Some Theoretical Considerations of the Aspects of Foreign-Language Teaching: A Proposal for Sequencing Some Types of Pattern Practice

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Today many junior high school students go to senior high school. Therefore, more students stay in school longer than ever before. As a result, more students are taught a foreign language and required the higher skills of the target foreign language. Since students do not learn at the same rate nor in the same way, the levels of achievement in a given class differ, skilled teachers must find out their students' individual differences and adapt methods to develop their individual abilities. In other words, teachers must play an important part as facilitators of learning in the classroom.

To meet this problem, the research and experimentation during the past ten years have thrown new light upon how foreign-language teaching and learning takes place. However, teachers are confronted with many theories and perplexed as to how to choose among them.

The present paper is concerned with some theoretical aspects of foreign-language teaching and learning. In particular, my attention is paid to the comparative studies performed by Lennart Levin and his co-operators in Sweden (Levin, 1972). In them, foreign-language teaching and learning was analyzed as a process closely related to learners' aptitudes. From these studies, methods of teaching a foreign language are expected to be re-examined and to make possible a more thorough acquisition of a foreign language as a social tool.

A proposal for sequencing some types of pattern practice is presented in the present paper as a practical application to satisfy the development of individual abilities of learners.

Introduction

My preceeding paper entitled "The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language and Linguistic Theory" (1973) was concerned with the following themes in psychological and linguistic theories and researches which bear on the problems of classroom instruction.

1) The research described in this paper was partially presented at the Tohoku English Language Education Society, March, 1971.

In the paper the relevance of the themes was discussed and the general problems and assumptions on classroom instruction were presented.

The first and second themes were concerned with the students' troubles related to English language learning, and a few disadvantages of the present teaching of English as a foreign language were noted. Among these were that the objectives of learning are not adequately made clear, that the way of teaching does not necessarily present adequate illustrations of the grammar in appropriate situations, that it is used in limited superficial and mechanical processes, that many texts are an array of unsystematic materials, and that the way of teaching does not necessarily appeal to the linguistic capacity which normal students have acquired in their learning of Japanese so far.

The third theme was concerned with the implications of new linguistic theory for improving the teaching of English in Japan. In particular, considered was the theory of transformational grammar which is concerned with the language acquisition. I stressed that the theory of transformational grammar helps teachers to make students internalize the basic linguistic knowledge of relationships between sentences by utilizing the concepts related to the transformational process from deep structure to surface structure.

The fourth and fifth themes were concerned with psychological and pedagogical theories. In particular, I considered the application of the concepts of deep and surface structure and of the concept of transformation. I suggested that teaching the relationships between sentences in "transformational exercises" enables the students to learn how given sentences are related to one another. The transformational exercises were placed at a stage in the following course of presentation:

a. Presentation of some meaningful situations which encourage the students to discuss the task of learning and the reason for the choice of the sentence structure and its relevant vocabulary.

b. Teaching them how the target sentence is transformed from base sentences by using a set of algorithmically directed operations.

c. Giving them chances to use overtly their knowledge of the target sentence with the help of directions, and then making them proceed to mental actions without the help of directions.

Emphasis was put on how linguistic theory should be applied to foreign-language teaching.

In the present paper I will consider in detail some theoretical aspects of foreign-language teaching and learning and how they should be programmed in the course of presentation.

Some Theoretical Considerations of the Aspects of Foreign-Language Teaching and Learning

1. Linguistic and Psychological Tenets and Their Influences on Foreign-Language Teaching and Learning
It may be useful to begin with a brief review of some linguistic and psychological categories, which have been termed langue-parole, competence-performance, mechanistic-mentalistic, and etic-emic. The situation has altered as the predominant theoretical basis of linguistics and psychology has shifted from Saussure to Bloomfield, from Bloomfield to Chomsky; similarly from Skinner to Miller. Likewise, the emphasis of educational planners has shifted from a preoccupation with method to a consideration of educational outcomes.

Languge and parole are the distinctions used by Ferdinand de Saussure. Parole is what a person says, and what he says depends on his experiences, his memory, his physical circumstances, and his listener. Langue is a system which is abstracted from examples of individual parole, and generalizations are made about underlying patterns of communication between one individual and another. The terms created by Saussure were re-interpreted as "language as code" and "language as speech" by H.E. Palmer, who created the Direct Method.1)

The dichotomy between etic and emic is derived from Kenneth Pike's tagmemic grammar. It is the contrast between external and internal views of human behavior and between the signals which indicate similarities or differences in meaning. Pike's tagmemic grammar has certain theoretical advantages for the analysis of extended discourses; a modified "slot-and-filler" grammar can be applied to describe contextually relative grammatical classes.2)

Chomsky's attention to competence and performance has engaged the interest of theoretical and experimental psychologists and has had certain effects upon classroom procedures.3) Chomsky calls the internal system of rules the speaker's linguistic competence, as opposed to the speaker's performance, the actual use of language.

Wardaugh4) described as mentalistic the operations that can cause "a speaker to determine that a certain sentence is ungrammatical or ambiguous or a paraphrase of another sentence.", while mechanistic refers to performance, the surface structure of certain language characteristics which can be heard in speech, frequently as "hesitations, stops and starts, reductions, elisions, mazes, back-tracking, and so on."5)

Chastain interprets the mentalistic approach as corresponding to the cognitive code-learning theory of language teaching. The mechanistic approach is applied to S-R-associated procedures of the audio-lingual habit theory, although not in the oppug-

nant sense in which Noam Chomsky sees the audio-lingual habit theory or behavioristic ones.\(^1\)

In his experiments at Purdue University, Chastain\(^2\)\(^3\) displayed results, indicating that each approach had unique advantages which were differently related to whether one is learning to speak, write, read, or listen; to the age of the learner; and to the ability of the learner. The audio-lingual students received significantly higher scores in repeating sentences after a native speaker; the cognitive students received significantly higher scores in reading. There were no differences in the students' ability to answer the questions and to describe pictures. Achievement score in listening and writing favored the cognitive students, although the differences were not significant.

In the Scherer-Wertheimer study\(^4\) at the University of Colorado, the students in the experimental group were taught by the audio-lingual method, while the students in the control group were taught with emphasis upon grammatical proficiency and vocabulary drill. The interpretation was made that the audio-lingual or experimental group received higher scores in speaking and reading, while the control group received higher scores in writing, and both groups received the same scores in listening.

In these opposing debates, John Jung\(^5\) says that the experimental psychologists must consider both the associationalistic view and the cognitive view in language learning, and "rather argue that all learning is one variety. We maintain that both types occur under appropriate situations. Different conditions determine which type of learning can occur." John Jung continues:

The stage of practice involved may affect the type of processes. Associationalistic rote learning may be typical during early stages of practice.

If the nature of the task involves a principle or logical classification system, cognitive like behavior may occur at later stages, following the earlier rote stage.

Lennart Levin\(^6\) points out that the contemporary foreign-language teaching debate has displayed a theoretical dichotomy between a mentalistic (deductive) versus a mechanistic (inductive) orientation or between teaching strategy as based on the cognitive code-learning theory and the audio-lingual habit theory. (Carroll, 1965)\(^7\)

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7) All the documentations underlined in the passages dealing with Levin's studies are his.
Levin, like Katona and Koplin (1968), maintains that there is no a priori reason for predicting which method is better in the actual learning situation. The two theoretical positions provide the conceptual setting for Levin's investigation.

Levin discusses the problematic concept of the method in foreign-language teaching, and notes that much comparative research has inadequately described the independent variables involved in the methods compared. Levin echoes Bosco and Di Pietro's (1970) warning about the dangers involved in viewing foreign-language teaching methods in a global perspective, that is, in considering one teaching strategy as a global entity rather than examining the multiplicity of features underlying each strategy and the cooccurrence of features across strategies.

Levin cites the need for complete and accurate descriptions of teaching techniques in order to avoid faulty interpretations in comparative studies.

In view of the opposing opinions and theoretical uncertainty in foreign-language teaching today, Levin strongly favors a tendency towards eclecticism which has been adopted by some specialists in foreign-language teaching. Levin argues that each of the foreign-language teaching theories has unique advantages and that it is highly improbable that a complete foreign-language teaching methodology can be derived from a single theory.

Levin stresses the need to study specific variables in teaching, such as the lesson objectives and differences among groups of learners, rather than treating the teaching process as a global entity. He predicts that such research will prove parts of each theory to contribute to methodological advancement.

In discussing comparative experiments, Levin notes that there are two main kinds of research: conclusion- and decision-oriented research (Wiley, 1969). Conclusion-oriented research is primarily concerned with achieving a better understanding of a particular set of phenomena. Decision-oriented research is directed toward the solution of a particular problem. Levin's project, the GUME project, is a case of conclusion-oriented research. The aim of his research is to reach some conclusions about the relative merits of specific variables of foreign-language acquisition. In investigating methods of teaching certain grammatical structures in English at certain age levels, Levin attempts to find out if specific variables facilitate learning.

While Levin states that he has no a priori assumption about the overall efficacy of various teaching strategies compared, his hypothesis is that the inductive-oriented IM method will facilitate learning relatively more for pupils of low intelligence, whereas the deductive-oriented explanation method will be better for pupils of high intelligence. Wilga Rivers' (1968, p. 48) work supports his hypothesis. The study of the relationship between learners' intelligence and teaching strategy is termed Aptitude-Treatment-Interaction (ATI).

There are many contrasting opinions of the relationship between age-level and language-learning ability. The GUME project seeks to investigate, in a fairly exploratory way, the relation between age and method. In Levin's experiments the levels of 13 years, 15 years, and adults are studied.
The GUME project lacked a natural "zero-point" (Carroll, 1967) because of most of the subjects had studied English before. The explanation-time was used to counteract the lack of "zero-point." In the GUME 1-3, grammatical explanations were given for nine minutes in thirty minutes lessons. In the GUME 4 and GUME 5, explanations were made optimal but were not given a time limit.

The ultimate goal of the GUME project is to gain some knowledge about the impact of a specific independent variable on pupils' acquisition of a foreign language. This variable is explanations versus non-explanations in teaching grammatical structures in a foreign language. Levin terms his experiments "a series of the replications." The replications serve to increase the external validity of his inferences since, if his dependent variable is one of consequence, replications under different conditions should produce similar results. (Wiley, 1969)

So far I have reviewed in a summary form from the current debates and investigations on foreign-language teaching. They do, in fact, seem to give a great impact on the foreign-language teaching in Japan.

Today, particularly in the field of foreign-language teaching in Japan, we do not have adequate data on psychological processes in the interaction between learners and teaching strategies. Empirical investigations have been predominantly controlled by general propositions, which, as a rule, have been assumed but not tested.

Some researchers in the field of learning psychology are concerned about learners' attitudes toward language learning. Therefore, they are stressing the affective domain, i.e., learner's attitudes in the classroom, rather than the cognitive skills. One outgrowth of this feeling is individualization of teaching. I am in favor of Levin's reaction to the term 'interaction' between learners and teaching strategies. To clarify the interaction phenomenon seems to make fundamental advances in the better individualization of foreign-language teaching strategies. In the individualized teaching, the teacher abandons his position as a teacher and becomes a facilitator of learning. In other words, he helps the learners to develop their own procedures for learning instead of requiring them all to learn at the same rate. He gives them objectives and materials, and the learners work through the materials at their own rate. The classroom scene is radically different from the traditional one. When the teacher selects parts of the many approaches which best suit his personality, he individualizes his teaching. The individualized teaching seeks to accomplish the same results with each individual learner.

It was our aim to contribute to a clarification of the problem related to the interaction phenomenon by means of direct observation of the effects of 'algorithmic formation of mental actions' in foreign-language teaching in accordance with the following objectives of teaching plan.

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1) This type of research is of considerable interest to me but is too broad. The following bibliography may be a source for prompting my further study:
Politzer, R.L., "Individualization in Foreign Language Teaching" (MLJ 55, 4, 1971)

2) Osawa, T. et al., The Improvement in English Language Teaching, Meiji-Tosho Publishing Co., Tokyo, 1966.
2. Objectives of Teaching Plan

The objectives of a teaching plan should be adjusted to goals and implications and be realized in the actual procedures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Implications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency in basic language skills:</td>
<td>a. Providing students with specific exercises for developing the quality of oral and written communication.</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>b. Providing specific contextual and situational exercises for familialization students with relevant vocabulary, sentence structures, and sound units.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Providing them with transformational exercises for prompting cognitive understanding of the underlying rules pertaining to the target sentence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Effective thinking:</td>
<td>a. Making the students aware of what item and skill should be mastered at a given time.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Providing them with varieties of situations and contexts in order to make them use the language with certain motives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Providing them with some types of ways of solving problems they encounter.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. Using audio-visual aids.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural appreciation:</td>
<td>a. Providing the students with opportunities for discussions of the differences and similarities between Japanese and foreign cultures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Providing them with opportunities for creative expressions of their experiences in the target language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character and personality development:</td>
<td>a. Teaching each student to act as a good helper for slow learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Making classroom situation free from group tension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Teaching the students themselves to overcome difficulties as they occur, while differentiating instruction within the class based on individual differences as well as likeness in achievement levels, learning levels, learning readiness, learning abilities, and interests and motives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. A Proposal: Sequencing Some Types of Pattern Practice

I have been trying to make appropriate situations and contexts\(^1\) which require that the students have a fairly high level of verbal intelligence. The primary reason for making appropriate situations and contexts before and after the transformational exercises is that a relevant context and situation facilitates the learning of a new sentence pattern. Moreover, the students can learn what situation or context elicits the production of certain vocabulary and sentence patterns.

I had already presented some experimental results in which the role of transformational exercises performed in an algorithmic way was stressed. These exercises are an aspect of learning English as a foreign language in that they provide students at the developmental stage as adults with linguistic knowledge.

Utilization of situations and contexts in the classroom is supplementary to the cognitive exercises and, in fact, makes the following important contributions to the teaching of English as a foreign language:

a. It helps the students to recall familiar concepts which they already possess through the acquisition of his native language.

b. It helps them to concentrate their attention upon the situation or the context related to the target sentence that causes meaningful usage.

c. It helps the teacher to give the students a variety of opportunities to think of the natural or necessary reason for choosing and producing a word or a sentence structure in a given situation or context. It helps the students to understand that the choice of a word or a sentence structure depends upon a context or a situation.

\(^1\) Firthian linguistics has directly influenced the teaching of English as a foreign language. The term 'contextualization' is used and it is derived from the notion of 'context of situation' presented by Firth.

I am afraid that I cannot interpret the terms that Firthian linguists mention. Each linguistics has its own terminology. To apply such terminology to teaching would also be laborious work. Nevertheless, I will try to present the concepts of situation and context presented by Firthians, Transformationatists, and psychologists, behavioristic and cognitive.

Following Firth, patterning—whether it is grammatical or phonological—can be predicted from the phonic data independent of its relationship to context. If the context is required, it is only to ensure that the phonic data is a part of an actual language. The context is not ignored, yet patterning is attributed to phonic data alone. The role of the context and the situation is to make sure that the phonic data is a valid piece of language data.

All linguistic statements must ultimately be founded upon phonic observation, but not upon the observation of their meaning. (Palmer, F.R., Linguistic Hierachy, in *Lingua* 7, 1958, p. 237)

In other words, the relationships of phonic data taken from an individual to context are valid.

The following bibliography provides additional materials:


The transformationalistic view is different in the sense that data are always a part of a context, i.e. the set of well-formed utterances in some natural language. Moreover, this \(\rightarrow\)
Some Theoretical Considerations of the Aspects

I should like to propose the following teaching procedures with four successive stages which include a cycle of audio-lingual and cognitive exercises.\(^1\) In my proposal, I have tried to provide the students with as many learning experiences as possible. All stages in the procedures can be displayed in one period-time (45 or 50 minutes) or separately in two period-times according to learning conditions; from Stage One to Four or from Stage One to Two and from Stage Three to Four. The Stage One and Two are designed to develop students' audio-lingual skills and Stage Three and Four are to develop cognitive awareness of the knowledge of the target sentence.

Procedures

Stage One: The teacher presents a short story with new concepts related to the target sentence in sufficiently familiar settings to insure meaningful understanding.

Step One: The teacher reads orally or tells a short story without using any supplemental things, such as pictures or objects. The

(Continued from the preceding page)

first set must be considered in relation to a second set, that of all well-formed semantic representations in a natural language. The explicit statement of relationships between these two sets is the grammar of the language. According to the transformational view, the data from an individual represents a 'performance'. The task of the transformational linguist is to seek to render explicit the actual 'competence' of the ideal speaker-hearer. In *Language* and *Mind* (1968) Chomsky presents certain aspects of these problems.

I think both views are of utmost importance. The purpose of language is to communicate. Therefore, what we teach should be incorporated in contexts and situations which are meaningful for the learners. The learners need to be aware of the context in which some point of grammar or vocabulary is used, and they need to be aware that these language structures are used in various situations to communicate ideas to someone else.

The purpose of any language class is not to teach the learners the intricacies of grammar and the endlessness of the vocabulary lists, but to teach them to learn to communicate. Context is basic to comprehending structures, and situation is indispensable in order to stimulate the learners to communicate about what they are interested in. Relevant vocabulary should be an important part of the study of the situations.

In the behavioristic view, one learns a language by imitating and repeating the language which he hears around him. Thus, all words, grammar, sounds, and intonation patterns are learned in context and situation and imitations and habits are formed in conformity with the heard patterns.

The cognitive view is that language is not stamped in the individual. The learner first formulates his own simple grammar, which he changes to more complex patterns as he learns. What he knows about language he learns, of course, from his situations, but language is not imposed from the outside. It is assimilated by the mind of the learner.

In language teaching, the behavioristic view is to begin with a situation, a dialog drill of the patterns which occur in any given situation. The cognitive view, on the other hand, is to teach awareness of and an understanding of the rules which will permit the students to produce needed language in any given situation. In other words, the teacher starts with the structure in context and builds a situation, so that the students can produce needed structure in context appropriate to the situation, even if the context and/or situation has not been encountered before. The behaviorist would be more interested in getting the students to reproduce learned patterns in response to previously met stimuli. Needless to say, both approaches involve teaching for transfer.

1) See Appendices 1 and 2.
students listen to it carefully.

**Step Two:** The teacher reads orally or tells the same story again using pictures familiar to the students. They listen to it, while watching the pictures.

**Step Three:** The teacher reads orally or tells the story again using the same pictures.

Often in this step the students are given a printed text which has certain words deleted. The teacher asks the students to fill in the blanks in the text in order to make them listen to the story more carefully. He also asks them to underline the parts which they do not understand.

During this stage, the teacher expects the students to follow the basic process of getting the exact meaning. First, the students must select a meaning to be applied to each word in the context in which it appears. Second, they must give each word or each sentence its proper emphasis as to whether it is a key word or a key sentence. Third, they must learn to synthesize the various elements of a story into a meaningful whole. While making the students listen to a story, the teacher should advise them to listen to the story phrase by phrase, instead of word by word. Sometimes the teacher may present contrasting stories illustrating different uses of the sentences. The teacher should make the students point out why the target sentence is used in a given context.

The pictures are designed to suggest the students how to verbalize certain motives in a given situation; they are called 'segmentally oriented pictures.'

The context provides the students with opportunities for making a very probable inference in reading printed sentences of which some parts are deleted. The deletions prompt the students to infer the meaning of the story.

**Stage Two:** Some students may not understand what they have heard, or they may miss the main idea even though the vocabulary is not too complex for their listening level. These students will benefit from a discussion of the main idea and the reason for the choice of words in filling in the blanks.

The teacher may also ask the students what sentence is supposed to be the target sentence relating to the main idea of the story.

**Step One:** The teacher asks the students to discuss among themselves what the main idea is, and to relate the target sentence to the title and the main idea of the story. After this discussion, the teacher asks them to close their texts and listen to the story again if needed.

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1) See Appendix 3.
The students are taught to draw conclusions from what they have listened to. That some students fail test questions illustrates that they need to be retaught how to look for clues in the context.

Step Two: The teacher writes the target sentence on the board and asks the students what the target sentence means, relating the target sentence to the context of the story. After this, the teacher has the students substitute some parts of the target sentence with verbal cues in order to make them understand its paradigmatic features\(^1\).

Step Three: The teacher leads the students toward further syntagmatic understanding through question-and-answer activities in which Yes-No questions and wh-questions are used.

Stage Three: The previous exercises provide a background for the third stage in which the teacher teaches how the target sentence operates, and makes the students themselves operate the related sentences.

This stage plays an important role for the students who have trouble in producing and recognizing sentences by lack of skills necessary to operate the sentences consciously.

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1) In particular, the presentation of synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms is important.

Synonyms are words related in meaning but carry different shades of meaning. Because of discriminating usage, words carry a special meaning or connotation even though they are alike in a general sense.

Procedures:

a. **Adjectives**
   
   For each underlined adjective, the teacher asks the students to supply an appropriate synonym and re-write the sentences: e.g., This is a huge plane.—This is a great plane. —This is a large plane.

b. **Nouns**
   
   For each underlined noun, the teacher asks the students to supply an appropriate synonym and re-write the sentences:
   
   e.g., Without a method, nothing can be done.—Without a plan, nothing can be done.

b. **Verbs**
   
   For each underlined verb, the teacher asks the students to supply an appropriate verbal synonym:
   
   e.g., Mr. Kato arrived in Tokyo.—Mr. Kato reached Tokyo.—Mr. Kato got to Tokyo.

*Antonyms:* A knowledge of antonyms is helpful in enriching vocabulary in a sentence.

**Procedures:**

a. **Adjectives**
   
   For each underlined word, the teacher asks the students to supply antonyms:
   
   e.g., Taro is taller than Tadashi.—Tadashi is shorter than Taro.

b. **Verbs**
   
   e.g., Mr. Kato arrived in Tokyo yesterday.—Mr. Kato left Tokyo yesterday.
   
   —Mr. Kato started from Tokyo yesterday.

*Homonyms:* A homonym is a word having the same pronunciation as another word but a different meaning and different spelling.
Step One: At this step, the type of exercises must be related to the context of the story and the students must be made conscious of both the intentions of the story and of the transformational process motivated by the story.

Step Two: Here the students learn how the target sentence operates through detailed intellectual manipulations of the sentences.\(^1\)

Stage Four: The teacher has the students go back to the story previously presented at Stage One. This time, exercises are given in a dialog which relates to the story.\(^2\)

Step One: Oral exercises by using a dialog which relates to the story presented previously.

Step Two: Written exercises.

Step Three: Reading exercises.

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(Continued from the preceding page)

Procedures: The teacher writes the target sentence on the board. For each underlined word, he asks the students to select the appropriate word:

- She will (sew, sow) a dress.
- She will (sew, sow) the seeds.
- The (flower, flour) is made into bread.
- The (flower, flour) is very short.

Of course, plain substitution is also another important phase of paradigmatic exercises, e.g.,

- Bill: BILL likes to play tennis.
- Baseball: Bill likes to play BASEBALL.

The teacher should not ignore the systematic question-and-answer exercises in teaching the target sentence. He should ask the students what the target sentence is about in the text; What did he do? Who did it? What did he do to it? When did he do it? etc. In these questions he must show the students not only where the contextually correct answer may be found, but also make them aware of what syntactical features the target sentence has. Gradually the students will become familiar with the relevant sounds of the target sentence, too.

1) The students are directed intentionally from the base sentences to the resulting one as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intentsions suggested by the teacher at every step</th>
<th>The steps which the students have to trace step by step</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suppose you want to buy some apples and go to a shop. At the shop many kinds of apples are sold, so you have to say that you want certain apples which are arranged somewhere. Try to express these two base sentences in one.</td>
<td>Base sentence 1: I want the apples. Base sentence 2: The apples are on the green plate. I want the apples. The apples are on the plate. — I want the apples on the green plate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) The students are led back to the story and trained in communicative situations in the following ways:

a. Alternative
   Q: Does he like playing tennis or baseball?
   A: He likes playing tennis.

b. Yes-No
Appendix 1: Examples of teaching materials and exercises.

a. Target sentence:1) They like to learn Japanese.

b. Story: Tadashi and Kimiko sent Vincent and his friends a tape letter last week. They talked on the tape in English and in Japanese. Tadashi and Kimiko are studying English now. They like learning English. Vincent and his friends like listening to the tape from Tadashi and Kimiko. They understood their English and the Japanese. Vincent and his friends studied Japanese last month. They can't study Japanese now because they are very busy. But they will study Japanese again next month. Vincent and his friends like to learn Japanese. They want to talk to Tadashi and Kimiko in Japanese.

c. Exercises at Step Two of Stage Two (Non-Contextual Exercises):
   T: They like to learn Japanese. Repeat.
   S: They like to learn Japanese.
   T: Learning English.
   S: They like learning English.
   T: Vincent.
   S: Vincent likes learning English.
   T: Japanese.
   S: Vincent likes learning Japanese.

d. Exercises at Step Three of Stage Two (Semi-Contextual Exercises):
   T: Vincent and his friends like to learn Japanese. Repeat.
   S: Vincent and his friends like to learn Japanese.
   T: Question.
   S: Do Vincent and his friends like to learn Japanese?
   T: Answer.
   S: Yes, they do. They like to learn Japanese.
   T: Who like learning English?
   S: Tadashi and Kimiko do. They like learning English.

e. Exercises at Step Two of Stage Three (Transformational Exercises):
   T: They like Japanese. They learn it.

(Continued from the preceding page)
   Q: Did Tadashi see a man painting a picture beside the river?
   A: Yes, he did. (or No, he didn’t.)
   c: Emotive
   Q: How do you think Tadashi who traveled in the suburbs of the city felt?
   A: I guess he felt very excited.
   d: Mutational
   Q: Open the door.
   A: He told me to open the door.

1) On the teaching material: 'Like' is a member of a class of verbs in English which can be followed by an infinitive construction such as “to learn” or by a participial construction such as “learning.” There is a slight difference in meaning between the infinitive constructions and participial ones. The infinitive construction implies ‘potentiality’, and the participial construction ‘fulfilment’.
S: They like to learn Japanese.
T: They like Japanese. They are learning it.
S: They like learning Japanese.

f. Exercises at Step One of Stage Four (Contextual Exercises):
Vincent: Hi Bob, What are you studying?
Vincent: Do you like learning Japanese?
Bob: Yes, I do. I like learning Japanese very well.
Vincent: I like to learn Japanese, too, but I can’t learn it now. I’m very busy.
Bob: Will you learn Japanese later?
Vincent: Yes, I will. I want to learn Japanese. I like to learn Japanese.

Appendix 2: Percentages of learners indicating their attitudinal responses to the teaching strategies.
Aim: To investigate some effects of interaction patterns on participants in the teaching strategies.
Subjects: 90 boy and girl students in the 8th grade of the junior high school attached to the Faculty of Education, Iwate University.
Date: From May to July, 1973.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Achievement Levels</th>
<th>Satisfaction with teaching strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction with Stage One-Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High N = 30</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle N = 30</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low N = 30</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Appendix 3: An example of “segmentally oriented picture”.

b. カトウシハ キイタ。
トケイノオトラ。
トケイハ ナッテイク。