The Communicative Teaching of Japanese as a Foreign Language

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This study looks at communicative language teaching for Japanese as a foreign language. It aims to find some justification for the hypothesis that language system and language use are mutually compatible, and should be consistently integrated in communicative language teaching.

Inventories, containing examples of such things as the "expressions" used by Japanese people, the kind of "situations" in which these expressions might be uttered, and so on, were prepared to be used as a basis for this study. These inventories roughly followed Wilkins', (1976) system of function and semantico-grammatical categories as well as the model of van Ek (1976), and van Ek and Alexander (1977) for the teaching of European languages.

Certain issues raised during the preparation of the inventories, which are relevant to communicative language teaching, are discussed. These issues are: 1) various types of responses, 2) the functions of the Japanese form V-te kudasai, 3) the notions and functions of the Japanese verbs aru and iru, and 4) "short routines".

In the discussion dealing with these issues, the importance of the use of authentic language material and the integration of comprehension and production materials is pointed out. Based on these two points, the study demonstrates how, at least in the case of the issues investigated, language system and language use can be treated as mutually compatible in the communicative teaching of Japanese as a foreign language.
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The romanized Japanese text follows the Hepburn system with the exception of long vowel sounds, which are represented thus: aa, ii, uu, ee, oo. Also English loan words are reproduced with English spelling, even though they are pronounced differently in Japanese.
This study centers around the communicative language teaching of Japanese as a foreign language. The aims of the study are twofold. One is to find some justification for the hypothesis that the two areas of language system and language use should be regarded as mutually compatible in language teaching, and can actually be integrated in such a way that they contribute to a communicative teaching strategy that will ultimately help learners gain true communicative competence. The other aim of this study is to show how comprehension materials can be integrated with production materials using the 'spiral' method of presentation, which gives consideration to both language system and language use.

Van Ek (1976) and van Ek and Alexander (1977) used Wilkins' (1976) system of two categories, the 'function' and 'semantico-grammatical' categories, as the theoretical framework for their model for the teaching of English and other European languages to adults from within the European language community. The practical model which

1. I have borrowed the term 'spiral' from Finocchiaro (1979).

2. From now on, "the model of van Ek and Alexander" always refers to both the model of van Ek (1976) and that of van Ek and Alexander (1977), which are substantially the same.
they developed is used, with some modifications, as a basis for this study.

Wilkins developed a system called a 'notional' syllabus as a first step towards the creation of a communicative syllabus. He was a member of a team convened by the Council of Europe in 1971 to work towards improving language teaching methods (Johnson: Johnson and Morrow eds: 1981). Van Ek and Alexander also contributed to this project with a language teaching model consisting of 'functions', 'notions', 'roles', 'settings' and 'topic areas'. I have produced inventories under the same category headings, but with some internal modifications which I find helpful. These inventories are just the first step in the design of a teaching syllabus. I found it useful early in my work to also include an 'expression' inventory, a category not found among the lists of van Ek and Alexander. (This is discussed in more detail in Chapter One.)

0.1 The Background of Communicative Language Teaching

Johnson (1981) mentions recent developments in language teaching both at the level of syllabus and of methodology, but says that these two elements "have not yet come together to produce what can justifiably be called a coherent new approach to language teaching". However, he concludes that:

... there does exist behind them a common set of assumptions, and it is the existence of this
shared background which gives us the justification for referring to the new developments under the single label of 'communicative language teaching'. (Johnson : Johnson and Morrow eds : 1981, Preface)

Johnson (1982) claims that the language teaching methodologies of the past few decades have focused too heavily on language structure. In describing the origins of communicative language teaching theory, he first refers to Campbell and Wales' (1970) criticism of certain studies of child language acquisition. Campbell and Wales say that these studies ignore the importance in language learning of the 'appropriate' use of language in context. Johnson then mentions Hymes' article "On Communicative Competence" (1970) where Hymes puts forward a similar argument. Johnson (1982) claims that there is:

a shift away from the study of language seen purely as a system; away from the study of "the possible". It is a shift towards the study of language as communication; towards the study of (among other factors) 'the appropriate'. (p.14)

He says that it is this shift which has led to the development of communicative language teaching.

Johnson considers Halliday's (1973) analysis of the 'function' of 'scolding a naughty child', and Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) analysis of interactions between teachers and pupils, and he concludes that language learning is concerned not only with the language system but also with language 'use'. Appropriateness is "the knowledge of how to say the right thing at the right time" (Johnson : 1982, p.13). Johnson's thesis is that there are three types of 'knowledge' essential to language learning, but that language teaching in the past has concentrated on
only two of these, grammar and signification (i.e. meaning), to the neglect of use, or appropriateness.

Whilst it is true that the idea of language use is not a new one for language teachers, no one would deny that 'traditional' approaches to language teaching have placed considerably more emphasis on language system. The more recent trend in some areas towards an emphasis on language as a means of communication is seen as a reaction against language teaching that over-stresses the language system. However, communicative teaching does not represent a complete about-face. Rather, it seeks to utilize the information already uncovered in the field of language structure, semantics and so on, in a way that will facilitate the development of skills of language use. Although the teaching of language use is emphasized here, as noted above, the foundation of real communicative teaching is the integration of knowledge of the language system and skill in its communicative use.

There are still a lot of 'unknowns' in communicative teaching theory, and this fact no doubt contributes to the debate as to whether communicative teaching can be a real

3. Roberts (1982, p.95): "Some caution is needed with the interpretation of the convenience label 'traditional method approach'. While 'traditional' is intended to contrast with 'recent', the term is not meant to refer to the Grammar Translation Method alone, but to the whole gamut of methods, including Grammar-Translation, the Direct Method, Audiolingualism, Cognitive Code-Learning Theory, and so on, including eclectic compromises between them, evolved up until about a decade-and-a-half ago. It also includes the selection and use of textbooks advertising themselves as 'methods'."
alternative to 'traditional' teaching methods. Johnson states: "It is certainly true that more is known about grammar than about language use. Generations of linguists have explored every remote corner of the language system, while there are large areas of language use which remain uncharted territory." (Johnson: 1982, p.29) Even so, from work such as that done by the authors mentioned above, we can see how language use has come to be regarded as a vital element in language teaching.

0.2 Two Components of Verbal Behaviour - Functions and Notions

A teaching approach which focuses on language use to any significant extent will naturally require a suitable syllabus. After discussing certain limitations of grammatical and situational syllabuses for communicative language teaching, Wilkins (1976, p.18) claims that:

The notional syllabus is in contrast with the other two because it takes the desired communicative capacity as the starting-point.

The notional syllabus consists of two categories - the 'semantico-grammatical' and the 'function' categories - "by means of which it would be possible to specify the [learner's] communicative needs". (Johnson: Johnson and Morrow eds: 1981, p.3) Johnson explains these categories as follows:

Examples of ... [Wilkins' first category], taken from Wilkins's list are: frequency, duration, location and quantity. They are 'semantic' categories because they are items of meaning. But Wilkins includes the word 'grammatical' in his
Label to recognise the fact that, in most European languages at least, these categories relate fairly directly to grammatical categories.

Wilkins's second category is the 'communicative function'. Communicative functions are, in broad terms, the uses to which we put language. Examples taken from his paper are: requesting information, expressing disapproval, greeting and inviting. (Johnson: Johnson and Morrow eds: 1981, p.3)

The model developed by van Ek and Alexander thus consists of two 'components'.

In essence, the model is a very simple one, in that it analyzes verbal behaviour into only two components: the performance of language functions and the expression of, or reference to, notions. What people do by means of language can be described as verbally performing certain functions. By means of language people assert, question, command, expostulate, persuade, apologize, etc. In performing such functions people express, refer to or - to use a more general term - handle certain notions. (van Ek and Alexander: 1977, p.3)

(van Ek and Alexander use the term 'notion' to describe the elements included in Wilkins' 'semantico-grammatical' category.)

0.3 Analytic vs. Synthetic Approaches

Methodology, that is, how to teach, is just as important as what to teach. Teaching material and methodology should be treated as one integrated issue;

4. van Ek and Alexander (1977, p.3): "To preclude misunderstanding it should perhaps be pointed out right at the beginning of our presentation that a behavioural specification of an objective by no means implies the need for a behaviouristic teaching method. The way in which the objective has been defined does not impose any particular methodology - behaviouristic or otherwise - on the teacher."
that is, in effective language teaching, certain materials are more suitable for certain methodologies and vice versa.

Wilkins (1976) draws a distinction between two separate teaching approaches: synthetic and analytic. In synthetic approaches parts of the language system are separately and gradually taught so that "acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up." (p.2) In analytic approaches, on the other hand, actual language behaviour is of prime importance, and the learner is exposed to structural diversity right from the beginning. She therefore learns to generalize. Wilkins associates the synthetic approaches with the structural syllabus and the analytic approaches with the notional syllabus and, as mentioned above, it is the notional syllabus which Wilkins advocates, as the type of syllabus which will arise naturally in the practical application of his theories.

Wilkins' description of 'analytic approaches' raises the following questions:

1) To what extent do learners need to be exposed to a diversity of linguistic forms (structures, vocabulary items, etc.)?

2) Does such an approach imply no organization in terms of language system at all? Is there any way of organizing materials in which language system and language use are treated as mutually compatible? How can a diversity of linguistic forms be presented simultaneously?
3) How does the teacher help the learner to generalize?

These questions will be addressed in the discussion to follow. In Chapter Two, I will demonstrate a way of organizing teaching materials which fully incorporates both language system and language use. From the point of view of methodology, I will discuss the integration of comprehension material with production material with a view to facilitating the aims of an analytic approach.

0.4 Some Criticisms Made of Communicative Language Teaching

In spite of the growing trend towards communicative language teaching in recent years there have also been some significant criticisms levelled against it. Many of these criticisms seem to originate from a basic misunderstanding of the communicative approach.

The following comments underline what appears to be a common attitude among those who are not in favour of communicative language teaching.

"Because class hours are limited, teachers should concentrate on giving their students knowledge rather than spending valuable time having them practice the use of language."

"I don't want my students to speak broken Japanese. That is why for me, pattern drills are very important."

"How can students learn to produce passive or causative forms without first drilling them in class?"

"You can't claim that structurally-oriented teaching methods fail to help students learn communicative competence."
"Communicative language teaching classes always seem so disorganised."

Alfonso (1983) draws a distinction between 'communicative sequencing' and 'grammatical sequencing'. According to Alfonso, the former aims to "sequence the materials along the lines of communicative situations, bringing in the grammar and the vocabulary as needed for the students to express themselves in those situations". The latter, he says, aims to "sequence the grammar following practical criteria of various kinds, and proceed from there into applying those sentences to the real life of the student". He notes that this latter method of sequencing is the one "that has been followed in Alfonso Japanese" and he comments, regarding the 'communicative approach':

When you have a very close look at the communicative approach, you will soon see that the point at issue is not whether you teach grammar or not, but rather whether you stop with the grammar exercises or go beyond them to applying the language patterns in question to the students' own experiences. (p.11)

Thus, Alfonso is, in fact, suggesting that his method of sequencing is communicative, in the sense that he goes beyond teaching the language system and applies it to real life.

In any general language teaching program the ultimate goal must be to help learners gain communicative competence. It would be wrong to claim that success depends entirely on the correct sequencing of language system and language use. It seems that the issue under discussion is not which methods of language teaching are workable, but which are the most effective.
Language system and language use are mutually compatible in the real world. They are like two sides of a single coin. In communicative language teaching, the language that is taught in class should be the language which the learner actually has to use and understand in the target language society. Clearly, this language will consist of the two elements, language system (notions) and language use (functions). The obvious conclusion is that sufficient emphasis must be given to both elements, right from the beginning of the course. Therefore, this is not a methodology in which we separate the two elements, and emphasize one only, at the expense of the other, nor do we advocate the sequencing of one after the other. In the teaching syllabus the material and methodology should be organized systematically from the point of view of both elements.

A syllabus of the kind which the present study aims towards would be organized roughly as follows. The organization of 'the functional-notional syllabus' is more precisely described by Finocchiaro (1979).

1) The title of each 'unit' (one lesson or a sequence of several lessons) describes the principal function being taught in that unit.

2) 'The learning objectives for each unit' are specified according to both language use (functions) and language system (notions). Grammatical items are chosen because of their importance to the function being taught, rather than being chosen solely on the basis of grammati-
cal grading. There is more variety of structures in most units than would appear in a grammatically sequenced syllabus.

3) All material is specified either as comprehension or production material.

4) Basically the same title appears (perhaps with minor modifications), whenever material is used 'cyclically'. For example, substantially the same kind of material may be used for comprehension at one stage of the course, and for production at another, and various notions for a single function (e.g. different vocabulary items and structures) may be introduced throughout the course, but always with the same basic title.

A grammatically sequenced syllabus, on the other hand, will be organized according to the strict gradation of grammar items. Each 'unit' will deal with a separate item, and these are arranged in order of their relative difficulty from the viewpoint of language system.

This study might not be able to answer comprehensively the criticisms implied in comments such as those made by Alfonso and others. However, it may contribute to a breaching of the barrier that has unwittingly been erected as a result of misunderstanding between the advocates of structurally oriented and communicatively oriented language teaching approaches.
The Aims of Communicative Language Teaching

By using my own example here I would like to illustrate those aspects of communicative language teaching which have been mentioned so far in the discussion of Wilkins' system of two categories, as well as to introduce a few new terms which need to be exemplified and defined. I would also like to summarize the aims of a communicative language teaching program.

The following example should illustrate the kind of language skills which the present study aims to teach. A four year old child said to an adult who was holding a carton of orange juice:

> watashi orange juice daisuki
> I love
> "I love orange juice."

She got an immediate response 'age-masu yo' ("I'll give you some.") from her addressee. If the addressee had been a family member or a close friend, the child might have said:

> juice choodai
> give
> "Give me some juice, please."

As it was, however, even though she did not make a direct request of this nature, it was quite obvious that the child wanted her addressee to give her some orange juice. She hinted at what she wanted her addressee to do by saying 'watashi orange juice daisuki' ("I love orange juice"). The child must have encountered quite a number of situations
where people used a similar expression, 'watashi -------- dai suki'. The child's choice of expression indicated that she was aware of the situation and thus knew the appropriate way to express her desire. She knew:

* where she was talking: she was visiting her father's office and was not on familiar territory;

* whom she was talking to and her relationship to the addressee: the addressee was an adult whom she knew, but not very well, and so was not in a very close relationship;

* when she was talking: it was not a meal time or tea break, and the addressee (a language teacher) was just having a drink between classes;

and * what she wanted: she wanted some juice and produced the utterance that she intuitively knew would be likely to have the desired effect.

Of course, the child might not have completely understood the whole complex scheme of interpersonal relationships in the strange environment she found herself in, but the impressions she gained were enough for her to be able to decide which of the many expressions she had mastered would be the most appropriate one for the situation.

The child used the expression, 'watashi orange juice daisuki' to perform the function of requesting someone to do something. In order to communicate with the addressee, the child had to use an appropriate expression, she had to understand intuitively the setting or place (her father's office), her role (she was talking to her father's colleague), and the topic (drink - orange juice). These
three aspects make up the total situation. The expression could not be put together without a knowledge of the language system (grammar, signification, lexis, phonology). For the child's expression to be uttered, the knowledge needed included how to form a statement using the adjective-verb suki 'like' which denotes the notion 'desirability'. If she had chosen the expression, 'juice choodai', she would instead have needed to know how to form a request expression using the noun choodai which performs the same grammatical function as an imperative form.

The child's utterance was more than grammatical form: she was actively manipulating the environment through that utterance. She drew from her knowledge of language and of the world the utterance that would be most appropriate in the environment in which she found herself.

For the child in the above example, Japanese was a native language. But what about students who are learning Japanese as a foreign language? For a small child, learning a language is like doing a jigsaw puzzle, or a crossword - almost any point can be taken as a point of departure, and the child's knowledge of the language progresses on many fronts as the total picture gradually comes into view. A student of a foreign language has neither the time nor the inclination to learn in this way, and other factors, such as the fact that one learns with a teacher, dictate a different approach: the student is constantly consulting a map that has a very definite distinction between explored and unexplored realms. It is difficult for the beginner to fill in those unexplored
areas based on the limited knowledge of the terrain she already has, and she must rely on her teacher to provide her progressively with the information that is most useful to her. The teacher must therefore be vitally interested in where the student wants to go. What will the student need to say in order to accomplish effective manipulation of her environment and to express her emotions and her thoughts? Clearly the teacher must look very carefully at the means that are available to help the student along the way: the language system can be explained through grammar, the meaning of words can be taught, and the student can be introduced to ways of saying things that are appropriate to various kinds of situations.

0.6 Description of Each Chapter

This study is centered around a specific pre-defined course for teaching Japanese to foreigners. The first part of Chapter One describes the parameters of the course, including the type of student it is intended for, its aims and objectives, and its setting.

Inventories of situations (broken up into the components of setting, roles and topic) were prepared, as well as inventories of language use (expressions and their functions) and of the semantico-grammatical category (notions and their exponents). A general description of the content of these inventories is given in the latter half of Chapter One. The inventories themselves are not
presented in full because of their extreme length, but were used as a basis for this study.

In Chapter Two certain issues raised in the process of the preparation of the inventories are described. Along with these issues, communicative language teaching materials and methodologies, which are relevant to the aims of the present study, are discussed.

The Appendices include some detailed examples of the inventories.
CHAPTER ONE

PRELIMINARIES FOR SYLLABUS DESIGN

1.0 Introduction

In order to give a sense of immediacy and practicality to the ideas presented, this study is centered around a specific course for teaching Japanese as a foreign language. This is the writer's specific field of interest. The first half of this chapter describes the parameters of the course, including the type of learners it is intended for, its aims and objectives and its setting. The second half of the chapter describes the inventories - inventories of situations (broken up into the components of setting, roles and topic), expressions, functions and notions. These inventories were prepared to be used as the basis of the present study, and though they are too long to include in full, examples appear throughout the text and also in the Appendices. They were organized following the model of van Ek and Alexander with some modifications. The modifications will be explained directly before the description of the inventories below.
1.1 The Course and Its Setting

1.1.1 The Learners

The learners in the course all live in Japan, and have a good deal of exposure to the surrounding society. Most of them are English-speaking adults or those who have a reasonable grasp of English. They are of either sex, and their ages range from about 20 upwards. They are high school or university graduates, and pursue varied occupations - English teachers, research workers, housewives, university students, and so on.

1.1.2 Broad Aims of the Course

By the end of the course, the learners should be able to communicate at a simple level in Japanese society. They should be able to feel comfortable using Japanese in everyday, non-technical situations. Their language skills should be multidimensional rather than unidimensional. They should become more familiar over the duration of the course with the language to which they are exposed outside the classroom.

1.1.3 Specific Objectives of the Course

By the end of the course the learners should have a strong foundation in the two areas of language system and language use. That is, the skills they have acquired
in these areas should form a solid basis on which to build. Because Japanese speakers pay a good deal of attention to the social relationships between individuals, 'appropriate use' in Japanese includes the skill of being able to adjust the politeness level of speech according to the relative status of the addressee, the particular topic of the conversation, and the setting in which the conversation is taking place. And because the levels of politeness are relevant to both the form of the grammatical endings used and the actual lexical items chosen, it is impossible to learn correct use without a good knowledge of the language system. The two examples below will illustrate this point: there is a variety of ways of saying "you" in Japanese, and there are several different verb endings, and in fact different words, for the verb "to go". The variety in both cases is brought about by the need to distinguish social relationships.

At the elementary level, for example, the student would have to learn when to use anata for 'you', when to use the title of the addressee, e.g., sensei (teacher), and also, when to use 'surname + title', 'surname + san' (Mr/Miss etc.) or when to use nothing at all. Consider:

(1) anata wa iki-masu ka
you TOP go-POL Q
"Will you go?"

(2) sensei wa iki-masu ka
teacher TOP go-POL Q
or sensei wa irasshai-masu ka
teacher TOP go-(honorific)-POL Q
"Will you go?" (to a teacher)
Although (1) could be thought of as a direct translation of the English question, its use is somewhat limited. Most teachers would feel somewhat offended if their students used anata 'you' to address them. In this kind of relationship the title sensei is the correct form of address. Yet the simple term anata would be natural in many situations where two people are roughly equal on the social scale, or the addressee is inferior, and it is often used in more impersonal situations, such as at the immigration office or police station.

(3) iku ka
go (plain) Q

(4) iki-masu ka
go (polite) Q

(5) irasshai-masu ka
go (honorific + polite) Q

(6) mairi-masu
go (humble + polite)

The difficulty in using these forms of the verb "to go" for elementary students of Japanese lies not so much in remembering the various forms but in knowing when and where to use which one: (3) would generally only be used between male equals; (4) is the standard form; (5) must be used to one's teacher or others to whom one wishes to show deference; (6) is used to reinforce the speaker's lower status. While a non-native speaker would probably be forgiven for using the wrong level of speech, a native speaker would not. (It is interesting to note that one
speaker can show his contempt for another by using speech just slightly more honorific or polite than the situation calls for. Thus genuine mistakes by non-native speakers could easily be misinterpreted.)

Returning then to the specific objectives - at the end of the course learners should be able to distinguish between the basic levels of speech and use them appropriately. In addition:

1. They should know how to read and write the hiragana syllabic alphabet. They should be able to recognize some Sino-Japanese characters so that they can understand the information they are likely to encounter in situations such as those mentioned below, and they should be able to take notes in Japanese on simple material provided in class. They should also be able to recognize and reproduce katakana (the syllabic alphabet which parallels hiragana, but is used for loanwords and often for advertisements, etc.)

2. They should be able to understand speech at a standard speed in the case of simple functions such as 'asking for a favour', 'giving directions', etc. Some help may be needed with complications that arise. They should also be able to understand certain items which I will call "short routines" (e.g. 'sumimasen' "Excuse me", 'wakarimasen' "I don't understand" / "I don't know", etc.). (Please see Chapter Two Section 4.)
They should have sufficient command of the vocabulary and structure to be able to express themselves in the kind of situations which foreigners living in Japan are likely to encounter frequently. (See Chapter One, Section 2.1), albeit with some circumlocution; and they should be able to produce certain "short routines". (Please see Chapter Two.)

They should have control of grammar sufficiently advanced to be able to manipulate a set of basic constructions with accuracy, so that grammatical errors seldom interfere with communication.

They should be able to aurally discriminate standard Japanese sounds: they are not required to pronounce these with native accuracy, but they should be able to reproduce all standard sounds unambiguously.

1.1.4 Study Setting of the Course

The practical constraints of the course for which the inventories were prepared are as follows:

- course duration: one year
- total contact time: about 180 hours
- contact period and frequency: 2 hours per day, 2 days per week
1.2 A Description of the Inventories Used for the Study

In their model van Ek and Alexander estimate what language functions learners will most likely have to be able to fulfil and what notions they will probably have to be able to handle on the basis of the following six items:

- a general characterization of the type of language contacts which, as members of a certain target group they will engage in;
- the language activities they will engage in;
- the settings in which they will use the foreign language;
- the roles (social and psychological) they will play;
- the topics they will deal with;
- what they will be expected to do with regard to each topic. (van Ek and Alexander 1977, p.4)

I would like to begin by mentioning certain modifications I made to the model of van Ek and Alexander. Like van Ek and Alexander I also take the behavioural objectives of the learners, that is their language functions, into consideration from the beginning. However, while van Ek and Alexander's model is designed to cater for a very wide range of learners (e.g. learners from diverse educational and linguistic backgrounds) the type of course which I am dealing with is far more specific in this respect, as described above. For this reason it is possible to attempt to define the behavioural objectives of learners far more clearly and precisely in this kind of course.
By undertaking a survey of 20 non-native speakers who were living in Japan and had studied Japanese for one year or more, information was collected on the following items:

1) The 10 most useful functions for a foreigner living in Japan (e.g. greeting, inviting, etc.)

2) The 10 most common situations for a foreigner living in Japan (e.g. setting: at a station, roles: station attendant/passenger, topic: train schedule).

Twenty different functions were gathered and the following are the top ten functions in order of frequency:

1. Introducing oneself

2. Asking for and giving personal information (e.g. name, origin, work, etc.)

3. Asking for directions (e.g. how to get to the station)

4. Buying things and associated questions (asking about cost, size, etc.)

5. Asking someone for help or a favour

6. Expressing pleasure or liking
7. Expressing want or desire

8. Getting information: cost, distance, time, means, etc.

9. Ordering at a restaurant

10. Expressing displeasure or dislike

Eighteen different situations were listed and the following are the top 10 situations, again in order of frequency (first the setting is given, then the roles and finally the topic):

1. store; customer/clerk; transaction

2. restaurant; customer/waiter; ordering food

3. train station or bus stop; passenger/attendant, bus driver or another passenger; schedule

4. party or social gathering; stranger/stranger; giving personal information

5. taxi; passenger/driver; giving directions

6. telephone conversation; friend/friend or friend’s family; appointment
7. hospital or clinic; patient/doctor, nurse or receptionist, or doctor/nurse; illness, appointment or examination

8. government office (police station, immigration office); foreigner/officer; alien registration

9. rented apartment; tenant/landlord; rent or contract

10. bank, customer/bank teller; banking

The next step in the procedure was to broaden the scope of these lists by the process of "cross analysis". Taking the function 'giving personal information' as an example, several situations where learners would be likely to perform this function were listed; first to determine possible settings (such as a party or social gathering, restaurant, telephone, hospital or clinic, government office and bank) and then to ascertain possible roles for each of those settings (such as acquaintance/acquaintance, guest/host, foreigner/government officer, customer/bank teller, etc.). In each case it is necessary to consider whether the relationships involved are likely to be formal or informal, how much information the learner is likely to be required to produce and understand, etc. This kind of cross-analysis helped to expand and diversify the content of the situation inventory.
In order to collect expressions appropriate for the various functions in different situations, recordings were made of 'unrehearsed' conversations between native speakers of Japanese (examples given in Appendix 1). The speakers were given the details of a certain situation (setting, roles and topic), but not given any written script. They were asked to make up impromptu dialogues, which were recorded. Two or three such unrehearsed dialogues were recorded for each situation. After the recorded tapes were transcribed, other possible expressions for each situation were collected, by showing the written dialogues to other native speakers and adding their suggestions. When possible, a conversation from a real situation, similar to one of the unrehearsed dialogues, was collected and the two were compared (examples given in Appendix 1).

Another modification to the basic model of van Ek and Alexander is that, in listing roles, I did not divide them into the social and psychological categories used in the original model. Both types are included in the inventory prepared for this study and a separate list of each would need to be made by anyone preparing a similar type of inventory for actual use in syllabus design.

Usually, a curriculum or syllabus is prepared before the course for which it is intended gets under way. This is useful, provided it can then be modified during the course as the particular needs of learners become more apparent. One common error, however, is to consider the learners' wishes as paramount, and to construct the course
accordingly. The learner may fail to perceive that what she would like to be able to do in the target language is often vastly different from what she can actually hope to achieve, given the constraints of the course parameters.

The teacher-learner relationship can be likened to that between a doctor and her patient. The patient may come to the doctor with a preconceived idea of what kind of illness is afflicting her. She may volunteer "I think I've got a problem with my liver." A wise doctor would not immediately order the appropriate tests for liver diseases, but would question the patient more closely in order to determine the symptoms. A final diagnosis is arrived at after a process that involves the patient's perceptions and input as well as the doctor's technical skill and experience. By the same token, a doctor might try to rely on her technical skill alone, subjecting the patient to all kinds of objective tests in a predetermined order, and not interviewing the patient at all. At best, this method would be rather inefficient. The correct balance must be maintained, with the teachers (and doctors) using their professional skills, but allowing themselves to be guided by the needs and responses of the learners (and patients).

To establish exactly what learners perceive as being important functions, both receptive and productive, the writer undertook the survey described above. The writer has gained further background information on this subject by helping foreigners adjust to Japanese society,
and through having taught English in Japan for fifteen years and Japanese to non-native speakers for five. Her own experience living abroad as a student has also contributed valuable insights into the communicative needs of foreigners.

It was also found to be extremely worthwhile to have students keep notes of those situations in which they needed to use Japanese outside of class hours (please see Appendix 2). This provided valuable data which could form a basis for the preparation of activities and materials which would meet the actual needs of students, and help them achieve communicative competence in the areas which were most important to them.

It is important to note that comprehension as well as production skills are a central part of the communicative needs of language learners. When compiling an expression inventory it is extremely important to keep this in mind. Comprehension skills in situations where an oral productive response is required must be treated differently from those where no response is necessary or where only a physical response is called for. The latter kind of communication, which could be called 'one-way communication', is exemplified in such things as station announcements, radio commentaries, and recorded information services, requiring aural receptive skills, and in notices, traffic signs, and posters, requiring reading comprehension. However, of course, learners are often required to respond in some way, either orally or in writing, to the input they receive. There is naturally
considerable variation in the amount of response required and the extent of productive competence that is necessary. While frequent responses would be required in an interview situation (such as at the immigration office when the learner is requesting an extension of a visa), only a few replies would probably be sought by a hairdresser at a beauty parlour (please see Appendix 1).

1.2.1 Situations

The situations in which learners use Japanese are broken up into three areas: settings, such as at a railway station, at a social gathering, at a clinic; roles, such as customer/ticket seller, guest at a party/host, patient/doctor; and topics, such as train departures, the weather, or a pain in the side. There is of course a large diversity of role pairs, and the language that the speakers will use when interacting will also vary depending on the setting, as well as on the topic of the conversation. The relationship between teacher and student is quite different in the classroom, when they are discussing language functions, and at a party, when they are talking about a newly opened restaurant.

The situation inventory, then, was prepared on the basis of the information described above, according to these three categories (setting, roles and topic). In the process of cross-analysis between the three categories, the situation inventory becomes clearer and more useful for practical purposes.
1.2.2 Expressions

Using the situation inventory, refined through cross-analysis among the three categories (setting, roles and topic), a list of expressions was compiled that is intended to be suitable for students at the elementary level. The expression inventory consists of both monologues and dialogues. The language style (formal or informal, conversational or telegraphic, etc.) will depend on the situation in which it is uttered or reproduced. Therefore, in order to record accurately expressions using language natural to the situation under discussion, special methods of collecting data had to be employed as described above.

In some situations, where the settings and roles are the same but the topic areas are different, the language that learners are exposed to will naturally vary in its level of difficulty. For example, at a clinic or a hospital, a learner might not be able to handle situations in which a doctor is addressing her as the patient, and explaining the examination procedure or the details of her illness. However, the same learner would not have much trouble comprehending and physically responding to requests such as 'shita o dashi-te kudasai' ("Stick out your tongue, please.") or 'hantai ni nat-te kudasai' ("Turn over, please.") (Please see Appendix 1.)

1. A "dialogue" means a conversation between two people. However, when only a part of a dialogue is recorded, sometimes the utterances of only one interlocutor appear.
Care should always be taken to gather examples of natural language, that is language that is natural to the situation under consideration. The most important reason for gathering examples of this kind is that these are the kind of utterances which learners will actually meet in their target language society. The motivation of learners, especially those who live in Japan, to understand Japanese speakers better and to communicate with them well should never be neglected. Therefore the use of natural language material as a resource for the inventories is undoubtedly important, although exactly how to utilize this resource in teaching materials must be carefully considered. The importance of gathering natural examples will be discussed, with reference to some concrete issues, in Chapter Two.

The expression inventory produced with these points in mind should constitute a useful source material for the expansion of the present study into the development of a full syllabus for the communicative teaching of Japanese. It should also be useful in the evaluation of what materials are relevant and what methodologies should be employed in the teaching of such a syllabus.

1.2.3 Functions

The expressions compiled in the expression inventory are categorized according to their function or functions with a view to establishing a final inventory of
functions. Let us examine some expressions and their functions:

Situation I: A secretary is telling an American teacher how to use a public phone in an office at a language school.

1. Secretary:
   juwaki o tot-te, 10-en dama
   receiver ACC pick-up-PTCPL 10 yen coin
   o ire-te kudasai
   ACC put in
   "Pick up the receiver, put in a ten yen coin, and dial the number."

American teacher:
   juwaki o tot-te, 10-en dama
   receiver ACC pick-up-PTCPL 10 yen coin
   o ire-te kudasai
   ACC put in
   "Pick up the receiver, put in a ten yen coin, and dial the number."

The dialogue above was an actual conversation which took place between the secretary of a language school and a newly arrived American teacher in Japan. The teacher was not just repeating what the secretary said as a kind of language drill, in spite of the fact that his expression was exactly the same as the secretary's; he was apparently confirming the information in his own mind. So, for the teacher, the function of the expression was 'confirming one's understanding of instructions', while for the secretary the function was 'giving someone instructions'. Exchanges of this kind demonstrate the fact that it is not always the case that we can guess the intent of an utterance simply from the form of the language employed:
exactly the same sequence of words is repeated, but with two very different functions.

It is also interesting to note that, given certain situations and functions, it is possible to find examples of repetitive use of language that form meaningful parts of conversations, as in the example above, so occasionally a class could be treated to a repetition practice session that is not purely mechanical.

Let us look at some more examples of the relation between expressions and functions.

Situation II: A host is offering a guest some more food at a party.

(2) Host: moo sukoshi ikaga desu ka
more little how about COP Q

"Would you like some more?"

Guest: onaka ga ippai desu2
stomach NOM full COP

"I'm full."

In the above conversation, the guest's expression would be labelled by the function 'declining someone's offer'. However, compare this with the following similar conversation:

2. This is a rather brief, informal response, and in a formal situation it would not occur.
Situation III: the same as Situation II.

(3) Host: moo sukoshi ikaga desu ka
more little how about COP Q
"Would you like some more?"

Guest: onaka ga ippai desu ga,
stomach NOM full COP but
moo sukoshi itadaki-masu
more little receive(humble)-POL
"I am already full, but I'd love some more."

In this case the guest's 'onaka ga ippai desu' is 'describing her physical state'; it also serves as a compliment, as she goes on to accept the host's offer, even though she is full.

Situation IV: A daughter is talking to her mother at home.

(4) Daughter: onaka ippai
stomach full
"I'm full."

Mother: a soo
oh so
"Oh, really."

Here, as the daughter had no intention of requesting anything of her mother, but was merely stating a fact, her expression would be labelled by the function 'describing someone's physical state'.

The function that the expression 'onaka ga ippai desu' ("I'm full") performs varies in (2) and (3), although the situation (setting, roles and topic) in both
is exactly the same. The only difference observed is that in (2) no further expression follows 'onaka ga ippai desu' ("I'm full"), whereas in (3) the expression '...ga moo sukoshi itadaki-masu' ("...but I'd love some more") is added.

The functions performed by the expressions 'onaka ga ippai desu' ("I'm full") in (2) and 'onaka ippai' ("I'm full") in (4) are different, because the situations are different, not because the forms of the expressions themselves are different. Actually we can consider these two expressions to be basically the same, although in (4) ga (NOM) and desu (COP) are not included because of the very informal situation.

By presenting materials involving various situations in class, students can learn that, for example, the expression "onaka ga ippai desu" ("I'm full") can perform functions other than describing someone's physical state.

There are many instances in which the same kinds of expressions are used for performing the same kinds of functions in different languages. This means that students can, to a certain extent, utilize their knowledge of their mother tongue when learning a foreign language. (This issue will be discussed in Chapter Two.) Naturally, in some instances, expressions will not correspond to functions in exactly the same way in the native and target languages of the learner. However, it is important for her to be aware of differences as well as similarities, an
awareness which will eventually help her learn appropriate use.

Situations, as well as notions, are certainly essential elements in foreign language teaching. However, the examples above illustrate Wilkins' comments concerning the limitations of grammatical and situational syllabuses for communicative language teaching (please see Introduction). They thus show why the kind of syllabus that the present study aims towards will be organized primarily according to functions.

The importance of defining those functions which language learners consider the most important, and those situations where learners will be most likely to need to use their language skills, was discussed earlier; from this original list of functions and situations an unordered list of expressions is collected, using the 'unrehearsed' and authentic dialogues of native speakers of the target language. This method of producing an inventory of expressions guards against the possibility that the requirements of a predetermined function list could inhibit the selection of expressions, resulting in a list that is inadequate because of a certain narrowness of scope.

Having produced a broad, representative expression list, one can then go through it and label each expression with the function or functions it is performing in the situation in which it is used. From this, the final function inventory can be prepared (examples given in Appendix 3). The criterion that will be of most value
here is the order of frequency of occurrence of the functions. Those functions that often occur naturally in a language will most likely be those that the learner will have the need to use and understand frequently. It will be very satisfying for an elementary student to discover that she has some command of a few commonly used functions after only a little language exposure. Another criterion that can be used is the special interests and needs of each individual student. It is difficult to be more specific about this - each course compiler would have to make her own judgement on this point.

It is best, when labelling expressions with functions, to keep each function category as broad as possible at the early stages. This allows greater flexibility and a wider range of choice in the next task, which is to decide exactly which expressions to teach for a given function. Having a broad function category guarantees that a long list of expressions will be included under it. From each list of expressions produced in this way it should be possible to determine which expressions are most commonly used for which function, and also how many different kinds of expression are used in total. This enables the teacher to decide which expressions are most likely to be useful to the learner, for either productive or receptive use. Firstly, it enables the course compiler to introduce the expressions in a structurally well ordered way: the most basic structures should come first to act as building blocks for use in more complicated expressions. Secondly, because
this ordering requirement will narrow down the immediately available range of expressions for both productive and receptive use, a large initial choice should still result in some choice remaining to the compiler when she must decide which functions each lesson will address. This second point will depend on the specific behavioural objectives of each student group.

1.2.4 Notions

The inventory of notions is concerned with grammar and semantics (see Introduction re: Wilkins' semantico-grammatical category). The expressions compiled in the expression inventory are also categorized under the various headings of the notion categories, such as existence, location, point of time, etc. The forms listed under each notion category are called the exponents of that notion (words, phrases, patterns and structures). After expressions in the expression inventory compiled for this study were categorized under each notion heading, they were checked and refined by comparing them with the kinds of notions that appear in Alfonso (1968, 1976, 1978, 1980 and 1982) and Jorden (1963). The exponents were further refined using other textbooks and reference books, especially Morita (1977).

In the present study, a notion inventory was prepared (examples given in Appendix 3) which was intended to cover exponents up to the lower intermediate level, in order to see how the exponents relevant to the elementary
level are related to future learning material and also to examine which exponents need to be introduced, at what stage they should be introduced, and whether as production or comprehension materials. The interrelationship of each exponent with other similar ones can also be seen more clearly in this way. The issue will be discussed and illustrated in Chapter Two.

The distribution of each notion exponent was studied to determine its relationship with functions and situations. Here, the question of what exponents appear more frequently with what functions and in what situations was the main area of concern.

As already mentioned in the Introduction in reference to Alfonso (1983), in structurally-oriented classes the correct sequencing of the teaching of language system and language use is often a major issue. However, in communicative language teaching, language function is first specified; the learner needs to perform functions and therefore she needs to be able to manipulate the various notion exponents relevant to the performance of these functions. Her ultimate goal is not to acquire the language system (some kind of mental "list" of notions and their exponents), but to put that system to use (Alexander: van Ek 1976, p.163). If the learner is to perform functions, for example inquiring about availability, she has to utilize certain notions; in this case the notions of size, type, and color are likely to be relevant. She may have to make inquiries such as 'L size ari-masu ka' ("Do you have a large size?"), 'kono L size ari-masu ka'
"Do you have a large size of this kind?" or 'kono iro no L size ari-masu ka' ("Do you have a large size of this color?"). She does not study 'tsukue no ue ni hon ga ari-masu' ("There is a book on the desk.") in order to perform the function of inquiring about availability, but if she needs to perform, for example, the function of describing the location of something such as a book, she will naturally have to study the notion of location, and some of its various exponents, such as this one. Notions, as such, do not mean very much to the learner. They are, in fact, of little relevance to the learner except in terms of the way that they are connected with actual language functions. Notions and functions, in other words language system and language use, should not be taught in a sequential manner, but they should be treated as one integrated issue. This issue will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.
In Chapter One I described how the inventories used as a basis for this study were prepared. In this chapter I will discuss some materials and methodologies for communicative language teaching, relevant to the issues that were raised in the preparation of the inventories described in Chapter One. These issues are:

1. the various types of responses to which learners are exposed,
2. the form V-te kudasai and the two related forms V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai, and their functions,
3. the verbs aru and iru, and their notions and functions, and
4. "short routines".

The discussion aims to illustrate Wilkins' system of two categories, the function and semantico-grammatical (notion) categories.

In the Introduction I described what the term communicative language teaching implies, referring to Johnson's (1982) statement that language use should be considered when teaching foreigners, as well as language system. Widdowson (1978) draws a clear distinction between language 'use' and language 'usage' (language system) and he also emphasizes that language use should be of prime importance in communicative language teaching. Wilkins, in his notional syllabus, and van Ek and Alexander, in their model, also regard language use ("what
the learner will have to be able to do in the foreign language") as their primary consideration. The examination of the usefulness of Wilkins' two categories, therefore, focuses on how these categories can be used to integrate language use with language system in communicative language teaching materials and methodologies.

Along with the issues mentioned above, the use of listening comprehension and production materials on the basis of the analytic approach will be discussed (see Introduction re: Wilkins' analytic approaches). The analytic approach constitutes the background to Wilkins' notional syllabus for communicative language teaching.

2.1 Various Types of Responses

Often, foreigners who have studied Japanese with the aid of phrase books are frustrated soon after arriving in the country. They may initially feel quite confident, asking a question either directly from the phrase book or from memory, but they may be quite bewildered by the answers they receive. According to the phrase book, the answer should not be so long and involved. To the question: 'taxi noriba wa doko desu ka' ("Where is the taxi rank?"), the speaker may have been told to expect an answer like "It's over there". If, instead, he is told "Go down those stairs and turn left at the baggage collection area, then through the yellow doors", he will be completely lost, and may even begin to wonder about the correctness of his question or his pronunciation.
The writer has found that many of her new language students in Japan have had similar experiences, and these students want to know why the expressions they learned from phrase books did not work. The problem stems not from what they said but from what they heard. In fact, one of the main problems learners face, apart from their lack of experience in the language, must be that of anticipation -- they understand only the responses they have been led to expect, but these are frequently not the responses that are actually forthcoming.

2.1.1 Responses in the Form of Questions

Some expressions which appear in the inventory of those compiled for the present study are relevant to this problem. Let us examine some dialogues from the expression inventory:

Situation I: An intending passenger is asking an attendant about a train schedule at a station.

(1) Passenger:

tsugi no Ishinomaki-yuki wa nanji desu ka
next GEN bound TOP what time COP Q

"What time is the next train to Ishinomaki?"

Station Attendant:

a) 9-ji 45-fun desu
9 45 COP

"9.45."

or b) kyuukoo desu ka, futsuu desu ka
express COP Q regular COP Q

"Express or regular?"
Here, the student may have no difficulty understanding response a). However, if the situation warranted it, b) would be a likely response, and the student would not immediately be given a direct answer to his question.

Situation II: Someone is asking a stranger about a bus route number near a bus interchange.

(2) Person A:

Nagamachi-yuki no bus wa nanban desu ka bound GEN TOP what number COP Q

"What number is the bus that goes to Nagamachi?"

Person B:

a) 2-ban desu No.2 COP

"Number two."

or b) nani-mawari no bus desu ka by way of where GEN COP Q

"Via which route?"

Answer a) is perfectly predictable and would therefore be easy to understand. Answer b), on the other hand, while being quite an acceptable response in a given situation, may cause difficulty for learners of Japanese.

Situation III: Someone is asking a passer-by for street directions to the City Hall.
(3) Questioner:

shiyakusho wa doko desu ka
City Hall TOP where COP Q

"Where is the City Hall?"

Passer-by:

arui-te iku no
walk-PTCPL go NOMINALIZER

"Are you going to walk?"

A direct answer, such as "It's over there", or "It's that white building across the road" would be expected if the City Hall is nearby, and this type of answer would be rather easy to understand. However, if the questioner is still half an hour's walk from the City Hall, the answer given above would definitely be a possibility.

While the speaker in the three examples above may feel entitled to expect an immediate, direct answer to his question, which has the function 'asking for information', such an answer will not always be forthcoming. Rather, the speaker may be confronted by another question. Although structurally this question may be quite straightforward, because it does not fulfil the anticipated function of providing information it could easily confuse or disorient the language learner. It is the anticipation of a certain limited kind of answer that is the source of the confusion. Questions such as (1), (2) and (3) above tend to be presented along with immediate answers to those questions in many language classes, raising students' expectations of a certain response type.
However, the type of discourse in which immediate answers do not occur can be commonly observed in the real world. If the addressee does not understand the question, if he wants to confirm his understanding of the question, or if he needs further explanatory information about its content, he will respond to the original question with another question.

If we are solely interested in the language system we may tend to provide learners with only those dialogues where questions are followed by immediate answers, rather than by responses like those exemplified above. The kind of dialogue which often appears in language textbooks - the so-called 'grammar-demonstration dialogue' - aims to repeat the material to be learnt as frequently as possible, and completely ignores authentic response patterns. A typical dialogue of this sort might be:

Q: "Is this a pen?"
A: "Yes, it is. It's a pen."

Even while a person is speaking, he is forming an expectation of the kind of response he will get. Elementary students of a foreign language often have to construct a sentence in their mind before they can utter it, and the kind of sentence they construct will often be consciously linked to an anticipated response type. Anticipation is naturally limited by the lack of language experience. If in class the language is presented in dialogues of a highly stylized form, questions followed by immediate answers (often answers which involve considerable
repetition of words used in the question), and if these are the only samples of language to which students are exposed, then it is only natural that students' anticipation will remain rather narrow.

The examples given above from the expression inventory, and the functions they represent, suggest that learning to understand no more than the answer which performs the function 'giving information', to the question which performs the function 'asking for information', is simply not adequate. The inventories suggest that a learner also needs to learn to comprehend responses which perform the functions 'asking for further explanatory information about the question' and 'confirming the question' (Examples (1)b, (2)b and (3)). While it would not be possible to teach all the different types of response that may be given to a question with a given function, it should be possible to choose carefully a variety of responses that could occur in natural conversations, and that would not really be difficult for the learner to understand.

For teachers who use textbooks which are primarily organized around 'grammar-demonstration' type dialogues, it may be quite possible to prepare and use listening comprehension materials which provide examples of the more natural dialogues I have been discussing, in order to supplement the textbook materials. The teachers would need to analyze natural response patterns to which their students are likely to be exposed in the target language society, according to functions such as 'asking for
explanatory information about the question', 'confirming the question' etc., while further examining whether the notions which occur in those questions are appropriate to introduce as comprehension material at that particular stage of the course.

2.1.2 Responses that are Structurally Incomplete

The expression inventory prepared also suggests that we should provide dialogues involving yet other types of possible responses to questions.

Situation IV: Someone is asking a clerk about the time taken for mail to arrive at its destination.

(4) Customer:

nannichi de tsuki-masu ka
how many days for arrive-POL Q

"How long will it take to get there?"

Clerk:

doo-nichi ga hairi-masu kara ne
Saturday-Sunday NOM intrude-POL because PART

"Well, because of the weekend, you know ...."

Here, before the answer actually sought is given, the addressee gives a reason for the forthcoming response. The student might have expected an immediate answer such as, 'yaku 1-shuukan desu' ("It takes about a week").
Situation V: A customer is asking a clerk at a post office if he has any commemorative stamps.

(5) Customer:

kinen-kitte ari-masu ka
commemorative-stamps have-POL Q

"Do you have any commemorative stamps?"

Clerk:

raigetsu itsu-ka ni de-masu
next month 5th on come out-POL

"Some will be issued on the 5th of next month."

The expected response here would probably have been a simple 'yes' or 'no'.

From these examples of dialogues from the expression inventory we can see that 'grammar-demonstration dialogues' are not the ones to which learners are generally exposed in their target language society. In a natural communicative situation a speaker organizes his information according to the meaning he wants to convey, rather than following the 'textbook' grammatical sequence. There are, of course, some cases where the native speaker of the target language assesses the foreign speaker's language level and so may give somewhat more than the usual attention to the grammatical structure and sequence of his utterance. However, this degree of consideration should not be counted on, as it would be the exception rather than the rule.

In presenting authentic dialogues - the kind to which the learners are most likely to be exposed in the target language society - the use of learners' knowledge
of natural response patterns in their own language should be taken into consideration, where these are likely to be similar to those in the target language. The teacher should regard this knowledge as a potential in every learner which can be utilized in learning a foreign language. Another aid to learners in this area is to make sure that the situations presented are not outside the realm of their experience. "People know in a familiar situation what to expect" which eventually leads them to be able to comprehend better "a new situation" (Rost: 1983). In order to assist the learner in widening his expectations of a natural response, the teacher should initially provide him with material he is likely to find familiar.

The teacher should be strongly encouraged to provide authentic materials, getting away from material which is only structurally oriented. However, this does not mean that he should provide just any dialogues in class, simply on the grounds of authenticity. Before presenting any material, he should check to make sure that the dialogue is sequenced well enough for the learners to be able to follow it, with the help of their past experience and their knowledge of the natural response patterns which are likely to occur in their own language also. For example, in Dialogue (4), the teacher may also supply a fuller answer, which would help to clarify the structurally incomplete response given above:
Customer:
nannichi de tsuki-masu ka
how many days for arrive-POL Q
"How long will it take to get there?"

Clerk:
(futsuu wa futsuka gurai desu ga ...) usually TOP 2 days about COP but
("It usually takes about 2 days but ...")
doo-nichi ga hairi-masu kara ne Saturday-Sunday NOM intrude-POL because PART
"Well, because of the weekend, you know ..."
(yokka gurai kakaru to omoi-masu) 4 days about take that think-POL
("I think it'll take about 4 days.")

Responses which repeat, in part or whole, the content of the questions can also be provided if the learners do not seem to understand the briefer replies, or simply to reinforce certain grammatical sequences, provided it is always made clear that these may not be the responses which students will actually hear outside the class.

Rivers and Temperley (1978) also criticize 'grammar-demonstration dialogues' by saying that "Certain features of authentic modern speech have been completely ignored." They give a 'conversation-facilitation dialogue' which does "not follow a question-answer, question-answer sequence" and is written "in a meaningful context". These authors strongly suggest the use of such dialogue in language classes.
The following items, presented by Rivers and Temperley, are (I) a 'Grammar-Demonstration Dialogue' and (II) the same dialogue "rewritten, with sentences shortened and language and usage modernized".

(I)
1. Bill Will you go away this weekend?
2. Tom Yes, we shall go to Chicago.
3. Bill With whom will you go?
4. Tom John will accompany me. He has some friends there with whom we can stay.
5. Bill What will you do there? Have you made any plans?
6. Tom Yes, we have made some. We should like to visit a museum and some skyscrapers.
7. Bill Do you prefer big cities or small towns?
8. Tom I prefer big cities. I should like to live in one.
9. Bill Will you stay one night or two?
10. Tom I shall stay one night, but John may stay two nights. Would you like to come with us?
11. Bill I am sorry but I cannot, because I must prepare for an examination in mathematics.
12. Tom Perhaps you could study on the train. The trip lasts three hours.
13. Bill I had better not go. I might not have a good time. Anyway, I prefer small towns.

(II)
1. Bill Going away this weekend?
2. Tom Yes, we're going to Chicago.
3. Bill Who're you going with?
4. Tom John. He has some friends there we can stay with.
5. Bill What're you going to do? Made any plans?
6. Tom We want to see a museum and go up a couple of skyscrapers. Why don't you come along?/Why not come with us?
7. Bill I can't. I've got a math/maths exam on Monday.

(Rivers and Temperley: 1978, pp.25-8)
2.1.3 Responses Involving Conversations between Native Speakers

In the following example, also taken from the expression inventory prepared for this study, the learner was put into the situation where his addressee and another speaker talked about his question between themselves - greatly decreasing his chances of understanding clearly the response to his question.

Situation VI: A customer is asking a waiter about the bill he got at a restaurant.

(6) Customer:

\[
\text{service-ryoo tte nan desu ka service-charge so-called what COP Q}
\]

"What does this 'service charge' mean?"

Waiter to Head Waiter:

\[
\text{service-ryoo tte nan desu ka tte he's asking}
\]

"He wants to know what the 'service charge' is."

The addressee does not answer the question at all, but reports it to another person. Language learners often feel frustrated in this kind of situation. Firstly, they may not know if their question was understood by their addressee until an answer is given. Secondly, when speakers of the target language talk amongst themselves, they tend to speak faster, and a learner will naturally have difficulty understanding what they are saying, even though he may know they are talking about the question he
has just asked. Thirdly, the answer which is finally given is usually very short, even though there may have been some considerable discussion beforehand. If the learner has not comprehended what has been discussed, he may not be sure if he was given the right information or the complete story.

Until very recently most language teaching materials have been designed for the purpose of increasing learners' production skills, although when they are first introduced in class, they are actually often treated as listening comprehension materials. If the materials involve dialogues, the utterances of at least one speaker are designed for the learners to master them for production. However, if the learners are to learn to cope with situations such as that exemplified in (6), where speakers of the target language discuss his question amongst themselves, it will be necessary to provide them with listening materials which will help them to understand conversations between native speakers of the target language.

Comprehension usually precedes production. A small child in the process of learning a language as a native speaker can always comprehend far more than he can produce at any particular stage. It is true that some production occurs before comprehension is complete. In the small child, this is usually imitative, and is functional in so far as the child can then observe and evaluate the effect that this language use has on his environment.
Nevertheless communication cannot take place unless the learners understand the language. Zappolo (1981) notes that:

Studies of adults' use of the four communication skills (listening-speaking-reading-writing) show that approximately 45% of their time is spent in listening, as compared with 30% in speaking, 16% in reading, and 9% in writing.1

The fact that the time spent in listening is 1.5 times as much as that spent in speaking should not be ignored when considering how to equip the learner for communication in the target language society.

It is also important to keep in mind that learners, particularly those living in the target language society, are exposed to a range of expressions that is far greater than the range of their effective production. This is because a learner has control over what he produces, but cannot control what others say to him, or the kind of linguistic input he must interpret (Johnson: 1982). It is also very common that foreigners, especially beginners, have more chances to take a listener's rather than a speaker's role in their target language society, especially in situations such as social gatherings, etc.

All these facts lead to the obvious conclusion that, in order to facilitate any degree of communicative interaction, a broad base of comprehension skills must be acquired as soon as practicable. However, although

1 P.T. Rankin, "Listening Ability: its Importance, Measurement, and Development", Chicago Schools Journal, 12. pp.177-79. (Footnote Zappolo's)
listening comprehension is a skill that is often tested in formal language classes, it is seldom taught methodically (Curfs: 1982). Preparation of listening comprehension materials is an area that has not yet received sufficient consideration in most language courses. Often, the material that is used for testing listening comprehension is the same material that was devised for teaching spoken patterns, and is not usually suitable as comprehension material because of the inherent limitations in its scope.

If the textbooks used are focused almost exclusively on production materials, then it is suggested that extra materials be prepared, specifically designed to facilitate the development of listening comprehension skills, to be used throughout the course to meet the needs discussed above.

2.1.4 Responses Involving Different Language Signals

Let us now look at examples of several utterances, all of which would be appropriate in a given situation. The exact illocutionary force of each utterance differs slightly.

---

2 Mizutani and Mizutani: (1977) (An Introduction to Modern Japanese) provide aural comprehension materials as well as reading comprehension materials. Instances of textbooks like this are few and far between.
Situation VII: An officer is confirming that someone's visa is a cultural visa at an immigration office.

(7) a) bunka visa desu ka
culture COP Q
"Do you have a cultural visa?"

b) bunka visa desu ne
culture COP PART
"You have a cultural visa, right?"

c) bunka visa na no desu ne
culture MODIF NOMINALIZER COP PART
"Yours is a cultural visa, isn't it?"

d) bunka visa deshoo
culture COP-suppose
"I suppose you have a cultural visa."

e) bunka visa deshoo, soo desu ne
culture COP-suppose so COP PART
"I suppose you have a cultural visa. That's right, isn't it?"

Situation VIII: Similar to VII, except that the officer is asserting that the visa is cultural.

(8) a) bunka visa desu kara ne
culture COP because PART
"Because you have a cultural visa, you know ..."

b) anata no wa bunka visa desu yo
you NOMINALIZER TOP culture COP PART
"Yours is a cultural visa, you see."

In (7) a)-e) and (8) a)-b) the use of different sentence final particles, different forms of the copula and so on suggest something about the way in which the speaker assesses the situation which he is dealing with. An understanding of variations of this type is vital to the
comprehension of the full illocutionary force of an utterance. However, a careful and detailed examination of numerous particles, forms of the copula and so forth may not seem very relevant or worthwhile to the learner, unless its presentation is carefully considered. This will be discussed in the following section.

2.1.5 Attentive Perception

For quite a number of learners who are living for a time in a foreign country, matters relating to their visa, such as its duration (three or six months) and the restrictions it imposes on them (for example, how much money they can legally earn), are naturally of great concern. This means that they are very much interested in the information given in the kind of situation described above in Section 2.1.4. Therefore, one can assume that they would be highly motivated to learn to recognize and comprehend the various linguistic signals likely to be uttered in that situation.

'Attentive perception' plays an important role in learning a language. Successful learning is most likely to take place if the learner finds the material presented relevant to his real needs (Newmark: 1981). It would be quite possible to prepare such materials, which learners are naturally attentive to, if the learner's behavioural objectives (that is, what he wants to do with his language skills) are carefully examined and specified. To specify the learners' behavioural objectives is of prime importance in Wilkins' notional syllabus.
2.1.6 Conclusion

So far, the kind of materials appropriate to communicative language teaching have been discussed, using some examples from the inventories prepared for the present study. The following suggestions are drawn from the observations made above:

(1) Questions are not always followed by immediate or direct answers, but quite often by further questions. If learners are exposed to examples of such responses in comprehension materials, it may help them to improve their comprehension skills. (Examples (1)-(3))

(2) Authentic dialogues are not always strictly grammatically sequenced. It may be possible to present authentic dialogues as comprehension material, the learner being aided in his understanding by the familiarity of the context provided, and by expectations of natural response patterns based on those in his native language. (Examples (4) and (5))

(3) Comprehension materials involving language considerably more advanced than what has been mastered for production, such as conversations between native speakers, should be prepared and provided in class. (Example (6))
Language forms should be taught in contexts which are likely to lead to the learners' 'attentive perception'. Situation and function inventories can be helpful for preparing this kind of material.

(Examples (7) and (8))

2.1.7 Some Related Lessons

I. A Lesson Using Authentic Materials
(cf. Examples (1)-(3) above)

This lesson is designed to teach listening comprehension and to help students to realize and assess the kinds of problems they are likely to face as a result of narrow anticipation. The teacher prepares a conversation tape, a written exercise and an answer sheet. The teacher turns on the tape and encourages the students to listen with him:

(1) A: sumimasen, shiyakusho e iki-tai excuse me City Hall ALLAT go-want
    n desu ga ...
NOMINALIZER COP but
    "Excuse me. I'd like to go to the City Hall but ..."
B: arui-te iku n desu ka walk-PTCPL go NOMINALIZER COP Q
    "Are you going to walk?"

3 All sample lessons in this thesis were designed by the author, based principally on her teaching experience at the New Day School in Sendai, Japan.
A: koko kara daibu kakari-masu ka
here from a lot take-POL Q
"Is it very far from here?"

B: 20-pun wa kakaru to omoi-masu
minute TOP take that think-POL
"I think it would take at least 20 minutes."

Mitsukoshi wa go-zonji desu ka
TOP HON-know COP Q
"Do you know where Mitsukoshi is?"

A: ee
Yes
"Yes."

B: jya, Mitsukoshi no chikaku desu kara
then GEN near COP because
sono hen de moo ichido kii-te kudasai
that area LOC more once ask
"O.K., the City Hall is near Mitsukoshi, so
please ask again around there."

At the end of the tape, the teacher may ask in the target
language: "Did you listen to the tape? Would you like to
hear it again?" Again the students listen, without
feeling under any pressure. After the second listening,
the teacher may comment informally about the content,
using the target language. He might say, for example
"Hmm, it seems that someone has to go to the City Hall. I
wonder why?"

The teacher then produces a large sheet of paper
and asks all of the students to write down any one thing
they have heard on the tape. The students gather around
the table and write on the paper. If the teacher writes
anything, it should be about any part of the tape that he
expects the students to have difficulty with, or about something he plans to teach in the lesson. However, the main role of the teacher should be to give the students feedback on what they have written, and to help them to recognize those elements which they have not comprehended.

The activity described above gives students a chance to recognize what they already know and what they need to know, by letting them observe the responses of other participants, including the teacher. Because of its value in improving listening comprehension this kind of activity should be repeated a number of times throughout a certain period during the course. Students would make good use of it once they were accustomed to the procedures, and the teacher would benefit by being better able to perceive the students' needs, through an analysis of problems which arise in areas such as phonology, grammar and vocabulary, as well as those related to the students' interests. The teacher should give immediate feedback on problem areas at the end of each activity, and should make use of the information gained on students' problems in the preparation of the following lessons.

Another method which would help students improve their listening comprehension ability is more directly related to the issues presented above. After students participate in a simple question and answer sequence the teacher could then gradually introduce a variety of other possible responses to the same question (for example see Person Y's response below). A recorded tape can be used for this activity, or alternatively a written sheet or the teacher's voice.
(2) Person X:

taxi-noriba wa doko desu ka
taxi rank TOP where COP Q

"Where is the taxi rank?"

Person Y:

doko made irassharu no desu ka
where up to go-HON NOMINALIZER COP Q

"Where is it that you are going?"

The teacher plays only the first section of the tape, with the question on it, and students are asked to respond in place of the addressee. For example, they might answer:

(3) shoomengenkan no mae desu
front entrance GEN in front of COP

"It is in front of the main entrance."

Although the teacher would prepare Person Y's response in advance, the students should first be encouraged to recognize their own responses as valid. They would then be given the response the teacher has prepared, which would most likely be different from their own.

The purpose of this activity is not, of course, to test the students' responses. Since the response in (3) above is also an example of a frequent and natural response, and because it constitutes an immediate answer to the question, students should be exposed to this type of response first. They should then be presented with a variety of other possible responses, such as those involving questions, gradually and systematically. By having students first respond creatively to the question,
rather than simply providing them with various examples of appropriate responses, they will be given the chance to confirm what they have already learned and at the same time to see that their notion of likely responses may be somewhat narrower than those which can actually occur. If they are not actually shown how their conditioned anticipation may differ from what they may actually encounter, students may appreciate the fact that different responses are possible in theory, but may not be able to cope with these in interactive situations.

The kind of activity outlined above can be the first step towards more complicated task-oriented activities, and the overview it provides of the problems to be studied and the areas needing more careful attention from both students and teacher, can be very helpful.

II. A Lesson Using Authentic Materials
(cf. Examples (4) and (5))

The teacher prepares a dialogue of 5 to 6 lines and cards on which the function (or functions) of each utterance of the dialogue (such as 'attracting someone's attention', 'asking for some information about something' etc.) are written.

Functions could be written on the cards either in Japanese or in English depending on what kind of vocabulary and written scripts have already been introduced or are presently being taught.
The expressions are also given in the example here, but these would be on the tape, not on the cards, when the material is presented to the class.

(1) A: sumimasen
   excuse me

   "Excuse me."

   Function: Attracting someone's attention

   kinen-kitte ari-masu ka
   commemorative-stamp have-POL Q

   "Do you have any commemorative stamps?"

   Function: Asking for availability

   B: nan-yen no kitte desu ka
   how much GEN stamp COP Q

   "What kind of stamps do you want?"

   Function: Asking for further information

   A: mihon ari-masu ka
   sample have-POL Q

   "Do you have a set of samples?"

   Function: Asking for availability

   B: ano case ni hait-te-i-masu
   that in is-put-POL

   "There is one in that case."

   Function: Giving information

   A: aa soo desu ka
   oh so COP Q

   "Oh, I see."

   Function: Showing someone's understanding

First the teacher has the students read each card and check if they understand it. The class can be divided
into small groups. They then listen to the dialogue while they put the cards in order according to the sequence of the conversation. This should be repeated 3 to 4 times, and then the whole class comes together to agree upon the order of the functions, using the cards. After recognizing the right order, they go back to their small groups and begin to reconstruct the utterances, using the function cards to aid their memory. After that the class as a whole can exchange information to try to reconstruct a dialogue as similar as possible to the original in meaning, even if not identical, word for word. The teacher can help with specific language problems whenever necessary. Then the class listens to the original dialogue and compares it with the one they have constructed together. This kind of activity is useful for learning the relation between language functions and expressions.

The activity can be modified to be used for both comprehension and production; it may be presented as an A/B conversation where, for example, A's part is treated as comprehension material only. Therefore, the function labelling cards of A's utterances are set in order, and the students need only organize and reconstruct B's part in the manner described above. In this case, A's part can be designed to illustrate material somewhat more advanced than the students' production skills.
III  

A Lesson Involving Comprehension Practice 
(cf. Example (6))

The teacher prepares a recorded tape of a short conversation between native Japanese speakers (2 people or more) such as the one given below, for each lesson throughout the course.

(1) Waiter:

service-ryoo　tte nan desu ka tte
service-charge so-called what COP Q he's asking

"He wants to know what the 'service charge' is."

Head waiter:

service-ryoo wa service-ryoo deshoo
service-charge TOP service-charge COP-suppose

"A service charge is a service charge, isn't it?"

nihongo wakan-nai no
Japanese understand-NEG NOMINALIZER

"Doesn't he understand Japanese?"

Waiter:

nihongo de kik-are-mashi-ta kedo ... Japanese with ask-PASS-POL-PAST but

"He asked in Japanese but ..."

sumimasen setsumeishi-te itadake-masu ka
sorry explain-PTCPL receive-POL Q

"Sorry, but would you mind explaining it to him?"

First the teacher can give the students some idea of what they should take note of, such as "Who's talking?", "Where are they?", "What is their relationship?", etc. Then the teacher plays the tape and after the students listen to
the tape the teacher asks the students comprehension questions such as those given above, in the target language. The students are not required to answer the questions in the form of full sentences. For example, they may answer (again in the target language) "A waiter and a head waiter" to the teacher's question "Who's talking?".

After the students get familiar with this kind of activity, then a sheet of the following form is handed out to each student.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who's talking?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is their relationship?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where are they?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are they talking about?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first time the students listen to the conversation in class they write down the answers to the questions in the left-hand column. Again they are only required to answer with words or phrases such as names, locations, etc. They can listen to the same tape three times in succession, and each time they fill in a new column. Then, the teacher gives a model answer sheet and has the students compare it with what they have written. While looking at the model
sheet they have one more chance to listen to the conversation. The students' written sheets are collected to be used as a resource for preparing materials for the following lesson; the teacher can use them to ascertain what areas the class in general, or individual learners, have trouble with.

Various items can be gradually added to the questions above. For example, if the students are presently learning how to express their feelings, the item "How are they feeling?" may be added.

IV. A Lesson Related to Examples (7) and (8)

After the students get used to several questions such as "Who's talking?", "Where are they?", etc., which describe various aspects of the situation of a certain conversation, the following lesson can be used.

The teacher prepares recorded conversations involving two kinds of situations, such as the following:

Situation I: A foreigner is talking to an officer at the immigration office. The foreigner has a tourist visa, but he wants to change it to a cultural visa.

(1) Foreigner:

bunka visa ni kae-tai no desu
culture to change-want NOMINALIZER COP
ga ...
but ...
"I'd like to change my visa to a cultural visa..."
Officer:

bunka visa desu ne
culture COP PART

"A cultural visa, eh?"

Situation II: A foreigner is talking to an officer at the immigration office. The foreigner wishes to extend the conditions of his visa. He asks the officer if he can teach for more hours than he is presently allowed.

(2) Foreigner:

20-jikan gurai oshie-tai no desu ga.. 20 hours about teach-want NOMINALIZER COP but

"I'd like to teach about 20 hours, but ..."

Officer:

bunka visa desu kara ne
culture COP because PART

"Because you have a cultural visa, you know ..."

First the teacher outlines the situation of Conversation I. After the students understand the situation, they listen to the conversation. The procedure is to understand Situation I and listen to its conversation, followed by Situation II and its conversation. The procedure may be repeated 2 or 3 times. Then the teacher asks the students what they have noticed. After the students recognize the difference between the two situations and their corresponding conversations, with the teacher's help if necessary, they listen to the conversations several more times, now focussing on the forms ne and kara ne, which are words which have the functions of 'confirming' and 'convincing (by giving a reason)'. 
The students need to be exposed to these forms in quite a number of different contexts as well as to practice how to use notions such as those expressed by the forms ne or kara ne in the following lessons. It may be an idea for the teacher to introduce such function words initially by using them himself in the classroom.

2.2 Comprehension and Production Materials
- The Form V-te kudasai and Related Forms and Their Functions -

In the inventory of expressions prepared for this study, there were many occurrences of expressions involving the form V-te kudasai, and it appeared in a large variety of different situations (setting, roles, topic). By labelling each expression of the V-te kudasai form according to its function in that particular situation, it became clear that this form actually performs several different functions. It was also evident that the two related forms V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai should not simply be presented as polite variants of the basic form, even though they do generally appear when somewhat more politeness is required.

Ohso (1974 and 1982) identifies four illocutionary forces of the form V-te kudasai and related forms: invitation, polite order, personal request and begging. In this classification she refers to elements such as syntactic co-occurrence restrictions, "the speaker's assumption as to the willingness of the addressee to
comply with his request", and the question of whether the beneficiary of the speech act is the speaker or the addressee. Ohso also discusses two structures which are closely related to the V-te kudasai form -- V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai.

The following are some examples of the illocutionary force of each of these forms, according to her classification (Ohso:1982).

- Illocutionary force: Invitation
  Atsukattara, mado o \{ oake kudasai. \} \{ akete kudasai \}
  "Please open the window, if you feel hot."

- Illocutionary force: Polite order
  Kono kusuri o ichinichi sankai, shokugo ni nonde kudasai.
  "Take this medicine three times a day after each meal."

- Illocutionary force: Personal request
  Sumimasen ga koko ni nan to kaite aru ka yonde kudasaimasen ka.
  "Excuse me. Could I ask you to read what is written here?"

- Illocutionary force: Begging
  Onegai desu kara, inochi dake wa \{ otasuke kudasai. \} \{ tasukete kudasai. \}
  "Don't kill me, please."

Based on this classification of the illocutionary force of the form V-te kudasai and related forms, we can establish the various functions of these forms which will
need to be presented to the learner of Japanese. The function categories below are slightly more specific than Ohso's illocutionary force categories and, naturally, more oriented towards the functional-notional approach to language teaching. Variations in usage between the three forms \textit{V-te kudasai}, \textit{V-te kudasaimasen ka} and \textit{o-V-stem kudasai} will also be discussed.

First look at the following examples:

Function: Asking for a favour

Situation I: A foreign student is asking his Japanese friend to write down the place names which will help him get to a particular destination.

(1) \textit{kami ni kai-te kudasai}  
paper on write  
"Could you write that down, please?"

Function: Requesting something in a transaction

Situation II: A customer is telling a hair dresser that he wants his hair cut.

1. Some readers may feel the expression 'kami ni kai-te' ("Write that down, please?") is more common in informal situations, while 'kami ni kai-te kudasaimasen ka' ("Could you write that down for me, please?") would be more frequently used in formal situations. This issue will be illustrated later in a sample lesson.
Function: Ordering someone to do something.

Situation III: A manager is telling his secretary to do something, in the office.

(2) kami o kit-te kudasai
hair ACC cut

"I'd like my hair cut, please."

Function: Ordering someone to do something.

(3) kono tegami o Abe san ni todoke-te kudasai
this letter ACC Mr Abe DAT deliver

"Please deliver this letter to Mr Abe."

Function: Instructing someone to do something.

Situation IV: A nurse is telling a patient to go into the x-ray room at a clinic.

(4) rentogen-shitsu ni hait-te kudasai
x-ray-room DAT enter

"Please go into the x-ray room."

Function: Giving directions.

Situation V: A foreign student is asking a stranger for directions in a school.

(5) Foreigner:

1-ban-kyooshitsu wa doko desu ka
classroom 1 TOP where COP Q

"Where is Room 1?"

Stranger:

koko o massugu it-te kudasai
this ACC straight go

"You walk straight along here."
Function: Offering a favour

Situation VI: A passenger is offering a seat to another passenger on a bus.

(6)  doozo kake-te kudasai
     please sit down
     "Would you like my seat?"

If we look simply at expressions (4) and (5) without considering the situations involved, their difference may not be clear. However, in (5) the stranger is responding to the foreigner's request for directions to Room 1 by telling him how to get there. The function is clearly 'giving directions'. On the other hand, in (4), the nurse is telling the patient neither the location of the x-ray room, nor how to get to the x-ray room. The function is not 'giving directions', but rather she can be said to be 'instructing' the patient to do something.

I have not mentioned any of the other expressions from the expression inventory which are listed under each of the function headings noted above. Factors such as the kind of expressions which are most appropriate for each function, and which expressions should be taught earlier in the course, would need to be carefully considered.

Table 1 below shows the function performed by the expressions in each of the examples above ((1)-(6)), as well as when the forms V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai can be used in the same situation. It also shows whether the beneficiary of the act referred to is the speaker or the addressee.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>V-te kudasai</th>
<th>V-te kudasaimasen ka</th>
<th>o-V-stem kudasai</th>
<th>Beneficiary of the act</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Asking for a favour</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓ speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Requesting something in a transaction</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓ addressee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ordering someone to do something</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Instructing someone to do something</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Giving directions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Offering a favour</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"?" indicates that the form is rather unnatural for most speakers.

It is interesting to observe in (1), (2) and (3) that when the speaker is the beneficiary of the illocutionary act, the form V-te kudasai can be replaced by V-te kudasaimasen ka if the situation calls for the more polite form, but not by o-V-stem kudasai. However, where the addressee is clearly the beneficiary, as in (5) and (6), the form o-V-stem kudasai can be substituted, while V-te kudasaimasen ka cannot. It is also observed that all the
three forms can be used where the question of who is the beneficiary of the illocutionary act is irrelevant, such as in (4).

Although (1), (2) and (3) could be grouped under the one function heading 'requesting', there are differences in the kind of request involved depending on the situation. The chief property of the function 'requesting' is asking for something for the speaker's benefit. The speaker's benefit is undoubtedly relevant in (1) where he is asking for a favour, less relevant in (2), because the situation involves a commercial transaction, and still less relevant in (3), because the speaker is the employer or 'superior' of the addressee, and could be said to be giving an order. Accordingly, in 1) the slightly more polite V-te kudasaimasen ka form is commonly used in preference to V-te kudasai. In 2) either form could be used, and in 3) V-te kudasai is definitely more common than V-te kudasaimasen ka.

On the other hand, the function of 'offering a favour' is for the addressee's benefit. The way in which the addressee benefits is obvious in 6). However, in 5), where someone is giving him directions, it is not as immediately clear. Accordingly, in 6) o-V-stem kudasai could be used in preference to V-te kudasai, the only difference in this case being the greater politeness of the former. In 5) V-te kudasai is preferable, and o-V-stem kudasai is hardly ever used, although it is acceptable to some speakers. When one person is instructing another to do something, as in (4), the
question of whether the speaker or the addressee is the beneficiary of the illocutionary act is irrelevant. This means that both alternative forms can be used as well as V-te kudasai.

In the following example also, it is not clear whether it is the speaker or the addressee who is the beneficiary of the illocutionary act, and so V-te_kudasai can be replaced by either V-te kudasaimasen ka or o-V-stem kudasai.

Situation VII: A government officer is asking a foreigner to show his passport at the immigration office.

(7) passport o mise-te kudasai
    ACC show

"Please show me your passport."

In summary, the form V-te kudasai can perform all the functions given above, whereas the forms V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai can each perform only some of those functions.

I would like now to discuss how to present the form V-te kudasai, as well as the forms V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai, to the student of Japanese, particularly from the point of view of comprehension and production materials. The discussion will be based on the following points, which were mentioned above:

1) The frequent occurrence of the V-te kudasai form.
2) The various functions it performs.
3) The occurrence of the form in various situations.
4) The preferability of one or the other of the two similar forms in certain situations.

Ohso (1982) gives the following examples of the form o-V-stem kudasai, which she says are socio-culturally conditioned invitations (what we could call "fixed expressions").

Ohairi kudasai.
"Please come in."

Oagari kudasai.
"Please come in."

Okake kudasai.
"Please sit down."

The expression inventory prepared for this study also revealed that many instances of the form o-V-stem kudasai are relatively fixed expressions and at the elementary stage should, therefore, be treated as short routines. The pattern would be introduced by means of these expressions, with students not being required to use it productively until a later stage. (This aspect will be discussed later in this chapter.) Some typical examples of its use, besides those given by Ohso, include:

(8) O-dekak-e kudasai
"Please drop over sometime."

(9) O-shik-i kudasai
"Please have a seat (Lit: cushion)."

(10) O-mach-i kudasai
"Please wait."

(11) yoroshiku o-tsuta-e kudasai
"Please give (them) my regards."
One characteristic of \textit{V-te kudasai} is that its frequency of use, and whom it is used by, vary according to the situation. In certain situations, it is used much more frequently by one interlocutor than the other. This is especially so when one person is a customer or the receiver of a service, such as a patient at a clinic, a customer at a bank, someone having a haircut, etc. The provider of the service may give directions or instructions with \textit{V-te kudasai}, while the recipient is merely expected to comply. These situations could be used as comprehension material before requiring students to produce their own utterances using the relevant pattern. This kind of approach would also help students to become familiar with a wide range of vocabulary before they have to use it themselves. In some cases, of course, the learner will have to produce the form himself in order to manipulate his environment. In other words, the student will eventually need to learn both to comprehend and to produce the form. This highlights the fact that teaching materials should be well organized and presented in order to meet the learners' needs for both comprehension and production.

It is worth noting that most expressions of the form \textit{V-te kudasai} which perform the functions 'instructing someone to do something' and 'giving directions' include expressions for the notions of 'location' and 'direction'. Therefore it is suggested that, of all the functions of the form \textit{V-te kudasai}, the functions 'instructing someone to do something' and 'giving directions' should be
introduced from the very beginning of the course, along with location and direction phrases. If the learners are initially exposed to phrases expressing these two notions by means of comprehension material, they will be quite familiar with them by the time they need to learn to produce expressions involving the function 'describing people or things' where such notions frequently appear. Secondly I would suggest that the functions 'asking for a favour' and 'requesting something in a transaction', are also initially presented for comprehension, and only after the learners' understanding of these functions has developed, should they be expected to produce them. With regard to the first two functions above, 'asking for a favour' and 'requesting something in a transaction', both the forms V-te kudasai and V-te kudasaimasen ka should be covered in the comprehension material. With the next function, 'ordering someone to do something', only the form V-te kudasai should be taught, it being by far the most common form used for this function. Then, after a clear understanding of the first two functions has developed, either the form V-te kudasai or V-te kudasaimasen ka should be taught as production material depending on the needs of the learners (i.e. whether they are likely to require the more polite form or not). With the function 'offering a favour' the form V-te kudasai could be taught productively, whereas in the case of the same function the form o-V-stem kudasai is treated among the short routines.

The discussion above is summarized in the following table:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>V-te kudasai</th>
<th>V-te kudasai-masen-ka</th>
<th>o-V-stem kudasai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking for a favour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requesting something in a transaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering someone to do something</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructing someone to do something</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving directions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering a favour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking for a favour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requesting something in a transaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>III</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering someone to do something</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructing someone to do something</td>
<td></td>
<td>V</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving directions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering a favour</td>
<td></td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>short routines</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The roman numerals in this chart represent one order in which the material could be presented. (The pattern o-V-stem kudasai is recommended for presentation as a "short routine", and no particular ordering is suggested here.) The forms in the blank boxes are used, but not commonly enough to warrant teaching them to elementary students. The slashes indicate ungrammatical forms. The functions listed in Table 2 are illustrated in the Example Sentences, repeated below.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Example Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking for a favour</td>
<td>kami ni kai-te kudasai &quot;Could you write that down, please?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requesting something</td>
<td>kami o kit-te kudasai &quot;I'd like my hair cut, please.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a transaction</td>
<td>kono tegami o Abe san ni todoke-te kudasai &quot;Please deliver this letter to Mr. Abe.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering someone</td>
<td>rentogen-shitsu ni hait-te kudasai &quot;Please go into the x-ray room.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to do something</td>
<td>koko o massugu it-te kudasai &quot;You go straight along here.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructing someone</td>
<td>doozo kake-te kudasai &quot;Would you like my seat?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to do something</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A situation inventory like the one described in Chapter One, supplemented by function and notion inventories, provides a useful resource for producing both comprehension and production materials. The situation inventory can be used to find topic areas for class activities which are similar to those to which the learners are likely to be exposed in the target language society. The cross analysis of the function and notion inventories helps us to decide what notions could be combined with the comprehension material being presented at any particular stage in the course. As mentioned above, for example, location and direction phrases could ideally be introduced with the form V-te _kudasai_ when it is being used to perform the function of 'instructing someone to do something'. Comprehension material forms a kind of "preview" for the material which the learners will have to handle for production in the next stage of the lesson, or of the course. The cross analysis will also help us to decide what kind of functions should be treated as comprehension material or production material at each stage.

Before outlining some suggested lesson plans, I should first like to briefly introduce Asher's (1969, 1977) "Total Physical Response" (TPR) method. Asher's TPR method requires students to respond with physical actions to oral commands, which can be given either directly by the teacher or by means of a recorded tape. The teacher could begin by himself acting out the appropriate response, or at least participating with the students. Sometimes one or more students in the class can respond with an appropriate
action even without the teacher's help, and in that case
the teacher needs only to acknowledge their actions. The
students are not required to respond orally at this stage.
The TPR method has the potential to provide various
activities with which the students can develop their
comprehension skills.

2.2.1 Some Related Lessons

(I) Material: for comprehension
Function: Instructing someone to do something
Form: V-te kudasai

TPR activity (1)

The activity can start with very simple commands
such as 'tatte kudasai' "Please stand up", suwatte kudasai
"Please sit down" and so on. For the next stage of the
activity, a specific situation must be clearly established
by the teacher: a doctor is examining a patient. The
students listen to and respond to these slightly more
complicated instructions as the patient would.

1) soko ni suwat-te kudasai
   that place LOC sit
   "Please sit down there."

2) ue o mui-te kudasai
   up ACC look
   "Please look up."

3) kuchi o ake-te kudasai
   mouth ACC open
   "Please open your mouth."
TPR activity (2)

Visual aids, such as written signs, can be produced on cards. To facilitate the recognition of these cards, the teacher may use the following method: starting with a number of cards to be determined by students' previous exposure, the teacher reads them one at a time while indicating which is being read. When the students are reasonably familiar with all the cards on the table, the teacher no longer points, but asks that the students do so. Soon the teacher 'reads' a card that is not yet on the table. This keeps the students alert, and allows the teacher to add this new card to the total. The cards used should consist of vocabulary items already known by the students.

The cards that the students have learned to recognize can then be placed around the room and the students directed to go to certain places and do certain things, using V-te kudasai expressions. If, for example, a card says ichiban 'number one', the teacher may tell a student:

4) ichiban to kai-te-aru tokoro e number one that is written place ALLAT
   it-te mat-te i-te kudasai go-PTCPL wait-PTCPL be
   "Please go to the place where Number One is written and wait there."

Exposure is of prime importance in this kind of comprehension practice. Only when the students can see beyond the individual commands or requests to the
regularities of the expressions can they be said to have learned the form. There should be a wide variety of material presented as well, to familiarize students with the many different situations they may expect to meet in the target language. Extensive practice will familiarize students with a wide range of vocabulary, and also a variety of functions of V-te kudasai. The morphology and phonology of the very common V-te form can be internalized without stress, the meaning of the form being reinforced by physical activities.

The pace of TPR-related activities should be planned ahead, and all aspects, including the instructions, should proceed at a normal, everyday rate. The arrangement of signs or other materials in the classroom should be planned so that there will not be crowding when the students are actually moving in the room, and the activities can thus proceed smoothly. If the classroom is not big enough, the setting can be reproduced on a board or table and movement can be represented with a pointer or small cut-out pictures. An inventive teacher should be able to conduct an exciting and involving lesson in spite of physical constraints.

(II) Material : for comprehension
Function : Asking for a favour
Forms : V-te kudasai and V-te kudasaimasen ka

A set of a few examples of short conversations are recorded on tape as follows:
For each example, a short response should be provided, such as 'doko made' ("Where to?") , 'dochira made' (Where to?), 'hai' ("O.K.") , 'haa?' ("Pardon?") , etc. Name-cards or pictures clearly illustrating interlocutors in various role relationships need to be prepared as well as pictures of the settings in which the conversations are supposed to take place. To illustrate the role relationships the teacher can use pictures or names of famous people or of people with whom all the students are familiar. The type of settings depicted might include a livingroom, a formal party scene, an expensive hotel lobby, a railway station, etc. If possible, some background noises could also be incorporated in the tape to make the setting clear.

The teacher shows the students the pictures or name-cards while the tape is being played. The teacher may include some inappropriate pictures, and express his
surprise or negative reaction using suitable gestures or "short routines" (please see Section 4).

In this lesson, the students are exposed to various expressions, but they are not expected to learn them all, or even to comprehend them all perfectly. The main purpose of the lesson is to help students to recognize that expressions may vary according to the situation. A comparison of examples like (2) and (4) is especially useful to make this point clear, being at the opposite 'extremes' in terms of formality. It would be more difficult to make the point with only examples of rather 'neutral' forms like (1) and (3). In all the examples here the topic is the same, while both roles and settings vary. This is one way of presenting materials systematically - not changing all the components of the situation at the same time. The teacher may even choose to simplify this lesson further by altering only one component at a time.

After this activity is done three to four times, the teacher can encourage the students to choose one example conversation each, announcing their choice by giving the example number, such as 'ichiban' ('Number 1'), and using the pictures or cards to show the class the roles and setting which he thinks appropriate for that example.

(III) Material: for comprehension and production

Functions: Instructing someone to do something, and asking for a favour

Forms: V-te kudasai and V-te kudasaimasen ka
For this activity, some new vocabulary items should be introduced in advance, such as kasu (lend), kaku (write), miseru (show), oshieru (tell), etc. The teacher prepares a list of task assignments such as the following:

Teacher:

(1) kono kami o futatsu ni kit-te kudasai
this paper ACC two into cut

"Please cut this paper into two."

(2) kokuban ni Jeff-san no denwabangoo o kai-te kudasai
blackboard on title GEN telephone number ACC write

"Please write Jeff's telephone number on the blackboard."

The teacher prepares scissors, chalk and so on before the class. The students, however, would be unprepared, and therefore they might need to make some oral response first such as:

Student:

(3) hasami o kashi-te kudasai
scissors ACC lend

"Please lend me a pair of scissors."

(4) hasami ga ari-masen
scissors NOM have-POL-NEG

"I haven't got any scissors."

(5) chalk wa doko desu ka
TOP where COP Q

"Where can I get some chalk?"
If a request such as (3), with the -te kudasai form, is not immediately forthcoming, and the student chooses instead to convey his need with an expression like (4), the teacher may say:

(6) watashi no kaban no naka ni ari-masu
    I GEN bag GEN inside LOC be-POL

"There are some in my bag."

In this way, he clearly creates a situation where the student is required to ask for a favour, and also produce the form V-te kudasai or V-te kudasaimasen ka. If the teacher had put the scissors somewhere in sight, or had had them in a bag which was regularly used for teaching materials, instead of in his personal bag, the student would probably just pick them up, without feeling the need to utter an expression which performs the function of asking for a favour. Likewise, when the task is to write a telephone number on the blackboard, if the teacher asked the student his own number rather than that of another student, he would fail to create a situation where the student would need to produce the sentence 'denwabangoo o oshiete kudasai/kudasaimasen ka' ("Please tell me your telephone number.").

(IV) Material: for production
Functions: Various functions of the form V-te kudasai and related forms
Forms: V-te kudasai, V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai
This activity can be used after the students are exposed to the form V-te kudasai and related forms, and when they feel quite confident in producing these forms.

The students are divided into pairs and given time to make up a short conversation using these forms. Each pair performs their conversation in turn, while the rest of the class listens. With each conversation the class is encouraged to express the kind of situation that the conversation brings to mind, by using pictures or cards like those used in Lesson II above. Then, the 'performers' show the class the situation they had intended to convey, using the pictures or cards. Finally, the teacher tells the class which of the situations illustrated was, in fact, most appropriate for the particular expressions used in the conversation, and also may correct some of the mistakes made or provide better vocabulary words, etc., if necessary. The teacher will probably convey this information verbally, instead of using pictures or cards, at this stage. For example, he may say:

(1) Peter no situation ga yoi to omoi-masu
GEN NOM good that think-POL

"I think Peter's situation was good."

The lessons above (I-IV) are examples which illustrate how the students can be exposed to teaching materials in which language system and language use are treated as compatible. The use of comprehension material which precedes production material enables us to integrate new material with material already introduced. It also
enables us to create various class activities which are fairly similar to events likely to occur in the target language society. In this way, we can provide the learners with 'comprehensive input' sufficient for them to generalize certain basic aspects of the language system without 'rushing learners into premature performance'.

2.3 Comprehension and Production Materials — The Notions and Functions of the Verbs aru and iru —

By categorizing various expressions, listed in an expression inventory such as the one suggested in this study, under notion categories such as duration, frequency, quantity, etc., it can be seen that one single form can often denote more than one notion and so must be categorized under more than one notion heading.

A good example of this is the appearance of the verbs aru and iru under various notion headings, such as existence, occurrence, availability, etc.

First observe the following examples:

---


Notion: existence (general)

(1) sumimasen, kono chikaku ni yuubinkyoku excuse me this nearby LOC post office ari-masu ka POL Q

"Is there a post office around here?"

(2) Australia ni wa hatsukanezumi ga takusan i-masu LOC TOP mouse NOM many POL

"There are a lot of mice in Australia."

Notion: occurrence

(3) yuube jishin ga ari-mashi-ta ne last night earthquake NOM POL-PAST PART

"There was an earthquake last night, wasn't there?"

(4) gogo kaigi ga ari-masu afternoon meeting NOM POL

"There is going to be a meeting this afternoon."

(5) 3-ji goro Kimura-san kara o-denwa 3 o'clock about Mr. Kimura from HON-phone call ga ari-mashi-ta NOM POL-PAST

"There was a phone call for you from Mr. Kimura at about 3."

Notion: availability

(6) (to a store keeper):

umeshu ari-masu ka plum wine POL Q

"Do you have any plum wine?"

(7) dare ka ii hito i-masen ka someone good person POL-NEG Q

"Do you know anyone suitable?"

(8) 10-en dama ari-masu ka 10-yen coin POL Q

"Do you have a 10-yen coin? (If so, may I borrow one?)"
(9) jikan  
  time     POL Q

"Do you have any spare time? (If so, could you help me?)"

(10) eigo ga wakaru hito i-masen  
  English NOM understand person POL-NEG Q

"Is there anyone here who understands English? (If so, could they help?)"

Notion: possession

(11) Hanako ni wa truck ga ari-masu  
  DAT TOP NOM POL

"Hanako has a truck."

Notion: possession (permanent relationship)

(12) watashi ni wa fuyoo-kazoku ga ari-masu  
  I DAT TOP dependent-family NOM POL

"I have a family (to support)."

(13) sensei ni wa onna no ko ga futari  
  teacher DAT TOP daughter NOM two (people)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ari-mashi-ta} & \quad \text{POL-PAST} \\
? & \quad \text{i-mashi-ta} \quad \text{POL-PAST}
\end{align*}
\]

(Teramura: 1982, p.157)

"My teacher had two daughters."

Notion: existence (temporary relationship)

(14) sensei ni wa o-tetsudai-san ga  
  teacher DAT TOP HON-maid title NOM

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{futari} & \quad \{ ? \text{ari-mashi-ta} \quad \text{POL-PAST} \\
\text{two (people)} & \quad \{ \text{i-mashi-ta} \quad \text{POL-PAST}
\end{align*}
\]

(Teramura: 1982, p.157)

"My teacher had two maids."
In most language textbooks which I have examined, aru and iru are treated primarily as verbs of existence (certainly a basic notion of these verbs), and they are usually presented as indicating the location of an object or a person. Other notions which the two verbs denote, such as occurrence, availability, possession etc., appear in the later lessons with other materials such as monologues or dialogues, and no particular attention is given to the fact these notions need to be clearly distinguished from the notion of existence.

A brief mention should be made concerning the use of the verbs aru and iru in examples such as (13) and (14). Teramura (1982) does not give any specific reason why in (13) aru is natural whereas iru is not, and in (14) why iru is natural whereas aru is not. Morita (1977) explains that aru can be used when the relationship described is between husband and wife, parent and child, etc. - that is a relationship which is understood to be of a permanent nature. However, when the relationship is only temporary, and may be terminated at any time, such as in the case of an employer and a maid, only iru is appropriate.

Thus, the verb aru is listed under the notion 'possession' whereas the verb iru is listed under the notion 'existence' for expressions of the type under consideration.

Regarding the relationship between expressions involving the verbs aru and iru, the notions they involve and the functions they perform, it can be observed that the notion 'existence (general)' often appears in expressions
which perform the function 'reporting (including describing and narrating)', and which quite often include location and/or time phrases; the notion 'occurrence' also appears frequently in expressions which perform the function of 'reporting': the notion 'availability' in those which perform the function 'inquiring about availability (of either things or people)'; and the notions 'possession' and 'existence (temporary relationship)' in those which perform the functions 'giving personal information' or 'describing family or relationships to other people etc.' These frequent correspondences must be taken into consideration when planning which notions and functions should appear together in each lesson. This will be illustrated in the following section.

2.3.1 Some Related Lessons

This section discusses the preparation of material and the appropriate methodology for such material, based on the discussion in the previous section. Emphasis is placed on how comprehension and production materials can be integrated and presented 'spirally', taking both notions and functions into account. The 'spiral' presentation of material refers to alternating between comprehension and production material, and presenting the various notions and functions of a single form one after the other.

The following is one possible ordering recommended of the presentation of materials for teaching the verbs aru and iru, one that carefully and systematically exposes
learners to the various uses of these forms, so that they gradually reach generalizations which will enable them to comprehend all instances of the forms, and use them appropriately.

(I) Material: for production
Function: Giving personal information
Notion: Possession

The function 'giving personal information' should be treated at the very beginning of the course. Sentence (12) (repeated here for the reader's convenience) is an example of an expression which can be used for the function of 'giving personal information', along with other common expressions such as giving one's name, occupation, etc.

(12) watashi ni wa fuyoo-kazoku ga ari-masu
    I DAT TOP dependent-family NOM POL
    "I have a dependent-family (to support)."

(II) Material: for comprehension
Function: Describing the location of things and people
Notion: Existence (general)

As a general rule, the verb aru is used to describe existence when the subject is inanimate. For animate subjects iru is used. (This distinction is not made in sentences describing permanent relationships (see examples (11) and (12) above).)
In order to give the learners some idea of the distinction between the verbs aru and iru, five pictures of four inanimate things and one animate (or vice versa) are prepared. A recorded tape which describes the pictures using the two verbs in the appropriate contexts is also prepared. (The teacher's voice can be used instead of the tape.) The pictures can be placed randomly on the table. The students should first be given time to recognize the pictures, and then the teacher points to each picture as it is described by the tape. The teacher may need to watch the students' reactions carefully to confirm whether they seem to be understanding or not. Next it is the learners' turn to point to the pictures as they are described by the tape; first as a group and later individually. From time to time the pictures should be rearranged and the order of description should also be periodically altered.

(III) Material: for production/comprehension
Function: Inquiring about availability at a store
Notion: Availability/non-availability

Sentence (6) (repeated below) is an example of an expression with this function.

(6) (to a store keeper):

umeshu ari-masu ka
plum wine POL Q

"Do you have any plum wine?"
Expressions like (6) have probably been overlooked in most Japanese teaching programs because the form X o kudasai is employed to teach students how to ask for something (X) at a shop. However, it is often necessary to determine first whether or not something is available, before it can be asked for. It is not usually necessary to actually ask for the object once its availability has been ascertained, because the expectation is that the customer does want it if it is in stock. (It may be necessary to state how many or how much one wants, however.)

The students' task is to learn to produce expressions with the function of 'inquiring about availability'. They can be encouraged to play the role of customers - first in a grocers, then in a bakery and so forth. The teacher takes the part of the shop-keeper and introduces appropriate responses, such as 'hai gozaimasu' ("Yes, we have them"), 'mooshiwake gozaimasen, oite imasen' ("I'm sorry, but we don't sell those") etc., as comprehension material only at this stage. Other more complicated responses should be introduced gradually, also as comprehension material initially.

(IV) Material: for comprehension/production
Function: Describing location
Notion: Existence (general)

This lesson can be planned to coincide with the teaching of the V-te kudasai form by means of the TPR-type
activities described above. For example, the teacher could first introduce or review location and destination phrases such as:

(1) kokuban no hidari-ue no kado ni
blackboard GEN left top GEN corner LOC
"in the upper left hand corner of the blackboard"

(2) rentogen-shitsu ni
x-ray room to
"to the x-ray room"

(Cards on which names of rooms or places, such as rentogen-shitsu are written need to be placed around the classroom.) Students are instructed as to where to move to, or where to place various objects. Then, utilizing the resulting classroom arrangement, the teacher can introduce or review the verbs aru and iru. He could ask, for example,

(3) rentogen-shitsu wa doko ni aru-masu ka (aru)
x-ray room TOP where LOC POL Q
"Where is the x-ray room?"

or

(4) rentogen-shitsu ni (wa) dare ga iru-masu ka (iru)
x-ray room LOC (TOP) who NOM POL Q
"Who is in the x-ray room?"

First the students respond orally to the teacher's questions and then the class can be divided into pairs and they can be encouraged to practice both questions and answers themselves.
Material: for comprehension/production

Functions: Inquiring about availability and expressing availability or non-availability

Notion: Availability/non-availability

The material introduced in Lesson (III) above should be expanded in order to give the learners a chance to narrow their generalizations concerning the verbs aru and iru. The teacher should prepare a list of situations in which he can communicate with the students using the relevant functions and notions in the environment of the class. Keeping that list in mind he should use expressions such as those given below whenever the situation permits, or even try to create suitable situations.

(1) akai pen ga ari-masu ka
doi
red NOM POL Q

"Do you have a red pen? (If so, can I borrow it?)"

After several expressions such as this have been uttered by the teacher in natural situations, students could be asked what expressions with aru the teacher has used so far. Because they occurred naturally and unobtrusively, students may not have consciously noted them. The teacher's question here is an important reminder to the students to be constantly attentive and to monitor all the language used in the class for its value in the learning process.

For the notion of 'availability', short dialogues about buying something at a store or borrowing something from a friend are recommended. Examples such as (7) from
the previous section (repeated below) should be introduced a little later because a question such as this requires considerable explanation (for example, what kind of person would be suitable, why they are needed, and so on.)

(7) dare ka ii hito i-masen ka
someone good person POL-NEG Q
"Do you know anyone suitable?"

(VI) Material: for comprehension
Function: Reporting (including describing)
Notion: Occurrence

When the notion 'occurrence' is being studied, a short monologue, such as part of a radio news bulletin or an article from a newspaper can be useful. The teacher should find a monologue which includes a sentence similar to the example below:

(1) yuube jishin ga ari-mashi-ta
last night earthquake NOM POL-PAST
"There was an earthquake last night."

Location and time phrases can be conveniently introduced, reviewed or expanded here, and this kind of exercise also presents a good opportunity to introduce new vocabulary or slightly longer phrases composed of familiar vocabulary. For example, sentence (1) might be expanded with information such as Tsurugaya-danchi no chikaku de (near the Tsurugaya housing development area), 12-ji chotto mae ni (a little before 12 o'clock), shindo 5 no (of 5 points on the seismic scale) etc.
(VII) Material: for production
Function: Reporting (including describing)
Notion: Occurrence

Articles in newspapers and magazines in English can be used as data sources from which students can produce sentences with *aru* or *iru* expressing the notion 'occurrence'. Because students know that they are describing real events in the target language, motivation is high. This activity is not artificial - students in a foreign country are often asked to give their opinions on topical issues, and this exercise is good preparation.

During this activity, the teacher should act as good listener, and 'chime in' whenever appropriate, using short routines. The other students should be encouraged to be aware of the reactions of the teacher who is playing the part of the listener, and to learn to react in the same way. Throughout this activity the teacher should not interrupt to correct the student's mistakes. Students should not be made to feel that the teacher is attending exclusively to their language skills rather than to what they are saying. However, at appropriate times, the teacher does have an opportunity to correct mistakes subtly by relating his understanding of what has been said as part of his 'chiming in' behaviour. The student may have said:

(1) *kinoo ni Aomori de jishin ga arimashita*
*yesterday on LOC earthquake NOM POL-PAST*

"On yesterday there was an earthquake in Aomori."
The teacher may react:

(2) \text{kinoo\, at-ta\, n\, desu\, ka}  
\text{yesterday\, PAST\, NOMINALIZER\, COP\, Q}  

"Was there one yesterday then?"

which shows the student that the teacher is listening and also corrects the student's mistaken insertion of the particle \text{ni} after \text{kinoo} (yesterday).

Under functions such as describing one's family or friends, reporting events or accidents, describing the arrangement of one's house and so on, the teacher may be able to prepare rather more complex comprehension material. The students may be encouraged in this way to use similar, though perhaps slightly simpler, material productively, or they may even themselves be motivated to produce descriptions such as this without any prompting.

The lessons above (I-VII) are examples which illustrate how the concept of functions and notions can be used for preparing material and corresponding methodology, as well as how to integrate comprehension and production materials. They illustrate the fact that, although the material is not strictly structurally graded according to the degree of grammatical complexity, it can be profitably graded in a different way. Thus 'spiral' presentation gives consideration to both the various notions and the various functions of a certain language form. Language system and language use are effectively integrated in the presentation of materials to the student.
2.4 "Short Routines"

Definition

Every language has a large number of "short routines" that, in various ways, facilitate communication. As a starting point for a discussion of such expressions in Japanese, let us look at Krashen's (1981, p.83) analysis of 'fixed and semi-fixed' expressions into what he terms 'prefabricated routines' and 'prefabricated patterns':

Prefabricated routines are simply memorized whole utterances or phrases, such as "How are you?" or "Where is your hotel?". A performer may use these without any knowledge at all of their internal structure. Entire lines from memorized dialogues qualify as prefabricated routines, as do expressions learned from foreign language books. Hakuta (1974) has noted that prefabricated patterns are distinct from routines. These are partly "creative" and partly memorized wholes; they consist of sentence frames with an open "slot" for a word or a phrase, such as "That's a ..." (pen, knife, banana), or Lyon's (1969) example, "Down with ..."). Lyons called such constructions "phrase and sentence schemata", and defined them as "utterances that are grammatically unstructured or only partially structured, but which can yet be combined in sentences according to productive rules (pp.177-178)."

This paragraph (1981, p.83) concerning 'prefabricated routines and patterns' can be used as a basis for defining the term short routines. It can be seen that Krashen's analysis fails to distinguish between prefabricated routines which are relatively fixed ("How are you") and those that can be easily manipulated structurally ("Where is your hotel?"). It ignores the difference
between routines that are common occurrences in the spoken language, and those that are common occurrences in phrase books or language textbooks. "Where is your hotel?" can be thought of as a "sentence frame with open slots", such as "Where is......?", or "Where is your ...?", and should not qualify as a prefabricated routine when we are considering the language as it is spoken. I prefer to explain "short routines" as those words or phrases which require a certain amount of socio-cultural knowledge if they are to be used and understood correctly. In the case of short routines which involve phrases rather than isolated words, the whole is often not taken to equal the sum of the component parts. In all cases they may stand on their own or they may form part of a longer sentence. "Short routines", therefore, have some of the characteristics of both 'prefabricated routines' (they should be treated as a whole) and 'prefabricated patterns' (they may form part of a longer structure), but their distinguishing feature is that they are viewed as a unit in themselves and not usually open to structural manipulation. Therefore, in English, "How do you do?" would be a short routine, whereas "What do you do?" would not, because this latter pattern has open slots such as "What do(es).... do?" or "What do you ...?", or even "What do(es) ...?"

Characteristics of short routines

Most short routines are learned through repeated exposure. Although they can often be structurally analyzed
and 'explained', their meaning cannot usually be inferred from one's previous knowledge of the language system. Short routines therefore largely consist of what are described as 'idiomatic' or 'colloquial' expressions.

Generally, short routines need not be complete propositions, and they are usually shorter than propositions.

Many short routines are difficult to translate into foreign language because their use is culturally determined. For example, 'doozo yoroshiku' is an expression often used when one makes a new acquaintance, and it literally means "Please think well of me", but the English translation is best ignored. Other expressions are easier to translate:

\[
\begin{align*}
to & \quad \text{ii-masu to} \\
\text{that} & \quad \text{say-POL so}
\end{align*}
\]

"So by that you mean ..."

The importance of short routines in communicative teaching

There are two major reasons why a significant number of short routines should be taught as early as possible in a language course: firstly, many are overwhelmingly commonplace, and secondly the meaning is often not easy to infer from previous language experience. There are many other benefits to the learner who masters these expressions at an early stage.

The expressions are usually quite short and the learner need not worry about their internal structure.
Many structures in these short routines are special combinations of other structural elements that the learner will be exposed to later. This facilitates later acquisition of structures and may make internalization of their meanings somewhat easier.

Because short routines are so commonplace, and their meanings are not easy to infer, an early introduction will facilitate comprehension of the spoken language. Short routines are often prefatory to a speaker's main proposition, and as such can give the learner clues as to the type of information that will follow. They are also self-contained to some extent, and a recognition of this fact helps the learner to break up a seemingly long utterance into the prefatory expression followed by the structurally consistent proposition. Similarly, where these expressions are sentence final or are sandwiched in the body of the proposition, the learner who is familiar with them will be able to 'separate them out' from the main proposition and not be thrown off the track.

Many short routines are social necessities, being formulas that the specific culture/language matrix demands be uttered in certain prescribed situations. Saying "Excuse me" before asking for directions on the street would increase the probability of a helpful response, and saying "gochisoo sama deshita" ("Thank you for the (delicious) meal.") in Japan at the conclusion of a meal would be expected of a polite guest.

Related to the point above, if the learner is concerned with trying to understand the culture of the
country whose language he is studying, he will find that many short routines provide valuable clues as to what kind of things that culture regards as important.

In order for learners to be able to interact communicatively and therefore be able to progress in a communicative context, they must have a command of the basic linguistic signals that enable speaker and addressee to know whether one understands what the other is saying. Such signals belong to the category of short routines. For example, the addressee should know how to say "Pardon?" as soon as something is said that is not understood. It is counterproductive to wait until a long explanation is concluded before expressing one's bemusement.

Comprehension and production

In language teaching, it is generally accepted that comprehension should come before production. Short routines can be handled differently, however. If learners are encouraged to use short routines as early as possible, this should act as a catalyst for further progress, for the reasons outlined above.

Some examples of short routines in Japanese are listed in the Appendices. The way that they should be presented to students is discussed in the following section.
2.4.1 The Presentation of Short Routines

To a certain extent, teaching material will always be somewhat different from real life language because of the need for the controlled introduction of new elements. However, this artificiality can be compensated to a large degree by using short routines whenever practicable and by providing sufficient exposure to the natural language by way of presenting a significant amount of material for comprehension only. These two methods can be used to supplement other teaching material and to present it in as natural a context as possible.

By incorporating short routines into various class activities, students will see them appearing in the same types of situations as they occur in the target language society. In teaching short routines, two important methodological considerations must be observed.

Firstly, the introduction of expressions must be appropriate to the context. The teacher should decide whether to introduce for the first time a certain expression in comprehension material or for production. The context must be clear, and if a dialogue is used the expression must be a natural part of that dialogue. An organized introduction sequence requires the teacher to prepare an inventory of short routines from the other inventories (situation, expression, function, and notion). In this way, their introduction in appropriate situations can be planned ahead.
Secondly, in spite of the value of this kind of planning, the teacher should also introduce those expressions he wishes to teach in a natural manner in the social environment of the class, not only in prepared dialogues. The teacher can make this easier by always presenting himself as a person who is communicating with the other people in the class, one who reacts and responds to what goes on in the class as any other person would, not as a slightly distanced figure of authority with a condescending manner, or as a non-involved resource person. For example, the teacher should pay considerable attention to the actual content of the students' utterances, rather than merely seeking for and correcting their mistakes. Moreover, it would be not only acceptable, but actually advantageous, if the teacher were to express his honest surprise sometimes at students' mistakes, if they interfere with communication. In such an atmosphere important expressions such as naruhodo ("I see."), masaka ("I don't believe it."), e? ("Pardon?"), etc. will spontaneously appear in the appropriate contexts. If the social atmosphere of the classroom is as natural as possible, the teacher can more easily use those expressions which can only comfortably be uttered in a natural context. By being constantly alert for 'the right moment', the insertion of a short routine into a class discussion can have a big impact. This does not mean that short routines can be introduced arbitrarily. The teacher should have a clear plan for introducing expressions in a definite sequence so that they can be practiced in the prepared exercises.
Haphazard introduction would not guarantee any degree of internalization. There must be sufficient exposure to each new expression for this to occur.

Once a short routine has been introduced, the teacher should encourage the students to use it whenever the situation calls for it. If, for example, a student is hesitating, stuck for a word, he can be encouraged to say anoo... (umm...). This is not a trivial example, because signals like these are very important for beginners if they are to be given time to get the whole utterance out before being interrupted. Students may hesitate to use the short routines they have already been exposed to and may tend to communicate certain things through gestures or even using their native language. The teacher should always be ready to supply an appropriate expression which has already been introduced and reinforce it with oral practice if necessary.

Because of the close relationship of many short routines to the cultural context of the target language, it is not a good idea to give a direct translation or an analytical explanation of the structure used. Students may be eager for this kind of 'logical' explanation, but it will not assist understanding. In fact, if the student gave too much thought to the internal structure of such expressions, the meaning could get lost in a confusion of structural rules.

In the early stages of the course, the teacher should introduce several short routines which can immediately be used by the students in class, for example, 'wakarimasen' ("I don't understand."), 'moo ichido onegai-
"Would you repeat that for me, please?". These could be given to students on a written sheet.

From time to time, the teacher can initiate a review of previously learned short routines. This could be done with a partly blanked-out dialogue which forces the students to provide appropriate expressions. For example, an A/B dialogue could be recorded and written out with all of B's part left blank. Students would have to make sense of the dialogue by taking B's part. If A's part is not very difficult students could take both parts. Whilst this is not a memorization activity, Student A should not be encouraged to read his script, but should look at the addressee and be encouraged to convey the meaning rather than repeat his part word for word. Students could be put more at ease by listening to the taped dialogue before acting it out.
CONCLUSION

3.0 Summary

This study examined various issues relating to the communicative teaching of Japanese as a foreign language. The study proceeded under the premise that language system and language use are mutually compatible and should be consistently integrated in communicative language teaching. Throughout my study I took much account of two facts: (1) The primary consideration in a communicative language teaching program is the need of the learner, that is, what he will need to do with the target language, and (2) communicative language teaching exposes the learner to a variety of structures right from the beginning of the course, and generalization concerning these structures is the learner's job. Naturally the teacher facilitates this task of generalization in every way possible.

Chapter One described some background information for the study: the inventories (situation, expression, function and notion) used as the basis of the study, as well as the kind of course for which these inventories could be used when designing a syllabus. These inventories were organized according to the model of van Ek and Alexander, who used Wilkins' system of function and semantico-grammatical categories.
In Chapter Two, some materials and methodologies for communicative language teaching suggested by the inventories were discussed. Section 1 illustrated four different types of responses with some examples from the expression inventory. Firstly, the importance of the use of authentic material was discussed, by pointing out that: (1) questions are not always followed by immediate or direct answers, but quite often by further questions, and (2) discourse is not always strictly grammatically sequenced. With regard to these issues it was suggested that a function inventory can be used in preparing materials which are far more authentic than those which appear in 'grammar-demonstration dialogues'. Secondly the presentation of comprehension materials involving language considerably more advanced than what has been mastered for production at each stage of the course was discussed, and the use of material such as conversations between native speakers was suggested. Thirdly, the presentation of language forms in contexts which are likely to lead to the learners' 'attentive perception' was discussed. The use of situation and function inventories was suggested here, as a means of gaining information about learners' needs and interests.

In both Section 2 and 3, it was discussed how language system and language use are closely related, and how these two elements can be presented as one integrated issue in language teaching. In Section 2, the form V-te kudasai and the two related forms, V-te kudasaimasen ka and o-V-stem kudasai, and their functions were studied, while in Section 3, the notions and functions of the verbs aru
and iru were examined. The main aim of these two sections was to illustrate how notions and functions can be used in preparing teaching materials, as well as how they are mutually compatible in language teaching.

Short routines presented in Section 4 were discussed from a slightly different point of view from that taken with other issues. In the presentation of the kind of material discussed in Section 1 to 3, I took the view that comprehension should normally precede production. However, in the case of short routines, I suggested that we should encourage the learners to use most of them productively from the outset.

In each section of Chapter Two, sample lessons and suggestions relevant to the discussions were given in order to demonstrate methods for the practical application of the ideas presented.

As far as the methodology is concerned, I demonstrated how comprehension materials can be integrated well with production materials using the 'spiral' method of presentation, which gives consideration to both language system and language use, and to how these two aspects of language can be presented concurrently to the learners.

3.1 Conclusion

There are two major conclusions that can be drawn from this study:
1) Language system and language use can be treated as mutually compatible in the teaching of Japanese as a foreign language.

2) The use of comprehension material well integrated with production material should be seen as an essential part of the methodology of communicative language teaching.

This study has provided considerable justification for the hypothesis that language system and language use are mutually compatible in language teaching at least in the case of the specific issues discussed. The discussion concerning these issues and the materials and methodologies suggested to deal with them should assist language teachers in adopting a truly communicative approach.

3.2 Epilogue

Finally, I would like to mention an issue which has not been discussed in this study, but which seems to me to be relevant to it. This is the issue of "student-centered class organization", which has recently been a common topic of discussion among people involved in communicative language teaching. Its relationship to communicative language teaching is that, in this approach, the task of generalization is principally that of the student, and the entire organization of the class should be centered around facilitating this goal. I feel that the
integration of language system and language use can be understood as the central core of communicative language teaching; that the use of integrated comprehension and production materials should be the next "layer"; and that the third must be the improvement of "the student-centered class organization". The combination of these last two elements, built around the central core of language system and language use, should constitute the methodological basis of communicative language teaching.
Appendix 1: Unrehearsed Dialogues and Authentic Dialogues

Below are some transcriptions of tapes made of unrehearsed dialogues, which were "acted out" by native speakers of Japanese. The speakers were not provided with a written script, but tried to simulate the kind of language which might occur in a given situation. These unrehearsed dialogues are followed by authentic dialogues involving the same situations, which were recorded in writing on the spot.

Unrehearsed Dialogue (I)

Situation: A hairdresser is washing a customer's hair.

Hairdresser:

perm o o-kake-ni-naru node karuku
ACC HON-have (HON) because lightly

o-arai-shi-masu
HON-wash-do-POL

"Since you're going to have a perm, I'll wash your hair lightly."

o-nagashi-shi-masu
HON-rinse-do-POL

"I'll rinse your hair now."

atsu-sugi-tara osshat-te kudasai
hot-excess-if say(HON)-PTCPL please

"Please tell me if the water is too hot."
kayui tokoro gozai-masen ka
itchy place there is (HON)-POL-NEG Q

"Is there anywhere that feels itchy?"
(i.e., Do you want me to massage your head anywhere in particular?)

Authentic Dialogue (in the same situation)

Situation: as above

Hairdresser:

kochira e doozo
this way ALLAT please

"This way, please."

kubi ita-ku ari-masen ka
neck painful be-POL-NEG Q

"Your neck doesn't hurt, does it?"

atsu-sugi-masu ka
hot-excess-POL Q

"Is the water too hot?"

atsu-sugi-tara osshat-te kudasai
hot-excess-if say (HON)-PTCPL please

"Please tell me if it is."

tokuni kayui tokoro wa ari-masen ka
specially itchy place TOP have-POL-NEG Q

"Is there anywhere that feels specially itchy?"

hoka-ni mo ari-masen ka
other also have-POL-NEG Q

"Is there anywhere else?"

Customer:

iie
"no."

Hairdresser:

o-tsukare-sama deshi-ta
HON-tired-HON COP-PAST

"You must be tired." ("Thanks for sitting still for so long.")
Unrehearsed Dialogue (II)

Situation: A doctor is seeing a patient at a clinic.

Doctor:

doo shi-mashi-ta ka
how do-POL -PAST Q

"What's the problem?"

netsu wa dono-gurai ari-masu ka
temperature TOP how much have-POL Q

"How high is your temperature?"

Patient:

hakat-te i-masen
measure-PTCPL be-POL-NEG

"I haven't taken it."

Doctor:

fuku o nui-de bed ni yoko-ni
clothes ACC take off-PTCPL LOC on one's side

nat-te kudasai
become-PTCPL please

"Please take off your clothes and lie on the bed."

raku-ni shi-te kudasai
comfortably do-PTCPL please

"Please just relax now, O.K.?"

ketsuatsu o hakari-masu
blood pressure ACC measure-POL

"I'm going to take your blood pressure."

shibaraku shizuka-ni shi-te-i-te kudasai
for a while quietly do-PTCPL-be-PTCPL please

"Please lie quietly for a while."
Authentic Dialogue (in the same situation)

Situation: as above

Doctor:

o-matase shi-mashi-ta
HON-wait-CAUS do-POL-PAST

"Sorry to have kept you waiting."

doo shi-mashi-ta ka
how do-POL-PAST Q

"What's the problem?"

Patient:

koko suujitsu karada-zentai ga darui
this a few days body-whole NOM lethargic

n desu
NOMINALIZER COP

"Lately I've been feeling really lethargic."

Doctor:

shinsatsu shi-masu kara
medical examination do-POL because

joohanshin o nui-de kudasai
upper half of body ACC take-OFF-PTCPL please

"I'll examine you, so please strip to the waist."

soko ni suwat-te kudasai
that place LOC sit-PTCPL please

"Please sit down there."

ue o mui-te kudasai
up ACC look-PTCPL please

"Look up, please."

kuchi o ake-te kudasai
mouth ACC open-PTCPL please

"Open your mouth, please."

"aa" to koe o dashi-te kudasai
"aa" that voice ACC make-PTCPL please

"Please say "Aa"."
ooki-ku iki o sut-te kudasai deeply breath ACC inhale-PTCPL please

"Please breathe deeply."

nando-mo kurikaeshi-te kudasai many times repeat-PTCPL please

"Please do it several times."

ushiro o mui-te kudasai back ACC turn-PTCPL please

"Please turn around."

doko-ka itai tokoro ga ari-masu ka anywhere painful place NOM have-POL Q

"Does it hurt anywhere?"

Patient:

iie "No."

Doctor:

onaka o mi-masu kara bed ni stomach ACC examine-POL because LOC

aomuke-ni nat-te kudasai on one's back become-PTCPL please

"Please lie on your back on the bed so that I can examine your stomach."

ryoo hiza o tate-te kudasai both knee ACC raise-PTCPL please

"Please raise both your knees."

koko o osu to itai desu ka here ACC push if painful COP Q

"Does it hurt when I push here?"

Patient:

chotto kurushii desu a little uncomfortable COP

"It's a bit uncomfortable."

Doctor:

fukushikikokyuu o shi-te kudasai abdominal breathing ACC do-PTCPL please

"Please breathe from your abdomen."
nankai-mo yukkuri kurikaeshi-te kudasai many times slowly repeat-PTCPL please

"Please go on doing that slowly."

hiza o kun-de kudasai knee ACC cross-PTCPL please

"Please cross your legs."

hai, kekko desu well good COP

"Well, that's all."

ki-te kudasai put on-PTCPL please

"Please put on your clothes."

soko ni suwat-te kudasai there LOC sit-down-PTCPL please

"Please sit down over there."
Appendix 2: A Questionnaire to Ascertain Learners' Needs

In order to do as much as possible to meet the learners' needs in their target language society, and also to aid the teacher by providing a useful resource from which to organize materials and activities, at the beginning of each lesson a written sheet like the one below can be given to each student to complete. They may be allowed to fill it in using their native language, that is, English in the case of the students for whom this course is designed.

Are there any difficulties that you have with the language which you have not yet been taught in the class?

If you have any other suggestions, please let me know.

Are there any ideas that you have about materials and activities that you would like to see in class?
1. Have you had any chances to use Japanese since the last lesson? If so, please describe the situations; e.g. Where were you? Who did you talk to? What did you talk about? ...

2. What did you say in Japanese?

3. List any interesting Japanese vocabulary or expressions you noticed outside the class.

4. If you have something specific you really want/need to say in Japanese, please try to write it in Japanese. If it is too difficult, please write it in English, and if possible please give the situation you would like to use it in.

5. Are there any expressions that you have heard, but which you do not yet feel confident to produce in the correct context?

6. Other
Appendix 3: Function and Notion Inventories

In preparing the function inventory for this study, I borrowed most of the function categories from the following books, with some modifications:

van Ek (1976)
van Ek and Alexander (1977)
Wilkins (1976)
Abbs and Freebairn (1979) (esp. Teacher's Book)
Castro, Kimbrough, Lazano and Sturtevant (1980)

Regarding the notion headings I mainly used those which appear in the books listed below. Alfonso's and Morita's were found especially helpful in analyzing the basic notions of the Japanese language.

van Ek (1976)
van Ek and Alexander (1977)
Wilkins (1976)
Morita (1977)

Below are a few examples from the inventories which were actually prepared:
Expressions listed under function headings

- Attracting attention
  1) hai doozo
     "Yes, please?" or "Can I help you?"
  2) sumimasen
     "Excuse me."
  3) anoo, chotto
     "Excuse me, but ..."
  4) o-negai shi-masu
     "Excuse me." or "Yes, please?"
  5) moshi moshi
     "Hello?" (usually used on the telephone)

- Inquiring about availability
  1) kono seki ai-te i-masu ka
     this seat open-PTCPL be-POL Q
     "Is this seat taken?"
  2) contact paper ari-masu ka
     have-POL Q
     "Have you got any contact paper?"
  3) hoshoonin dare-ka iru no
     guarantor anybody there is NOMINALIZER
     "Is there anyone who can act as your guarantor?"
  4) kenkoo-hokensho mot-te i-masu ka
     health insurance have-PTCPL be-POL Q
     "Do you have your health insurance card with you?"

- Describing things
  1) (Having left a bag on the bus)
     kuroi vinyl no kaban desu
     black GEN bag COP
     "It's a black vinyl bag."
2) (naka ni nani ga hait-te i-masu ka)  
("What's in it?")
hon dake desu  
book just COP
"There are only some books."

3) yooshiki toilet de nai yo (sore demo ii ne)  
Western-style COP NEG PART
"It's not a Western-style toilet. (Is that all right with you?)

4) furui mokuzoo no tatemono desu kara  
old wooden GEN building COP because
"That's because it's an old wooden building."

5) roomaji de kai-te ari-masu  
Roman script with write-PTCPL be-POL
"It's written in Roman script."

Expressions listed under notion headings

Notion: availability

- aru

sakana ari-masu ka  
fish have-POL Q
"Do you have any fish (today)?"

kuuseki ari-masu ka  
open seat have-POL Q
"Do you have any seats available?"

sotsugyoo shi-tara, shigoto aru deshoo ka  
graduation do-when job there is COP-suppose Q
"I wonder whether I'll be able to find a job after I graduate from school."

1 The expressions listed under each notion category should be grouped according to their pattern, such as N + aru + ka, for use in the final syllabus.
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- i ru

dare-ka ii hito i-masen ka
anybody good person there is-POL-NEG Q

"Do you know of anyone suitable?"

(e.g. someone for a certain position, like a secretary)

- nai

nani-ka yoi sankoosho nai deshoo ka
any good reference book NEG COP-suppose Q

"Are there any good reference books that you would suggest?"

- te ni hairu

genmai ga te ni hairi-masu ka
brown rice NOM hand DAT get-POL Q

"Do they sell brown rice?"

- tsuka-eru, nom-eru, etc.

kono kikai tsuka-e-masu ka
this machine use-POT-POL Q

"Does this machine work?"

kono mizu nom-e-masu ka
this water drink-POT-POL Q

"Is this water fit to drink?"

- te-oku

cake o tsukut-te oki-mashi-ta
ACC make-PTCPL put-POL-PAST

"I made a cake in advance."

beer o reizooko ni ire-te oki-mashi-ta
ACC refrigerator DAT put in-PTCPL put-POL-PAST

"I've put some beer in the refrigerator to get cool."
- te-aru

hon ga oi-te ari-masu
book NOM put-PTCPL be-POL

"A book has been left here."

kippu wa kaban ni ire-te ari-masu
ticket TOP bag DAT put in-PTCPL be-POL

"I've put the ticket in your briefcase."

- dekiru

moo deki-te i-masu
already do(POT)-PTCPL be-POL

"(The dinner) is ready."
or "It has been done already."

moo junbi ga deki-te i-masu
already preparation NOM do(POT)-PTCPL be-POL

"The preparations are already complete."

itsuka made-ni dekiru deshoo
5th by do(POT) COP-suppose

"I think we'll get it finished by the 5th."

- fukumu

enbun o fukun-de iru
salt ACC include-PTCPL be

"It contains salt."

shokujidai mo fukun-de iru
cost of meals also include-PTCPL be

"The bill includes the cost of meals."

Notion: non-availability

- nai/ari-masen

ima jikan ga nai
now time NOM NEG

"I haven't got any time now."
sonna energy ga arimasen such NOM have-POL-NEG

"I haven't got enough energy to do that."

Notion: occurrence

- aru

gogo kaigi ga aru afternoon meeting NOM there is

"There's a meeting this afternoon."

yuube kaji ga at-ta last night fire NOM there is-PAST

"There was a fire last night."

Other predicates

taikai ga hirak-are-ta general meeting NOM hold-PASS-PAST

"A general meeting was held."

eiga ga jooei-sare-te-iru movie NOM show-PASS-PTCPL-be

"That movie is now screening."

East-Timor de iroiro na mondai ga LOC various MODIF problem NOM

okot-te-iru occur-PTCPL-be

"There's a lot of trouble going on in East-Timor just now."

sakuya sensoo ga okot-ta last night war NOM occur-PAST

"Last night a battle broke out."

tsuyu ga hajimat-ta rainy season NOM begin-PAST

"The rainy season has begun."

concert wa doko de itsu desu ka TOP where LOC when COP Q

"Where and when will the concert be?"
ima Ichibanchoo no restaurant de kaji na
now GEN LOC fire MODIF

soo desu EVIDENT COP

"They say there is a fire at that restaurant in
Ichibanchoo."

mizu ga de-te i-masu
water NOM come out-PTCPL be-POL

"Water is coming out."

yooji ga deki-ta
business NOM have-PAST

"I've just found that I have to do something."
Appendix 4: The "Short Routine" Inventory

The following are some examples from the "short routine" inventory:

sumimasen
"Excuse me."

sumimasen ga ...
"Excuse me, but ... /I'm sorry, but ..."

wakari-masen
"I don't know. / I don't understand."

shitsurei shi-masu
"Excuse me."

osaki ni
"Excuse me for going first."

osaki ni doozo
"After you, please."

soo desu ne
"That's right, isn't it?"

soo deshoo ka
"I wonder."

arigatoo
"Thank you."

kekkoo desu
"That's good. / No, thanks."

ee, o-negai-shi-masu
"Yes, please."

aa, soo desu ka
"Oh, I see."

ki o tsuke-te
"Please take care."

gomen nasai
"I'm sorry."
Appendix 5: Observational Learning

The author while living temporarily in an English-speaking country, has had opportunities to reflect on the importance of listening in the facilitation of both comprehension and production. Most Australians have difficulty in pronouncing my first name, "Tokuko" ([thokʰuˌkʰo]) (U=voiceless vowel). However, one person, who did not attempt to pronounce my name for some time after pronounced it correctly on the first hat the reason that most others had ey immediately tried to repeat my name heard it. One of these people created nt version and still uses it, even n order to learn correct pronunciation ust be sufficient initial exposure for up a mental image of what the word ocassion I observed two people intro- a large dining table. Later in the forgotten each other's names, but a only been listening in (and who had either of the two) was able to help them. This interesting phenomenon is often observed in language classes. If students A and B are talking while student C listens, it is student C who learns more of the information exchanged between A and B than either A or B does. It seems that listening can be a very effective method of learning.
Appendix 5: Observational Learning

The author while living temporarily in an English-speaking country, has had opportunities to reflect on the importance of listening in the facilitation of both comprehension and production. Most Australians have difficulty in pronouncing my first name, "Tokuko" ([tʰɔkʰu kʰo] (U=voiceless vowel). However, one person, who did not attempt to pronounce my name for some time after first hearing it, pronounced it correctly on the first attempt. I suspect that the reason that most others had trouble was because they immediately tried to repeat my name as soon as they first heard it. One of these people created his own quite different version and still uses it, even after three months. In order to learn correct pronunciation it seems that there must be sufficient initial exposure for the student to build up a mental image of what the word really sounds like.

On another occasion I observed two people introducing themselves over a large dining table. Later in the conversation they had forgotten each other's names, but a third person, who had only been listening in (and who had not previously known either of the two) was able to help them. This interesting phenomenon is often observed in language classes. If students A and B are talking while student C listens, it is student C who learns more of the information exchanged between A and B than either A or B does. It seems that listening can be a very effective method of learning.
REFERENCES


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