

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF TEACHING ORAL COMMUNICATION TO JAPANESE EFL STUDENTS

- Skills in interactional and transactional activities based on speeches -

Akihiko HIGUCHI

(Received October 15, 1998)

Abstract

This study is an empirical study based on an English class of oral communication during the second term in 1997 at Kagoshima University. The class consisted of about 40 students who were 2nd year students at the university. The first half of this study deals with different types of speaking and learner strategies of communication. The second half deals with communicative activities based on short speeches, materials and assessment of oral communication in the course of English 'Oral'. Several problems in this study were mostly found in organizing ideas when students prepared for their speech drafts, in listening, and in information (transactional function of language) and interaction (interactional function of language) routines. These problems are discussed along with their pedagogical implications. For successful teaching in oral communication, this study believes that the students' proficiency in their target language should be taken into consideration. At the same time, the class size should also be considered for effective and successful oral communication. In addition, tasks such as task-based interaction, group discussion and information - gap tasks should be attempted and the most appropriate task chosen according to the students' proficiency in their target language.

Key words : empirical study, oral communication, strategies, interaction routines, pedagogical implications, task-based interaction, appropriate task

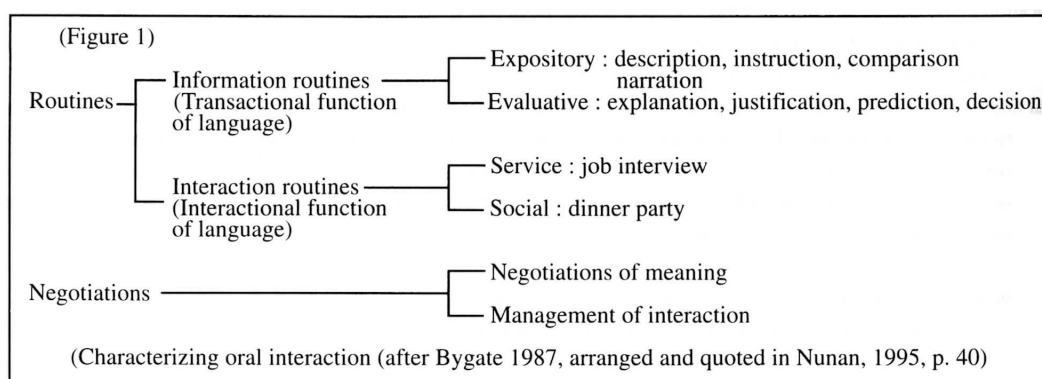
Introduction

To most Japanese EFL students, mastering the art of speaking is one of the most important aspects of learning a foreign language. Many Japanese EFL students, however, seem to have significant difficulty in carrying on a conversation in a foreign language. What makes speaking difficult and how should we teach oral communication skills for successful communication ? To answer these questions, this study has tried to elucidate some skills in the teaching of oral communication to Japanese EFL college students in the class of English 'Oral' at Kagoshima University. This study first discusses two aspects of teaching oral communication to Japanese EFL college students : 'different types of speaking' and 'learner strategies of communication'. Two other aspects of teaching oral communication are then discussed : 'communicative activities' and 'materials and assessment of oral communication', both of which are based on short speeches by the students and interactional and transactional activities in

the class of English 'Oral'. The pedagogical implications will be discussed later on in this study.

1. Identifying different types of speaking.

For successful communication in English it can be useful to think about the communication of meaning as depending on two kinds of skill. At first, we need to know that speakers organize what they have to communicate in typical patterns under certain circumstances. These patterns correspond, more or less, to typical kinds of message. They have been recognized as 'routines' to use Widdowson's term (1974). Two main kinds of routines can be suggested: 'information routines' and 'interaction routines'. According to Bygate (1987), oral interaction can be schematized as follows:



Information routines, as shown in figure 1, contain frequently recurring types of information structures and they are either expository (e.g. narration, description of places, instruction, and comparison) or evaluative (e.g. explanation, justification, prediction, and decision). Routines do not just concern speech but they also occur in written language. However, as Nunan (op, cit.) claims, putting such information into speech is also likely to require practice under the conditions of normal speech.

Interaction routines, on the other hand, are divided into the transactional and interactional (or interpersonal) functions of language. These routines are based not so much on information content since the sequence of terms takes place in typical kinds of interactions. Thus routines can be given situations, and the order in which the components are likely to occur. For instance, telephone conversations, service encounters, casual encounters, radio and television interviews all tend to be organized in characteristic ways.

Secondly, speakers and interlocutors in spoken interaction also develop their skills in solving all sorts of communication problems which can be expected to occur in spoken language. These are called negotiation skills. These skills are used, whatever the interaction, to enable the speakers and interlocutors to make themselves clearly understood and to deal with communication problems that the speakers and interlocutors may face. Negotiation skills are found in all kinds of communication. They include the skills to check on specific meanings of words and phrases, to alter wording, and to confirm interpretations the speakers do not clearly understand. Two main aspects can be considered in negotiation skills. The first involves 'management interaction' and the second 'negotiation of meaning'. In both of these interactions, 'the listener is on the spot and can influence in many ways what shape the interaction takes' (Bygate, 1987, p. 27) For more details of these interactions, see Note 1.

As we have seen, there are different types of speaking in different types of situations in which speakers and interlocutors are placed. In other words, learners in the class of oral communication need to practice the skills throughout different tasks according to different types of speaking. They also need to understand and employ the learner strategies of communication for successful communication. These strategies are of course used not only in English but in all languages when interlocutors face communication problems. The following section deals with the strategies Japanese EFL students particularly tend to employ.

2. Learner strategies of communication.

Learner strategies of communication are the ways learners deal with communication problems. According to Faerch and Kasper (1983 a) (1983 b), communication strategies include achievement strategies and reduction strategies. Both strategies aim to compensate for a problem of expression when interlocutors face communication problems. Achievement strategies enable interlocutors to attempt to compensate for language gaps by improvising substitutes, and to find a way of conveying the message by guess-work or intuition.

(Figure 2)

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| A. Achievement strategies | 1. Guessing strategy 2. Paraphrasing strategy 3. Cooperative strategy |
| B. Reduction strategies | 1. Avoidance strategy |

As shown in figure 2, there are three types of achievement strategies : guessing, paraphrasing, and cooperative strategies. Some examples are given from Takanashi et.al. (1995) as follows :

A. Achievement strategies

A.1. Guessing strategy

The first type of achievement strategies is called 'guessing strategy'. There are three kinds of guessing strategy : borrowing, coining, and literal translation.

Borrowing : The speaker might simply borrow a word from his mother tongue without changing it in any way, and hope perhaps that his interlocutor will recognize it. The following is an example from Takanashi et. al (1995).

'Last Sunday, I went skiing at Shiga. The snow on theer..... 'gerende' was very good.' (op, cit, p. 34)

(The speaker here used a word 'gerende' instead of using a 'slope'. By borrowing the word 'gerende', the speaker tried to achieve communication.)

Coining : The speaker can invent a target-language word creatively on the basis of his knowledge of the language, and hope that the interlocutor will get the idea. The following is the example :

'I bought a moneybox to keep my money.' (op, cit , p. 35)

(Here, the speaker did not know the word 'safe' so he used moneybox instead. In this way, he might even produce a suitable target-language cognate or borrowed word which he had not realized existed in the target language.)

Literal translation : The speaker can provide a literal translation of his mother-tongue word as seen in the following example.

'This cherry weed. I pressed it myself.' (op, cit, p. 35)

(The speaker literary translated 'Sakurasou' into 'cherry weed', instead of using 'primorose'.)

A.2. Paraphrasing strategy.

The paraphrasing strategy basically involves scanning the speaker's knowledge of the target-language vocabulary in order to find an alternative to the expression that he needs. He can do this broadly in one of two ways. One way is to look for some kind of vocabulary item

such as a synonym or a more general word. This is a lexical substitution strategy. Alternatively, the speaker can try to assemble some sort of phrase to explain his concept. This is called circumlocution. Examples of this are as follows :

Lexical substitution *'I...er...swe.....sweep my room with a vacuum cleaner only once a week.'*
(substitution : clean and sweep) (op, cit.)

Circumlocution *'My father....my father has a store. He sells fish. My mother er count money er supermarket. My brother work vegetable store er in vegetable store.'* (op, cit)
(The speaker wants to say that his father has a fish store)

'I bought this thing at a store over there. I don't know that it is, but I thought it interesting. It was five dollars.' (op, cit.)

(The underlined part can be considered as a circumlocution by the following native speaker's response.)

'Oh you bought an old horse shoe at the flea market on Aviary Park. We use it for a game. I'll show you how to play with it' (op, cit.)

A.3. Cooperative strategy

The third type of achievement strategies has been called cooperative strategy. It is used when the speaker needs help. For example, he may ask for the word, by asking for a translation of his mother-tongue word, by physically indicating the object that he means, or by miming. The following is an example :

*'Student A : I think the girl was angry because the boy er did not did not. _____
Student B : call
Student A : did not call him, but you know, he had not promised. _____
Student B : to call her.'* (op, cit, p. 38)

(Student A did not appeal directly to student B, but their communication was achieved. This was because the underlined parts were compensated by student B)

B. Reduction strategies

Reduction strategies generally involve speakers reducing their communicative objectives owing to poor language proficiency. Avoidance strategy, in particular, involves altering one's message in order to keep out of trouble. There are various kinds of trouble the speaker wants to avoid. The speaker might want to avoid some tricky structure in English. For in-

stance, he might want to avoid the subjunctive mood as in the following example :

'If I er..., well...I could not help him because I had no money myself' (op, cit., p. 41)
(The speaker tried to use subjunctive at first, but changed to using direct simple sentence instead.)

We have seen mainly achievement strategies and reduction strategies of communication. By using these strategies, learners try to achieve creative and successful communication when they have communication problems. In order to bring the learners into active and successful communication in the class, we need to be careful about the types of questions to the students. This is because types of questions from the teacher are important in order to make active and successful communication in the class.

1. Types of questions

Two types of questions can be considered : factual and referential. Let us take a look at some examples.

(Factual questions)

Teacher : Did you go to the main library yesterday ?

Student 1 : Yes, I did.

Teacher : What is your favorite sport ?

Student 2 : I like swimming.

Teacher : What time is it ?

Student 3 : Ten fifteen.

(Referential questions)

Teacher : What did you do last Sunday ?

Student 1 : Well, I went swimming with my brother.

T : With your younger brother ?

S : Yes. He is a high school student...er...but ..he is ...er...very good swimming.

T : Where did you go swimming ?

S : I went...er....Shimin pool.

T : Oh, you mean City Swimming Pool...Were there a lot of people in the pool ?

S : Yes. Very lot of people swimming....I was very hot yesterday...

As seen in the example, referential questions can give the students more opportunities to talk to than factual questions. Therefore, teachers need to ask more referential questions than factual questions. If this is done, communication by the interlocutors will become more continuous and the students will also try to employ their strategies of communications and to

achieve successful communication.

3. Present study

3.1. Communicative activities

Communicative activities are quite important for active and successful communication particularly when the emphasis is placed on oral communication. In the class of English 'Oral' last academic year, short English speeches by the students were experimentally introduced to the class as a main activity. The class consisted of about 40 students who were 2nd year students at Kagoshima university. The target of the course for the students was to obtain successful skills of oral communication in both transactional and interactional functions of language. Each student in the course was given approximately five minutes in order to present his brief speech in English about what he was interested in. After the speech was presented, the rest of the students asked questions to the speaker in English and the speaker responded to the questions in English as well. The first step in this activity focused on transactional function of language in which information was mainly given to the listeners by the speaker (e.g. lecture, speech, information routines etc.). This activity tried to encourage each student to deliver his speech successfully to the audience. In other words, the emphasis was placed on information routines because each student needed to think about the skills necessary to deliver his speech effectively and successfully. The second step in this activity tried to encourage the speaker and the listeners to interact actively so the emphasis was placed on interactional function of language rather than transactional functions.

During the interaction activities, some speakers sometimes could not effectively communicate their opinions with the rest of the students who asked questions. In that case, they tried to do their best to explain what they wanted to say by using gesture, writing some words and phrases on the board, or by employing their achievement strategies. When the interaction stopped, some referential questions were given to the class by the teacher in order to make the oral interaction more active and continuous.

At the end of the whole course, some questions of the course assessment were given to the students in the class. According to the survey, the class for oral communication was satisfactory (78 %). They seemed to enjoy the class. This was because of the fact that some of the speeches were joyful and interesting for the students (32%) and they could have chances to give speeches in English (21%). In fact, it was the first time for some of the students to make

and produce speeches in front of an audience. There were, however, some students who were not in favor of these activities for some reasons (22%). The reasons for their aversion to the class varied according to the survey. Most aversion was due to their poor language proficiency in both speaking and listening, but there were some other crucial problems in the activities.

4. Problems and pedagogical implications.

There were several problems in the activities based on short speeches. The first problem for the students was found in organizing ideas in their speech drafts. In fact, many of the students in the class did not have enough knowledge about how to organize their ideas properly when writing their speech drafts. The second problem was found in listening. During the first couple of classes, some students in the class had significant difficulty in listening to the speeches. This was partly because some speakers had problems with pronunciation. In addition, most of the listeners did not take any memos while they were listening to the speeches. The last problem was that the emphasis was placed on information routines rather than interaction routines. These three were the main problems in the activities based on short speeches in the class of 'Oral'.

4.1. The first problem : organizing ideas

The first problem for the students in the activities was a writing problem in their speech drafts, particularly organizing ideas. Some of the students in the class successfully delivered their speeches with logical development and cohesion in their speeches. They were produced in linear development in which each sub topic was united to the main topic in a proper way. Therefore it was easy for the audience to follow what the speakers wanted to say in their speeches, even if there were several pronunciation problems. However, the rest of the students' speeches were not so clear. For example, some of their speeches showed linear development in the beginning but had weak ending ; their topic ideas had little substantiation and sometimes moved away from the core ideas. As a result, the audience seemed to have significant difficulty in understanding and following the speeches.

For successful writing of speech drafts in English, therefore, some typical rhetorical patterns need to be introduced to the students at the level of discourse before they work on writing their speech drafts, such as chronological order, cause and effect, comparison and

contrast, general to specific, and classification.

4.2. The second problem : listening

The second problem in the activity was poor listening comprehension which was partly due to the poor pronunciation of the speakers. There are a number of characteristics of spoken language that may be considered to cause listening difficulties. The following points need special consideration for the students in the present study : assimilation, juncture, and memory. Let us briefly take a look at these points.

Assimilation : Assimilation is the process by which one (or both) of two successive segments becomes more like the other. In other words, when one sound is being produced, we are already adjusting the tongue and the rest of the speech mechanism toward the positions required for the following sounds. Some examples are shown in the following :

- (1) *Does she like apples ?* (2) *He wants to meet you.*
 (3) *I wanted two eggs.* (4) *They waited for ten minutes.*

Juncture : In ordinary speech, certain phrases may be heard as continuous sequences of phonemes. This occurs particularly when the next word begins with a vowel. For example, 'an egg' is not pronounced as [an egg] but as [aneg]. This is juncture. Thus 'it is usual in connected speech for the linking /r/ forms of words to be used before a vowel, e.g. thanks for everything /fər/, my father and mother /fa: ðər/ and here and there /hɪər/, etc.' (Gimson, 1980 : 294)

For successful listening to short speeches in the class, it is necessary for the listeners (audience) to have good knowledge of sound changes such as assimilation, and juncture in advance of the class. Dictation is useful in introducing these sound changes to the students. However, if it is used in testing, learners may feel emotional stress. See Note 4.

Memory : In ordinary speech, the listener has to memorize the content, key words, and markers of tense, number etc., otherwise the listener will not be able to give a proper response. Some studies concerned with 'memory span' in Japanese EFL students revealed the following :

1. The range in which the listener finds listening the easiest is between 2 and 5 or 6 chunks of words, (or phrases) in each sentence. This is the case in Japanese Junior and Senior high school students. (Kohn, 1980 : 35-37)
2. The first year students in high school find that each sentence consisting of 5-7 words is the

easiest in listening with respect to the memory span. (Kumakawa, 1980)

For successful listening memory in short speeches in class, note-taking is strongly recommended. Most learners do not learn how to take notes while listening, although taking notes is important strategy for listening comprehension. There are various note-taking formats though, this study suggests at least four items for taking notes from the study of Moriya and Shimazaki (1995). They are (1) information units, (2) key words, (3) links, and (4) symbols and abbreviations(see Note 5).

4.3. The third problem : information routines

The third problem in the activities may be even more important than the two problems considered above. The activities in all the classes focused mainly on information routines rather than interaction routines. This was because the classes were mainly controlled by the students' speeches. Each student gave a five-minute speech and while the speech was being given, the audience listened to the speech without any oral interaction. There was no interaction between the speaker and the audience while the speech was going on. Since the emphasis was placed on short speeches by the students, the activities were mainly limited to information routines rather than interaction routines. As mentioned before, information routines may be identified as expository or evaluative. Expository routines are those which involve factual information hinging on questions of sequencing or identity of the subject (see Note 2). Therefore, questions to the speeches from the audience tended to be factual questions such as true or false questions about the content, and when factual questions were asked to the speakers, some of the listeners had already known the answers. As a result, communication was not continuous. In these cases, some referential questions were asked to both speakers and listeners by the teacher, and as a result oral interaction became more continuous than before.

5. Materials

There are many different kinds of teaching materials for communication. Some of them are based on the four language skills and others are based on proficiency of the learners. We also use audio-visual materials for communication and printed materials. This present study focuses on speaking and listening materials which are concerned with oral communication for Japanese EFL college students.

5.1. Speaking materials

When choosing materials for oral communication, we need to think about the learners' English proficiency and their communicative aims. If, for example, the students have a high proficiency, the teacher could use some high-level authentic materials. If not, the teacher might need to use something totally different in which the emphasis is placed on accuracy rather than fluency. Audio-visual materials are also useful for learners of speaking. They can understand not only useful idioms and expressions but also notice non-verbal expressions, spontaneous responses and appropriate use of language from audio-visual materials. However, whatever teaching materials are used, speaking proficiency is perhaps best achieved by speaking itself.

5.2. Listening materials

Listening comprehension used to be regarded as a passive side of language activities. However, it has come to be recognized as an active, purposeful and creative mental process since the early 1980s, particularly because listeners not only try to recognize linguistic features in the listening texts but also they try to exploit nonlinguistic sources by activating schemata in which they store and organize information in networks of related notions (see Note 3).

There are different types of listening as there are of speaking. Two main types of listening materials are considered : those based on dialogues in which interlocutors communicate with each other and these based on monologues. In the former, learners listen to the materials. The latter, on the other hand, are monologues based on informational routines rather than interaction routines. In this type of material, the learners pay attention to the information and take notes if necessary in order to obtain some important information, and by using the information obtained, the learners try to solve some questions in the materials.

When choosing listening materials for oral communication in the class, the teacher may use both types of listening materials, but if the time of instruction is very limited, the teacher may use only one type of listening material. As for the materials for speaking, the teacher may need to think about the learners' English proficiency once again and also consider the expectancy and psychological factors of the learners.

6. Assessment

6.1. Historical overview

When structural linguistics and behaviorism were the main climates in 1950s and 60s, the assessment of a learner's language proficiency was based on specific discrete points, grammatical morphemes such as words, phrases, sentences, verb suffixes and prefixes. This type of 'discrete-point test' was a typical method of assessment in the days of the Audio-lingual method. (see Note 6)

However, this assessment was not sufficient for the proper judgement of the learner's communicative competence. This is because we cannot tell if the learner really has a good command of communicative competence, even if he has a good command of language proficiency in grammar and discrete linguistic components. In 1974, Dell Hymes, a sociolinguist coined the term 'communicative competence' in a proposal to broaden the scope of knowledge and skills which were embodied in Noam Chomsky's definition of 'linguistic competence'. Hymes argued that speakers who were able to produce all the grammatical sentences of language would be 'institutionalized' if they went about trying to do so without consideration of the appropriate contexts of use, and of the socially and culturally determined norms for production and interpretation. Hyme's proposal was quickly adopted both by sociolinguists and by applied linguists in the field of EFL/ESL language instruction. Then later in the early 1980s, after revising Hyme's proposal, Canale (1983) also suggested four aspects of 'communicative competence': grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Each competence can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Grammatical competence : grammatical accuracy, linguistic knowledge, verbal and non-verbal codes and the range of possible variants.
2. Sociolinguistic competence : sociolinguistic rules for appropriate use, politeness, register, taboo languages
3. Discourse competence : discourse organization and processes, cohesion and coherence
4. Strategic competence : strategies for achieving goals, repetition, guessing, borrowing, paraphrasing co-operative strategies.

These four competences should be taken into consideration in the assessment of oral communication for Japanese EFL college students. However, there are many different ways and items of assessment in oral communication. If we want to evaluate whether or not a

learner can communicate what he wants to say with his interlocutor but nothing else, we only need to evaluate communicative proficiency.

On the other hand, if we want to evaluate the learner's sociolinguistic competence, we will need to evaluate his grasp of sociolinguistic rules for appropriate use in the target language. Therefore, we will need to evaluate items such as appropriateness, language register, politeness, and use of vocabulary, etc.

6.2. Assessment in the present study

In the assessment of oral communication for Japanese EFL college students in this study, Canale's proposal was taken into consideration, and the evaluation items chosen in the class were the following

1. Accuracy (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, etc.)
2. Appropriateness (appropriate use of language, register, politeness, flexibility etc.)
3. Organization (developing ideas, cohesion, use of connectors in the speech drafts)
4. Achievement strategies (guessing, coining, literal translation, borrowing, paraphrasing, co-operative strategies etc)
5. Fluency (appropriate speed of speech)
6. Communicability (whether or not a speaker can communicate what he wants to say)

In the assessment of the students' oral communication, this study set up five ranks in each item. For example, if a learner's communicative proficiency was highly evaluated in the item of accuracy, five points were given. On the other hand, if his communicative proficiency was poor, only one point was given. Every student in the class was evaluated according to the six items of communicative competence. A low score was found in the items of 'accuracy', 'organization of ideas' and 'fluency'.

7. Conclusion

For teaching successful skills in oral communication, several activities can be suggested. However, the number of the possible activities is sometimes limited by class size. This is a crucial problem in the real teaching situation at our college. In this study, short English speeches were adopted as a major activity, but as we have seen, there were several problems in this approach. In order to overcome these problems, several changes can be suggested. However, if the class had been re-organized according to the students' proficiency and the level of their

target language, the outcome and the effect of the teaching approach would totally be different. Therefore, this study strongly suggests that a class of oral communication be organized according to the level of each student. Class size should also be taken into consideration.

Although several problems were found in the class of oral communication in this study, the class, according to the class evaluation by the students, seemed to be satisfactory and many of the students enjoyed the class (78% : satisfactory). For successful teaching in the class of oral communication, it is important that we continually try new ideas such as task-based interactions, group discussions, and information-gap tasks etc. There is surely no perfect instruction in language teaching but there will always be trials and errors.

REFERENCES

- Bygate, M. 1987. *Speaking*. Oxford : Oxford University Press.
- Canale, M. 1983. On some dimensions of language proficiency. In Oller J W Jr (ed.) *Issues in language testing research*. Rowley MA : Newbury House.
- Faerch, C. and G. Kasper. 1983 a. 'Plans and strategies in interlanguage communication' in C. Faerch and G. Kasper (eds.) : *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*. London : Longman, 1983.
- Faerch, C. and G. Kasper. 1983 b. 'On identifying communication strategies in interlanguage production' in C. Faerch and G. Kasper (eds.) : *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*. London : Longman, 1983.
- Gimson, A.C. 1980. *An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English*. London : Edward Arnold.
- Hymes, D. 1974. *Foundations in sociolinguistics : An ethnographic approach*. Philadelphia : University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Kohno, M. 1980 b. On the Listening. *Goho Kenkyu to Eigo Kyouiku*. No. 3, Oct. Tokyo : Yamaguchi Shoten.
- Kumakawa, R. 1976. Aural Comprehension Test. *Research Report of Kure National College of Technology*. No. 12.
- Moriya, Y. and Shimazaki, M. 1995. An Analysis of Student's Notes in a University Listening Class. *Language Laboratory*. No. 32. pp. 39 - 53
- Nunan, D. 1995. *Language Teaching Methodology*. New York : Phoenix ELT.
- Rivers, W.M. 1981. *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*. Second (ed.) Chicago : The Univer-

sity of Chicago Press.

Stern, H. H. 1983. *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

Takanashi, T. et. al. 1995. *Eigo Komyunikeisyon no Shidou*. Tokyo : Kenkyusha.

Widdowson, H.G. 1978. *Teaching Language as Communication*. Oxford : Oxford University Press.

Yoshida, K. 1988. *Eigo no Listening* (Listening of English). Tokyo : Taishyukan.

Notes

(1). Bygate (1987) put the 'negotiation of meaning' as follows :

...By negotiation of meaning we refer to the skill of communicating ideas clearly. This includes the way participants signal understanding during an exchange, and is an aspect of spoken interaction which contrasts most sharply with the position of the reader and writer of the written word. In written discourse, there is nothing that either the reader or the writer can do about the other ones mistakes. The reader cannot alter what the writer writes, and the writer cannot make sure that the reader understands. There is no direct negotiation between the two. This is the first kind of interaction skill we are concerned with..... (op, cit. : 27)

(2) The principal types of expository routines, according to Brown and Yule (1983) quoted in Bygate (1987), are narration, description, and instruction. Differences among these three can be shown as in the following chart. :

| | <i>Sequencing</i> | <i>Subject</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|----------------|
| Narrative | + | + |
| Description | - | - |
| Instruction | + | + |

(Features of expository routines adapted from Longacre 1983, quoted in Bygate, 1987 : 23)

(3) This study believes that listening proficiency can be considered to contain both linguistic and non-linguistic components. Whereas the former involves phonetic factors, semantic factors, and grammatical structures, the latter involves the listeners' backgrounds, prior (cultural) knowledge, attitudes to listening and other psychological factors. Therefore, this study takes the position that Schema Theory can be applied not only to the process of reading but also to the process of listening.

(4) Since emotional stress and anxiety often occur during listening practice, the learners should optimally be placed in a relaxed situation where they feel the most effective level of relaxation. Rivers (1981) indicates that such emotional stress and anxiety often occurs during listening practice. According to Yoshida, (1988) the term 'neologophobia' was used to describe the feeling of unease learners have when they encounter new words. This phenomena is more salient in listening than in reading.

5) Moriya, and Shimazaki (1995) put it as follows :

.....For example, some students wrote the sentence "Mrs. Stewart died by herself" whereas others wrote a single word "suicide". Because nthe key word sabes time and note-taking space, students can retrieve information

quickly by using them.....For example, the symbols ">" and "<" designate "is more than" and "is less than" respectively.....

(op. cit. : 43 - 44)

(5) Principal features of the audiolingual method can be summarized as follows :

"This method of the sixties has several distinctive characteristics : (1) separation of the skills - listening, speaking, reading, and writing - and the primacy of the audiolingual over the graphic skills ; (2) the use of dialogues as the chief means of presenting the language ; (3) emphasis on certain practice techniques, mimicry, memorization, and pattern drills ; (4) the use of the language laboratory ; (5) establishing a linguistic and psychological theory as a basis for the teaching method.

(Stern, H.H, 1983 : 462)