one language and other topics in their other language? Also, the fact that they sense changes in personality when they switch languages argues against a completely dialectic theory of learning. Indeed, if learning were completely dialectic, there would be no bilingualism at all but only constantly shifting pidgins.

Robinson's third major premise is a two-part prescription for the ultimate goal and process of teaching culture. It is also the part of her approach which I find most debatable.

Many intercultural educators will no doubt find no reason to argue with Robinson's claim that "Developing crosscultural understanding involves perceiving members of different culture groups positively" (p. 49), but there is something about this goal that unsettles this reviewer. It is just too ambitious for me. If we can prepare students to enter a new culture with flexibility, a tolerance for ambiguity, and a suspension of judgements about right and wrong, better and worse, then I believe we have done our job. If students develop positive attitudes toward the target culture, so much the better, but I am satisfied if they simply develop a neutral attitude.

Robinson makes a strong case for focusing on similarities rather than differences between source and target cultures, citing "numerous studies [showing] that perceived similarity influences liking" (p. 54). Indeed, Robinson's most significant contribution to the field of crosscultural education may be in reminding us not to overlook similarities between the source and target cultures. Still, something about this focus leaves me unsatisfied. Perhaps it is the recognition that when all the similarities are exhausted, the learner is still left with the differences, and it is the differences, which may be substantial, that make crosscultural interaction and understanding difficult. Or, maybe I am biased by the fact that those sojourners I have known who preach that "deep down all people are the same" have adjusted less well to different cultures than those who try to recognize the differences between cultures. I cling to Hall's (1959) canons that "Culture hides much more than it reveals. . ." and that "The best reason for exposing oneself to foreign ways is to generate a sense of vitality and awareness – an interest in life which can come only when one lives through the shock of contrast and difference" (p. 39).

Robinson, it seems, regards culture as a barrier which divides groups of people and which, therefore, must be circumvented. The alternative view, to which I subscribe, is that culture is a dynamic network of rules which defines groups of people and which, therefore, must be respected. The manner in which the reader will respond to Robinson's book will depend in large part on which of these two philosophies he or she inclines toward.

On more mundane matters, the book abounds in errors of spelling, grammar, punctuation and style. Here are just a few examples I spotted without even conscientiously looking for errors. On page 24, the name Bruner is misspelled. On page 32, we find misplaced clauses in "foods are eaten which symbolize. . ." and "*matzoh* is eaten which symbolizes. . . ." On page 45, 'myself' is used as a subject pronoun. On page 57, 'homework' is misspelled. On page 60, there are two instances of faulty person agreement. On page 61, a description of an exercise contains the statement that "Partner B was not allowed to elaborate or question Partner B" (instead of Partner A). And so on.

In addition, there are lapses in documentation. On page 15, Robinson tells us that "More recent research shows that ecological conditions, level of technology, and related sociocultural institutions affect perception and subsequent language development rather than the reverse," but she does not tell us what that "recent research" is or where we can find it. Also, on page 29, she mentions the book *Intensive English Through Songs* (Robinson 1971) (by the same author?) but fails to include it in the bibliography.

With such errors, *Crosscultural Understanding* hardly seems like a book aimed at language teachers.

This is not a great book. It occasionally displays lapses of cohesion, polish, objectivity, and supporting documentation. Some readers will find some of its arguments unconvincing. Yet, it is an important book – partly because it attempts to address a subject seldom addressed to language teachers. It also contains many novel arguments and suggestions. Even the reader who does not accept many of the book's premises will find much stimulation and cause to re-examine his or her own philosophies and methods. I believe that all language teachers and crosscultural trainers should read *Crosscultural Understanding*, but I believe that they should read it critically and with an awareness of contrasting points of view.

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