OVERCOMING ANXIETY: THE USE OF THE GLOBAL SIMULATION TECHNIQUE IN THE TEACHING OF FRENCH TO ADULTS

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Teaching

Faculty of Education
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Declaration

I, Christiane Simone Bostock, hereby declare that the following thesis "Overcoming Anxiety: the Use of the Global Simulation Technique in the Teaching of French to Adults" is all my own work. It has not been previously submitted to any other university for any other degree.

This thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Teaching in the Faculty of Education of the Northern Territory University.

October, 1999

C. S. Bostock
Abstract

In chapter one, I establish that the aim of this thesis is to evaluate the use of the Global Simulation technique to overcome anxiety in adult students when communicating orally. In chapter two, I examine the challenge of adult learning and teaching in general and the effect of ageing on the learning process as well as some approaches in the psychology of adult learning. Chapter three is dedicated to an examination of language teaching methodologies with the view to choosing the most adequate method of teaching adults facing anxiety problems in oral communication. Chapter four aims at defining anxiety and its effects on communication whilst chapter five offers some therapies and educational techniques to overcome communication apprehension. Chapter six is dedicated to the introduction of games, simulations, role-plays and Global Simulation in educational spheres with an assessment of their validity. Chapter seven is a case study in Global Simulation and brings together the findings of an actual Global Simulation which took place in August 1998 at the Grange. A videotape was made of this Global Simulation entitled Un voyage en train et ses aléas (A voyage by train and its hazards) and is available as the practical thesis component.

In the appendices, the readers will find the transcript of the participants' journals offered in concordance with the University of Northern Territory's Ethics protocol, with answers to surveys and questionnaires.

Notes

1. The sign * is used when I have translated the text from French.
2. In some cases, the American spelling has been maintained to keep the integrity of the quotations. This will explain the variance of terms such as ageing, counselling, and behaviour.
Acknowledgments

I would like to extend my heartfelt thanks to the following persons and institutions:

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Chapter One

Introduction
Chapter One

Introduction

In this thesis, I will be examining the use of the Global Simulation technique as a means to reduce anxiety in adult students of French when communicating orally within a group of peers or in situ with native speakers of French. Teaching French to adult students clearly brings out the realisation that the level of anxiety experienced by them is greater than that experience by younger students who, in this postmodern society, know that they are the invincible warriors and forever the winners in a bullying warfare where adults, tired of fighting, give in to societal forces and accept defeat, losing all confidence in their own intellectual abilities. Far, far away are the times when adults were feeling respected, trusted and loved. Adults have become self-doubting and adult educators have the task of repairing the feelings of loss, fear, anxiety, helplessness experienced at times by their students. Alexandre Dumas, the French writer wrote that

'A person who doubts himself is like a man who would enlist in the ranks of the enemy and bear arms against himself. He makes his failure certain by himself being the first to be convinced of it' (Alexandre Dumas, Les Trois Mousquetaires in Burns, 1995: 179).

In many cases adult students are, as Alexandre Dumas described, their own worst enemies. They are incapable of showcasing their talents and communicative competencies by being apprehensive, anxious and unsure of themselves. It is well documented that writing skills are acquired more rapidly than speaking skills by the students of foreign languages. I use this term in preference to the usual LOTE (Languages other than English) because it is true in all cases of language learning: we could be speaking of languages other than any native language, whether they be English, French, German or any other. I cannot use the term second language as these feelings could be transferred to the learning of the third or fourth language. The term foreign language therefore serves our purpose more adequately. Stern (1983) expands on the confusing state of the nomenclature used to describe a language which is learned as a second language. It is different from the mother-tongue, the native-tongue which is also named first language, primary language, stronger language. He says that, in the past, the term 'foreign language' was used in contrast to 'native language'. However, in recent decades the term 'second language' has been increasingly applied in all
types of non-native language learning (1983: 15). For him '(f)oreign in
"foreign language" can express a relationship between person and language,
i.e., the language is 'new' or 'foreign' to an individual; it does not necessarily
express the legal status of a language, regardless of persons; i.e., a foreign
language as a 'non-national' language, a language which has no legal status
within the nation' (Stern, 1983: 17).

Many adult students possess high levels of competencies in writing essays,
compositions and letters but cannot transfer these linguistic skills to the level
of oral communication. In the many years that I have been teaching, I have
observed my students shudder at the thought of oral examination even
when I was conducting mock exams in the middle of the academic year. I
have seen men and women shake while reading a passage aloud, turning
white in the face or blushing, sweating and losing all knowledge of the
French that I knew they possessed. Some laughed in a very loud,
uncharacteristic manner, others had tears of frustration in their eyes. I could
empathise with them and attempted to make them feel more comfortable
but to no avail. Having studied English as a foreign language I had myself
suffered humiliation, belittling, ridicule, had been laughed at and mocked by
some (fortunately a small minority) teachers and University lecturers. I
understood what Mr X, Miss Y and Mrs Z were feeling and this led me to the
concept of anxiety as a research topic.

In 1994, M. Jean-Pierre Raveneau, the then French Linguistic Attaché in
Victoria, gave a seminar to French teachers and introduced the participants
to the concept of Global Simulation. It sounded to be a fun and motivating
technique to use. After participating, organising and leading Global
Simulation immersion weekends, I saw the value of such a technique in
lowering the inhibitions of students. Guiora (in Schumann 1978) in his study
of pronunciation where he sought to explain the ability that some people
have of acquiring native-like pronunciation in a second language, devised the
notion of 'language ego', a parallel to the Freudian concept of body ego. Just
as the child learns physical boundaries he or she also acquires a sense of
language boundaries (Schumann, 1978: 169). Guiora, Beit-Hallahmi,
Brannon, Dull and Scovel (in Schumann, 1978) equated rigidity of ego
boundaries to heightened levels of inhibition. They reasoned that if the
levels of inhibition could be lowered, ego rigidity would be reduced and the
go permeability would be enhanced (Schumann, 1978: 168). They tested
their idea by giving varying amount of alcohol to their participants and then
tested the pronunciation in a second language. They concluded that with ingestion of one to one-and-one-half ounces of alcohol, pronunciation was better than in either the no-alcohol or the two-or three-ounce conditions. Their experiment suggested that ego permeability is inducible and that 'perhaps the successful adult second language learner is an individual who has access to more childlike ego states in which greater permeability exists' (Schumann, 1978: 169). On the same process, Stevick stated that 'the same effects which the alcohol seems to have achieved can also be reached by social means' (1976: 56). If a certain degree of alcohol improves pronunciation it must also help to untie the tongue of speakers in French. However, social means and uses of conventional and more appropriate devices could presumably achieve the aim of overcoming anxiety in adult students and help them to communicate orally their thoughts, feelings, desires and wants. Indeed, speech is the main communicative device which human beings possess to allow their full integration in a society which, in spite of becoming increasingly electronic and computer-based, still relies heavily on oral interactions and a physical presence. Performance poetry, literary festivals, lunches with writers, debates and other events have created renewed interest and attracted increasing numbers.

Stevick stated 'By speech we design great bridges and fight wars, we express our deep feelings and our spirited aspirations, and even set forth our most subtle linguistic theories. We can talk, we can talk about talk, we can talk about talk about talk, and so on forever. Language is the special treasure of our race. It depends on what we call the mind, but it comes out of the entire person. To learn a second language is to move from one mystery to another' (Stevick 1976: 3).

Speaking involves a very deep commitment of one's own personality and a total surrender of all protective clothing. As soon as one utters a statement, one is recognised as belonging to a linguistic group. As the speaker proceeds, in the air waves are spread markers of his or her level of education, of economic status and geographical settings. If a more lengthy statement is made, the thought patterns will reveal various degrees of intelligence, knowledge, mental wellness or illness and feelings which will erupt like lava from an irate volcano. To speak is to open one's soul to the listener. For those who are already insecure and anxious in their own native language, communication apprehension in the target language will be even more exacerbated.
The second chapter will examine the question of whether adult learning poses a distinct challenge to the teachers. Several problems arise from this question: is adult learning a worthwhile experience for all concerned, feasible and justifiable. In this chapter, I will examine various learning approaches like the Behaviourist, the Cognitive-Gestalt and the Humanist approaches which will help me understand how learning may be achieved. I shall also consider the problems of ageing in relation to its effects on intelligence and memory which are significant tools to learning processes. I shall also consider the effects of personality and of the concept of self on motivation and learning. The problem of whether educators need a different pedagogical approach (andragogy) when addressing adult learning will also be reviewed. Lastly, I shall look at some philosophical perspectives with regard to teaching adults like, for instance, whether it is an economically justifiable venture.

In chapter three of my thesis, I shall examine various methodologies which are at the disposal of teachers facing the challenge of transforming language learners into language users. In this context, I shall therefore examine the following methods: Grammar-Translation method, Direct method, Reading method, the Cognitive method and more humanistic ones like the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning and Communicative Language Teaching to assess their validity in the specific aim which I have, that is to say, to find a technique that will help to overcome anxiety in adult students when communicating orally and develop most effectively communication competencies in my adult students encouraging them to interact with each other and with native speakers in a relaxed and confident manner. In this thesis, I am mainly concerned with the actual teaching and learning situation, the situation which has been induced or influenced, as Stern would state (1983: 19) by some form of deliberately planned social intervention, learning in response to teaching.

I shall look at, in chapter four, the question of anxiety and its effects on communication. Indeed in the many years of my teaching adults, I have faced the challenge of the devastating effects of anxiety and fear in these students. One of the most examined topics of speech communication is the tendency in certain individuals to avoid and even fear oral communication. Daly states that stage fright, speech anxiety, communication apprehension, reticence, social anxiety are terms that have been used to describe various
types of oral communication problems (Horwitz and Young, 1991: 3). He also states that there are other types of anxiety as, for example, that felt in written communication, in listening, receiving information or singing (Horwitz and Young, 1991: 3,4). In the context of this chapter I shall limit myself to the concept of anxiety about communication as felt by adult students in French language classes. In language classes, there may be various barriers to communication; they range from the students not being sufficiently prepared, not being interested, being tired or feeling alienated from the rest of the group; not having a positive view of the culture and language studied, or feeling anxious and fearful.

In chapter five, I shall examine the two types of treatment programmes intended to produce effective communicators that I could use with my adult students who are experiencing anxiety. The first techniques to overcome anxiety in communication that I shall analyse are those which are directed toward reducing communication apprehension. I shall examine these techniques, Biofeedback, Systematic Desensitization, Rational Emotive Therapy and Cognitive Restructuring which may be partially used in classroom management. The other techniques which I shall examine, fall into the category of treatment programmes which are intended to improve communication skills. In this context, I shall look at the Skills Approach and the Relational Competence model. The latter will be examined in more details with an in-depth analysis of its five components: motivation, knowledge, skills, outcomes and context. Some strategies like the use of anxiety graphs, role plays, drama, oral interpretation, use of journals, case studies will also be analysed. The concepts of motivation, personality, emotional states will be looked at from the point of view of the students and the teachers in so far as they are of utter importance in the partnership learner/teacher that I wish to establish. In this context also, the Counseling-Learning theory introduced already in chapter three will be re-examined to show how the needs for the students to grow should be taken into account. The learning environment will be examined, also. Finally, I shall examine Campbell and Ortiz's Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop and their questionnaires which students are asked to fill in and which I have used myself in the Global Simulation weekend, my experiment in applying my theories in this thesis. Cope Powell's approaches will also be examined in order to complete out research on methods to overcome anxiety in communication apprehension.
In chapter six, I shall analyse games, simulations and Global Simulations and the role they play in education with the view to using these techniques in my teaching French to adult students who show anxiety and face communication apprehension, the effects of which, I shall have analysed in chapter four. In this chapter, I shall analyse in great detail the historical background and educational usage of games which are different from simulations but yet are in themselves caricatures of the situation they seek to represent (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 3) with rules and stakes. I shall also look at simulations as providing factual knowledge to those using them, in aviation and in education, at simulation games, at role-plays which are defined by Garvey as the act of being someone else or the act of acquiring experience in a set of activities in which the actor seeks to acquire or to increase in competence (Garvey, 1971: 207). I shall then examine the concept of Global Simulation, its historical background and its use as an outstanding technique to overcome communication anxiety amongst adult students of French, a technique which I saw in action in several immersion weekends for French teachers, and during which I was trained to lead by the French Linguistic Attaché in Victoria, M. Jean-Pierre Raveneau.

Chapter seven, will contain a case study of a Global Simulation exercise done in August 1998 with my adult students and French teachers from Tasmania. I will explain what a Global Simulation involves by intertwining Francis Debyser’s invaluable users’ guide, which I have translated from French, with the whole experience. During the whole weekend three ‘camera-persons’ (one woman and two men) filmed the whole process. I have more than thirty hours of visual data and I provide with my written thesis a fifty-five minute videotape which may be considered as a témoignage visuel (a visual account).

The theme of the Global Simulation was a voyage by train in France with all the hazards which may be encountered in such a venture. The Global Simulation was done over two days at The Grange, which is a beautiful mansion in Campbell Town in the heart of the Midlands of Tasmania.

The weekend started on the 8th of August 1998 at 9 am. After everyone had been made welcome and accommodation details had been finalised, we started at 9h 30 by my giving explanations of my research project and clarifying the ethics clearance procedures. Questionnaires were filled in, surveys done and explanations were given on how to keep the journals
(which are reproduced in this thesis in appendix 4). Coffee breaks and lunch allowed the participants to mix, talk (in French or in English according to the rule of the weekend described in the Case Study chapter, chapter seven of my thesis). On this first day, three workshops were completed: Create your character, All aboard! and What a catastrophe! A dinner in the restaurant was an opportunity to exchange ideas and have fun. After dinner, a film The Hairdresser’s Husband was shown for those who wanted to watch a French film. The following day, Sunday 9th of August, saw the completion of two workshops My God! and One year Later interspaced with tea-breaks and lunch. In this chapter, my aim is to convince the readers, Foreign Language teachers and students that the Global Simulation technique is an invaluable tool, or technique to overcome adult students’ anxiety in oral communication.

In chapter eight, conclusion, I bring together all of the arguments that the Global Simulation technique is an effective tool to overcome anxiety in adult learners of French when communicating orally and finally confirm the validity of my hypothesis. In the appendices, I will include the questionnaires used, and a transcript of the participants’ journals (done according to ethics clearance protocol).
Chapter Two

The Challenge of Adult Learning
Chapter Two

The Challenge of Adult Learning

Introduction

In this second chapter the question of whether adult learning poses a distinct challenge to the teacher will be examined. Several problems arise from this question: is adult learning a worthwhile experience for the learners and their teachers? By worthwhile we mean not only feasible but justifiable. In attempting to answer the question of feasibility, one will have to examine various learning approaches like, for instance the Behaviourist, the Cognitive-Gestalt and the Humanist approaches and consider the problems of ageing vis-à-vis its effects on intelligence and memory, two essential tools for learning. We also will need to consider the effects of personality and the concept of self on motivation and learning. The next problem that will arise will be addressed under the heading of andragogy. Is it necessary to use a different scientific or even artistic method to that used in the teaching of children? Several philosophical perspectives will also be examined to establish whether teaching adults is a justifiable venture, a question that needs to be addressed in our economic circumstances and a question which could be asked of me as a researcher ‘why bother with adults?’.

Adult life is not, as Burns stated, a plateau but a time in life full of ups and downs (Burns, 1995: 226) and I believe, a time when one needs to reassess one’s past to make it the future however short it may be, a time when the present is the time to forget, to forgive, to move on. In Burns’ view

It is important to remember that there is no one predetermined future but a range of potential futures depending on which purposeful decisions and actions we take. There is a past which is gone forever but there is a future that is still ours to determine (Burns, 1991 in Burns, 1995: 3).

At a recent conference of the World Education Fellowship (WEF) in Launceston, Tasmania, Edward de Bono spoke. The title of his paper was ‘You can analyse the past but you have to design the future’. He stated that
we are obsessed with what is and not enough with what could be. We must teach children to sharpen their perceptions as 90% of errors of thinking are errors of perceptions, teach them to think and design for the future. The World Education Fellowship founded in 1921 is a voluntary and non-partisan association which enjoys the status of a Unesco non-governmental organisation category B. The principles of the WEF are as follows.

Principles of the WEF

(a) Primary purpose of education today is to help all of us to grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident, well-informed, competent and responsible individuals in society and in the world community.

(b) People develop these qualities when they live in mutually supportive environments where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation. Schools should aim to be communities of this kind.

(c) Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with support from others. They should be helped to achieve both local involvement and a global perspective.

(d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilising personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities.

(e) Methods of assessment should aim to describe achievement and promote self-esteem.

These activities of the WEF which are described as being to - identify and pursue changes in policies and practices to meet the varying individual and shared educational needs of people of all ages, promote education as a lifelong process for all people, regardless of sex, race, beliefs, economic status
or abilities, are the ones which concern us in this work where the education of adults is our interest.

2.1 Adults and change

Jarvis states that an insoluble dichotomy of human existence asserts itself in old age. Older people have established patterns of behaviour and systems of meaning which helped them through their lives. They could, therefore, take much for granted; they have reached the stage where they are in harmony with the world (Jarvis, 1992: 205 - 206). There is 'constant disjuncture between their experience and their biography; and this is both emerging and disconcerting' (Jarvis, 1992: 206).

In this ever changing society, adults have had to accept change and as Stevick said whoever stops taking in the new and letting go of that which no longer fits, will stop unfolding their very self and will in a way die on the symbolic level (Stevick, 1980: 295). Organisations have had to restructure to ensure efficiency and competitiveness; employees are stressed by the uncertainty of how change will affect their careers, fearing loss of status, power, autonomy (Burns, 1995: 81) and even employment. Universities are being corporatised, public services privatised and nothing is the same anymore. In such a society, many adults have turned to education, not only to ensure that they will retain their employment and their position in society, but also to ensure that their minds are kept active and interested and to maintain a growth of their self. Many adults turn to the study of languages, a passport to more fulfilling and enjoyable travelling experiences. Some return to their study of languages to prove to themselves that the failures they encountered as adolescents were only due to a lack of motivation and active learning. Some have fallen in love with foreigners, others whose children are overseas, married with children, want to learn the language to participate in the life and upbringing of their grandchildren. Some see languages as a course of possible career advancement, others as a source of enjoyment and others again as an intellectual challenge. Whatever their motives most are in night classes to learn and enjoy. At the beginning of each school year in Tasmanian Colleges, numbers are flourishing but as
winter brings rain, hail or snow, the possibility of staying at home near a roaring wood fire becomes more and more enticing. As the learning becomes more difficult and more demanding the attraction of the wood-fire increases and classes are depleted. Towards the end of the year, remain those who are free of other commitments, hard-working, desperate to know the delicacies and intricacies of the language. Unfortunately, it is only towards the end of the year that teachers and students realise that, as Brachfeld said in 1936, 'When I learn a language ... it is not my linguistic talent, nor my intelligence, nor my reasoning which does the learning: it is I who am learning, ie, the entire person?' and that there is a turning point in language learning in which the language clicks' (Brachfeld in Stern, 1984: 321). I have often told my own students the very same point and indeed, we have noticed that towards the end of the school year, when all the points of grammar have been studied the miracle happens and as Brachfeld is quoted as saying, by Stern '... for the first time the student speaks the foreign language as easily and as "naturally" as his own – though perhaps not correctly. But what matters is not correctness in every detail, but above all, a feeling for the form, the structure, the spirit of the foreign language' (Stern, 1983: 322).

I shall look at the concept of learning which may be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour. How do adults learn? Three approaches will be examined: the Behaviourist, the Cognitive-Gestalt and the Humanist/Phenomenological approaches. I shall then consider the problems of ageing and its consequences on intelligence and memory. As we have seen previously ageing, and personality factors must be considered as they create the infrastructure for learning behaviour. The concept of self is a critical one to examine in this chapter on adult learning as often, adults lack self-esteem and confidence to pursue intellectual aims. The concept of locus of control and its importance in the degree of willingness of individuals to learn will be examined. The education of adults must make provisions for differences in style, time, place and pace of learning and therefore Burns' concept of andragogy will be examined.
2.2 Psychology of Adult learning

What is learning? Burns concedes it is not an easy term to define as it covers a multitude of activities and processes. 'The best definition is to conceive of learning as a relatively permanent change in behaviour including both observable and internal processes such as thinking, attitudes and emotions' (Burns, 1995: 99-100). Learning is not only acquiring a correct set of facts, it is concerned with more than knowledge as the range of learning is extremely wide and is involved in virtually every piece of behaviour humans can exhibit, states Burns (1995: 100). Adults can learn to show fear inappropriately; learning is emotional and social as well as concerned with factual knowledge and physical action; most of our learning is done by socialisation in our particular culture; we copy others, interpret our actions by the responses of others and, adds Burns, learners learn far more in a classroom through verbal and non-verbal cues than the teacher ever sets out to teach (Burns, 1995: 101).

Psychologists who have produced theories on how we learn can be divided in three discrete camps: the Behaviourist (stimulus – response) approach, the Cognitive-Gestalt approach and the Humanist/Phenomenological approach (Burns, 1995: 101). What distinguishes the three groups in their philosophical view of human beings in their environment? Burns defines these views in this way 'Is the human a passive learner ready to be molded, functioning largely in reaction to stimulation from the environment? Does the human operate on the environment in an intentional way? Or are humans endowed with a positive self-directing drive to grow psychologically and "become" whatever they are capable of becoming' (Burns, 1995: 102). Let us first consider the Behaviourist approach to learning.

2.2.1 The Behaviourist Approach

Behaviourists assume we see and experience the world exactly as it is in the physical world; human behaviour can, thus, be understood in terms of cause and effect, in term of stimuli eliciting
behavioural responses; this theory is sometimes called the stimulus – response or S-R theory (Burns, 1995: 102). In this theory, the person ‘is a reactive, passive robot who responds predictably and unthinkingly to stimulation’ (Burns, 1995: 102). Two major theories lie within the structure of behaviourism: the classical conditioning and the operant conditioning. Pavlov’s experiments were the first to show how responses became attached to stimuli. If a little facetious interlude is allowed it would be important to mention that, in our study of anxiety in adult students of French in the sphere of oral communication, none of the subjects are attached to the chair, like in the Pavlov’s experiment on predictably responsive and salivating dogs. However, even if the conditions are not totally reproduced for various ethical reasons, Pavlov’s theory can still be relevant to our research. If an adult has done very poorly at school in his/her foreign language studies the anxiety response may extend easily to a wide variety of stimuli.

If you experienced anxiety, loss of self-esteem and failure because you did poorly in a test at school or just didn’t cope with academic matters, then these feelings attached to learning situations can return and impede opportunities for further study that present themselves later in life (Burns, 1995: 104-105).

In many cases early schooling experiences have built up a self-concept or self-image that will pre-determine further studies. Classical conditioning affects the adults’ attitudes. Some people study a subject at evening class because they enjoy the warm, friendly atmosphere the tutors create.

The difference between classical conditioning and operant conditioning is that, in the former, there must always be an existing S-R link available into which, the new stimuli can be introduced; in the latter, behaviour is seen as a function of its consequences; in this type of conditioning, people are seen to behave in ways that help them obtain something they want or avoid something they don’t want. Reinforcers are used, but “it is
essential that reinforcement is always given immediately after the
response has been made, otherwise the link between the two will
not be made. Teaching, to Skinner, (1968: 20) is "simply the
arrangement of the contingencies of reinforcement" (Burns, 1995:
107).

Examples of operant behaviour are around us constantly. A
teacher, for instance, will say that you can only obtain a high
grade if all classes are attended and all work submitted. In the
Tasmanian Certification, for example, criteria have been included
to test these two aspects. We can see in this system that a
dichotomy arises insofar as in external studies programmes no
such criteria can be assessed.

Behaviour that is not reinforced will die out; reward is not
however, synonymous with reinforcement. Negative
reinforcement involves being aware of what to do to avoid an
unpleasant consequence. Some students will work hard to avoid
failure. Punishment is used to eliminate an undesirable
behaviour; 'punishment follows a response and leads to a
decrease in the exhibition of the response'. (Burns, 1995: 108). The
problem remains that it does not show what the correct behaviour
might be; punishment is distinguished from negative
reinforcement, as it marks a moment for the learner when things
get worse, because positive reinforcers are lost, or because an
unpleasant state of affairs follows. Shaping, a technique used to
reinforce behaviour, involves giving a reinforcement to any
response that approximates more and more closely the denied
behaviour. 'By arranging instruction in small steps, learners can
acquire the correct response quickly, obtain reinforcement and
move on to the next step' (Burns, 1995: 109). In the first stages of
learning, a continuous schedule of reinforcement must be put in
place, but once the behaviours are established they only need
reinforcing from time to time. Feedback is used for reinforcement;
it is 'any information that tells the student how well the student is
doing' (Burns, 1995: 110); it must be given as soon as possible after the performance of the correct response. 'Feedback is vital at the start of learning a new task to maintain motivation and to ensure that wrong techniques and approaches are not learned at the outset' (Burns, 1995: 110). What element of this theory is used in the teaching of foreign languages? In the learning of vocabulary lists and grammatical skills we, as teachers expect that our students will become conditioned and will develop patterns or habits of response which in time will become automatic. For fluency in the foreign language, we need automatic responses which are acquired mechanically and rigidly but this does not take into account the attitudes and feelings of the learners. It is evident then, that in the teaching of languages, this approach is not totally satisfactory. This will be examined further in chapter three in the review of the Audiolingual Method. After having briefly considered the Behaviourist view let us turn now to a different approach.

2.2.2 The Cognitive-Gestalt approach

The Cognitive-Gestalt approach emphasises the significance of the fact that each person learns and behaves in terms of what is real to them (Burns, 1995: 112). This approach account for the different ways in which individuals make sense of their environment and takes into account the individuals' past experiences, needs, expectations and aspirations. 'Learning, in this approach, is therefore based on the reorganisation of experiences into systematic and meaningful patterns that lead to problem-solving and insight' (Burns, 1995: 112). Gestalt psychologists claim that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts; for them, the whole of behaviour is not simply the sum of the parts but is made up of a web that defies deconstruction into its constituent parts. The Gestalt psychologists believe that there is a uniqueness that characterises each person and which comes from the special way they engage in interaction with their environment and the term life
space is used to convey this special way of interpreting one's environment (Burns, 1995: 113).

Meaningfulness is an important concept for Gestalt psychologists; our brain, they say, tends to look for patterns and completion, and forms a mind map which helps it to get a firm grip on a new subject or idea. The Gestalt psychologists formulated some 'laws' termed the laws of Pragnanz or meaningfulness, which suggest that a person will structure the perceptual field in as simple and clear a way as possible in order to impose meaning on it (Burns, 1995: 114). Each individual will create their own particular meaning based on their current context and past experiences. This theory also stresses insight, a sudden realisation of how to solve a problem by a cognitive restructuring of the environment (Burns, 1995: 115). Burns states that the most important contribution a teacher can make to the adults' learning of cognitive information is to select, organise, translate and present the new material in such a way that the learner will appreciate its relationship with ideas, concepts and principle the learners already have in their memory (Burns, 1995: 116-117).

This is a very important concept for both children and adults, and critical (but difficult) in language learning – because languages, reflect culture and consequently break up reality in different ways. Grammar distinctions such as the French gender rules for inanimate objects and the subjunctive cause particular problems.

Ausubel, notes Burns, advocates the use of advance organisers to aid meaningfulness prior to the introduction of new material (Burns 1995: 117); the sequencing of subject matter is very important indeed. In Cognitive-Gestalt learning, the challenge for the teacher is to accommodate the uniquely personal nature of each student's life space, with the implication that each student will perceive the learning situation differently (Burns, 1995: 118).
If one poses the question, 'are there any links between the cognitive and behaviourist approaches?', one would have to consider three issues that reveal a link: transfer of learning, learning how to learn and social learning theory. Transfer of learning or training is a process by which training or learning in one activity is transferred to another form of activity; this transfer can be positive or negative. Most educational activities are based on the premise that what is learned today will have some relationship to what will be learned tomorrow and that the initial learning will help the second. What examples of positive and negative transfer can be found in the teaching of languages? Burns says that language learning is the closest that one can get to an S-R approach to transfer. Here, there is positive transfer as the response is the same to two different foreign words but negative transfer if two different responses have to be given to the same stimulus, as this causes confusion.

For example:

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S & R & S \\
Chien & Dog & Hund & Dog \\
\end{array}
\]

This usually promotes transfer

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S & R & S \\
Dog & Chien & Hund \\
\end{array}
\]

This usually impedes transfer

(Burns, 1995: 120)

The Gestalt psychologists think that insight, generalisation and meaningfulness must be present for transfer to occur. Transfer involves risk-taking. 'If we wish to encourage transfer, the teaching context must avoid sarcasm, rigidity and threat, and encourage risk taking and the right to make mistakes' (Burns, 1995: 121). Learning how to learn is a prime example of transfer. Burns quotes Harlow's work which demonstrates that S-R learning and insightful learning are related; he demonstrated with students that once the principle of some problem had been grasped, insight occurred after the initial trial and error using a S-R approach had been employed (Burns, 1995: 122).
According to Burns, Gagné offers a useful hierarchical model of learning linking Gestalt learning to behaviourist approaches. Gagné's eight levels are:

- Signal learning or classical conditioning
- S-R learning
- Motor chain learning
- Verbal chain learning
- Multiple discrimination
- Concept learning
- Rule learning
- Problem solving

(Burns, 1995: 123)

These are used widely in our language classes in at the various stages of the learning process.

The simplest cognitive learning is the *verbal chaining*, the formation of a link between two items. For verbal chaining, excessive amount of repetition and revision are required to ensure it is remembered; the teacher's role is to make the material more meaningful to facilitate transfer to other situations. Bruner adds that *learning by discovery* is essential to make the material more meaningful (Burns, 1995: 124) as discovery, the process of rearranging or transforming the evidence goes beyond the evidence but resembles it to create additional new insights and becomes a reward in itself and thus motivates further enquiry' (Burns, 1995: 124); this motivation is of the intrinsic kind (and will be discussed in the next chapter). The major objective of the cognitive theorists is to emphasise the need for the learner to gain insight, understand and relate new knowledge to past ones for it to make sense of them. In the Global Simulation technique which we are proposing as an effective way to reduce anxiety in adult students of French, the learners are encouraged to relate their knowledge in that very precise way. According to Burns, Bruner sees cognitive development as 'an attempt to construct a model of the external world from which an individual can make sense of their own personal world' (Burns, 1995: 124). The Global
Simulation lends itself perfectly to the structuring of a model and allows for a high cognitive development of the participants as the adult students bring with them experience and expectation: the two key elements of Bandura's social learning theory (Burns, 1995: 124).

As seen before, much learning is done vicariously, therefore, the role of the model is critical. 'The model should be a significant other to the person doing the modelling' (Burns, 1995: 125). Four processes have been found to determine the influence the model will have on the individual: attention, retention, reproduction and reinforcement. Even if aggression leads to a high level of modelling, it is equally true that caring, supportive affiliation is likely to be initiated in group situations and can build up team cohesion. In general, teachers behave in ways that they want the learner to model or initiate; the teachers should therefore, to promote self-directed and problem solving behaviour, model these very behaviours, show how to listen with empathy, and give feedback. If copying a model is the first stage of the learning task, identification is the next step. Feedback should focus on positives rather than negatives and state what has been observed and be specific rather than general statements; feedback should also focus on the performance (Burns, 1995: 127-129).

Gestalt psychology was the start of the Humanist/Phenomenological approach. This approach has developed much further into a focus on experiential learning and phenomenology in which the individual is seeking greater personal adequacy, self-esteem and self-actualisation. “Self-actualising” or “becoming” is a process that never ends. The psychologist Carl Rogers vividly described this form of learning:

It has a quality of personal involvement – the whole person in both his feeling and cognitive aspects being in the learning event. It is self-initiated. Even when the impetus or stimulus comes from outside, the sense of discovery, of reaching out, of grasping and comprehending, comes from within. It is pervasive. It makes a difference in the behaviour, attitudes, perhaps even the personality of the learner. It is
evaluated by the learner. He knows whether it is meeting his need, whether it leads towards what he wants to know, whether it illuminates the dark area of ignorance he is experiencing. The locus of evaluation resides definitely in the learner. Its essence is meaning. When such learning takes place, the element of meaning to the learner is built into the whole experience (Burns, 1995: 130).

It is the opposite to behaviourism; 'learning is synonymous with human growth and the development of potential is mediated through symbolic interaction with the human and physical environment, as subjectively and idiosyncratically interpreted by each individual' (Burns, 1995: 130). Humanism is concerned with the growth and full development of the whole person. Maslow who initiated this approach to psychology differentiates between intrinsic and extrinsic education, intrinsic education being that which changes people and enables them to move towards their unique potential and extrinsic education being that which is only an end in itself (Burns, 1995: 130). Maslow sees the goals of education as being self-actualisation, helping people to become the best that they are capable to become, the development of identity and vocation. The goals of a language teacher are to help students to achieve intrinsic education which will change their cultural perspectives and allow them to be self-actualising. According to Burns, teachers can easily recognise the self-actualising students as they are freer from anxiety, less dogmatic and conformist, more inner-directed, creative and spontaneous, more flexible with healthy interpersonal relationships (Burns, 1995: 131). The Global Simulation technique allows these traits to be developed in the adult students by providing them with a creative, spontaneous, non-conformist activity in which a whole gammut of relationships can flourish and blossom.

After having examined the approach which stated that human behaviours could be understood in terms of cause and effect where human beings are passive robots responding predictably to stimulation and the approach which saw people learning and behaving in terms of what is real to them, we shall now turn to the more humanistic view of human learning.
2.2.3 The Humanist Approach

For the humanist, learning involves the total person and is learning how to be fully human. All behaviour is the attempt of the organism to enhance itself; this is 'self actualisation' as Rogers calls it, the process of becoming (Burns, 1995: 131). Feelings and emotions play an important part in the learning process. Adults not only are, but feel unique, able and independent; however, those who have had bad experiences at school are fearful, anxious and insecure. Teachers must provide a climate of encouragement and understanding (Burns, 1995: 132). One can ask 'What must educators be like to encourage and understand their students?' We have already seen that they must be sensitive and empathetic. Burns adds that they must also be accepting and genuine, presenting 'themselves as authentically as possible without a barrier or mask associated with the role limiting the building of trust with the learner' (Burns, 1995: 132). The concept of the mask is very pertinent to our research as, we shall see later, it is the students' personal masks which we are trying to bring down to exorcise bad experiences. The wearing of a new mask is the name of the game in our simulation. To succeed as a leader in a Global Simulation one must belong to the self-actualising type of teacher which research which shows as being more 'open-minded, less dogmatic, warm and encouraging of student self-directed learning than non-self-actualising teachers' (Burns, 1995: 133).

The Humanist approach to learning invites the adult students to be themselves in an informal, relaxed and non-threatening climate in which interactions reinforce personal worth. While Behaviourism puts the emphasis on a uniform standardised teaching approach, Humanism considers each learner as an individual with particular needs, bringing past experiences and expectations to the learning situation. Humanists like Rogers place the concept of the self centrally in their theory. 'They
believe that there is a real self, and an ideal self that the person would like to be' (Burns, 1995: 133). For Rogers, a *fully functioning person* must be self-initiated with personal involvement, with the learning experience incorporated into the person's total experience. The students should therefore participate fully in planning, delivering and evaluating learning which presupposes self-responsibility and independence (Burns, 1995: 133). The Humanist (as we have seen in the above study of various learning theories) wants to provide an education which will assist the individual to develop a mature personality. In the teaching of adults, therefore, we can see the importance and relevance of such an approach allied with some aspects of the other theories proposed. In any communicative interaction there are examples of conditioning drawn from the Behaviourist theory and of reorganising of experiences into systematic and meaningful patterns as shown by the Cognitive-Gestalt theorists. I shall now turn to the effects of ageing on intelligence and memory.

2.3 The Effects of Ageing on intelligence and memory

2.3.1 Intelligence

Age-related difference in second language acquisitions were examined by Larsen-Freeman and Long. They reported that four major causes have been suggested in this area of contention among scholars:

- Social-psychological explanation
- Cognitive explanation
- Input explanation
- Neurological explanation

(Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 163-164)

In their review of the literature, Larsen-Freeman and Long stated research that showed that adults differed from children in that they might be more inhibited or that their identity might be more
firmly established. Adults might be unable to use the LAD in their second language acquisition. Some research also showed that younger learners received better input than adults which gave them opportunities for language play with their native-speaking peers. Finally they reported the two main positions in the literature regarding the effect of neurological factors which showed the lateralization process (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 163-164).

Adult students show signs of self-doubt constantly either by being slow to answer questions or totally reluctant. In classes populated by younger students, once the primeval fears have been conquered, a healthy interactive rapport is established. However in classes of adults, it is generally more difficult to extract answers to questions or find a student who will be prepared to come forward to act or recite or speak in front of the whole class. When confronted, students of a more advanced age will automatically say that they feel shy, uncomfortable, afraid and anxious. The use of role plays in pairs and small groups is an invaluable way to dispel their reluctance to come forward and the climate of the classroom always becomes more relaxed and noisy. Students who are forced to get up and instigate a conversation with someone who is outside their safe circle become less reluctant and anxious over the academic year. The Global Simulation technique goes beyond this first success as we shall see later. Experience gained so far in my teaching career shows that there is a significant difference between classes of young students and older students and we can pose the question, 'Does ageing impact on the ability to communicate without anxiety because intellectual abilities are reduced or failing?' Research indicates that individuals do not reveal massive mental degeneration as they age. We need to consider, as educators, the social and environmental conditions in which adults operate and which make them appear to decline intellectually, underfunction, reveal low motivation and show low self-esteem (Burns, 1995: 152). How do we, as teachers of adults,
develop in our students, positive learning attitudes so that they
develop new skills, become confident, self-pacing?

Ageing is a gradual and immensely variable bodily decline. There
is a widespread view that brain cells are lost and never replaced;
however studies on animals by Diamond reveal that there are
insignificant losses in animals (Burns, 1995: 153) and that even if
there is a decline in physical abilities in human beings, as, for
example, loss of visual or auditority acuity and reaction time,
there is no proven significant decline of the process of learning.

Studies on changes due to age have been made in two ways: cross
sectional and longitudinal. In cross-sectional studies, samples of
individuals of different ages are compared at the same point in
time; these studies find generally a decreasing score with
increasing age of the cohort group, but as Burns says, there are
many social, cultural and environmental reasons why this can be
expected (Burns, 1995: 153). ‘Healthy ageing... does not
necessarily imply a decline in mental faculties’ (Burns, 1995: 154).
Longitudinal studies are more reliable as they follow the
individuals through a lengthy time span from the beginning to the
end of the study, and show that there are no appreciable changes
over the lifespan. In fact, in many cases, variations in performance
in numerical ability and verbal ability seem to depend on whether
there is continuing use of these particular skills in daily life
(Burns, 1995: 154). The ‘If you don’t use it, you lose it’ of the
various television publicities to encourage physical exercise, is
also valid for mental exercise. In one study, a group of students
aged from 60 to 90 volunteered to learn German from scratch. In
only six months, half of them reached a level which is normally
achieved by school students after four years of study (Burns, 1995:
154). In my professional life, I have been able to compare the
performance of adult students and younger students. In all cases
the adult students achieved a higher level of competencies; it is
obvious we must take into consideration, though, the higher level
of motivation of adults, the desire to learn French for a purposeful end, whether it be for work, enjoyment or simply travel.

Studies have shown contradictory results in the reaching of conclusions with regard to decline in intellectual capacities. Burns refers to the cross-sectional studies done by Thorndike (1928) and Wechsler (1958) which indicate that performance peaks around 21-22 years of age and then declines (Burns, 1995: 5). This, of course, is today shown as a rather sweeping statement which can be shown to be wrong. Did not John Dewey do his best work when he was 70? Thorndike's system is a rather loose collection of rules and suggestions. According to him, a law is, at any one time, a statement which at the time seemed to have some general application. The psychological nature of man underlies the psychology of connectionism and forms the basis of Thorndike's pedagogy. 'He said that the mind is the "sum total of the connections between situations which life offers and the responses, which the man makes." Motivation and satisfaction of human wants become of primary importance in the system (Smith, 1987: 107). Smith says of Thorndike that 'the purposiveness of learning is explained as a matter of man's superior connection system' (Smith, 1987: 101) (apologies made to the feminists!).

Thorndike enunciated several laws of learning: the law of readiness, a law of preparatory adjustment not a law of growth where readiness meant preparation for action; the law of exercise which stated that frequency alone would not produce improvement and retention; he repeated that practice must be accompanied with interest and zeal; the law of effect in which, in his earlier research, Thorndike said that human behaviour is modifiable because bonds between a situation grow stronger when accompanied by satisfaction and weakened when accompanied by annoyance. He revised and modified this law when he realised that satisfaction and annoyance were not a
complete and exact parallelism. In 1949, Thorndike proposed the concept of *belongingness*; he believed that sequence should be accompanied by belongingness; the sense of belonging did not need to be logical, essential, inherent or unifying; rather, a 'this goes with that' connection was sufficient (Smith, 1987: 104-106). He also developed secondary laws of learning. 'The satisfaction of human wants provides the basis for motivation leading to both motor and mental activity' (Smith, 1987: 107).

Thorndike compared adult with youthful learning. He concluded that adults can indeed learn. He later modified his concept, saying that the ability of adults to learn diminished with age. These rather sweeping generalisations were challenged by other studies done by longitudinal methods which showed that adults continually showed gradual improvement in performance on the tests. They suggest, says Burns, 'that intelligence as measured by a test score is not doomed to decline with age in those of average and above average intelligence who operate within a stimulating or challenging environment' (Burns, 1995: 155).

Cattell's concept of fluid and crystalised intelligence can help understand the process of ageing. For him, *fluid intelligence* is the biological inheritance and *crystalised intelligence* is that which is capable of growth through the influence of environment, mainly individual experiences and social processes (Burns, 1995: 142). This concept has much in common with Hebb's A and B intelligences. Intelligence A, like fluid intelligence, is rather formless, independent of education and experience. Intelligence B, like crystalised intelligence, is the result of fluid intelligence mixed with cultural knowledge and shows general knowledge, verbal comprehension, coping with social situations, and arithmetical manipulation (Burns, 1995: 143), but it is well known that IQ tests based on cultural knowledge are not reliable tests. Fluid and crystalised intelligence develop during childhood and adolescence but on reaching neurological maturity there is a
decrease in fluid intelligence. Crystalised intelligence, which, increases with age, is dependent on experience and on interaction with the environment, but changes in verbal learning ability depend more on attention, motivation and perception than on age (Burns, 1995: 156). Burns concludes that there is mixed evidence on the effects of age on intelligence. The relationship between age and mental ability is small and the claim of massive decline in intellectual performance cannot be substantiated on current evidence' (Burns, 1995: 159). I shall now look at the effects of ageing on memory.

2.3.2 Memory

Adult students worry more about the difficulties they encounter when learning French vocabulary lists than younger students. Mnemonic devices, use of relaxing music, repetition and reinforcement help alleviate the problem. We need to ask ourselves whether the ability to memorise decreases with age. Memory is very selective at all ages and depends on what motivates and interests the individuals. There exist many models and analyses of human memory. The stage approach which distinguishes between registration or encoding, retention or storage and recall or retrieval. 'Encoding refers to the initial establishment of a neural code for the information. Storage is the preservation of the encoded material over time, and recall refers to the ability to produce the information when required' (Burns, 1995: 160). The encoding seems to be the stage which presents the most problems for the adults and relates to the pace of stimulus presentation. Evidence for age-related changes in recall are not strong and there are contradictory results and difficulties in investigating retrieval which make it difficult to reach valid conclusions (Burns, 1995: 161).

Another approach in memory studies makes distinctions between two types of memory storage systems: primary and secondary
memory. 'Primary memory is thought to be a temporary holding or organising buffer through which all information that will be subsequently remembered must pass' while 'secondary memory refers to all the durable knowledge that one possesses that is not in immediate consciousness' (Burns, 1995: 162). Research shows that age does not appear to affect ability to store information; long-term memory, secondary memory is therefore not affected by age but short-term memory, primary memory appears to be affected by age, possibly through sensory impairments in sight and hearing or in decreasing speed of neurological functioning (Burns, 1995: 162), or perhaps through a loss of interest in life due to constant battering of the self by circumstances, historical happenings, illness, lack of desire, lack of a sense of future and hope.

To the question 'why do we forget?' Burns proposes several answers: the trace decay theory suggests that chemical traces, the link between neurons gradually diminishes; the theory of motivated forgetting, related to Freudian psychoanalytic theory, suggests that the person does not want to remember; the interference theory, which implies that interplay and confusions in the build-up of memories cause forgetting, has been widely used to explain the loss of memory in older adults; the restructuring theory is related to Gestalt learning and meaningfulness. Barlett's experiment (1932) referred to by Burns, suggesting that new learning is interpreted in terms of knowledge, illustrates the issue (Burns, 1995: 167). Burns concludes that memory itself does not decline, but what appears to happen is that interference becomes much greater (Burns, 1995: 172). Burns states that in other complex intellectual activities, researchers show sometimes some age-related decline like, for example, in perception, in flexibility of thinking and the ability to change concepts and classify items under a concept framework, in the ability to process logical deductions, in the ability to provide abstract or general statements. However, too little evidence is available to ascertain
decline in decision-making and problem-solving ability but, as we have seen before, the feeling of hopelessness, the lack of desire may influence the level of motivation necessary to learn. 'The uses to which people put their capabilities depends on their needs, drives, desires, loves, hates, fears, and their feeling about self and others' (Burns, 1995: 179).

After having examined the effects of ageing on intelligence and memory I shall look at how personality affects the way in which we respond to and interact with our environment.

2.4 Personality

Personality plays an important part in the participation level of students in the Global Simulation exercises. Indeed personality characteristics create the infrastructure for behaviour and influence the degree to which we use our intelligence. There are around 18,000 terms to describe personality traits. Cattell reduces them to 16, which he termed 'the source or primary traits of personality' (Burns, 1995: 195). Some traits can be grouped together into four personality types: introversion-extroversion, high anxiety-low anxiety (Burns, 1995: 195) and it is essential for teachers to recognise the differences in personality. Eysenck (1975 in Burns, 1995: 198) has claimed that two major personality dimensions only are needed to explain difference in personality between individuals. One continuum covers the extremes of extroversion and introversion and the other the extremes of neuroticism and stability. As Burns states, Eysenck claims that physiological differences underlie these extremes. The extrovert, he says, has a lower level of arousal in the cortex which means more input is needed from the environment to make an impact on the nervous system of the extrovert. Therefore more stimulation is needed to achieve this higher level of arousal resulting in highly social and noisy behaviour. Introverts who pay more attention to their environment are easier to condition; therefore they have more of a conscience and will stick to rules, regulations and requirements. It is evident that these two types will need different teaching styles: introverts prefer
logical and highly structured material whilst extroverts put their own structure to the material (Burns, 1995: 198).

Freud approached personality in dividing it into three components: the *id*, the *ego* and the *superego*. At birth, all the energy is *id* which includes the basic instincts of life-preserving activity. The *ego*, the I, develops as a result of contact with conditioning and socialisation by the environment. The third element of the personality, as seen by Freud, is the *superego* which is something like the conscience. The *superego* can punish people with pangs of embarrassment, shame and guilt (Burns, 1995: 201). In Global Simulations the *superego* can be stripped of its importance to reduce anxiety levels. Indeed, it is the *id* and the *ego* which are addressed in order to free the creative child.

Conflicts between *id*, *ego* and *superego* lead to the invocation of psychological mechanisms of defence. These defence mechanisms include sublimation which redirects instinctive drives into socially acceptable outlets, compensation which allows a person deficient in one talent or skill to substitute another to disguise the deficiency and rationalisation which helps individuals to reinvent excuses for doing what they know is wrong and helps them to soften the disappointment when a goal is not reached. These defence mechanisms also include: projection, which enables individuals to attribute blame onto others; repression, a technique used to put distasteful guilt-producing painful and shameful experiences out of the ego, and withdrawal, which allows individuals to remove themselves physically from a traumatic situation (Burns, 1995: 202-224). When these are used adult students withdraw from the class or from the course altogether, often after having used other defence mechanisms. These mechanisms include displacement of an emotion away from the person or object that is its real target, to a more neutral target and reaction formation, the development and display of behaviour which is the opposite to the one that is really devised are also defence mechanisms.

If personality is to be considered in the context of adult learning so is the concept of the self, as the image or self concept that a person has of
themselves affects their approach to level of performance in education activities.

2.5 Self-concept

Self-concept has three dimensions described by Burns: the present self-image, the ideal self and the self which we believe others perceive (Burns, 1995: 205). The self-concept is a collection of attitudes that a person has about themselves; in a way, it is synonymous to self-image and self-esteem although self-image is the picture and self-esteem the evaluation of positive/negative judgements of that image. William James in the 1890's was the first to discuss self-concept. He saw it as a major motive of behaviour (Burns, 1995: 205). As we know, individuals with positive self-concepts are more positively motivated and therefore achieve better than the others. They also have an internal rather than an external locus of control, that is, they see themselves as responsible for their own success or failure. They have more friends, are self-confident, socially adept, happy, self-reliant and self-confident. People with low self-concept tend to be unhappy, anxious, insecure, self-critical; they are depressed, have no self-confidence, they have a fear of failure and set low goals for themselves (Burns, 1995: 206). 'The self-concept develops from infancy and by adulthood is relatively permanent and difficult to change' (Burns, 1995: 206). What you think of yourself is largely based on what you believe significant others think of you. Whether correct or not we build up that picture of ourselves and behave in accordance with that picture; we shape our self-concepts also as we encounter and cope with the realities of life and we judge ourselves in educational activities, sporting contests and physical appearance and many of these evaluations become normative and the individuals apply them to themselves (Burns, 1995: 207).

Positive self-concepts and negative self-concepts are maintained through a feedback system which validates the level of self-esteem. Research shows that the way a person feels about themselves affects their level of performance, and life success might depend on the way a person feels about genes and circumstances. 'This is why Rogers emphasises unconditional
regard, acceptance, warmth, genuineness and empathy as essential characteristics of good therapists and teachers' (Burns, 1995: 208). These characteristics are most likely to encourage others to perceive themselves as worthy, capable and acceptable. We feel good when we are praised, recognised, successful and others feel the same way when we do that to them. Praising others increases positive self-feelings. In a context of criticism, personal relationships and morale are destroyed. Praise must be given for an attempt even if it is not totally successful as success brings further success (Burns, 1995: 211). What is the role played by self-concept in learning?

The evidence so far indicates that educational performance and level of self-concept are closely related (Burns, 1995: 211). Research shows that negative self-esteem which results from individuals seeing themselves as incompetent and unable to succeed, produces underachievement and at times, withdrawal from academic activity. However, it has also been proven by studies done by Burns (1991) that those who have a positive self-esteem produce results which match their self-perception. Paolo Freire noticed that it was impossible to increase the level of literacy amongst adults in Brazil when they had no sense of self-worth (Burns, 1995: 212).

Good teachers recognise good performance and reward it. The teacher must be an inviter, sending invitation by verbal and non-verbal means to students to see themselves as competent, valuable and acceptable. Good teachers enable students to see themselves in a positive way, and help them to grow (Burns, 1995: 212). Burns offers a list of criteria to describe good teachers. According to him, they should

- Provide opportunities for success and ensure that demands and tasks placed on a learner are suitable for their potential, so that a successful outcome is likely
- Show interest and unconditional acceptance by smiling, greeting and giving attention to learners
- Never emphasise failings or shortcomings, but concentrate on positive facts and provide encouragement
- Prevent fear of trying through fear of failing
- Be pleased with a worthwhile attempt, give credit for trying, and praise learners realistically
- Teach learners to evaluate themselves realistically.

(Burns, 1995: 213).
Jarvis is another scholar who has investigated this area. He notes that the role of the teacher is therefore one of considerable moral responsibility, whatever the age or the stage of development of the learners. Teachers exercise control over the space that their learners occupy. We need to pose the following questions: first, to what extent does anyone have that right to influence the process development so directly? Second, are they suitable to hold that responsibility? 'Are the teachers fully aware of their responsibility and do they relate their teaching to the process of human becoming, or only to that of acquiring knowledge and skills?' (Jarvis, 1992: 238). Is teaching essentially a process of creating reflective or critical thinkers? Is teaching didactic, unreflective or does it have to be managed if society is to remain stable? Jarvis sees the profound association between teaching and politics. Teachers are expected to know it all, to have authority and provide answers (Jarvis, 1992: 239-240). Freire’s philosophy was aiming at abolishing the contradiction that arose when the teachers taught and the students learnt without a dialogue being established. However questions always bring new questions that demand answers but humankind learns gradually that no answer gives absolute authority and certainty. Jarvis notes that learning typifies the human condition and is a part of life that is bound to remain unsatisfied (Jarvis, 1992: 247). With the advent of technology, access to internet and international libraries and electronic journals, teachers are fast losing their authority and their image as experts. In fact, now students with advanced computer skills are becoming the experts, the teachers to many of those teachers who have not become computer literate.

The adult learners, as we have seen previously in this chapter, are often their worst enemies. They lack confidence and their reduced concept of self (Littlewood’s theory will be looked at in chapter four) renders them more tentative and perhaps less successful in learning languages like French.

Some adults think that they are unable to learn as society, sometimes, views adults as non-learners. This is one of the major barriers to adults’ realisation of their learning potential. Adult learners with high self-esteem will feel less threatened by new learning experiences. The potential for learning is always
present but requires personal and societal support. Adult educators must create these conditions which raise self-esteem, remove anxiety, to allow students to gain confidence (Burns, 1995: 214) as ‘consideration of their learning needs, consideration of their experiences, involvement in planning their future development and a learning climax that encourages involvement’ (Burns, 1995: 213) adults require. It is also important to examine the role played by Locus of control in the willingness of individuals to learn. Some people, called internals, believe that they are the determinants of their own fate whilst others, called externals see themselves as pawns in life where everything happens to them by luck or chance. Internals are in control and are more motivated to achieve, while externals are more compliant and willing to follow directions. There is a strong correlation between ways of control and self-concept. The teaching style must match, as far as possible, the individual’s learning style or the interaction will be frustrating and less effective. ‘Teaching and learning methods have to be adopted that enable adults to control the speed of their own learning and the way in which they learn’ (Burns, 1995: 219). It is important to remember that when dealing with adults, teachers are also dealing with their pasts (Burns, 1995: 220) and that they are more like resource persons who view the learning situation as a cooperative endeavour (Burns, 1995: 234).

Various definitions have been given to define adulthood: biological, chronological age, legal, social, or psychological. In terms of education, adults are defined by Burns as ‘those who have the potential for engaging in learning activities beyond the cope of traditional, formal schooling’ (Burns, 1995: 227).

Whilst we can use the term pedagogy to describe the act and science of teaching children, the term andragogy is used to refer to the science of teaching adults. I shall now examine this concept. What is andragogy?

2.6 Andragogy

Andragogy has been defined as .. “the art and science of helping adults to learn and the study of adult education theory, processes, and technology to that end” (Krajnc, 1989: 19).
This neologism analogous to pedagogy, comes from the Greek words *andros* (man) and *agein* (to lead). It means to lead or educate adults. According to Krajnc, the term was first used by E. Rosenstock in Berlin in 1924 and then in Switzerland in 1951, when it appeared as the title of a book (Krajnc, 1989: 19). The term was used mainly in a few European countries (Poland, Germany, Netherland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia) and appeared in some UNESCO documents. The term was introduced by Knowles (1990) in the United States. Andragogy is based on the fact that the deepest learning need an adult has, is to be treated as a self-directing person. Therefore it is student-centred, experience-based, problem-oriented and collaborative in the spirit of the humanistic approach to learning and education (Burns, 1995: 233). The adults' ability to learn depends, perhaps as well as an innate ability to learn as on lifestyle, social roles and attitude. They can judge the value of a learning activity and its relevance to their own life. The andragogical model of education is based on a number of assumptions that are radically different from the pedagogical model. As Krajnc states, the purpose of andragogy is better described by defining adulthood in 'terms of a person's relations to educational process, since it also permits a clear definition in relation to pedagogy' (Krajnc, 1989: 20). Krajnc adds that whilst pedagogy is concerned with the education of those for whom education is the primary or central activity or social role (children and adolescents) andragogy is concerned with the education of those who have completed or interrupted their initial education to work, take on other social roles and are therefore adults (Krajnc, 1989: 20).

The great teachers of ancient times, Confucius and Lao Tse of China, the Hebrew prophets and Jesus in Biblical times, Aristotle, Socrates and Plato in ancient Greece, Cicero, Evelid and Quintillian in ancient Rome, were all teachers of adults and they had a different concept of the learning/teaching process from the ones that later came to dominate formal education (Knowles, 1990: 27). Knowles writes,

>As I see it, true education may be found in andragogy. For me the advantages of andragogy are many. First, it is a double-barreled gun with tremendous potential for liberating both youths and adults to believe in themselves, to think and to create (Knowles, 1990: 239).
He adds,

Second, by inviting a dialogue between the teacher and the taught, it puts an end to the contradiction where, in the words of Freire, the teacher teaches and the students are taught... Andragogy, therefore shatters the myth that knowledge is the private property of teachers... the third advantage of an andragogy is that it does not divide education into compartments of adults and youth education. It means helping human beings learn (Knowles, 1990: 239).

Knowles notes that the andragogical model is based upon several assumptions: first, there is the need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking to learn it; second, adults have a self-concept of being responsible for their own decisions and lives; third, adults come into an educational activity with both a greater volume and a different quality of experience from youths; fourth, they become ready to learn those things they need to know and be able to do in order to cope effectively with their real life situations; fifth, adults are life-centred in their orientation to learning and sixth, whilst they are responsive to some external motivators, the most potent motivators are internal pressures like desire for greater job satisfaction, self-esteem, quality of life (Knowles, 1990: 57-63).

These key concepts lead to a view of the teacher as follows:

- Teachers must make a case for the value of the learning to improve the effectiveness of the learners' performance.
- Teachers must engage in a mutual enquiry rather than transmit knowledge and evaluate their conformity to it, and use, as core methodology, the analysis of experience. Appropriate units for organising adult learning are life situations not subjects.

Horton and West saw life experience as crucial to learning. In 1932, they started Highlander, which was not a series of schools but a continuous and comprehensive single idea put into practice, where education and social activism mixed. Horton was influenced by Dewey, Lindeman, Marx, the Fabians and his own ideas born from his formative years. His main ideas were that there was no such thing as neutrality as it was for the status quo; the educator could not be objective and had to have a purpose. He, himself,
wanted to work on the side of the society that did not live by owning. The two central foci of Highlander were the achievement of a democratic movement and leadership training (Peters and Bell, 1987: 249-250). Horton believed that the extent of people’s initial understanding of new ideas was in part a function of their own past experiences and that people learned from their experience. ‘Experience produces knowledge and knowledge leads to meaning’ (Peters and Bell, 1987: 258). Horton’s approach to establishing a democratic learning environment was described as ‘popular education’ or ‘education for empowerment’ (Peters and Bell, 1987: 259).

How then do educators empower their students? The four principles of the empowering process, as defined by Cunningham, are ‘the use of the learners’ values and social interests to determine the purpose; character and direction of the learning process; the use of social experience of the learners as the basic content, the raw material of the learning process, since there is no such thing as neutral knowledge, the linking of the learner’s practice to the historical development of society, and the drawing on the lessons and experiences of persons having similar social values and faced with parallel social conditions in order to improve the learners ‘own practice’ (Peters and Bell, 1987: 259). For Horton, dialogue, central to his approach, ‘can not occur when there are superiors and inferiors in the same situation... For dialogue to work, you must have genuine respect for each other’s experiences’ (Peters and Bell, 1987: 260). For Peters and Bell, the crucial operating principles in a learning experience ‘include a clear goal, shared experience, respect for individual and collective experience, trust in the learner, action and empowerment of the learner’ (Peters and Bell, 1987: 262-265).

Education of adults, adds Burns, must make optimal provisions for differences in style, time, place and pace of learning (Burns, 1995: 235-236), therefore, andragogy suggest that a teacher’s role is much more responsive and less directive. It encourages high levels of self-directed learning and expects the adult student to have input regarding context, methodology, assessment techniques and program design (Burns, 1995: 237). ‘The andragogue seeks to make learners feel respected, accepted, to raise self-esteem, giving them some responsibility in choosing methods and resources.
and involving them in evaluating their learning' (Burns, 1995: 238). According to Knowles, the andragogue, we should include the characteristics described by humanistic psychologists to create a safe climate for learning (caring, accepting, trusting, respectful and understanding attitudes). We should also include the characteristics described by the field theorists who emphasise collaboration under the heading of *An Atmosphere of Adultness*. We should also emphasise the conditions of mutuality and informality in this safe climate (Knowles, 1990: 123).

Houle’s compassionate sensitivity and concern for students, colleagues and other associates led him to err towards a philosophy that valued cooperation, coordination, individual excellence, and balance in all aspects of life. For him, adult education was the process by which men and women (alone, in groups or in institutional settings) sought to improve themselves or their society by increasing their skill, knowledge, or sensitiveness; or it was any process by which individuals, groups or institutions tried to help men and women improve in this way (Houle, 1995: 48). Houle’s fundamental system rested on seven assumptions:

- Any episode of learning occurs in a specific situation and is profoundly influenced by that fact;
- The analysis or planning of educational activities must be based on the realities of human experience and upon their constant change;
- Education is a practical art;
- Education is a cooperative rather than an operative art;
- The planning or analysis of an educational activity is undertaken in terms of some period which the mind abstracts for analytical purposes from complicated reality;
- The planning or analysis of an educational activity may be undertaken by an educator, a learner, an independent analyst, or some combination of the three; and
- Any design of education can best be understood as a complex of interacting elements, not as a sequence of events (Houle, 1995: 48-55).

Houle proposed that participants are goal, activity or learning oriented. After further research, Boshier and Collins (1983, 1984) put forward their six factor model. They saw that participants were considered to have enrolled because of a need for social contact, social stimulation, professional advancement, community service, external expectations and cognitive interest (Boshier, 1989: 148-149). The concept of adulthood is intrinsically related to the fundamental question of whether adult education is different in nature from education in general (Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982: 40). Knowles and Houle differ on the necessity of andragogy. Houle and others have said that there is a common aim of the educative process regardless of
the clientele. Knowles, however insists that we must approach the educational system differently 'because one is dealing with adults rather than children' (Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982: 40-41).

In conclusion these authors say that most adult educators would agree that

- adults are different from young people;
- education is an activity that emphasises learning rather than teaching;
- there is some interplay between the intellectual and the emotional elements in learning;
- there is a primary vehicle of adult learning to the group, and
- emphasis is placed on the individual as a learner'

(Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982: 70).

I have looked at various aspects of adult learning: change, personality, self concept, andragogy. I shall now examine various philosophical perspectives in adult learning, for example by Freire, Dewey, Kidd, Bruner, Rogers and Coady, as they bring important concepts to light in relation to this thesis.

2.7 Philosophical Perspectives on Adult Learning

Twenty years ago Community Colleges as they were called, that is to say schools which were preparing students to matriculation entrance examinations opened their door at night time to adult students, offering a variety of courses like languages, mathematics, psychology, sociology, sewing, photography to name a few. If we take the example of Rosny College in Hobart, Southern Tasmania and look at the offering of courses at night time, in 1999, we would notice that only a few classes are open. Little by little, administrators, educational revisionists and 'financial minimalists' have reduced choices. Financial constraints have put pressure on choice and only the "popular" classes have survived the onslaught of economic restructuring, passing fashions, historical factors and whimsical administrators.

It is important to look at the philosophical perspectives on adult learning and try to answer the question of whether it is actually worth educating people over a certain age.
The famous educator and intellectual Paolo Freire, whose ideas were developed within the context of Ação Popular, is best understood in the realms of Christian activism, demonstrating a socially dysfunctional prophetic position rather than any other. Also influenced by Marxism, Freire had taken a revolutionary perspective in which he saw education as liberating and utopian (Jarvis, 1987: 268). For Freire, education had one major aim, to help the participants to put knowledge into practice and it was the combination of reflection and action that he called praxis. Freire was concerned with creating a better world, referring to humanisation with the aim to liberate oppressed and oppressors. The other aim of education was conscientization, "the process in which men, not as recipients but as knowing subjects, achieve a deepening awareness both of the sociocultural reality which shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform reality" (Jarvis, 1987: 270). For him, education imposed an incarcerating construction of reality on indigenous people which was false to their own heritage. We educate to preserve the existing culture and often we indoctrinate. For Freire, to be human was to guide one's own destiny and education had to be a process that challenged the social system. He produced an approach to teaching which Burns summarises. Freire suggested that teachers

- had to break down the barrier between teacher and taught,
- had to speak the same 'language' as the learners,
- had to be aware of how they constructed their universe of meaning,
- had to be aware of their students' learning needs,
- start from where the learners were
- encourage them to learn
- explore from their experiences

(Burns, 1995: 241)

Learning also helped people evoke change. Freire discussed the concept of maxis, that is where true reflection leads to action. For him, reflection had to result in action (Jarvis in Merriam, 1995: 116).

Dewey was one of the first exponents of progressive education; for him the individual was born with infinite potential for development and thus, education had to relate to the whole of life (Burns, 1995: 242). His
educational process was a co-operative venture in non-authoritarian, informal learning, to discover the meaning of experience with the adult, a full partner in the enterprise (Burns, 1995: 243).

In the sphere of adult education Kidd emerged as a national and international figure, 'People of all kinds in all places and of all ages, have a marvellous capacity to learn, and grow and enlarge' (Thomas, 1987: 213). He stated, 'Learning is the key to the effective response to change. As we shall see, continuous learning as a concept can be both a compass and a gyroscope, both guide and stabilizer' (Thomas, 1987: 199). For Kidd, learning came closest to being what social psychologists have termed a drive, a natural impulse of the living organism. Individuals do not need to be motivated to learn but only into learning certain things that others believe will be good for them. He established the need and the right to draw information from all the exercises of human imagination and study to understand learning and adult education. There was an inescapable social context of adult learning. He realised therefore that the setting for adult education was the community itself (Thomas, 1987: 200-203).

For Jerome Bruner, the will to learn was an intrinsic motivation. His discovery method goes against the traditional expository mode of teaching. 'The discovery method involves the teacher rarely telling students what they ought to know ... questioning as the basic mode of discourse, particularly using divergent questions ... the teacher tends not to accept a single answer to a question ... interaction between learners, so that they develop their own criteria for judging quality, precision and relevance of ideas, rather than depending on the authority and judgement of the teacher.' (Burns, 1995: 243).

Carl Rogers, a humanist, focused on the relationship between teachers and learners; the role of education for him was to create a fully functioning person. He assumed that every person has a natural inclination to want to learn throughout their life but will only learn things that are meaningful to him or her. For Rogers, real learning could only be attained when the learner was directly involved in the learning process. His student-centred approach was based on five hypotheses:
• we cannot teach another person directly, we can only facilitate their learning,
• people learn significantly only those things that they perceive as being involved in the maintenance or enhancement of the structure of the self,
• experience which, if assimilated, would involve a change in the organisation of the self, tends to be resisted through denial or distortion of symbolisation,
• the structure and organisation of the self appears to become more rigid under threat
• the educational system which must effectively promote significant learning was one in which threat to the self as the learner was reduced to a minimum.

(Adapted from Burns, 1995: 245-246).

He also said that experience which is perceived as inconsistent with the self can only be assimilated if the current organisation of self is relaxed and expanded to include it.

Rogers saw education as a completely internal process controlled by the learner and requiring from the teachers, qualities which included a healthy attitude to human relations, genuiness, empathy and positive acceptance of others. Teachers had to create a climate in which pupils felt free and stimulated to learn (Burns, 1995: 246-247).

Coady and his fellows, over the years, synthesised into an ideological statement a selection of ‘theological, philosophical and behavioral science concepts concerning man and the society in which he lives’ (Crane, 1987: 229). The Antigonish movement, built on that philosophy, contained, according to Laidlaw, six basic principles,

• the primacy of the individual,
• social reform must come through education,
• education must begin with the economic,
• education must be through group action,
• effective social reform involves fundamental changes in social and economic institutions,
• the ultimate objective of the movement is a full and abundant life for everyone in the community

'Coady’s technique to begin the education of his adults with real life problems and concerns, of involving the learner in his own education, and of choosing cooperation as a solution are all forerunners of the 1860’s. Romantic approaches contrast sharply with the classical position’ (Crane, 1987: 236). Whilst for the classical enthusiast, the acquisition of knowledge was the purpose of education for Coady, and later on the Romantics, it was the development of attitudes and values that encouraged the individuals to develop to their full potential (Crane, 1987: 236). As we have seen the basic procedure of this method has two steps: investment and reflection and the chief immediate motive for communication is the need to belong. In the investment phase, the student commits him/herself as much as s/he wants and engages in a conversation; in the reflection phase s/he stands back and looks at what s/he has done in the investment phase. Permeating both phases is the dimension of student security; at the beginning the student has numerous negative feelings; as the process of community learning goes on, these feelings are dealt with, the student becomes familiar with the language and the role changes in the direction of greater security and independence (Stevick, 1976: 126).

Conclusion

In this chapter it has been shown that ageing is not necessarily an impingement to learning and that educating adults warrants different approaches from that used with children as their needs are not identical.

Examining the various theories of learning it is clear that to teach French to adult students it is beneficial to use a pot-pourri of approaches, mixing some classical conditioning and some operant conditioning with meaningfulness of learning and individual learning in order to create a learner who would have the linguistic techniques and the right approaches to learning. It was also shown that ageing is not the cause of intelligence decline and memory loss but that one had to be aware of personality traits and motivation in considering the problem of ageing.
Several perspectives on adult learning were examined. Freire, Rogers, Coady saw education as creating a new person by realising the individuals' full potential. Freire's ideas on education (praxis, maxis) showed that it is important to put knowledge into practice and to ensure that reflection leads to action. (In Jarvis, 1987: 270).

In examining the views held by Kidd, Rogers and Coady (In Crane, 1987: 230-236) it was concluded that

- Learning was a natural impulse of the living organism
- The setting for adult education was the community itself
- Real learning could only be attained when the learner was involved in the learning process
- Cooperation between the learner and the teacher was essential

In this chapter, the concept of andragogy opened out a new horizon to a more appropriate teaching methodology for adults in order to better understand the problem of anxiety which arises frequently amongst my adult students of French.
Chapter Three

The Challenge of Language Learning and Teaching
Chapter Three

The Challenge of Language Learning and Teaching

Introduction

In the previous chapter, I examined the questions asked in the context of adult learning and teaching, and after reassuring myself that the research undertaken concerning adult learners was a justifiable venture, I shall turn in this chapter to the examination of some methodologies which are at the disposal of the teachers facing the challenge of transforming language learners into language users. I will look at the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Reading Method, the Cognitive Method and more humanistic methods like the Silent Way, Suggestopaedia, Community Language Learning and Communicative Language Teaching to see which one of these methods would be preferable to my adult students, anxious as they are to communicate orally in French. I shall look at which method would be best to give adult students a strong background in linguistic competencies and encourage them to interact with each other and native speakers in a relaxed and confident manner.

In this thesis, I am concerned mainly with the actual teaching learning situation, the learning as Stern states, which has been induced or influenced by some form of deliberately planned social intervention, learning in response to teaching (Stern, 1983: 19), therefore I must dwell on the methodologies offered to foreign language teachers and students.

'For over a century, language educators have attempted to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention, almost exclusively on teaching method' (Stern, 1983: 452). The names of the different methods used in the teaching of languages have not been applied consistently and teachers have used these methods and adapted them in such a way that often a
method, called for example *audiovisual* by the teachers, will not be a pure application of the characteristics defined by its creators but an adaptation of several methods. In this pot pourri of teaching techniques a method will lose its integrity. However, as Stern states, language teaching theory has advanced mainly by conceptualizing teaching in terms of teaching methods (Stern, 1983: 452). According to him, any present day theory of language teaching must attempt at least to understand what the methods stand for and what their contributions to present-day teaching of languages have been (Stern, 1983: 452).

A method, however ill-defined it may be, is more than a single strategy or a particular technique; it is a "theory" of language teaching in the L2 sense which has resulted from practical and theoretical discussions in a given historical context (Stern, 1983: 452-453).

Before I start to examine these methods, I would like to mention the problem surrounding the terms *language learning* and *language acquisition*. In this attempt to understand the process by which an individual acquires knowledge or skills, educators are showing increased interest in the nature of formal and informal learning. The psychological concept of learning goes far beyond the direct learning for a teacher or through study or practice. Mead states that a great deal of complex learning takes place in informal settings and in developing countries, for example children learn skills by observing adults. They learn to fish, build huts and boats, new dialects and additional languages. Mead also points out that informal learning takes place in real situations and the adult or model does not need to articulate a set of rules underlying a particular practice; however feedback is provided about the appropriateness of the learner’s performance (Mead in D’Anglejan, 1978: 219). Both in formal and informal learning contexts the emphasis is put on empathy and identification with persons and their social roles (D’Anglejan, 1978: 220). In formal schools, learning is removed from the context of socially relevant action embedded in a context of language and symbolic activity (D’Anglejan, 1978: 220).

Language learning includes all kinds of learning from which no formal provision is made through teaching, says Stern (1983: 18-19). He mentions the area of first-language acquisition and the fact that an individual acquires
new terms, meanings, slangs, codes, 'registers' without specific tuition (1983: 19). Some of this learning is done outside the conscious awareness of the learner and it has often been observed that much second language learning takes place by relatively informal unplanned imitation and use in actual communication situations. For native language learning the 'process is an unconscious one embedded in the context of everyday activities and not dependent on explicit teaching provided by an adult' (D'Anglejan, 1978: 222). In this context empathy, imitation and identification are of the essence. I would say that in a formal school setting in France, children are taught to conjugate verbs in all tenses, differentiate between masculine and feminine genders, and to deconstruct the language that they are using perfectly, in order to improve their writing skills. The acquisition of French that children have achieved in their home, modeling their parents, their peers, the media is then redefined within an infrastructure of formal learning. 'Certain rules underlying unconscious language usage are raised to level of unconsciousness and are learned as a body of knowledge' (D'Anglejan, 1978: 222).

What happens in second language learning and in foreign language learning? Some theoreticians support the position that first and second language learning are essentially analogous processes. Krashen sets out five basic hypotheses in his Monitor Model theory:

- The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis
- The Monitor Hypothesis
- The Natural Order Hypothesis
- The Input Hypothesis
- The Affective Filter Hypothesis

In the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis Krashen said that adult students have at their disposal two ways of developing competence in a second language, acquisition which is 'a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first
Acquisition evolves through meaningful interaction in a natural communication setting. Speakers are not concerned with form but meaning. This is different from the learning situation of the classroom where attention to errors and their correction is accentuated. However, for Krashen it is the conscious attention to rules that distinguishes language learning from language acquisition.

In a natural setting the adult can obtain details about grammar and by interacting with other speakers. It is possible also for the learners to acquire second language skills when communication is the focus.

According to Krashen, conscious learning does not become the basis of acquisition of the target language. This argument is based on three claims:

1. Sometimes there is 'acquisition' without 'learning' – that is some individuals have considerable competence in a second language but do not know very many rules consciously.
2. There are cases where 'learning' never becomes 'acquisition' – that is, a person can know the rule and continue breaking it, and
3. No one knows anywhere near all the rules (Krashen, 1982: 83-87).

For Krashen the acquisition is a subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language. Krashen argues that adults have the same 'Language Acquisition Device' (LAD) that children use (Krashen, 1982). He equates LAD with unconscious acquisition of any type.

Indeed whilst first-language acquisition is reduced after a certain age, second-language acquisition is possible, if other 'mental organs' as, for instance, logical and mathematical faculties are used.
The Monitor Hypothesis states that learning has only one function: to monitor or to edit, and that learning has the aim of making changes in the form of our utterances after they have been ‘produced’ by the acquired system.

Krashen stated that there are three conditions for use of the Monitor:

1. **Time.** In order to think about and use conscious rules effectively, a second language performer needs to have sufficient time. For most people, normal conversation does not allow enough time to think about and use rules. The over-use of rules in conversation can lead to trouble, i.e., a hesitant style of talking and inattention to what the conversational partner is saying.

2. **Focus on form.** To use the Monitor effectively, time is not enough. The performer must also be focussed on form, or thinking about correctness. Even when we have time, we may be so involved in what we are saying that we do not attend to how we are saying it.

3. **Know the rule.** Linguistics has taught us that the structure of language is extremely complex, and they claim to have described only a fragment of the best known languages. We can be sure that our students are exposed only to a small part of the total grammar of the language, and we know that even the best students do not learn every rule they are exposed to’ (Krashen, 1982: 16).

Krashen based his explanation of individual differences in second-language competence in the Monitor concept. He states that there are three types of Monitor users: the over-users, the under-users and the optimal Monitor users (Krashen, 1982: 19-20). The concept of Monitor plays a crucial role in Krashen’s explanation of adult-child differences in the context of language learning. According to him children are superior language learners because they do not use the Monitor and are not as inhibited as adult learners.

In reviewing Krashen’s contribution, McLaughlin (1987) argues that there is no evidence to support his argument that adolescents and adults are able to learn a language, in the initial stages, much quicker than children but that
children do better in terms of attainment. According to McLaughlin (1984) this distinction between rate and ultimate attainment is not valid; neither is Krashen's assumption that the use of the Monitor interfaces with performance (McLaughlin, 1987: 29).

The Natural Order Hypothesis states 'that we acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some rules tending to come early and others late. The order does not appear to be determined solely by formal simplicity and there is evidence that it is independent of the order in which rules are taught in language classes.

According to McLaughlin (1987) the main source of evidence for the Natural Order Hypothesis comes from the *morpheme* studies of Dulay and Burt (1974) who published a study where they stated the order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes or *functors* in English by children aged between five and eight who were learning English as a second language.

Dulay and Burt wanted to pursue the study with children who acquired English as a second language to ascertain whether these functors were learned in the same sequence. They used an instrument called the Bilingual Syntax measure. This consisted of cartoon pictures and a series of questions which were meant to elicit spontaneous speech that would contain most of the morphemes. Using this instrument Dulay and Burt examined the accuracy order of eleven morphemes in children's speech which was to reflect acquisition order. Their study of 60 Spanish-speaking children in Long Island and 50 Chinese-speaking children in New York City revealed that the sequence of acquisition of the functors was almost the same for the two groups (McLaughlin, 1987: 31-32).

The Input Hypothesis allows Krashen to account for how the learners progress through 'natural' developmental sequences. The Input Hypothesis states that

*humans acquire language in only one way – by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input' . . . . We move from i, our current level, to*
Krashen considered this as the single most important concept in second language acquisition today, in that it attempts to answer the critical question of how we acquire language.

Krashen argued that affective factors play an important role in the acquiring of a second language (1985).

For Krashen, the affective filter is one of the major sources of individual differences in acquiring a second language.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis captures the relationship between affective variables and the process of second language acquisition by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their affective filters. Those whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will not only tend to seek less input, but they will also have a high or strong affective filter— even if they understand the message, the input will not reach that part of the brain responsible for language acquisition, or the Language Acquisition Device. Those with attitudes more conducive to second language acquisition will not only seek and obtain more input, they will also have a lower or weaker filter (Krashen, 1982: 31).

What is the role of the affective filter in second-language learning?

Dulay and Burt (1977) were the first exponents of this concept. It was proposed to show how affective variables affect the process of second-language learning.

The filter is that part of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language based on what psychologists call "affect": the learner's motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 46).

The four functions of the affective filter are

- To determine which language models the learner will select.
- To determine which part of the language will be attended to first.
- To determine when the language acquisition efforts should cease.
- To determine how fast a learner can acquire a language.
The filter therefore limits what the learner attends to, what will be learned and at the speed with which the language will be learned.

For Krashen, children reach higher levels of attainment than adults in language development because their affective filter is strengthened at 'about puberty' (Krashen, 1982: 44). During adolescence, one gains the ability to conceptualise the thoughts of others and this leads to increased self-consciousness and a lowered self-image.

According to D'Anglejan, Krashen's monitor-model for second language performance accounts for the discrepancies in oral and written second language performance, and the differences between learners' classroom speech and their performance in unstructured situations (D'Anglejan, 1978: 224). According to Krashen's model, adult second language learners develop concurrently two possibly independent linguistic systems for second language performance one acquired and one learned. 'Linguistic production in the second language is made possible by the acquired system, with the learner system acting as a monitor' (D'Anglejan, 1978: 224). Sometimes, the monitor inspects and appropriately alters the output of the acquired system, and at other times, when the speaker is tired or distracted, monitoring does not take place and the speaker relies entirely on the output of the acquired system. Krashen provides evidence that there are wide individual differences with respect to the use of the monitor (D'Anglejan, 1978: 224).

The lack of transferability of classroom learning to unstructured situations is one of the prime criticisms of second language instruction. D'Anglejan infers that whilst native language acquisition appears to conform remarkably closely to the principles of informal learning (1978: 227) embedded as it is in a context of social interaction, in the typical second language program, most, if not all of these principles are violated (D'Anglejan, 1978: 227). To enhance the potential of the classroom as a favourable environment for the acquisition of verbal fluency, sometimes a call is made for a redefinition of the role of teachers and learners so that they become equal partners in a cooperative enterprise where the students set their own pace and the
teachers make appropriate linguistic data available on request to them (D'Anglejan, 1978: 231). We shall see that in the Global Simulation exercise, teachers and participants/learners become equal partners.

As Chamberlain says '... instead of a panacea, teachers have a (modest) pharmacopoeia of techniques from which to choose' (Chamberlain, 1997: 107). I shall now examine in some details the main methods used in language teaching to see which would be the most valid to help me reduce the anxiety in my adult students when they speak in French. How would they respond to the Grammar Translation Method?

3.1 Grammar-Translation Method

For centuries, there were few theoretical foundations of language learning. In the Western world, foreign language learning in schools meant learning fixed languages such as Ancient Greek or Latin. Latin was thought to promote intellectuality through 'mental gymnastics' and was seen as indispensable to an adequate higher education. Latin was taught 'by means of what has been called the classical method: focus on grammatical rules, memorization of vocabulary and of various declensions and conjuctions, translation of texts, doing written exercises' (Brown, 1994: 16). In the XVIII and XIXth centuries, other foreign languages were taught in this way too, as the aim of teaching/learning a language was not the speaking of that language, but the achievement of writing and reading competencies. In the XIXth century, the classical method became known as the grammar translation method (Brown, 1994: 16). Stern states that one of the best known teaching grammars was Meidinger's Praktische Französische Grammatik (1783). Ollendorff's method was also praised as an active method, simple and effective as, as soon as a rule was stated, there followed a vocabulary list and translation exercises (Stern, 1984: 453). In the nineteenth century 'grammar-translation was considered by practitioners as a necessary preliminary to the study of literary works and was regarded as an educationally valid mental discipline in its own right' (Stern, 1984: 454) at a time when the brain was considered to be a muscle which needed exercising through rote learning and repetitions.
According to Rivers (1981) teachers who have been taught by the Grammar-Translation Method and who have not been exposed sufficiently to other approaches continue using this method. She states that

New textbooks modeled on the old tend to imitate the grammatical descriptions and exercises of their predecessors with the result that archaic structures and obsolete vocabulary and phrases continue to be taught to successive generations of students (Rivers, 1981: 29).

In spite of many attacks, the Grammar-Translation Method is still widely employed today, sometimes as an adjunct to other methods. The major characteristics of grammar-translation have been listed as:

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
3. Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
4. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
5. Reading of difficult classical texts is begun early.
6. Little attention is paid to the context of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
7. Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language to the mother tongue.
8. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

(Brown, 1994: 16)

The main characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method have been observed to have the goal of learning a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. As Stern noted ‘the first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language’ (Stern, 1983: 455). Reading and writing are the major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorization. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice. Much of the lesson is devoted to translating sentences into and out of the target language, and it is this focus on the sentence that is a distinctive feature of the method,
while accuracy is emphasised. Grammar is taught deductively – that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises.

The student’s native language is the medium of instruction (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 4). The advantages of this method are that it requires few specialised skills on the part of teachers. Tests of grammar rules and translation are easily constructed and objectively scored, and lead sometimes to a reading knowledge of a second language. Rivers states that ‘(c)ommunication skills are neglected’ (Rivers, 1968: 31).

This method which was used when I was at High School in France in the 1960’s, did not prepare students to be competent communicators of English. Maybe, some of the students were capable of translating pages of Shakespeare’s Romeo and Juliet but these same students were incapable of linguistically functioning in England. To mention one personal example, I queued on the wrong side of the road waiting for the bus which never came as I was following the sign which stated ‘Queue other side’ and the impeccable Cartesian logic! The 1999 adult student would not tolerate this method which I reject in part in the context of this thesis research.

3.2 The Direct Method

Amongst the reformers of the nineteenth century who attempted to build a methodology to teach foreign languages based on observation of child language learning was Gouin, who had written in L’art d’enseigner et d’étudier les Langues (1880), ‘Each conquest must be a long lasting acquisition, otherwise, we shall follow the old method which takes seven years’ *(Puren, 1988: 71). He also said that other reformers later turned their attention to naturalistic principles of language learning giving the name of natural method to this method. In sixteenth century France, it is reported that Montaigne was spoken to exclusively in Latin for the first five years of his life. Among those who tried to apply natural principles to language classes in the nineteenth century was Sauveur (1826-1907) who used intensive oral interactions in the language. He opened a language school in Boston in the
late 1860's and his method became known as the *Natural Method* (Richard and Rogers, 1986: 9). The Direct Method was used by Berlitz and Gouin to respond to the needs for better language learning in a new world of industry and travel. It was also stimulated, adds Stern, by linguistic scholarship and theory, philosophy and phonetics. 'Both phonetics and the Direct method emphasized the use of the spoken language' (Stern, 1983: 457). In France, the Direct Method gained popularity. As Puren writes, the first reference made to *natural method* in French Official Instructions was in the Ministerial Guideline of the 19th of September 1863 proposed by V. Duruy. 'Claveres (1985: 29) notes that following this Ministerial Guideline, the natural method is accepted widely by the high university administration; this explains why many authors of textbooks, traditionalist or not, use it so often between 1860 and 1880' (Puren, 1988: 113). In subsequent decades, the Direct Method was not entirely applied but its influence on theory and practice was profound and widespread. Stern says that in the USA, de Sauzé as Director of Foreign Languages in Cleveland, Ohio, introduced the Cleveland Plan into Cleveland public schools in 1919; this plan consisted of a carefully devised scheme of graded instruction of French and other languages in elementary and high schools. It was advocated that the second language be used as a medium of instruction and translation as a technique of teaching was avoided (Stern, 1983: 457). According to de Sauzé, the Cleveland Plan was successful in arousing interest in languages and in raising the standard. The Direct Method was successful in England, in Germany and most of Europe. Maximilian Berlitz opened some very successful commercial language schools which became famous and still exist today. The name *Berlitz method* was used as Berlitz himself never used the term *Direct Method*. In practice it stood for the following principles and procedures:

- the classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language;
- only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught;
- oral communication skills were built in a carefully graded progression organised around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes;
- grammar was taught inductively;
- new teaching points were introduced orally;
- concrete vocabulary points were taught through demonstration, objects and picture;
abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas;
both speech and literacy comprehension were taught and correct
pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 10).

In the Direct Method, the standard procedure involves the classroom
presentation of a text by the teacher; usually the text is a short, specially
constructed foreign language narrative; difficult expressions are explained in
the target language, using paraphrases, synonyms, demonstrations or
context. An exchange of questions and answers takes place and the students
read the text for practice; the students are encouraged to discover for
themselves the new grammatical points. Exercises involve transpositions,
substitutions, dictations, narrative and free composition. Good
pronunciation is stressed and phonetics is seen as a very important part of
the study (Stern, 1983: 459).

In Germany, Wilhem Viêtor (1850 – 1918), Professor of Phonetics at the
University of Marburg and whose pamphlet entitled Der Sprachunterricht
muss umkehren, supported, of course, the oral method and the use of
practical phonetics to correct the students, but recommended, at the same
time, the techniques of the intuitive and active methods; texts followed as
didactic supports whilst priority was given to practical aim with matching
thematic contents (Puren, 1988: 119). The learning of languages was viewed,
states Stern, as analogous to first language acquisition and the learning
processes were often seen in terms of an associative psychology (Stern, 1983:
459). Critics pointed out that strict adherence to Direct Method principles
was often counterproductive since teachers were required to go to great
lengths to avoid using the native tongue when sometimes a simple, brief
explanation in the native tongue would have been sufficient. Richards and
Rodgers quote the Harvard psychologist Roger Brown who documented
similar problems with strict Direct Method technologies. 'He described his
frustration in observing a teacher performing verbal gymnastics in an
attempt to convey the meaning of Japanese words, when translation would
have been a much more efficient technique to use' (Richards and Rodgers,
1986: 11). Puren, in an analysis of the sole use of the second language
without using the native tongue, stresses the importance of distinguishing
between ‘translation as a method to teach a language, as a means to control linguistic understanding and as a method to teach literature’ (Puren, 1988: 123).

In the 1920’s, the use of Direct Method in non commercial schools declined. In France and Germany it was gradually modified to include some controlled grammar-based activities. In 1923, a study in foreign language teaching concluded that no single method could guarantee successful results. This study, the Coleman Report, advocated ‘that a more reasonable goal for a foreign language course would be a reading knowledge of foreign language, achieved through the gradual introduction of words and grammatical structures in simple reading texts’ (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 11). The British applied linguist, Henry Sweet, recognized the limitations of the Direct Method. He argued, with other applied linguists, that the development of sound methodological principles could serve as the basis for teaching techniques (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 11).

Rivers states that at its best, the Direct Method is successful in ‘releasing students from the inhibitions all too often associated with speaking another tongue, particularly at the early stages’ (Rivers, 1981: 33). Her main objection to the use of the Direct Method is that when students are plunged too soon into expressing themselves freely they ‘can develop a glib but inaccurate fluency’ (Rivers, 1981: 33). ‘This “school pidgin” is often difficult to eradicate later, when grammatical structure and vocabulary are being more systematically studied, because it has been accepted and encouraged for so long’ adds Rivers (1981: 33-34).

Two major problems have emerged from the direct teaching method: how does one convey meaning without translating and how does one apply it to advanced stages of language learning? Stern concludes by saying ‘In a way, particularly because of the insistence on the use of the second language in classroom communication, the Direct Method can legitimately be looked upon as a predecessor of present-day ‘immersion’ techniques’ (Stern, 1983: 460).
The problem with the Direct Method for me as a teacher of adults would be to find material relevant to their needs. I do not think they would be interested in the texts which are available and which are aimed mainly at children. What my adult students want is a vocabulary and oral structures which will make them competent and relaxed communicators in French, whether it be in France or with French speakers around the world. The main objection would be that the weekly three and a half hour class which is our infrastructure would not be long enough for teaching with the Direct Method approach.

The Reading Method needs only a very brief discussion in this thesis, as it is a non-communicative approach.

3.3 The Reading Method

This Method restricts the goal of language teaching to training in reading comprehension. West, Bond and Coleman provided, according to Stern (1983: 460), contemporary arguments for this approach. This theory was advocated by some British and American educators. West who had been teaching English in India, believed that it was better for his students to read English fluently than to speak it. He argued that is was the easiest skill to acquire and one that rendered most value. He based himself on Thorndike’s Teacher Word Book of 1921 and he constructed readers with a controlled vocabulary and regular repetition of new words. Coleman agreed that the only practical form of language teaching in American High Schools was to concentrate on reading skills (Stern, 1983: 460). Bond wrote, in 1920-21 of the Reading Method at the University of Chicago, ‘... one already discerns the separation of the active and passive phases of language learning, the analytical approach to grammar for reading comprehension purposes, the emphasis on an increased reading experience of both intensive and extensive types, the postponement of speech and writing training, the continuous attention to the spoken word, and the concern for the individual learner that were to become the hallmark of the Reading Method’ (Stern, 1983: 461). The students were given detailed instruction on reading strategies, with graded reading materials and a systematic approach to learning to read.
method was much criticized when it was advocated in America and retrospectively during World War II when speaking languages became a national priority in the USA.

Rivers states that the Reading Method 'increases the ability of the better students to read in another language' (Rivers, 1981: 37) but because of the quantity of reading that is required, it can 'be frustrating for students who have reading difficulties in their native language' (Rivers, 1981: 37).

There is, in 1999, a renewed interest in this method, for purposes as specific as, for instance, the reading of scientific literature (Stern, 1983: 461). This method also has a strongly pragmatic basis; indeed, in the nineteen twenties, emphasis was put on educational activities with specified ultimate practical uses (Stern, 1983: 462). It introduced into language teaching some important new elements: '(a) the possibility of devising techniques of language learning geared to specific purposes, in this case the reading objective; (b) the application of vocabulary control to second language texts, as a means of better grading of texts; (c) the creation of "graded readers"; and (d) thanks to vocabulary control, the introduction of techniques of rapid reading to the foreign language classroom' (Stern, 1983: 462).

I use a lot of repetitions of new vocabulary in my classes to try to build confidence in my students. My aim is to make them utter something in French in a loud confident manner, as often as possible as the confidence developed by reading feeds into the oral classroom and makes the students more relaxed. Many of my students are interested in French literature and borrow books from my extensive library. They feel growing confidence when they can recognise authors' names mentioned in our cultural video materials and aural comprehension material. I believe in integrating all the knowledge in the class as it would be done in France where students are more aware of their cultural heritage than, perhaps, in many other countries.

So far then three methods have been examined. Would the fourth one, the Audiolingual Method offer techniques which could be useful to my development of competent and relaxed speakers?
3.4 The Audiolingual Method

Whilst the Grammar-Translation and Direct Methods had largely developed in the European system, the Audiolingual has its origin mainly in the USA. However, it has had an influence in most parts of the world, even in Britain and Germany where it had been at first critically received (Stern, 1983: 462). The entry of the United States into the Second World War had a significant effect on the teaching of languages in America. It was necessary to set up a special language training program to supply the US government with fluent speakers of German, French, Italian, Chinese, Japanese and other languages who could work as translators and interpreters. The government commissioned the universities to develop foreign language programmes for Army personnel. Thus the Army Specialised Training Program was developed (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 44). The objective of the Army was to develop conversation proficiency among students. Linguists, such as Leonard Bloomfield at Yale, had already developed training programs to give mastery of American Indian Languages to linguists and anthropologists. The technique Bloomfield and his colleagues used was known as the Informant Method. It used a native speaker of the language, the informant, who served as a source of phrases and vocabulary and provided sentences for imitation and a linguist who supervised the learning experience (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 45). Students in such courses studied ten hours a day, six days a week, received hours of drilling with native speakers and private study with other linguistic experts. Used in small classes of mature and highly motivated students, excellent results were achieved. This programme lasted only two years but attracted considerable attention in the popular press and the academic community. 'The “methodology” of the Army Method, like the Direct method, derived from the intensity of contact with the target language teacher rather than from any well developed methodological basis' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 45). It was an innovative programme which convinced a number of prominent linguists of the value of an intensive oral-base approach to the learning of a foreign language.
However, the greater effectiveness of audiolingualism was challenged and a long debate took place from 1966 to 1972 (Stern, 1983: 463-464). Audiolingualists had demanded a complete reorientation of the foreign language curriculum and advocated a return to speech based instruction. As was said at the time 'A radical transformation is called for, a new orientation of procedures is demanded, and a thorough house cleaning of methods, materials, texts and tests is unavoidable' (Brooks in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 52). Brooks distinguished between short-range and long-range objectives of an audiolingual programme. For Brooks, short-range objectives included training in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, recognition of speech symbols and ability to reproduce these symbols in writing. Long-range objectives for Brooks had to 'be language as the native speaker uses it ... There must be some knowledge of a second language as it is possessed by a true bilingualist' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 52). The learning process was viewed as one of habituation and conditioning without the intervention of any intellectual analysis. The method introduced memorization of dialogues and imitative repetition as specific learning techniques, and developed pattern drills. The simplicity and directness of the approach brought learning within the scope of the ordinary learner (Stern, 1983: 464-465).

Rivers examines the five slogans which 'guided teachers in applying the results of research in structural linguistics to the preparation of teaching materials and to classroom techniques' (Rivers, 1981: 41). She summarized them as being

- language is speech, not writing
- a language is a set of habits
- teach the language and not about the language
- a language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say
- languages are different (Rivers, 1981: 41-43).

In his assessment of audiolingualism, Ellis states that the 'method required highly skilled teachers ... Many learners found pattern-practice boring and
lost interest . . . Even learners who were "motivated" to persevere found that memorizing patterns did not lead to fluent and effective communication in real-life situations" (Ellis, 1990: 29-30). He also added that older learners 'found little appeal in a method that denied them opportunity to use their cognitive skills in a more rule-governed approach to language learning' (Ellis, 1990: 30).

The psychology of the Audiolingual Method is behaviouristic and based on an interpretation of language learning in terms of stimulus and response, operant conditioning, reinforcement with an emphasis on successful error-free learning in small well-prepared steps and stages (Stern, 1983: 465).

Ellis reviewed the statement that 'Foreign language is the same as any other kind of learning and can be explained by the same laws and principles' (Ellis, 1990: 21).

Skinner said 'we have no reason to assume . . . that verbal behaviour differs in any fundamental respect from non-verbal behaviour, or that any new principles must be invoked to account for it' (In Ellis, 1990: 21). This claim was the basis for extrapolating from a general theory of learning and Skinner argued that laboratory experiments designed to show how rats could be trained to perform specific sequences of behaviour could serve as a basis for making claims about the way language learning took place (Ellis, 1990: 21).

'Learning, then, consisted of changes in behaviour that were brought about through experience' (Ellis, 1990: 21). Learning could thus be 'effected by manipulating the environment to provide the required experiences' (Ellis, 1990: 21). Skinner attempted this with his animal experiments and audiolingual techniques set to do this with the learners of languages (Ellis, 1990: 21).

Rivers stated that Skinner's operant conditioning theories which held that habits are established when reward or reinforcement follow immediately after an act had occurred were used in the audiolingual method as 'mimickry-memorisation' and 'structural pattern drilling' (Rivers, 1981: 43).
Language learning cannot be treated as a process of mechanical habit-formation said Ellis (1990: 27). Ellis examined Chomsky's rejection of the concept of habit (1990: 27). Chomsky also argued (in Ellis, 1990: 27) that the concepts of 'stimulus' and 'response' are vacuous where language behaviour is concerned as 'we do not use language in response to clearly delineated behavioural stimuli' (Ellis, 1990: 21).

Carroll, however, 'sees a place for habit formation as well as rule learning in language teaching' (in Rivers, 1981). Carroll stated that great attention should be paid to the formation of actual language behaviour (in Rivers, 1981: 52).

According to language acquisition studies, some reinforcement may be useful, although it was totally rejected in the 70s and 80s by the proponents of natural language learning. This approach to language teaching is an 'attempt to achieve a language-learning situation which resembles as closely as possible the way, children learn their first language' (Rivers, 1981: 52). The natural approach aimed to reproduce the environment where the first language is acquired effortlessly and with enjoyment. It 'involves setting up informal situations where students communicate with each other and their teacher and, through communicating acquire the new language' (Rivers, 1981: 52). This method can be successful if the students' deep needs are considered and satisfied. 'Trust and confidence are the key words' (Rivers, 1981: 52).

I examined in chapter two the various problems associated with teaching adults and we recognised some value in the behaviourist perspective insofar as it provided some fast responses needed in a conversation when adults exchanged ideas and feelings. The linguistic responses were, so to speak, at the tip of their tongues. In the Audiolingual method, 'Learners are viewed as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses!' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 56) and 'the teacher's role is central and active; it is a teacher-dominated method. The teacher models the
target language, controls the direction and pace of learning and monitors and corrects the learners' performance.

This is at variance with the ideas of Freire, Dewey, Rogers, Kidd and Coady who expected learners to be treated as whole, mature human beings (chapter 2.7). In the Audiolingual Method, the teacher must keep the learners' attention by varying drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practice structure' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 56).

Richards and Rodgers also state that audiolingualism reached its period of most widespread use in the 1960's and was applied to the teaching of foreign languages and to the teaching of English as a second language in the USA. It is primarily an oral approach to language teaching and the process of teaching involves extensive oral instruction, the focus of which is an immediate and accurate speech; there is little provision for grammatical explanation or talking about the language; the target language is used as the medium of instruction and translation or use of the native tongue is discouraged. Classes of ten are considered optimal (Richard and Rodgers, 1986: 57-58). The theoretical foundation of Audiolingualism was attacked and practitioners found that students were unable to transfer skills acquired by the audiolingual method to real communication outside the classroom (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 59).

In the 1960's, changes occurred in American linguistic theory. Chomsky rejected the structural approach to language description as well as the behaviourist theory of language learning. He stated that, 'Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 59).

His theories, (including the transformational grammar theory which proposed that the fundamental properties of language derive from innate aspects of mind and from how humans process experience through language) revolutionised American linguistics. Chomsky also argued that human language use is not imitated behaviour but is created anew from
underlying knowledge of abstract rules. 'Sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but "generated" from the learner's underlying "competence"' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 59).

Even though the Audiolingual method was criticized widely, Stern states that it made major contributions to language teaching. It was the precursor of the theories which recommended the development of a language teaching theory and declared linguistic and psychological principles; it attempted to make language learning accessible to large groups of ordinary learners; it stressed syntactical progression; it led to the development of simple techniques, without translation, of varied, graded and intensive practices of specific features of the language and it developed the separation of language skills into a pedagogical device (Stern, 1983: 466).

I personally use only some of the techniques advocated by audiolingualism as the whole methodology would be too time consuming. I see that my role as a teacher is to develop in my adult students the short-range and long-range objectives described by Brooks. I train my students in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, recognition of speech symbols and the ability to reproduce these in writing and in speaking, hoping to achieve not true bilingualism but high survival communication skills and a desire to interact and an enjoyment of the whole interactive process. Let us now consider the Audiovisual method.

3.5 The Audiovisual Method

This method was developed in France in the fifties by a team at the Centre de Recherche et d'Etude pour la Diffusion du Français (CREDIF) which was directed by Guberina and Rivenc. They devised Voix et Images de France, a course for adult students who were beginners, Bonjour Line intended for young children and De Vive Voix which was a revised version of Voix et Images de France, and ideas were adapted in the USA, in the UK and Canada (Stern, 1983: 466). Puren says that the expression audiovisual comes from North America where, since the end of the Second World War, audiovisual aids, audiovisual materials, or audiovisual methods were extensively used in
general education (Puren, 1988: 285). In spite of the American influence in the subsequent development of the audiovisual method, it is still an original method first developed in France.

Language learning is visualised in this method as falling into several stages: in the first stage, the learner becomes acquainted with everyday language, *le français fondamental*; in the second stage the students are involved in talking more constructively on general topics and read non-specialised fiction and newspapers; the third stage involves the use of more specialized discourse of professional and other interests. As Stern notes, the audiovisual method is intended particularly from the first stage (Stern, 1983: 467). Audiovisual teaching as designed by the CREDIF method is a very rigid method with a regulated order of events. The lesson begins with a filmstrip and *présentation*. The sound recording provides a stylized dialogue and narrative commentary; each filmstrip frame corresponds to an utterance, thus the usual image and the spoken word complement each other and form a semantic unit. An *explication* is then given by the teacher through pointing, demonstrating, selective listening, question and answer. Then, the dialogue is repeated several times and memorized. In the next phase of *exploitation* or *transposition*, students are emancipated from the tape and filmstrip presentation through having to make up their own dialogues and participating in roleplays; grammatical drills are also used as well as phonological features. No importance is given to linguistic explanations. Writing and reading are delayed but given emphasis in a later phase (Stern, 1983: 467).

Of all those involved in the creation of this method, Gougenheim and Michéa brought about the elaboration of the *Français fondamental*, Rivenc elaborated the methodology around the audiovisual aids and Guberina provided the teaching psychology and an original method of phonetic correction based on the *verbo-tonal method* (Puren, 1988: 345). Like all structuralists, Guberina based himself on the *spoken language* ‘Spoken language represents human speech...(*w*)ritten language is only a transposition of the spoken language’ said Guberina (1939). He added, ‘The sentence as an external form ... becomes the fundamental reality of the language and attributes potential
reality to the word' *(Puren, 1988: 345). Guberina defined his structuralism as *global* as he wanted to take into account all the factors which intervene in oral communication, that is to say 'the situation, the intellectual and affective significance, all of the means: sounds, lexicology, the psychological state of those who intervene and their reciprocal co-action, their perception and their satisfactory speech production' *(Puren, 1988: 345). Therefore, this method seeks a basis in linguistics. It derives its content, both grammatical and lexical, from descriptive linguistic studies such as *français fondamental*; it stresses also the social nature and situational embeddedness of language '*le langage est avant tout un moyen de communication entre les êtres ou les groupes sociaux' (CREDIF, 1961: viii, in Stern, 1983: 468)

The visual presentation is, therefore, not an added gimmick. It is intended to simulate the social context in which language is used (Stern, 1983: 468). As we can see, the assumed learning process of this method is related to the Gestalt psychology; it proceeds from a total view of the situation to particular segments of language. The assumptions made are that the learners are encouraged to absorb in a global fashion the utterances they hear on the tape, in the context seen on screen, and not to analyse. Intonations, rhythmic patterns, semantic units must not be broken down. Contrary to the Audiolingual method, the stimuli are pictorial and attempts are made to practise all features to be learnt in a meaningful context (Stern, 1983: 468).

The Audiovisual method offers me some invaluable tools in its objectives and techniques. The *français fondamental* list of vocabulary is an excellent start to communication as it comprises some 1500 words which are essential to functioning at a basic level in French. Adult students are often reassured to know that there is a light at the end of the 'learning vocabulary' tunnel. I also adhere to the Audiovisual method’s aim of developing skills which will allow students to talk constructively on general topics and read newspapers and non-specialised fictions.

The elements which Guberina states as intervening in oral communication, like for example, situation, intellectual and affective significance, the psychological state of those who intervene, their reciprocal co-action, their
perception and their satisfactory speech-production, are all essential to my teaching situation and my research. What I am investigating is the possibility to help my adult students to be less anxious in their communication skills.

This method attempts to place language learning into a simplified social context and to teach language as a meaningful spoken communication. I believe, like Stern, that it provided a fresh alternative in language pedagogy and a response to the development of technology (Stern, 1983: 468). However as Rivers pointed out there are some practical problems. 'Material and equipment may prove to be costly. Teachers need training in the use of the necessary equipment and, if the equipment is not synchronized, in passing smoothly from the operation of one piece of equipment to another' (Rivers, 1981: 212).

As a method, it has been open to two other major criticisms: it had difficulty in conveying meaning as 'the equivalence between utterances and visual images is often theoretically questionable and presents practical difficulties. The other criticism that can be made is that the rigid teaching sequences imposed by this method are based on an entirely unproved assumption about learning sequences' (Stern, 1983: 468).

3.6 Cognitive Theory Method

This is an updated modified Grammar Translation method, or as sometimes called, an updated modified Direct method. In its recent forms, it lays emphasis on the conscious acquisition of language as a meaningful system and seeks a basis in cognitive psychology and in transformational grammar (Stern, 1983: 469). Developed in the mid-sixties after the rediscovery of the grammar-translation and Direct methods, 'it was an attempt to bring to language pedagogy the new insights of psychology, psycholinguistics, and modern developments in linguistics' (Stern, 1983: 469). What are the objectives of cognitive teaching? Less concerned with the primacy of the audiolingual skills, it stresses the importance of the control of the language
in all its manifestations as a coherent and meaningful system (Stern, 1983: 469). Its objective has been defined in these terms:

The theory attaches more importance to the learner’s understanding of the structure of the foreign language than to the facility in using that structure, once it is believed that provided the student has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of the language, facility will develop automatically with use of the language in meaningful situations (Carroll in Stern, 1983: 470).

What techniques does it use? Carroll described them as follows:

... learning a language is a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of the second language, largely through study and analysis of these patterns as a body of knowledge (Stern, 1983: 470).

This method, therefore does not reject the conscious teaching of grammar or of language rules. Stern says it does not avoid a mixing of the four skills: reading, writing, listening, speaking. It seeks the intellectual understanding of the language as a system, by the learners. Practice of meaningful material is regarded as being of greater merit than the drive towards automatic control and the emphasis has been placed on rule learning, meaningful practice, and creativity (Stern, 1983: 470). The theoretical assumptions underlying this method are that it looks for a rationale in linguistics and psychology. It rejects behaviourism and structural linguistics and seeks a basis for second language teaching in transformational grammar and cognitive psychology (Stern, 1983: 470). Diller formulated four principles of cognition which contrast with those by which Moulton had characterized audiolingualism.

1. 'A living language is characterized by rule-governed creativity' (Diller). This principle clearly based on two concepts derived from Chomsky – language is rule-governed and creative – implies the teaching of a language as a consciously learnt system.

2. 'The rules of grammar are psychologically real'. The user of a given language gives evidence of knowing the rules of the language by applying them automatically. The fact that the rules are applied automatically, however, does not mean that they must be learnt automatically. A new language, like the rules of a game of chess, 'are best learned in conjunction with demonstration and practice of the action'.

3. 'Man is specially equipped to learn languages'. Learning language is a human characteristic. It is biologically founded in man. But it is not confined to childhood. The capacities of children have been overrated, those of adults underrated (Stern, 1983: 470).

4. The fourth principle of cognition which Diller formulated is that, 'A living language is a language in which we can think'. Language is bound up with meaning and thinking. Learning a language 'involves learning to think in that
language meaningful practice rather than drill is the only way this can come about' (Stern, 1983: 471).

We saw in chapter two when examining the challenges of adult learning, that certain administrators were reluctant to find courses for adults and that there were discussions on the learning abilities of adults. It is therefore reassuring for adult learners and teachers that 'Language learning can occur at any time in life in 'a situation of meaningful use' (Stern, 1983: 471).

Cognitive theory is mainly, as Stern explains, a critique of audiolingualism in the light of changes in linguistic and psycholinguistic theory. It has re-emphasied creativity and meaning in language learning and re-discovered valuable features in Grammar-Translation and in the Direct method (1983: 471). However, Stern states, 'by overlooking the merits of audiolingualism cognitive theorists have sharpened the battle of the dogmas without providing convincing evidence of doing any more than redressing the balance in certain respects' (Stern, 1983: 471).

Stevick states that because language is ours alone, and language learning is a doubly unique experience, we often talk about it as though it were carried out by minds without bodies and language learning depends on the deeper reaches of the personalities of all those who are involved in the process – in their emotions and their symbolic lives (Stevick, 1976: 3).

The principles of foreign language learning and foreign language teaching described in Stevick's book *Memory Meaning and Method* and enunciated as follows, show me that the teaching of French to adult students is finely intertwined with their affective condition.

I. Language is one kind of interpersonal behavior, and it is intertwined with other kinds of interpersonal behavior.

II. The human mind learns new behavior rapidly at any age, provided the learner is not busy defending himself.

III. Help the student to stay in contact with the language (in the sense of Principle 1).

IV. Help the student to maintain wholesome attitudes.

V. In preparing materials, make it easy for teacher and students to follow Principles I-IV (Stevick, 1976: 135).

These six methods of teaching languages, the Grammar-Translation method, the Direct method, the Reading method, the Audiolingual method, the
Audiovisual method and the cognitive method offer valuable techniques. They can be used at different times in an eclectic manner in a quest to make adult students less anxious in communicative situations. Various methods approach the teaching of languages in a more humanistic way, a way which acknowledges the affective situation of the learners, their state of mind, their readiness to interact with others in French. These methods will be examined.

3.7 The Silent Way

This is the name given to a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattegno. It represents his venture into the field of foreign language teaching and it is based on 'the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 99). This method revived the interest in the use of coloured wooden sticks called *cuisenaire rods* which had been first developed by Georges Cuisenaire, a European educator who used them for the teaching of mathematics. Gattegno had observed Cuisenaire and this gave him the idea to use them in language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 99). Gattegno's learning hypothesis could be summarised as follows: learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned; learning is facilitated by accompanying physical objects and by problem solving involving the material to be learned (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 99). The educational psychologist and philosopher Jerome Bruner had distinguished two traditions of teaching: that which takes place in the expository mode and that which takes place in the hypothetical mode. The Silent Way views learning as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity in which the learner is a principal actor rather than a bench-bound listener. Gattegno claims the same benefits from his Silent Way Method as the ones that Bruner had discussed deriving from *discovery learning*.

As Richard and Rogers stated, the Silent Way is also related to a set of premises that they have called problem-solving approaches to learning and they quote Benjamin Franklin's famous statement 'Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 99).
The Silent Way student is expected to become 'independent, autonomous and responsible' in other words, a good problem solver in language (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 100).

It uses an understanding of first language learning processes to teach languages to adults. It is recommended, for instance, that the learner needs to return to the state of mind that characterizes that of an infant. But as Richards and Rodgers also state, Gattegno insists that the processes of learning a second language are 'radically different' from those involved in learning a first language (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 102).

The general objective of the Silent Way technique is to give beginning level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language. A basic practical knowledge of grammar is to be provided; these form the basis for independent 'learning on the learner’s part' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 103-104). Stevick defines the role of the teacher as required (a) to teach, (b) to test, and (c) to get out of the way (Stevick, 1980: 56) and 'one of neutral observer, neither elated by correct performance nor discouraged by error. Students are expected to come to see the teacher as a disinterested judge, supportive but emotionally uninvolved' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 107).

The actual practices of the Silent Way are not as revolutionary as might be expected. In a way, it exemplifies many of the features that characterize more traditional methods such as Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism. Although it is not the method best suited to my needs it brings light to an important aspect of teaching language as Bruner saw it: a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity in which the learner is a principal actor. In the Global Simulation technique which we are advocating the learners are creative actors.

My concern as a teacher of adults is to find a technique that will help students to feel less anxious and more relaxed when speaking in French. In the early sixties a method called Suggestopaedia was much talked about. How can we define it?
3.8 Suggestopedia

'Suggestopedia can perhaps be best understood as one of a range of theories that purport to describe how attentiveness is manipulated to optimize learning and recall' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 143).

A most conspicuous feature of this method is the centrality of music and musical rhythm to learning. It has a kinship with other functional uses of music, like therapy, for example. Richards and Rodgers quote the Old Testament of the Bible where the earliest attested uses of music therapy has ever been recorded, 'when the evil spirit from God was upon Saul, David took up his harp and played with his hand; so Saul found relief; and it was well with him, and the evil spirit departed from him' (Samuel, 12: 23) (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 143). This might have described this incident as the use of music to assist in the liberation from discrete micro psychotraumata, for destruction of incompatible ideas about the limits of human capabilities (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 143). Richards and Rodgers (1986: 143) note that Gaston defines three functions of music in therapy: it facilitates the establishment and maintenance of personal relations; it brings about increased self-esteem through increased self-satisfaction in musical performance, and it uses the unique potential of rhythm to energize and bring order. Lozanov calls upon also the last function described by Gaston which is to relax learners as well as to structure, pace and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material.

Lozanov does not articulate a theory of language. He views *lexis* as central and lexical translation as more important than contextualisation; however, he refers also to the importance of experiencing language material in *whole meaningful texts* and stresses that suggestopaedic courses direct the students not to acquiring habits of speech and vocabulary memorisation but to acts of communication (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 144). Suggestion is the heart of suggestopedia; Lozanov distinguishes his method from hypnosis and other forms of mind control. These other forms lack a desuggestive – suggestive sense. There are six theoretical components through which desuggestions and suggestion operate: *authority*, people remember best and
are more influenced by people in authority. Lozanov talks of choosing a 'ritual placebo system' that is most likely to be perceived, by students, as having high authority. Lozanov seems to believe that scientific-sounding language, highly positive experimental data and true-believer teachers constitute a ritual placebo system that is authoritatively appealing to most learners. *Infantalisation:* authority is also used to suggest a teacher–student relation like that of parent to child. In the child's role the learner takes part in role playing, games, songs that help the older students regain self-confidence, spontaneity and receptivity of the child. *Double-planedness:* the learner learns from the environment in which instruction takes place. *Intonation, rhythm and concert pseudo-passiveness:* varying the tone and rhythm of presented material helps to avoid boredom and to dramatize, emotionalize and give meaning to the linguistic material (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 144-146).

The type of music used is critical as both intonation and rhythm are coordinated with a musical background. The rate of presentation of material to be learned within the rhythmic pattern is keyed to the rhythm; superlearning uses an eight-second cycle for pacing out data at slow intervals. Evidence is presented on why this pacing to Baroque largo music is so potent; it is noted that musical rhythms affect body rhythms such as heartbeats. Noting that a minute has sixty seconds, perhaps there is more to this than just an arbitrary division of time.

Suggestopaedia aims at developing conversational proficiency quickly; recall of vocabulary memorisation of vocabulary pairs continue to be seen as an important goal of the suggestopaedic method; however, Lozanov states categorically, 'The main aim of teaching is not memorization, but the understanding and creative solution of problems' (1978: 251, Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 147). A Suggestopaedia course typically lasts thirty days and consists of ten units of study. In classes of four hours a day, six days a week, the central focus of each unit is a dialogue of 1200 words or so with a vocabulary list and grammatical commentary. The whole course has a pattern of presentation and performance. At the end of the course, the students construct a play built on the material of the course; written texts are
also given throughout the course. The role of learners is very specific. Volunteers are expected to be committed to the class and its activities; smoking, drinking, non-pharmaceutical drugs are to be forgone; they must immerse themselves totally and maintain a pseudo-passive state. The students are expected to tolerate and encourage their own *infantilisation.* Groups of learners are ideally socially homogeneous, twelve in number and equally divided between men and women. They sit in a circle to encourage face-to-face exchanges.

The teacher must create situations in which the learners are more suggestible and then present the material in a way that is most likely to encourage positive reception and retention by the learner (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 149). Lozanov lists several expected teacher behaviours that contribute to these presentations:

1. Show absolute confidence in the method
2. Display fastidious conduct in manners and dress.
3. Organise properly and strictly observe the initial stages of the teaching process – this includes choice and play of music, as well as punctuality.
4. Maintain a solemn attitude towards the session.
5. Give tests and respond tactfully to poor papers (if any).
6. Stress global rather than analytical attitudes towards material.
7. Maintain a modest enthusiasm.

(Lozanov in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 149-150).

Suggestopedia has received both the most enthusiastic and the most critical response of any of the so-called new methods, conclude Richards and Rodgers (1986: 152). Brown summarizes very adequately the criticisms made of Suggestopedia. Scovel, he says, showed that Lozanov's experimental data were highly questionable. Moreover, teachers saw the practice of Suggestopedia as impractical as the lack of comfortable chairs and equipment to play the music and the choice of music itself made it difficult (Brown, 1994: 97).

Suggestopedia could be a very valuable method to use to help my adult students who face many long lists of vocabulary to learn these words and recall them at will. If all of the material learnt were to be remembered we, as teachers, would produce the most remarkable students!
In chapter two the question of whether memory in adult students could be a problem through failing abilities was posed. It is clear that it is not the case but the challenge of memorising and retaining vocabulary still remains with many students. In the short amount of contact I have with the adult students I cannot use Suggestopedia as a whole but I try to use music not only for entertainment, and variety but as an adjunct to learning. Some attempts have been made by commercial firms to glamourise and dramatize grammar into an operatic play. Unfortunately the quality is inferior and I rejected it. However if some composer of Baroque largo music could join forces with a grammar expert fortunes would be made. On a more positive note, as Brown says, we can achieve a relaxed and unanxious mind through some music, role plays, drama and games, which may be helpful techniques to stimulate meaningful interaction in the classroom (Brown, 1994: 97) and I will examine these in detail in chapter five. Would another approach, the Community Language Learning method be appropriate to the teaching of French with the particular aim of relieving anxiety in oral communication by adult students?

3.9 Community Language Learning

In 1957, when most speech therapy was directed at fairly specific problems, Backus viewed speech in psychological terms for everyone, and not just for those with so-called speech disorders, and sought the causes of speech behaviour in interpersonal relationships (Stevick, 1976: 125). She tried to choose situations in which clients could actively participate with ease and pleasure, and in which the therapist could help them to discover what is expected while at the same time showing permissiveness, warmth and acceptance (Stevick, 1976: 125). Community Language Learning follows a similar approach. Community Language Learning (CLL) is the name of the method developed by Charles A Curran (1972) and his associates. Curran was a specialist in counseling and a Professor of Psychology at Loyola University in Chicago. His application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as Counseling Learning. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning Theory to teach languages (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 113).
It is sometimes cited as a humanistic approach and can also be linked to the procedures used in bilingual education, particularly those referred to as *language alternation* or *code switching*. The CLL derives its primary insights and rationale from Rogerian counseling. Rogers saw counseling as one individual (the counselor) assuming 'insofar as he is able the internal frame of reference (of the client), perceiving the world as that person sees it and communicating something of this empathetic understanding’ ... Community Language Learning draws on the counseling metaphor to redefine the role of the teacher (the *counselor*) and the learners (the *clients*) in the language classroom' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 113) The standard CLL procedure is the following: a group of learners sit in a circle; a student whispers a message in the native language (L1); the teacher translates it into the target language (L2); the student repeats the message in L2 into a cassette and so on; students reflect on their feelings. Let us compare the client-counselor relationship to the learner-knower relationship in CLL as the techniques used in CLL are akin to a target set of language practices described, at times, as *humanistic techniques* associated with Moskowitz.

### COMPARISON OF CLIENT-COUNSELOR RELATIONSHIPS IN PSYCHOLOGICAL COUNSELING AND CLL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Psychological counseling (client-Counselor)</th>
<th>Community Language Learning (Learner-knower)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Client articulates his or her problem in language or affect.</td>
<td>2. Learner presents to the knower (in L1) a message he or she wishes to deliver to another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Counselor listens carefully.</td>
<td>3. Knower listens and other learners overhear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Client evaluates the accuracy of counselor’s message restatement.</td>
<td>5. Learner repeats the L2 message form to its addressee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Client reflects on the interaction of the counseling session.</td>
<td>6. Learner replays (from tape or memory) and reflects upon the messages exchanged during the language class.</td>
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(Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 114)
Humanistic techniques are those that blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he or she is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable approach, self-actualisation and self-esteem are seen as the ideals to be pursued. 'The techniques help build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring that far transcend what is already there ... help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves ... help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class' (Moskowitz in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 114). We can see that the whole person is engaged in these techniques, the affective realm as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills. The other teaching tradition with which CLL is linked are those which are used in bilingual education programmes that Mackey refers to as language alternations (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 114). In language alternation, a message/lesson/class is presented first in the native tongue and then in the second language.

La Forge, Curran's student, attempted to be more explicit about the theory of language that is encompassed in the Community Language learning theory. For La Forge, language theory must start with criteria for sound features, the sentence, and abstract models of language. The foreign language learners' tasks are 'to apprehend the sound system, assign fundamental meanings, and to construct a basic grammar of the foreign language' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 115). An alternative theory of language referred to as Language as Social Process has been put forward by the CLL proponents. For La Forge, language as social process is different from language as communication. The social-process model is different from earlier information-transmitting models, La Forge suggests, because 'Communication is more than just a message being transmitted from a speaker to a listener. The speaker is at the same time both subject and object of his own message ... communication involves not just the unidirectional transfer of information to the other, but the very constitution of the speaking subject in relation to its other ... Communication is an exchange which is incomplete without a feedback reaction from the destinee of the message' (La Forge, in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 115-116).
The social-process view of language is then elaborated in terms of six qualities or subprocesses. They are detailed by Richards and Rodgers as being:

1. The whole-person process
2. The educational process
3. The interpersonal process
4. The developmental process
5. The communicative process
6. The cultural process (1986: 116)

The interactional view that underlies the CLL is elaborated by La Forge. 'Language is people; language is persons in contact; language is persons in response' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 116). The interactions are between learners and learners and knowers. The exchanges between learners are not predictable in content but are said to involve exchanges of affect thus intimacy grows. *Intimacy* is defined by Richards and Rodgers as a desire to avoid isolation (1986: 116). Interactions are of two types then; *symmetrical* that is to say interactions between equals, and *asymmetrical*, and they change in *degree* and in *kind*. 'That is learner-learner interaction is held to change in the direction of increasing intimacy and trust, whereas learner-knower interaction is held to change in its very nature from dependent to resentful to tolerant to independent' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 116-117).

Curran believed that the techniques of counseling could be applied to learning in general (this became Counseling-Learning) and to language teaching in particular (Community Language Learning). Curran repudiated two forms of learning: *putative* (the intellectual and factual process alone are regarded as the main intent of learning, to the neglect of engagement and involvement of the self) and *behavioural* ('animal learning in which learners are passive and their involvement limited) (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 117). CLL advocates a *holistic* approach to language learning as true learning is both cognitive and affective. It is also known as the *whole-person learning*. It takes place in a community where teachers and learners are involved in an interaction.
The process of relationships between learners and knowers are divided into five stages:

In the first, "birth" stage, feelings of security and belonging are established. In the second, as the learner's abilities improve, the learner, as child, begins to achieve a measure of independence from the parent. By the third, the learner "speaks independently" and may need to assert his or her own identity, often rejecting unasked-for advice. The fourth stage sees the learner as secure enough to take criticism, and by the last stage, the learner merely works upon improving style and knowledge of linguistic appropriateness. By the end of the process, the child has become adult (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 117).

As Richards and Rogers advocate the process of learning a new language 'is like being reborn and developing a new person, with all the trials and challenges associated with birth and maturation' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 118).

Curran discussed what he calls 'consensual validation' or 'convalidation' in which mutual warmth, understanding, a positive evaluation of a person's worth develop between the learner and the knower. Curran used the acronym SARD to refer to a group of ideas concerning the psychological requirements for successful learning. S stands for security, A for attention and aggression, R for retention and reflection and D for discrimination (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 118). The goal of this method is to attain near-native like mastery of the target language whilst specific objectives are not addressed. Although CLL is most often used in the teaching of oral proficiency it can also be used to teach writing. The types of learning and teaching activities used in CLL include: translation, group work, recording, transcription, analysis, reflection and observation, listening and free conversation. Learning is seen as being achieved collaboratively within a community. Learners are expected to listen attentively to the knower to repeat target utterances without hesitation, to support fellow members of the community, to report inner feelings and frustrations as well as joy, pleasure and to become counselors for other learners (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 120). Learning is a whole-person process and the learner is at each stage involved in the accomplishment of cognitive tasks but also in the solution of affective conflicts and the respect for the enactment of values (Richard and Rodgers, 1986: 121). CLL compares language learning to the stages of human growth. In stage 1, the learner is like an infant, in stage 2 the child achieves a
measure of independence from the parent; in stage 3, the separate-existence stage, learners begin to understand others directly in the target language; in stage 4, a kind of adolescence, the learner functions independently and stage 5 sees the independent stage; learners refine their understanding of register as well as grammatically correct language use. They may become counselors to less advanced learners. The teacher's role derives from the functions of the counselor in Rogerian psychological counseling; his role is to respond calmly and non-judgmentally in a supportive manner and help the client try to understand his or her problems by applying order and analysis to them. The counselor's role is to capture the essence of the client's concern and to relate affect to cognition.

There is also room for actual counseling in Community Language Learning. Explicit recognition is given to the psychological problems that may arise in learning a second language. "Personal learning conflicts... anger, anxiety and similar psychological disturbance - understood and responded to by the teacher's counseling sensitivity - are indicators of deep personal investment" ... In this case, the teacher is expected to play a role very close to that of the "regular" counselor (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 122)

As learning progresses, students become increasingly capable of accepting criticisms, and the teacher becomes more and more like a nurturing parent. 'The teacher is responsible for providing a safe environment in which clients can learn and grow'. When learners feel secure they are free to direct their energies to the communication and cognitive tasks rather than build and maintain their defensive positions. Richards and Rodgers quote Curran as saying

As whole persons we seem to learn best in an atmosphere of personal security. Feeling secure, we are freed to approach the learning situation with the attitude of willing openness. Both the learner's and the knower's level of security determine the psychological tone of the entire learning experience (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 123).

However, security is a culturally relative concept. La Forge stresses that,

Each culture has unique forms which provide for acquaintance upon forming new groups. These must be carefully adopted so as to provide cultural security for the students of the foreign language (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 123).
"The security of the students is never absolute: otherwise no learning would occur" (La Forge 1983: 65). This is reminiscent of the teacher who says, "My students would never learn anything if the fear of examination failure didn't drive them to it" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 123).

Since each CLL course is a unique experience it is difficult to describe typical CLL procedures in a class. Stevick distinguishes between classical CLL and personal interpretations of it. Dieter Stroinigg (in Stevick, 1980: 185-6) presents a protocol of what a first day’s CLL class covers which is outlined here:

1. Informal greetings and self-introductions were made.
2. The teacher made a statement of the goals and guidelines for the course.
3. A conversation session in the foreign language took place.
   a. A circle was formed so that everyone had visual contact with each other and all were within easy reach of a tape recorder microphone.
   b. One student initiated conversation with another student by giving a message in the L1 (English).
   c. The instructor, standing behind the student, whispered a close equivalent of the message in the L2 (German).
   d. The student then repeated the L2 message to its addressee and into the tape recorder microphone as well.
   e. Each student had a chance to compose and record a few messages.
   f. The tape recorder was rewound and replayed at intervals.
   g. Each student repeated the meaning in English of what he or she had said in the L2 and helped to refresh the memory of others.
4. Students then participated in a reflection period, in which they were asked to express their feelings about the previous experience with total frankness.
5. From the material just recorded the instructor chose sentences to write on the blackboard that highlighted elements of grammar, spelling, and peculiarities of capitalization in the L2.
6. Students were encouraged to ask questions about any of the above.
7. Students were encouraged to copy sentences from the board with notes on meaning and usage. This became their ‘textbook’ for home study.

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 125)

As an evaluation of CLL Richards and Rodgers say that CLL is one of the most responsive methods in terms of sensitivity to learner communicative intent, which however is constrained by the number and knowledge of fellow learners. This method places unusual demands on language teachers.

They must be highly proficient and sensitive to nuance in both L1 and L2. They must be familiar with and sympathetic to the role of counselors in psychological counseling. They must resist the pressure “to teach” in the traditional senses. As one CLL teacher notes, “I had to relax completely and to exclude my own will to produce something myself. I had to exclude any function of forming or formulating something within me, not trying to do something” (Curran, 1976: 33 in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 126).
Teachers must also be relatively nondirective, prepared to accept and encourage the adolescent aggression of the learners, must operate without conventional materials and be culturally sensitive.

Brown states that the success of the method depends heavily on the translation expertise of the counselor. He also states that CLL offers certain insights to teachers 'We are reminded to lower learners' anxiety, to create as much of a supportive group in our classrooms as possible, to allow students to initiate language, and to point learners toward autonomous learning in preparation for the day when they no longer have the teacher around to guide them' (Brown, 1994: 96).

This is, I believe, the aim of teaching a foreign language that is, the provision of a safe environment where students' anxiety levels are lowered and where students become autonomous and proficient communicators. Amongst the nine methods seen so far I find myself attracted to this theory. Could the Communicative Language Teaching method provide me with extra tools to achieve my aims?

3.10 Communicative Language Teaching

The origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are to be found in the changes in the British language teaching tradition from the late 1960's. Until then, Situational Language Teaching was used as an approach in teaching English as a foreign language. Language was taught by practising basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. But 'By the end of the sixties, it was clear that the situational approach . . . had run its course' Howatt said (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 64). This was partly as a response to the criticisms which the prominent American linguist Noam Chomsky had levelled at structural linguistic theory. British applied linguists emphasized another fundamental dimension of language that was not adequately addressed in the approaches to language teaching at that time. 'They saw the need to focus in language teaching in communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 64).
Changes in educational realities in Europe caused another impetus for different approaches to foreign language teaching. A greater need, to teach adults the major languages of the European Common Market, was felt and the Council of Europe, a regional organization for cultural and educational cooperation stressed the need for education. It sponsored international conferences on language teaching, published books and monograms and was active in promoting the formation of the International Association of Applied Linguistics (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 65). In 1971, a group of experts began to investigate the possibilities of developing language courses where learning tasks were broken down into units which corresponded to the learners' needs - Wilkins, a British linguist proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching. He attempted to demonstrate the two types of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language: notional categories (time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative functions (requests, denials, offers, complaints) (Richard and Rodgers, 1986: 65). Wilkins' writings and the work of the Council of Europe were given prominence in the Communicative Approach (Communicative Language Teaching, notional-functional approach, functional approach are also sometimes used to describe the method). The distinguishing characteristic of the notional-functional syllabus (as referred to by Brown) is its attention to functions as the organizing elements of a foreign language curriculum. Notions are both general and specific and what we call contexts or situations. Specific notions include personal identification, travel, health, welfare, education, shopping, services and free time (Brown, 1994: 214). Functions are organized around identifying, reporting, denying, declining an invitation, asking permission and apologizing (Brown, 1994: 214). American and British proponents saw it as an approach not a method, that aimed 'to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 66).

Various responses to the CLT method have been monitored; for some, it means little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching;
Howatt distinguishes between a strong and weak version of CLT (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 66). Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) describe the major distinctive features of the Audiolingual method and the Communicative Approach (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 67-68). 'The wide acceptance of the communicative approach and the relatively varied way in which it is interpreted and applied can be attributed to the fact that practitioners from different educational traditions can identify with it, and consequently interpret it in different ways' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 68). The focus on communicative and contextual factors in language use also has an antecedent in the work of the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski and his colleague, the linguist John Firth. Firth stressed that 'language needed to be studied in the broader sociocultural context of its use, which included participants, their behaviour and beliefs, 'the objects of linguistic discussion and word choice' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 69). Another dimension of CLT is the learner-centred and experienced-based view of second language teaching. Teachers are encouraged to develop learning materials on the basis of the needs manifested by their students (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 69).

The communicative approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication. Richards and Rodgers quote Hymes (1972) who says that the goal of language teaching is to develop a communicative competence (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 69). 'Communicative competence, then, is that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts' (Brown, 1994: 227). For Savignon, 'communicative competence is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved' (Brown, 1994: 227). As we can see this is different from Chomsky's view for whom a linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities that enabled speakers to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language. Chomsky said, 'linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance' (in Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 70).
Hymes saw Chomsky's theory as sterile. In his view a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to

1. whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails)

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 70)

Hyme's view is complemented by Hallidays's functional account of language use which says 'Linguistics .. is concerned .. with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus' (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 70). In his theory of the functions of language, Halliday describes seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language:

1. the instrumental function: using language to get things;
2. the regulatory function: using language to control the behavior of others;
3. the interactional function: using language to create interaction with others;
4. the personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;
5. the heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover;
6. the imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination;
7. the representational function: using language to communicate information.

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 70-71)

Henry Widdowson, in his book Teaching Language as Communication (1978), presents a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. 'Seminal work on defining communicative competence was carried out by Michael Canale and Merrill Swain (1980), now the reference point for virtually all discussions of communication competence vis-à-vis second language teaching (Brown, 1994: 227). They established four dimensions of communicative competence: grammatical competence (the domain of grammatical and lexical capacity) sociolinguistic competence (the understanding of the social context in which the communication takes place), discourse competence (interpretation of individual message elements and how meaning is represented in relationship to the text)
and strategic competence (coping strategies that are used to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair and redirect communication) (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 71). Canale and Swain’s definition of communicative competence has undergone some other modifications over the years. Brown states that these newer views are best captured by Lyle Bachman’s (1990) schematization of what he calls Language competence. Bachman places textual competence (formerly called grammatical and discourse competence) under one node which he names organisational competence, they are all those rules and systems that dictate what we can do with the forms of language (grammar or discourse) (Brown, 1994: 229). Canale and Swain’s sociolinguistic competence is broken down now into pragmatic categories (functional aspects of language) and sociolinguistic aspects (which deal with politeness, metaphor, register and culturally related aspects of language)(Brown, 1994: 229). Elements of a learning theory are extracted in CLT practices by Richards and Rodgers: the communication principle (activities that involve real communication promote learning) the task principle (activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful task promote learning) and the meaningful principle (language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process) (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 72).

Savignon (1983) considers the role of linguistic, social, cognitive and individual variables in language acquisition. Other theorists like Stephen Krashen have developed theories which are compatible with the principles of CLT. He ‘sees acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguishes this process from learning. Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language .. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge’ (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 72). Krashen and other second language acquisition theorists, say Richards and Rodgers, stress that language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practising language skills (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 72).

Johnson and Littlewood consider an alternative learning theory that is compatible with CLT, a skill -learning model of learning, which states that the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of
skill development involving both a cognitive and behavioural aspect. It encourages an emphasis on practice as a way of developing communicative skills (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 72-73).

Discussions of the nature of the syllabus are central in Communicative Language Teaching. The notional syllabus was developed by the Council of Europe into a syllabus that included descriptions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults. Richards and Rodgers state that Widdowson argued that notional-functional categories provided only a very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules which are used for reference when people interact. They tell us nothing about the procedures people employ in the application of these rules when they are actually engaged in communicative activity. If we are to adopt a communicative approach to teaching which takes as its primary purpose the development of the ability to do things with language, then it is discourse which must be at the center of our attention (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 74)

Extensive documentation of attempts to create syllabus exists. Some have argued that the syllabus concept should be abolished altogether as only learners can be aware of their own needs, communicational resources and that each learner must create his/her own syllabus (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 76). The range of exercises and activities compatible with the CLT is unlimited. The emphasis is in the process of communication rather than mastery of language forms. The role of the learner is described by Breen and Candlin,

... as negotiator-between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way’ (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 77). Learners bring conceptions of what learning and teaching should be like. The lack of text, the fact that grammar rules are not presented and that correction of errors may be absent or infrequent can lead to resentment and confusion in the learners (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 77).

The teacher’s roles are also described by Breen and Candlin, as being twofold

... the first role is to facilitate the communication between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 77)
The teachers also act as researchers and learners, needs analyst, counselors and group process managers.

Instructional materials are varied. They comprise text-based materials, task-based materials including games, role plays, simulations which have been prepared to support CLT classes and realia (magazines, advertisements, maps etc.). Procedures used in CLT classes cannot be described in a prescriptive manner. Savignon discusses techniques and classroom management associated with a number of CLT classroom procedures (group activities, language games, role plays) (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 81). Finocchiaro and Brumfit offer a lesson outline for teaching the function 'making a suggestion' that suggests that CLT procedures are evolutionary rather than revolutionary (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 81). These procedures have much in common with those used in classes taught according to Structural Situational and Audiolingual principles but traditional procedures are not rejected. CLT is best considered an approach rather than a method, conclude Richards and Rodgers (1986: 83) and its adoption raises important issues.

Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a language program, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers, and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 83).

Brown concludes that

'What notional syllabuses do give is, first of all, an organization of language content by functional categories. Second, they provide a means of developing structural categories within a general consideration of the functions of language' (Brown, 1994: 215).

Stevick states that there are at least three reasons why teachers and students of foreign languages can profit from a better understanding of security, identification and self-esteem as described by Maslow. Stevick states that in any situation we need to separate problems that originate on these levels from purely intellectual or linguistic components. If we recognise these problems we might be better able to deal with them and lessen them. We can
use partial satisfaction of needs at these levels as very appropriate and meaningful rewards for engaging in general types of activity and for having learned specific bits of the language (1976: 51).

3.11 The Total Physical Response Approach

This approach (TPR) is based on 'the concept that the assimilation of information and skills can be significantly accelerated through the use of the kinesthetic sensory system – which, incidentally, is underused except for the instruction of pre-school children and impaired children' (Asher, 1996: foreword).

Asher designed an experiment to find out whether the belief that children were superior to adults in language learning was a myth. He published the results of his research done with Price in Child Development (1967). 'The idea was simple: The belief in children's superiority seemed to be the results of observing that when a family immigrated to a foreign country, the children acquire the new language rapidly and effortlessly while their parents struggle for years, often to achieve only marginal intelligibility' (Asher, 1996: 1.31).

He thought of explaining this observation by the context in which language learning takes place. Young children acquire the target language when caretakers utter, in the target language, intimate directions which must be followed. Older children acquire the target language in 'the context of play in which other children initiate the movement of peers with directions such as, "Throw me the ball ... Don't step on the line ... Come here". But what about adults' (Asher, 1996: 1.31).

Asher states that adults attempt 'to acquire the target language in a non-play context in which language is disembodied' (Asher, 1996: 1.31). Asher adds that most utterances made by children are accompanied with body movements that are synchronised with languages; adults, however very rarely cue the meaning of utterances with body movements (Asher, 1996: 1.32). His hypothesis was: if adults 'have the opportunity to acquire a sample of Russian in a learning context in which language is synchronized
with body movements, will they understand and retain the Russian at a level equal with children?' (Asher, 1996: 1.32). Asher found that adults actually surpassed children of all ages that were observed.

Another research was conducted by Asher and Garcia in 1969 to explore whether children had an advantage over adults in pronunciation (Asher, 1996: 1.33). Cuban adult immigrants who had settled in San Francisco Bay area were visited in their own homes and recorded reading several sentences in English. These sentences 'contained all of the English phonemes that Hispanic speakers typically have difficulty pronouncing' (Asher, 1996: 1.33). This is a classic study, the first to explore the relationship of age to pronunciation for people who have immigrated to a foreign country' (Asher, 1996: 1.33).

The results were that 'puberty seems to be the biological marker for pronunciation' (Asher, 1996: 1.33). The results show that after puberty, a person very rarely acquired near-native pronunciation of the target language, no matter how many years the person had lived in the foreign country (Asher, 1996: 1.33).

In his analysis of the language-body interaction to pinpoint what produces acceleration in acquisition and retention, Asher found four features which could explain the impact of TPR:

- **Position** which refers to the location of the learner in the room as an action is completed.
- **Concurrency** which means that the learner may be in motion before hearing the entire direction in the foreign language.
- **Cue** which refers to the location of objects in the room.
- **Sequence** which could be a salient factor because utterances may signal with a high probability the next utterances that will follow (Asher, 1996: 1.34).

The conclusion drawn by Asher, after exhaustive experiments to assess the impact of the above factors was that no single one of these components could
explain the acceleration of TPR learning (Asher, 1996: 1.35). Thus, it was apparent that 'the intact kinesthetic event when the person performs is important' (Asher, 1996: 1.35).

In the Global Simulation many of Asher's precepts are used insofar as the participants act out their utterances, as the videotape showed so clearly when one of the food-poisoning sufferers 'faints' in the middle of the 'train'.

3.12 An Integrative Approach: Humanism

I believe that in my teaching of adults I use an integrative approach: humanism. I agree with Stevick who states that out of the three elements which make a teacher, insight, technical skills and discipline, insight would come first (Stevick, 1980: 266). Humanistic teachers offer their students growth, accuracy and fluency. In this respect the humanistic methods which we have described here (the Silent Way, Suggestopaedia, Community Language Learning and Communicative Language Teaching) show this. Hartl (in Stevick, 1980: 294) says that over and above the theories and the techniques, is 'the ability to model convincingly' in one's own person 'the outcome' of this kind of teaching. To do so, she says, a teacher must be 'willing and able to share the most important aspects of life, to give freely of self'. Teaching a foreign language is an exciting way to interplay with other minds. In my case, I am very fortunate to teach, as a foreign language, my own native language. I give and receive energy. In Gattegno's view, explains Stevick, 'the Actor is the Self, the Stage is the whole world outside the Self, and the Play is limited in Time (This is my Metaphor, not his). The Self, the other actors, and the stage are Energy' (Stevick, 1980: 37). The Self is energy that works on all that comes into its body through the senses, to organize these inputs, accepting or rejecting them. The Self as Energy is 'Capacity to Work' (Stevick, 1980: 37). Stevick adds 'What it does or does not do within the time it has may lead – or may not lead – to freedom: freedom to 'stop being lived and live,' as Gattegno puts it: freedom to enter the future fully human' (Stevick, 1980: 37).
I also get from my teaching a feeling of being alive and fulfilled. What does it mean to be alive? Again, I turn to Stevick who gives the comprehensive and meaningful definition which follows:

In earlier chapters I said that when we say that something – a person, an animal, a vegetable, a microorganism even – is "alive", we mean that it is able to take into itself new things that it needs, and to use them, and to get rid of what it no longer needs, and to grow (in size or in other ways) into the world around it; and that in doing all these things it continues to be itself even as it changes. "Life" in this sense has not only length and breadth, but also depth (Stevick, 1980: 295).

The various methods described in this chapter show the tools that language teachers have at their disposal to impart knowledge and skills to their students. During the 1960's and the 1970's a shift in language pedagogy was seen through developments which tended to steer away from the adoption of one single method (Stern, 1983: 477).

'Some teachers have done what McArthur has suggested and used bits and pieces of various methods' (Chamberlain, 1997: 107). I too use an eclectic method. In a way, I consider a class with adults as being like a meal I have prepared for them; each recipe for a dish can be tampered with, at my whim, according to whether my guests will be hungry or not. There are many ways to prepare a meal and many ways to teach a foreign language, however, there is, underlying a conceptual framework. As Mackey is quoted as saying 'Language teaching, demands a matching of materials, teacher and learner' (Stern, 1983: 483). Mackey's basic concept as stated in Stern (1983: 483) read as follows: 'selection, graduation, presentation and repetition'. A selection on content is made which leads to choosing 'linguistic items according to the purpose length, and level of a projected language course' (Stern, 1983: 483).

The language items selected must be arranged in some order. Mackey distinguishes grouping (fitting together items that go together) and sequence (the order in which items follow each other). 'Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens make a similar distinction between staging and sequencing. But for them it is a task of arranging the language items in line with the requirements of particular courses' (Stern, 1983: 483). Then come the presentation and repetition phases which are that part of the teaching process which has been the main concern of the method debate. Mackey distinguishes a number of
procedures for presenting meanings (differential procedures derived from the Direct method or the Audiovisual method). The repetition phase is analysed by Mackey in terms of audiolingual-habit training with equal emphasis on the four skills (Stern, 1983: 484). The Halliday-McIntosh-Strevens scheme is less specific on teaching procedures and favours modern technological developments appearing closer to the audiovisual than to the Audiolingual method (Stern, 1983: 484). It seems that as long as language teaching exists, new methods, new techniques of teaching and learning will emerge. The computer revolution with its electronic data bases and infinite possibilities of exchanges, virtual travelling and net surfing will again give birth to a plethora of new techniques. The language teacher will have to adapt so that his/her self can grow and live. Stevick's words are very appropriate indeed:

The same person who is physically sound and economically prosperous may on other levels have stopped taking in the new, and letting go of what no longer fits, and changing: may, for the sake of hanging onto the Self that is, have given up knowledge of, and further unfolding of that very Self. This grinding to a halt, this digging into a permanent position, this inflexibility is a loss of life, therefore a kind of death on the one level — the symbolic level — which is available only to human beings and not to animals or plants (Stevick, 1980: 295).

Some innovative courses, in particular, those described by Anne Freadman from the University of Queensland, set themselves in ‘polemical relation with the definition of foreign language teaching that restricts its range to ‘everyday French’, and borrows unashamedly from some of the techniques that have been developed for the communicative classroom’ (Freadman, 1997: 196). She believes that we should collect material to teach writing and reading in the same way as we do to enrich the students' oral-aural skills. The courses that Freadman teaches are very similar to the ones I teach for Writers Workshop in English to anglophone students. Freadman states that it is very important to teach communicative skills to all students, but we should also develop their writing and reading skills as, she concludes we must go beyond the notion of progression through a closed linguistic system. She states,

These objectives must surely be richer as learning goals than just avoiding error; they might usefully include exciting the students' curiosity about the art and craft of language; they might well teach them to explore the heterogeneous richness of French and experiment with what they find. This is not about what they “need” for the ordinary rounds of daily intercourse, but about what they might end up desiring, and taking pleasure in, as we do (Freadman, 1997: 196).
Her innovative programme started at the University of Queensland in the early nineties aimed to teach students who had already spent time in French speaking environments or had been taught in immersion programmes. These students were highly motivated and confident in their use of French and for them the courses on offer were inadequate. At first when the numbers were manageable, these students went straight into second year. Then special programmes had to be devised to accommodate their large numbers. Specific exercises using films and literature which included the 'deaf friend exercise, in which students make subtitles for various scenes of a film, refining thus, their skills of selectivity and writing. 'One thing, therefore, that “studying” French might entail is this level of crafting one’s basic proficiency such that it becomes educated French as such, a genuine professional skill. Giving this as a goal to our students is one of the points of the accelerated stream' (Freadman, 1997: 179).

Another exercise, the 'blind friend exercise' encourages the reliance on visual and musical codes of a film to find a place to get started on the aural comprehension (Freadman, 1997: 181). The teacher may draw the attention of the students to the rhythm of the phrases, to the various sounds, discerning the various structures and words, using these in question – and – answer exercises designed to consolidate the learning (Freadman, 1997: 181). In the blind friend exercise, students are encouraged ‘to notice what they have not yet put into words is a demand that makes this level of visual literacy explicit’ (Freadman, 1997: 184). By visual literacy, Freadman means the description of colours, of faces and camera work. This type of work done in French extends vocabulary. Describing decor, costumes, movement, facial expression, furniture will require an extensive knowledge of vocabulary. Students may write a screen-play for the other group whose task will be to perform it. Collaborative work is required at all stages of the exercise. The writing tasks are designed to show the informal value of discursive strategies as well as the conditions under which the students have to actively seek the linguistic resources they need (Freadman, 1997: 188). This programme, says Freadman, hopefully creates in the students a curiosity about the difference that exists between oral and written codes. The other course is designed as a course in writing, in the writing of description. Having collected a set of texts
for study (description of interiors, landscapes, verbal portraits) Freadman uses those texts as models with regular exercises in which the students learn to mimic the stylistic effects (Freadman, 1997: 189).

Students' observation skills are developed in various field-work activities: sitting in a restaurant, walking, visiting Arts exhibitions. These exercises also provide a basis for group or pair-work exercises and students are encouraged to use lexical resources: similes, metaphors, analogies and to develop a piece of writing from a listing and to use different points of view (Freadman, 1997: 190). Collective writing exercises are done. The major objective of this course says Freadman 'is to increase the range of possibilities the students can choose from in their writing, and to make writing a medium for their exploration of the resources of French' (Freadman, 1997: 196).

I would say also that the skills which are developed in Freadman's techniques are valid also for the development of skills more specifically related to oral communication as other academics teaching French in Australian Universities, such as Colin Nettelbeck see the importance of stimulating their students 'to become aware of the widest possible range of the elements that constitute the evolving field of 'French studies' (Nettelbeck, 1997: 155). With this aim, the concept of the Imaginary Warehouse evolved. Inspired by Malraux's Musées Imaginaires the idea is to proposed a 'series of interlocking learning spaces, real or virtual, that will allow contemporary and future Australian students of French to do a number of things' (Nettelbeck, 1997: 155). The electronic package Imaginary Warehouse/Entrepôt Imaginaire draws together a set of maps of the field which will serve as a guide to users. 'It is also being designed as an attractor and a stimulator, with the capacity to draw users into interactive and autonomous modes of learning' (Nettelbeck, 1997: 156). At present the project is still in its early stages and will be ready, it is anticipated, by the year 2000.

Conclusion

In this third chapter, I have examined various methodologies which have been, and are used in the sphere of language teaching. I felt that I could not
write a thesis on the technique of Global Simulation used in the overcoming of anxiety in adult students when speaking French, without reviewing, examining the various tools at my disposal. The first six methods examined were the Grammar-Translation method, the Direct method, the Reading method, the Audiolingual method, the Audiovisual method and the Cognitive Theory method. They all offered various elements of methodology which were valid and which I have used frequently but the more humanistic methods like the Silent Way, Suggestopaedia, Community Language Learning, Communicative Language Teaching Counseling Learning and the Total Physical Response approach offered a better understanding of the state of mind and the affective condition of the communicators. This chapter has thus demonstrated some of the exceedingly rich variety of successful methods at the disposal of the teacher facing the challenge of transforming language learners into language users. All of these methods have much to recommend them, and most teachers will probably want to use a mixture of them, as I have done. There is, however, one particular technique that is of special relevance to adult students and to this thesis, namely Global Simulation. I will reserve my discussion of it, until after I have examined the problem of anxiety, which is, as we have seen, greater among adults than other categories of learners.
Chapter Four

Anxiety and its Effects on Communication
Chapter Four

Anxiety and its Effects on Communication

Introduction

After having examined, in chapter two, the questions which arise from the teaching of adults and in chapter three the various methodologies which are at the disposal of the foreign language teachers, I shall in chapter four, look at the question of anxiety and its effects on communication. Indeed in my many years of teaching adults, I have faced the challenge of the devastating effects of anxiety and fear in my adult students. One of the most examined topics of speech communication is the tendency in certain individuals to avoid and even fear oral communication. Stage fright, speech anxiety, communication apprehension, reticence, social anxiety are terms that have been used to describe various types of oral communication problems (Daly, in Horwitz and Young, 1991: 3). There are also other types of anxiety as, for example, that felt in written communication, in listening, receiving information or singing (Daly, in Horwitz and Young, 1991: 3-4). In the context of this chapter I shall limit myself to the concept of anxiety about communication as felt by adult students in French language classes.

In language classes, there may be various barriers to communication; they range from the students not being sufficiently prepared, not being interested, being tired or feeling alienated from the rest of the group; not having a positive view of the culture and language studied, or feeling anxious and fearful. We all have encountered despondent students who, like the ESL student, had written in a journal ‘Why can’t I speak what to· think a lot in English? I’m so bitter, trying hard. I’d like to speak a lot, however, I can’t. Finally I think my basic abilities of English ran short. I’m disgusted with myself’ (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 129).

4.1 Perspectives from Psychology

4.1.1 What is Anxiety?

Anxiety is defined in the Penguin Dictionary of Psychology as most generally, a vague unpleasant emotional state with qualities of apprehension, dread, distress and uneasiness. It is different from
fear, it is stated, in so much as anxiety is often objectless, whereas fear assumes a specific feared object, person or event. In learning theory, the term is used to connote a secondary (or conditioned) drive which functions to motivate avoidance responding (Reber, 1985: 43).

4.1.2 Communication Anxiety

The relationship between communication competence and communication anxiety has concerned psychologists and educators. What is communication anxiety? It is 'the abnormally high and debilitating fear associated with real or anticipated communication with one or more persons' says McCroskey (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 129). It can manifest as a trait, a general reluctance on the part of the person to speak whatever the context be, or it may occur in specific situations only, such as speaking, in public or in a foreign language (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 129). Although anxiety reactions of various kinds have been recognised and studied extensively, foreign language classroom anxiety has been isolated and distinguished from other forms of communication anxieties. Bostrom defines communication competence as 'the knowledge of and ability to use appropriate communicative patterns effectively in an interaction' (Bostrom in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 129).

4.1.3 Anxiety and Emotional States

Leontiev analyses man's and woman's emotional life in great detail. His definitions of terms are essential to understand his position. The best-known emotional state is the affect. 'An affect is a violently emotional reaction to a given situation' (Leontiev, 1981: 67). One might break out in a cold sweat or faint, blush, breathe unevenly according to the event one faces, pleasant or unpleasant. Emotion... 'differs from affect firstly by the fact that emotion is not a reaction to an event which has already taken place, but a means of evaluating a situation and relating to it - thus influencing one's behaviour in that situation' (Leontiev, 1981: 68). The third emotional state is the feeling. 'A feeling is an emotional attitude polarized around a definite object, and its
content embrace interpersonal, but also the most complex social relations' (Leontiev, 1981: 69).

Passion and mood are also defined by Leontiev. Passion is when all behaviour is ruled by feeling and the opposite notion is mood, that emotional state which often arises as the result of some objectively insignificant, even unconscious stimulus but which gives 'a definite and prolonged "colour" to a person's emotional responses, his motivations and other aspects of his mental life' (Leontiev, 1981: 70). Stress is 'that emotional state aroused by a situation reckoned to be dangerous or entailing exceptional responsibility' (Leontiev, 1981: 70). Whilst normal emotional states create a temporary loss of the ability to make the best choice of behavioural strategy, stress situations often have the opposite effect (Leontiev, 1981: 70). 'One is exceptionally collected and acts with absolute accuracy, rapidity, and effectiveness' (Leontiev, 1981: 70). It has been reported in various instances that mothers have been able to lift cars to save their child caught underneath the vehicle in situations of extreme danger. In normal situation these women would be unable to do so.

Soviet psychologists distinguished between emotional tension as being the result of one finding a real or imagined incompatibility between one's motives, plans, possibilities, capacities and the demands of a situation when the aims and motives of the activity do not coincide. Operational tension is connected, according to Leontiev with the necessity to carry out a particular activity allowing a person to settle into that activity and allowing best performance (Leontiev, 1981: 70).

4.1.4 Emotions and the Teaching/Learning Experience. Educational Methods to Reduce Emotional Tension

How do emotional factors influence teaching and learning? Leontiev states that it is extremely difficult to find an answer to this question as it depends on various conditions the correlation between motive and aim of the activity, the presence of standard emotion-generating factors such as the evaluation of a task being difficult, the emotional background of mood, affective traces from
previous successes or failures, an emotive attitude to a given
teacher, the peculiarities of the student's personality and the type
of higher nervous activity (Leontiev, 1981: 71). The teacher, adds
Leontiev, must create a climate which avoids states of purely
emotional tension and stimulates the emergence of operational
tensions (Leontiev, 1981: 71). The teacher of foreign languages
needs, more than others, to get involved in the emotional
atmosphere of the class (Leontiev, 1981: 72). As we are going to
see, the Global Simulation technique helps to create a climate
which will be conducive to a lowering of tension and a reduction
of anxiety. It is interesting to note that in the early eighties, some
Soviet psychologists (in particular at the Institute of General and
Pedagogical Psychology of the USSR Academy of Pedagogical
Science) introduced role playing into the process of language
teaching to younger classes leading to a lowering of emotional
tension thresholds (Leontiev, 1981: 72). In psychotherapy, one
talks of *emotional activation*, defined by Leontiev as being a low
level of tension that favourably influences the performance of a
given activity (1981: 72). Many psychologists, educators,
theoreticians have dwelled on the problem of anxiety.

In the 1960's the avant-garde technique of *Suggestopedia* was
devised to teach languages. As we saw in chapter three the
fundamental methodological principles of the method were
formulated by a scientific and pedagogical collective in Bulgaria,
working under Professor G.K. Lozanov. In the 1960's, Lozanov
'worked out a system of procedures for the creation of a positive
emotional and psychological climate in foreign language lessons'
(Leontiev, 1981: 111). The main element with suggestopaedia was
the use of suggestion, borrowed from psychotherapy. It was not
a new idea. Indeed, stated Leontiev, A.M. Svyadoshch carried out
successful experiments on the absorption of information during
sleep in the 1930's (Leontiev, 1981: 111). This led to the so called
*hypnopedia*, a system to teach languages during the learner's
sleep; in fact only the vocabulary learned during sleep was used.
Another system was developed in the 1960's by Professor I.T.
Schwarz called *relaxopedia*. It relied on the method of autogenic
training (auto training) (Leontiev, 1981: 111). In suggestopaedia
Lozanov used a wide variety of ways to break down the
antisuggestive barriers and help the students to achieve the childlike openness, plasticity and creativity that are characteristics of what he called infantilisation (Stevick, 1976: 156). The setting of the room, the furniture, the decoration are well known features of this method, the use of music also. Lozanov insisted that some important elements of suggestopaedia method were based on the behaviour of the teacher who had to maintain an air of authority and confidence but also of the student who had to feel the climate of authority and confidence (Stevick, 1976: 156). Detailing of the method has been done in chapter two and we acknowledge that Lozanov aimed at reducing the anxiety level of the students. Suggestopaedia provides each student, according to Stevick, with a fictitious identity and life history. In these borrowed roles, the students can interact freely and creatively with the teacher and with one another (Stevick, 1976: 158). Stevick adds that he saw videotapes of students using this method, joking with one another, entertaining one another, and resolving differences of opinion. These are the kinds of result the conventional, but longer, nonsuggestopaedic courses aim for, but only sometimes achieve (Stevick, 1976: 158).

It will be noted here that the Global Simulation technique also requires that the participants borrow roles, fictitious identities and life histories.

One participant at the Global Simulation weekend wrote

Having attended all the previous stages d'immersion I must admit from the beginning that this has the effect of reducing considerably any anxiety levels which might normally be experienced. I also feel that creating a character and playing a role which definitely not 'you' helps people relax, and that many small group activities are more encouraging for those who may not feel very confident of their skill (Journal 4, Appendix F).

Another participant wrote

SUNDAY
The confession
I spent a little time thinking about how Roland Charpentier would respond to this situation and I really enjoyed constructing the piece with suitable melodrama. Although it was quite daunting, I understood what was required in the introduction and enjoyed
Florence's assumption of the role of the sister. An inspired 'situation'. I felt much more in control with this simulation and less concerned about pronunciation, more concerned with delivery. I was surprised that I understood virtually all of the response. An enjoyable morning (Journal 9, Appendix F).

The videotape made of the weekend spent at The Grange, doing a Global Simulation will also show the happy atmosphere and the relaxed and creative participants.

When anxiety is limited to the language learning situation it is described as a specific anxiety reaction, a term used by psychologists to differentiate those people who are anxious in a variety of situations and those who are anxious only in specific situations (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 27). Theorists and researchers in second language acquisition have often remarked that anxiety has to be overcome in learning to speak another language, and I shall study various ways to help students develop confidence in the next chapter. As we have seen in chapter three, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, Communicative Language Teaching are all methods and techniques which aim at fulfilling this objective. For many years, educational psychologists have theorised on the effects of learning a second language. Guiora (1983) argued that language learning itself is a "profoundly unsettling psychological proposition" because it directly threatens an individual's self-concept and worldview (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 28). Although it is difficult to measure the level of anxiety in students, practitioners, like me, who have had ample experience with anxious learners can recognise its physical effects and its devastating implications in oral communication.

McCroskey (1971) wrote that, 'Due to its emphasis on interpersonal interactions, the construct of communication apprehension is quite relevant to the conceptualisation of foreign language anxiety' (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 30). Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope define communication apprehension as 'a type of shyness characterised by fear or an anxiety about communicating with people' (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 30). It manifests in several contexts (dyads, groups or in public)
and in either speaking or listening. It plays a large role in foreign language anxiety. The anxiety level is exacerbated by the medium which the speaker must use and understand, and it has been concluded that the special communication permeating foreign language learning derives from the personal knowledge that one will almost certainly have difficulty understanding others and making oneself understood (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 30). It has also been noticed that very talkative people become silent when having to express their ideas and feelings in a foreign language. Although this is true for many speakers, the possibility of being reborn in a different culture and to be re-programmed through the use of a different language is present. ‘Here I had become like the snake which in spite of being the same snake had put on a brand new skin. I had left behind part of myself. Henceforth I would never be totally French or Australian. Torn between two cultures, I enjoyed the advantages of both, albeit never fully. I started becoming a new person’ (Bostock, 1997: 79). Richards and Rogers advocate, as we have seen in chapter three, that the process of learning a new language is like being reborn and developing a new person (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 118).

Ordinarily self-conscious people may find that communicating in another language gives them an opportunity to be a new person. Our study in the use of the Global Simulation technique will show that this is indeed true and this phenomenon may be similar to stutterers who are sometimes able to articulate normally when singing or acting (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 30). I have first hand experience of this happening. I had a student in my Writers Workshop class who is now a very well-known and talented painter and who stuttered very badly. During a literary reading evening, this student sang while being accompanied on the guitar. I felt as if a bird had been released from its cage and the beauty of this student’s singing voice still haunts me today. On the other end, one of my adult French students who was also a stutterer never achieved a better level of communication whether it be in French, his second language or his native English language. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope state that there are two other relevant forms of language anxiety: test anxiety (referring to a type of performance anxiety which stems from a fear of failure)
and a fear of negative evaluation (an apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively). However, foreign language anxiety is not simply the combination of these fears. Rather, it is, according to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, a 'distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process' (1991: 31).

4.1.5 Fear of Criticism and Ridicule and Language Shock

One participant at the Grange, wrote in a journal 'to expose my real feelings, in fact I feel stupid sometimes when I make mistakes' (Journal 13, Appendix F).

In my experience as a teacher, adult students are, to a greater extent, more afflicted by anxiety than younger students for whom making a mistake and getting laughed at is not a traumatic episode which will lead to severe attacks of panic, fear or anxiety. In discussing what can be called language shock, Stengal (1937 in Schumann, 1978: 166) points out that when learners attempt to speak a second language they often fear that they will appear comic and he compares the use of a second language with wearing fancy dress (Schumann, 1978: 166). Whilst the child does not fear his fancy clothes, and may enjoy wearing them, the adult learner may want to wear these clothes but fear criticism and ridicule. The Global Simulation technique encourages this wearing of fancy clothes by adults without fear of criticism and ridicule. The child will see language as a method of play and will find communication a course of pleasure as will the adult in a Global Simulation exercise. Stengal states that, 'The adult will learn the new language more easily, the more of these infantile characteristics he has preserved' (Stengal in Schumann, 1978: 167). Adults are also more concerned about whether the words they use actually reflect their ideas. Children are not worried about this (Schumann, 1978: 167).

Schumann observes that learners often get narcissistic gratification from their use of their native language to attract attention and
praise, while when they are speaking a second language in which they are much less proficient, they lose this important source of narcissistic gratification (Schumann, 1978: 167). When adult students find it difficult to express their ideas and true feelings and expose their intellectual potential, in a second language, they experience a feeling of personality flaw, a lessening of intelligence; in a way it is as if they were going back to early childhood with the immature linguistic tools. ‘Because complex and non-spontaneous mental operations are required in order to communicate at all, any performance in the L2 is likely to challenge an individual’s self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear or even panic’ (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 31).

From my professional experience I have noticed that adult students have no fears of communicating in French with a native speaker of French who is unable to speak English. They feel that they are on the same level of inadequacy, that there are no superiors in the communication game and the true selves of both communicators, are indeed, reduced to a limited self. ‘The importance of the disparity between the “true” self as known to the language learner and the more limited self as can be presented at any given moment in the foreign language would seem to distinguish foreign language anxiety from other academic anxieties such as those associated with mathematics or science. Probably no other field of study implicates self-concept and self-expression to the degree that language study does’ (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1991: 31). Perhaps these authors’ view could be challenged as a singer, a musician, actors would see their self-concept and self-expression implicated to a very high degree; however, the difference relies on the fact that artists, performers would have had time to prepare and repeat and aim at achieving a degree of perfection which may not be achieved in other situations.

The implications for foreign language teachers are therefore very clear: they can help their students to cope with the existing anxiety-provoking situations or they can make the learning
context less stressful. In any case they must acknowledge the existence of language anxiety.

4.1.6 Two Types of Anxiety: Facilitating and Debilitating

'Another example of the schizophrenic nature of anxiety is K.M. Bailey's (1983a) diary study of her own competiveness and anxiety while learning French as a foreign language' (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 187). Bailey acknowledged the motivating effect of facilitating anxiety and according to Larsen-Freeman and Long, her experience suggested that 'it is not so much an individual's permanent predisposition to anxiety but rather the strength of the anxiety one is feeling at the moment which determines whether the anxiety is debilitating or facilitating' (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991: 188).

It would seem obvious that individuals with high levels of anxiety should be less successful in learning second languages than more relaxed individuals (Gardner, 1985: 33). Gardner refers to the study by Naiman et al. (1975) which shows that many teachers share this view and research by Krashen (1981) and Rivers (1964) which consider anxiety as a potent deterrent to achievement in second language acquisition. However, Gardner makes us aware of other research which shows that there are no significant correlations between anxiety and reduced achievement in foreign language acquisition (Gardner, 1985: 33). Scovel (1978: 139) states that we should distinguish between facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety. He suggests that 'facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to "fight" the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behavior. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast motivates the learner to flee the new learning task...' (Gardner, 1985: 33).

I shall examine these concepts in greater detail in the section concerning the effects of communication apprehension in this chapter. We should also take into account the situational component, says Gardner. French learning anxiety reflects both general classroom anxiety and anxiety specific to the language
learning situation, and it is this latter component which may interfere with language acquisition (Gardner, 1985: 34).

Some evaluation of anxiety was done in Canada by Gardner, Smythe, Clément and Gliksman (1976). In a sample of 1000 students for each grade level, carried out in many regions across Canada, it was found that French classroom anxiety was among the three highest correlates in 11 of the 15 possible cases. The only two variables which were better predictors of anxiety were language aptitude and motivation; language aptitude being among the best three predictors in 14 of the 15 cases and motivation was among the top three in all 15 cases (Gardner, 1985: 34). Further studies show that situationally specific anxiety may be influenced by cultural factors. Clément, Gardner and Smythe (1977a) state that for francophone Canadians learning English the relative importance of English classroom anxiety was greater. In two samples, they obtained a factor which they defined as 'self-confidence with English' which included 'appreciable negative loadings from English classroom anxiety; English use anxiety; self ratings of English competence; experience with more than one language; attitudes towards the English course; indices of motivation to learn English; and measure of achievement in English' (Gardner, 1985: 33). A similar factor was reported for Ontario francophone school children learning English and for mutual francophone students. Again, a self-confidence factor with English factor emerged. A measure of French classroom anxiety did not contribute to this factor (Gardner, 1985: 33), though we must recognise that in bilingual programmes, responses will be modified by the economic, political and social milieux within which they take place.

‘Considering all these studies,’ concludes Gardner, ... ‘it seems warranted that a construct of anxiety which is not general but instead is specific to the language acquisition context is related to the second language achievement. There does not appear to be much justification to conclude that, in general, anxious individuals are less successful than non-anxious ones in acquiring a second language, but rather that individuals who become anxious in the
second language learning context will be less successful than those who do not.' (Gardner, 1985: 35).

4.1.7 Fear of Making Mistakes

Anxiety is also associated with the desire to be perfect when speaking, a fear of making mistakes, a sense of low self esteem, and high feelings of self-consciousness (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 129). We have all observed in ourselves and others, sudden changes in behaviour.

'I grew up terrified of making mistakes as one was quite often physically punished for doing so. So initially my first year at Adult Ed, - I found it very hard to speak' (Journal 2, Appendix F); so wrote a participant at the Global Simulation. Another wrote

I do remember well though being told after making an error in grammar no you stupid girl and being the butt of a personal attack for 5 minutes or more; one of many this teacher made on me, for all manner of things. Twenty two years later with trepidation, but mixed with anticipation I took up my studies of French again' (Journal 13, Appendix F).

A number of distinct and coherent systems of feeling seem to co-exist in each human being. In Berne's Transactional Analysis each of these patterns of behaviour are called ego states. This theory asserts that there are three ego states: Parent, Adult, Child (Stevick, 1976: 66). Stevick summarizes the theory in this way: The Parent-ego state draws on memories of how things were in the great world outside the young child. This ego state derives its name from the mother and father (a non-political terminology which today would be challenged by single parent families) and from the other sources of the experiences that were imposed on the young child, including rules, ways of living, sights and sounds, which were sealed in the "memory-tapes" and cannot be erased through the individual's entire life (Stevick, 1976: 66-67). In later life, clues indicate the moments when a person is under the control of his Parent-ego state: furrowed brow, pointing finger, horrified looks and verbal cues like 'never', 'always', 'if I were you' and 'you should'. This ego state has certain legitimate and
essential functions in learning-like drills, insofar as it controls and protects the child and the adult from overwork.

It is useful to also distinguish between the *natural* and *nurturing* functions of parents from the *controlling* or *bossy* functions (Berne in Stevick, 1976: 67). The Child-ego state comes out of the memories about how we thought and acted before approximately the age of five and particularly how we felt (Berne and Harris in Stevick, 1976: 67). This ego state consists of recording of internal events and emotional responses to the same external events that become parts of the parent. In fact, 'by the time a biological child leaves for school, 'it is hard to imagine that any emotion exists which (he) has not already felt' (Harris, 1968: 50). The Child recordings, like the Parent recordings, Stevick observes, are unerasable (Stevick, 1976: 67). The outward signs of the Child-ego state include rolling eyes, shrugging shoulders, raising the hand for permission to speak, making sweeping statements like 'I wish', 'I dunno', 'mine is better'. As Berne states the Child state is in many ways the most valuable part of the personality, for in the child reside intuition, creativity and spontaneous drive and enjoyment (Stevick, 1976: 68). As language teachers we are interested in making connections with the Child-ego state of our students, and it is even more so in the case of adult students. The use of *Global Simulation* is in a way, as it will become clear, a technique to access the students' Child-ego state as they become receptive and productive.

Berne states that there are distinctions to be made between the different Child-ego states like, for example, the *Natural*, the *Adapted* and the *Rebellious* Child; The Natural Child is self-expressive; the Adapted Child seeks to avoid trouble with the outside power structure, and to get what it wants, whether by whining, by compliance, or by dissimulation. The Natural Child is the one that learns languages; the compliant variety of Adapted Child works for good marks (Stevick, 1976: 68). In the memory-tapes are enclosed feelings of inadequacy, of having been wrong, of having been the object of disapproval, correction and punishment. When the child accepts these as evidence about himself or herself, the basis of 'I'm not OK' is established (Stevick, 1976: 68).
In adult students the memory-tapes are more likely to be replayed than in younger students.

In his Transactional Analysis model, Berne applies the term Adult to the ego state in which a person appraises his environment objectively and calculates its possibilities and probabilities on the basis of past experience. This is the Self as it reaches out and tries to make sense of the outside world (Stevick, 1976: 69). This ego state starts when the infant is able to move and make choices. The asking of questions is a manifestation of the Adult ego state. The Adult is sometimes compared to a computer. 'It reconciles what the Child wants with what the Parent will allow; it then figures out whether the result is advisable under present circumstances and, if so, how to achieve it' (Stevick, 1976: 69). The outward manifestations of the Adult-ego state are alert eye movement, movements of face and body, questions like who?, what, why? and expressions like 'probably' and in my opinion (Stevick, 1976: 69). All three ego states are necessary to a healthy personality.

In Transactional Analysis, the basic human interaction is called a stroke and is defined by Stevick, as being 'any action that implies recognition of another person's existence' (Stevick, 1976: 69). There are good and bad ones, pleasant and unpleasant ones, and people differ in their needs for stroking but even bad strokes are less destructive than stroke-deprivation. An exchange of strokes is a transaction. Depending on the ego state of a person involved a transaction may be 'Parent-Parent', 'Parent-Child', or 'Adult-Adult'. There are also crossed transaction (when, for instance, one state tries to address the other person's Adult while the second may try to play Parent to the other's Child. Those crossed transactions prevent satisfactory communication. As teachers of foreign languages involved in communication, this theory is indeed a very useful way to assess successful or unsuccessful communications. There are also ulterior transactions; on a social level the transaction might seem to be Adult-Adult but on a psychological level we may have transactions between Child-Child or Parent-Child.
I have examined so far in a psychological perspective the complex problem of anxiety in oral communication and Leontiev's three emotional states of affect, emotion and feeling. I asked how emotional factors influenced teaching and learning and looked at ways of alleviating the problem by using Suggestopædia and other humanistic methods of teaching foreign languages. McCroskey's concept of communication apprehension was defined and analysed. I looked at how differently adults are affected by anxiety if we compare them to younger students. Studies made by Krashen (1981) and Rivers (1964) who considered anxiety as a potent deterrent to achievement in second language acquisition and evaluated by Gardner (1985) were examined. I looked at the cultural factors which are of relevance in the problem of anxiety and described the precepts of Transactional Analysis which can help understand adults students better.

I would like to turn now to an analysis of specific anxiety reactions.

4.2 Specific Anxiety Reactions

What are the specific reactions which are caused by anxiety? Phillips gives us an instance of anxiety-caused reaction, reticence. There is a great number of human activities that cannot be avoided and talk is one of them. Our personality comes across through talking. Speech is the distinguishing characteristic of the human species (Phillips, 1984: 51) and the concept of writing can be seen as 'redacted talk; frozen speech' (Phillips, 1984: 52). Some commentators such as Lasch, Yankelovich and Zweig have noted, says Phillips, that our society tends to manifest situations of narcissism which develops when self-awareness and personal concern are so great that it interferes with effective contact between people (Phillips, 1984: 52). Our society is moving, said Phillips in 1984, in the direction of the sociopathological kind, whereby communication between humans is becoming inconsiderate and ineffective and where computers exacerbate the problem (Phillips, 1984: 52). In 1999, the millennium closes its door to centuries of successes and failures, horror and beauty. In a society of computer-literate 'incommunicadues' some people are unable to communicate and some, consumed by anxiety about communication, erect barriers. When 'people avoid communication because they believe they will
lose more by talking than by remaining silent, we refer to it as reticence' says Phillips, and this reiterates Freud's pleasure principle since communication causes them pain, they attempt to avoid it (Phillips, 1984: 52). Stevick goes beyond the problem of reticence by introducing the concept of lathophobic aphasia.

4.2.1 Lathophobic Aphasia

The perspectives of memory theory and Transactional Analysis are, according to Stevick, not completely separate from each other. Indeed, the storage of feelings alongside linguistic material may cast light on the aetiology of a malaise, even disease, that sometimes appears among graduates of even the most advanced language programs. This is called by Stevick lathophobic aphasia, or unwillingness to speak for fear of making a mistake (Stevick, 1976: 78). This fear of making a mistake is very much exacerbated in the French culture. Indeed, in French the word faute can mean mistake (like in a dictation, faute d'orthographe) but also a sin (J'ai commis une faute grave).

One weekend the oldest brother was invited to the wedding of his friend. He was able to take a guest so he invited me. Though I was a few years younger than the others at our table for the wedding dinner, I felt very comfortable. I joined in the conversation the best that I could. The evening was going very well until I tried to express my opinion on the topic which was being discussed. I was in the middle of a sentence when my "brother's" friend stopped me and asked my French brother how he could tolerate my poor French. He said that he should correct me when I made a mistake and not let me 'continue to insult the language' as I was doing. He was very effective. I didn't make another mistake for the rest of the meal because I felt so humiliated that I refused to speak another word' (Journal 3, Appendix F).

wrote a participant at the Global Simulation weekend.

It is also prevalent in Australia, as I have encountered it in my class of adult students. They usually are more perfectionist than the younger students. The concept of perfectionist is an interesting one as it can include the sense of 'one who believes that some persons actually attain to moral perfection in the present life but it also relates to those who belong to an American sect of Christians founded on socialist principles' (Home Study Dictionary, 1985:
We find confirmation, in this definition, in the equation of the concepts of perfection, morality, sect and religion.

Stevick describes the symptoms of lathophobic aphasia as avoidance of foreign language situations, addictions to continual classroom training, a feeling that foreigners who may want to speak the student's native tongue with him or her, would not also welcome his or her use of theirs (Stevick, 1976: 78). Stevick proposes a possible explanation to this condition which may produce an atrophy of language competencies. It may be that ego states are stored along with basic sentences and structural automatities. 'If most or all of these ego states are Adapted Child, then subsequent attempts to speak the language will inexorably revive this ego state along with the words and phrases. Even in so-called "free interaction" sessions we feel compelled to keep track of and comment on every error' (Stevick, 1976: 78). Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope also observe that anxious students are afraid to make mistakes in the foreign language. They endorse the statement 'I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make (15%)', while disagreeing with 'I don't worry about making mistakes in language class' (65%). These students seem to feel constantly tested and to perceive every correction as a failure (1991: 34).

These subjective conditions that contribute to anxiety may come from the 'Not-OK' feelings described in the Transactional Analysis. 'Anxiety is commonly described by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object' (Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson, 1971). Because anxiety is clearly an emotional state, it is generated through the arousal of the limbic system, the primitive, subcortical 'chassis' of the cerebrum, which plays an important, though indirect, role in many kinds of human enterprises, including communication' (Lamendella in Scovel, 1991: 18). Scovel synthesised the literature on language anxiety available to him at the time and recognised the confused state of the research and findings. Specifically, he concludes that it is difficult to determine the effect of anxiety in language learning human enterprises, including communication, because of (1) the inconsistency of
anxiety instruments used to assess language anxiety, and (2) the complex and intricate hierarchy of variables that may intervene in the language-learning process (Scovel, 1991: 2).

According to Stevick, humans have received with the gift of language the realisation that none of us is exactly like someone else. We feel in ourselves uniqueness not only in our bodies but in the way we use symbols (Stevick, 1980: 5); with 'Uniqueness, beauty, choice and power – I am a being like a god!' (Stevick, 1980: 5). We also know, unlike other animals, that some day, we will die. Stevick quotes Ernest Becker who said that 'The unifying principle behind all that people do is not economic determinism, not sex, but the denial of death' (Stevick, 1980: 6). Each of us has an ultimate need to feel that he or she is an object of primary value in a world of meaningful action (Stevick, 1980: 6). This statement is, according to Stevick, a very important concept to acknowledge when speaking of self-image or that set of perceptions related to our body, but also to our personal style, actions, values, and choices that underlie them. The presentation of the self-image is the first law of psychological survival. The stakes, therefore, in any public setting and in any experience of communication, are high. The public scrutiny of our self image can be debilitating or invigorating.

This is illustrated by the following statement made by one of the participants at the Global Simulation weekend

The individual presentation of one’s character in front of the whole group is one activity where I certainly don’t feel totally relaxed, even though I’m reasonably confident about my ability to speak. I still worry about tripping over my tongue and making errors of pronunciation because I’m not quite relaxed, and I’m always nervous of having to speak straight after someone who is very fluent, or someone who is very dramatic and amusing. On the other hand, the audience response helps ease the anxiety, and once the speech is over you can relax and enjoy the other presentations (Journal 4, Appendix F).

The need for support from those around us may also prevent us from achieving all that we could because we don’t want to be regarded as the one who puts classmates in a bad light (Stevick, 1980: 8). In our world of meaningful action we must also consider
the long-range goals that we have set for ourselves: academic, vocational etc. We know we only have a certain amount of time available to us; we also demand a feeling of primacy; hence the need for attention from teachers and peers. Stevick states also that we need to compete to have someone to look down on – someone who is close to academic death (Stevick, 1980:10). There is also, of course, the need for success and achievement. A student’s account, as quoted by Stevick and given below, shows that these feelings of inadequacy are not always attributed to the attitude of an uncaring teacher.

Eventually, the incessant corrections (were) perceived as an adverse attitude on the part of the all-powerful "mother." (I felt) fear of an unexpressed homicidal impulse on the part of the teacher, pain, anxiety, depression, and desire to withdraw... In the class of one pleasant female teacher. (I) experienced her implacable and incessant corrections so adversely that (I) was unable to converse with her, or even approach her either in or out of the classroom (Stevick, 1980: 10).

All of the contributing factors to the lessening of a feeling of primacy, mentioned above, originate from outside. Stevick mentions those which originate inside the learner. This is the ‘divided self.’ Gallway, a tennis coach referred to by Stevick, uses this concept in his “inner game of tennis” (Stevick, 1980: 10). What is the Self? ‘Self is defined by psychologists in various ways: an inner agent or forces with controlling and directing functions over motives, fears need etc...; an inner witness to events, ... a component of the psyche which serves an introspective function... the totality of personal experience and expression, self as identity’ (Reber, 1985: 676). Stevick uses concepts such as Critical Self (which imposes its expectation on the second) and the Performing Self. He explains that when the Performing Self fails to perform as the Critical Self would like it to, the Critical Self puts further pressure on it, or punishes it in some ways (Stevick, 1980: 11); this kind of interaction between the selves creates more anxiety, greater tension and poorer performance. Gallwey, the tennis coach mentioned previously uses also the term Conscious Self. For him, the best learning performances will take place when the Conscious Self, the Critical Self and Performing Self are in a wholesome relationship with one another. In this way, the Critical Self notices what the Performing Self did as compared with the goal.
It does not blame or praise; the Conscious Self sets goals for the Performing Self and exposes it to good models but without imposing obligations on the Performing Self or interfering with the Performing Self while it is performing by telling it how to perform (Stevick, 1980: 29)

The lathophobic aphasia described by Stevick, that unwillingness to speak for fear of making a mistake, leads to symptoms of avoidance of foreign language situations, an addiction to continual classroom training, a feeling that foreigners would not want the learner to speak in the foreign language concerned. This may produce an atrophy of language competencies. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991) have observed the same fear of making mistakes by anxious students.

I have analysed Stevick's view that fear and anxiety are distinguishable entities and that the concept of self-image is seen by Stevick (1980) as the first law of psychological survival. Stevick (1980) viewed factors which contributed to the lessening of a feeling of primacy as external and internal and it led to an examination of the concept of self with a separation between the critical self and the performing self. Are there further psychological perspectives which can explain the effects of anxiety on learning and communicating?

4.2.2 Reduced-personality Syndrome

I shall look at the concept of reduced-personality first as I can understand fully, from personal experience, what Littlewood (1984: 59) expressed in a very clear manner. Severe language-learning anxiety causes major problems for the learners and the reduced-personality syndrome is one of these. As Littlewood says:

With their limited communicative competence, they [second language learners] may have difficulties in relating to others and presenting their own selves adequately. For example, making casual conversation or expressing spontaneous reactions may be difficult, and attempts to do so may result in misunderstandings and laborious efforts to explain. Unless they have firm confidence in themselves, they may come to feel they project a silly, boring image, and become withdrawn. Their sense of alienation may be increased by the fact that they are having to re-learn the conventions which surround simple daily events, such as
eating in a restaurant or approaching an acquaintance. To use two terms commonly applied to this kind of experience: they may develop a sense of “reduced personality” and experience various degrees of “culture shock” (Littlewood 1984: 58-59).

Stern quotes the American social psychologist Mead’s book *Mind Self and Society* (1934). Mead developed the theory that the mind of the individual and the individual’s perception of himself are formed by the social relations between the individual and his social environment, and that the individual’s role is defined by verbal symbols. His theory influenced some American social psychologists and psychiatrists to recognise that verbal *labelling* and the use of language in interpersonal relations had a profound influence on the individual’s self-image (Stern, 1984: 209). Another important factor in relation to the effects of anxiety is to be examined, insofar as the threats that exist at the level of interaction and identity are significant. Stevick examines the experiment that was conducted and in which the audience was primed to react in one of the two ways: in the first mode, various members manifested positive kinds of behaviour (smiling, note-taking, absence of fidgeting, maintaining of eye contact) whilst in the second mode the audience fidgeted, doodled, looked around the room etc. The difference between these two modes of audience response produced the expected difference in fluency, rate and total output, although these effects were not always statistically significant (Stevick, 1976: 63).

At the Global Simulation weekend the audience was always supportive as one participant stated,

> Over the weekend having models, lists etc. certainly helped me to feel more capable about tackling the various tasks set. The relaxed and accepting atmosphere made presentations not threatening at all (Journal 10, Appendix F).

The same participant wrote

> My anxiety about speaking French (or Italian) definitely increases if I feel inadequate – in preparation in having the necessary vocabulary, in pursuing a negative response, or if the person I am about to speak to appears busy, not interested etc (Journal 10, Appendix F).
Another participant wrote

However, having to present a previously prepared piece of work, standing in front of a group of people, and worse, having to wait for it is not my favourite activity; e.g. presenting the "personnage" on Saturday. I don't think the anxiety in that situation had very much to do with the fact that I had to speak French. It would have been as bad in English. Depending on the audience one could forget the most basic facts, like one's own name (Journal 2, Appendix F).

Some interpretations have put emphasis on the sense of disorientation of the language learners and their loss of status. Littlewood's concept of reduced personality is akin to this interpretation by Stern. As already seen in chapter three, this *infantilization* or loss of adult status that the learner has to accept can be likened to a phase of personality development (Stern, 1984: 382).

Some psychologists such as Ausubel have described the child's condition as one of *satellization*; others speak of *affiliation*. *Desatellization* is the gradual emancipation of the individual. The language learners have to become more independent by acquiring their own internal language standards and sufficient competence (Stern, 1984: 382). However Stern adds that to reach this goal the learner has to accept the infantile status and be prepared to make a fool of himself/herself without fear of rejection. The learner also has to accept ambiguous, incomprehensible and confusing situations. Some studies undertaken in the seventies showed that tolerance of ambiguity is a good predictor of success (Stern, 1984: 382-383). The learner who is mature, detached, self-critical and has a sense of humour can cope better with the demands of language than a rigid or status-conscious individual. The language learner is often in situations which are ambiguous, incomprehensible and confusing. In studies of tolerance of ambiguity ambiguous situations were identified as characterized by complexity, variability and insolvability and tolerance of ambiguity was defined as the tendency to perceive such situations as acceptable. Intolerance of
ambiguity appears in association with a high level of dogmatism and authoritarianism (Stern, 1984: 382).

I have thus examined further psychological perspectives like Littlewood's concept of reduced-personality (1984), the effects of verbal labelling, use of language in interpersonal relation, threats that exist at the level of interaction and identity, loss of status, infantalization, degree of tolerance of ambiguity to explain the effects of anxiety on communication mainly communication apprehension which I shall now examine.

4.3 Communication Apprehension and its Effects

James C. McCroskey (1970) defines Communication Apprehension as a broadly based anxiety related to oral communication. In subsequent writings he refined it as being ... 'an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with other person or persons' (McCroskey, 1984: 13). Research has been carried out in communication apprehension and it was concluded that there were various types of communication apprehension: the Traitlike type which is viewed as a 'relatively enduring, personality-type orientation toward a given mode of communication across a wide variety of contexts' (McCroskey, 1984: 16), the Generalised-Context type which is viewed as 'a relatively enduring personality-type orientation toward communication in a given type of context' (McCroskey, 1984: 16), the Person-Group type which is viewed as 'a relatively enduring orientation toward communication with a given person or group of people' (McCroskey, 1984: 17) and the Situational type viewed as a transitory orientation toward communication with a given person or group of people' (McCroskey, 1984: 18).

The type of communication apprehension that interests us in this thesis is more the Situational type. The causes of Situational Communication Apprehension are defined by Buss and quoted by McCroskey as being 'novelty, formality, subordinate status, conspicuousness, unfamiliarity, dissimilarity and degree of attention from others (Buss in McCroskey, 1984: 25). Daly and Hailey have, according to McCroskey, gone beyond Buss's statement and have added the component of 'degree of evaluation and prior history' (McCroskey, 1984: 26). McCroskey, himself is particularly interested in the prior history concept which brings with it learned helplessness
and learned responsiveness. His approach is thus a cognitive one. His underlying assumption is that people develop expectations with regard to other people and with regard to situations (McCroskey, 1984: 27). He adds that expectations are also developed concerning the probable outcomes of the speaking task; they manifest themselves in accrued confidence when the expectations are accurate or a lack of confidence when these expectations are not met. 'When expectations are produced that entail negative outcomes that are seen as difficult or impossible to avoid, fear is produced' he states (McCroskey, 1984: 27).

Expectancy learning is affected by reinforcement but the most Gestalt expectancy is that there is regularity in the environment which form the basis for the development of other more specific expectations and when there is no regularity in a situation, the organism is unable to develop a regular behavioural response pattern, states McCroskey (1984:27). 'Anxiety is the cognitive response to such situations, and the behaviour is therefore unpredictable to a large extent' (McCroskey, 1984: 27). A feeling of helplessness is developed when regularity of expectation does not occur; spontaneous helplessness may occur in adults when they confront certain situations; for instance visiting a foreign country where one does not understand the language may place the adult in a helpless condition, and this spontaneous helplessness generates strong anxiety feelings (McCroskey, 1984: 29).

Buss's contribution to the analysis of the problem of the avoidance of communication emphasises the perspective of shyness. He describes the various phenomena called shyness; shyness, he says, may be defined as 'discomfort, inhibition and awkwardness in social situations, especially with people who are not familiar' (Buss, 1984: 39). In the effects of shyness, as seen by Buss, we see a similarity with McCroskey's effects of communication anxiety; for instance, Buss states that shyness is identified by withdrawal, reticence, inhibition and the avoidance of social contact and also by its emotional component like fear, self-consciousness or both (Buss, 1984: 39). These emotional components are being accompanied as in the communication apprehension syndrome by physical symptoms like rapid breathing, quickened heart rate, sweating, blushing etc.

In an article entitled Oral Communication Apprehension, McCroskey and Beatty distinguish between Communication Apprehension (CA) and shyness, 'shyness
is the predisposition to withdraw from or avoid communication with other people. Hence, CA is a subjective, affective experience whereas shyness is a behavioral tendency that may result from CA or other causes. Although they are related they are not presumed to be isomorphic. For those interested in speech communication, speech anxiety is, according to Buss, equivalent to audience anxiety. However, for him, shyness is different from audience anxiety insofar as shyness occurs only in the context of small social groups, there is no audience, performance and less evaluation (Buss, 1984: 43). It is reasonable to say, like Buss, that most shy people have audience anxiety, but only a minority of those with audience anxiety would be characterised as shy (Buss, 1984: 43). Self-esteem has been reported to correlate with shyness. ‘Clearly, shyness causes low self-esteem, and low self-esteem causes shyness, and the two are likely to interact in a vicious cycle’ (Buss, 1984: 47).

We have seen therefore that communication apprehension is a broadly based anxiety, related to oral communication, and can be divided into various types: traitlike, generalised-context, person-group and situational, the latter one being more our concern as it is affected by the whole biographic history of the communicators I am examining in this thesis. I also mentioned Buss’s (1984) view that shyness was an important factor in the avoidance of communication. I shall now examine the effects of communication apprehension which are very important in my thesis. If I can understand the problem and its symptoms I may be able to help alleviate or cure them.

To define communication apprehension (CA) I shall turn to McCroskey’s definition who sees it from a cognitive rather than a behavioural perspective. It is felt internally by the individual. ‘The only effect of CA that is predicted to be universal across both individuals and types of CA is an internally experienced feeling of discomfort’ (McCroskey, 1984: 33). External behaviours can also be viewed. There are three typical patterns: communication avoidance, communication withdrawal and communication disruption, while the atypical pattern is excessive communication (McCroskey, 1984: 35). When people are confronted with a situation which they assume will make them uncomfortable, they react with a fight or flight process as already seen earlier in this chapter. The most common one, as indicated by research is the flight reaction in people who experience communication apprehension so that avoidance becomes the common
behavioural response to high CA (McCroskey, 1984: 35). When avoidance is not possible, withdrawal from communication is the behavioural pattern to be expected; it may manifest itself by pure silence or partial silence, that is talking only as much as absolutely required. Communication disruption is the third typical behavioural pattern associated with communication apprehension. I have encountered all these types of behaviour in my classes of adult students. The communication disruption is often reflected in a continuous flow of questions and a request for explanations which take the class further from its original intent and sometimes when there are no logical explanations for a point of grammar, one is held to statements like 'this is just how it is' or 'C'est la vie'. McCroskey mentions the over-communication response to CA in some individuals; it is interesting to note here that this behaviour may represent overcompensation and reflect the fight reaction. 'The person who elects to take a public speaking course in spite of his or her extreme stage fright is a classic example' (McCroskey, 1984: 35). Those who appear to have a very low level of communication apprehension and are poor communicators may in fact be suffering from a very high level of communication apprehension.

Severe language-learning anxiety causes other interlocking problems observe Crookall and Oxford. They state that it 'lowers students' situational (classroom-related) self-esteem, reduces their confidence in themselves as language learners, strengthens inhibition, lessens willingness to take risks (an essential for learning to communicate in a new language), and decreases the probability of achieving a high degree of language proficiency (Oxford, 1990). (Crookall and Oxford, 1991: 141). There are indeed multiple roots to language learning anxiety. As Littlewood states, 'In the typical language classroom, learners are often asked to perform in a state of ignorance and dependence which may engender feelings of helplessness' (Littlewood, 1984: 58). He adds that they have to produce unfamiliar sounds, they may be corrected in front of others for reasons they don't always understand. Most of them do not possess the tools to express their own individuality (Littlewood, 1984: 58). If a learner of French, for instance, is learning French in France, the student may have difficulties in relating to others and presenting his/her self adequately. This concept of alienation and inadequacy in communication competencies is described very aptly by Littlewood as we have seen earlier on, in the terminology he uses to describe this problem, 'To use two terms commonly applied to this kind of experience: they may develop a sense of "reduced personality" and
experience various degrees of "culture shock" (Littlewood, 1984: 59). The concept of culture shock is also found in a very interesting personal description of his arrival in France in the 1950's by one of the authors of Becoming Bilingual, A Guide To Language Learning. He relates his feelings of alienation; for him, the 'aliens in France had undergone a classic case of culture shock ... psychological shock resulting from anxieties created by a new cultural environment. And no adult living overseas for the first time in his life can hope to be free from such anxieties' (Larson and Smalley, 1972: 39). As the author says so rightfully 'culture guides the behavior of people in a community and is incubated in family life and helps us to know how far we can go and where our responsibilities lie. At the heart and core of culture is the system of interaction and communication that we call language. Without it, we are not much different from animals' (Larson and Smalley, 1972: 40).

Larson and Smalley explain also that whereas culture shock does not last long, culture stress can linger for months or years. The aliens experience an identity crisis which is often accompanied by a loss of status and a fear of failure which is due to a lack of interaction and communication. 'Stripped of the primary means of interaction, the language learner feels like a child again, making mistakes constantly... There at home he could handle himself; here he sounds like someone else; people laugh at him; he feels rejected' (Larson and Smalley, 1972: 43). As Larson and Smalley say, the aliens will release tension through aggression, strange ways of behaving, poorer language performance, regression of language competencies and sometimes redefine their objectives so that they are reachable with less overall effort (1972: 44).

The effects of CA, as we have seen, are feelings of discomfort, communication avoidance; communication withdrawal and communication disruption with fight or flight reactions. I also examined the problems of reduction in self-esteem and lack of confidence in being able to learn a language, a lessening of a will to take risks, a reduced likelihood of high achievement as effects of anxiety and the specific experience by students abroad of culture shock and culture stress which cause certain degrees of regression in language competencies. What are communication competencies and what do I, as a teacher, expect from my students?

Human learning is often viewed as being composed of three domains: the cognitive (understanding or knowing), the affective (feeling of liking or
disliking), and the psychomotor (the physical capability of doing). As Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (in McCroskey, 1984: 36) state, '...such a threefold division is as ancient as Greek philosophy' and 'philosophers and psychologists have repeatedly used similar tripartite organizations: cognition, conation and feeling, thinking, feeling, willing and acting' (1964: 7). They themselves found in their research that most of the objectives stated by teachers could be placed easily in one of three major domains of classifications, indeed the same as the ones used later by McCroskey (1984: 36): cognitive, affective and psychomotor. In their Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook 2: Affective Domain, Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia found it necessary to refine their taxonomy. In this thesis, we do not intend to go into details into what is known as the Bloom taxonomy as it would carry us further from our intended task. McCroskey distinguishes between communication competence and communication skill. He sees communication competence falling into the cognitive domain and the communication skill into the psychomotor domain. He quotes Larson, Backlund, Redmond and Barbour's definition of communication competency as being 'the ability of an individual to demonstrate knowledge of the appropriate communicative behavior in a given situation' (in McCroskey, 1984: 36). Communication skill, states McCroskey, is 'the ability of an individual to perform appropriate communicative behavior in a given situation. To be judged skilled, then, a person must be able to engage physically in appropriate behaviors' (McCroskey, 1984: 37).

What are the components of desired communication learning? McCroskey states the following three: communication competency (knowing and understanding appropriate communication behaviors), communication skill (being able to produce appropriate communication behaviors physically), and positive communication affect (liking and wanting to produce appropriate communication behaviors) (McCroskey, 1984: 37). As a teacher of French to adult students, I perceive communication competencies as an amalgam of these three components. Anxiety has effects on communication. What is the role, then, played by a higher level of Communication Apprehension? It is seen, according to McCroskey, as 'a potential inhibitor of the development of both communication competence and communication skill and as a direct precursor of negative communication affect' (1984: 37). A high level of Communication Apprehension will be a barrier to communication competence (avoidance of situations which cause discomfort
leading to inhibitions of learning), the acquiring of communication skills (less practice will be attempted) and on the communication affect (dislike of what we fear or are anxious about) (McCroskey, 1984: 37).

Conclusion

In this chapter I showed that communication apprehension had various effects on oral communication like feelings of discomfort, communication avoidance, communication withdrawal and communication disruption. In view of the importance of self-esteem and confidence in one's ability to be successful, in view of the negative effects of culture shock and stress, the importance of shyness and the three types of anxiety related to oral communication, I believe that the concepts examined in the beginning of this chapter (reduced-personality, loss of status, infantalisation ...) allied with the concepts of lathophobic aphasia, concepts of self-image, emotional states, various findings extracted from the Transactional Analysis theory, have helped me understand the effects of anxiety in communication. In the chapter that follows, chapter five, I shall look at the available ways to reduce anxiety in adult students of French as, so far, I have established that the teaching of adult students is a specific area of education, worth exploring and that the fear of loss extends to memory and intelligence in the ageing. The exploration of personality and self concept vis-à-vis the learning process of adults and the specific use of andragogy helped me to understand the need to dwell into philosophical perspectives on adult learning. As in this thesis, I am mainly concerned with the teaching/learning situation and the learning induced, influenced by my teaching, I felt the need to dedicate chapter three to the challenges of language learning and teaching. I explored therefore, various methodologies such as Grammar-Translation Method, Direct Method, Reading Method, The Audiolingual Method, the Audiovisual Method and the Cognitive Theory Method. Apart from the above six, I examined four methods which are more humanistic in their aims, that is to say, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, The Community Language Learning, the Communicative Language Teaching Method and the Total Physical Response Approach. In the next chapter, I shall investigate the various techniques to overcome anxiety in order to help adult students achieve their full linguistic potential orally.
Chapter Five

Techniques to Overcome Anxiety in Communication
Introduction

In this chapter, I shall examine the two types of treatment programmes intended to produce effective communicators that I could use with my adult students who are experiencing anxiety. The first techniques to overcome anxiety in communication that I shall analyse are those which are directed toward reducing communication apprehension. I shall examine these techniques: Biofeedback, Systematic Desensitization, Rational Emotive Therapy, Cognitive Restructuring which may be partially used in classroom management. The other techniques which I shall examine fall into the category of treatment programmes which are intended to improve communication skills. In this context, I shall look at the Skills Approach and the Relational Competence model. The latter will be examined with a detailed analysis of its five components: motivation, knowledge, skills, outcomes and context. Some strategies for example the use of anxiety graphs, role plays, drama, oral interpretation, use of journals and case studies will be analysed. The concepts of motivation, personality, emotional states will be looked at from the point of view of the students and the teachers in so far as they are of utter importance in the partnership learner/teacher I wish to establish. In this context also, the Counseling-Learning theory introduced already in chapter three will be re-examined to show how the needs for the students to grow, should be taken into account. Once the actors of this play, namely our learning/teaching experience have been examined, the play stage, that is the learning environment is examined. Finally, I shall examine Campbell and Ortiz's Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop and their questionnaires which students are asked to fill in and which I have used myself in the Global Simulation weekend, my experiment in applying my theories in this thesis. Cope Powell's approaches will also be examined in order to complete our research on methods to overcome anxiety in communication apprehension.
5.1 Therapies

5.1.1 Biofeedback

Let us start with Biofeedback as the first example of such therapies. Biofeedback has been used to help anxious students. What is this technique? Brown says that biofeedback enables people to discern and voluntarily control certain physiological functions. It is a concept, a process and a training method. Heart rate, blood pressure, muscle tension and brain waves are among the various physiological functions that individuals can actually learn to control. The early work done emanated from the theory of operant conditioning, which we have seen in chapter two already; it consists in rewarding innate biological activities for appropriate performance (Smith, 1989: 236). ‘Training involves providing the learner with information about internal physiological process and states (by means of instruments or self-monitoring techniques) and help in learning to gain control over those processes’ (Brown in Smith, 1989: 237).

5.1.2 Systematic Desensitization

Systematic Desensitization, another treatment procedure, was first reported by Wolpe in the early 1950's. What does it refer to?

The term Systematic Desensitization refers to a treatment programme that includes

1. training in deep muscle relaxation
2. construction of hierarchies of anxiety-eliciting stimuli
3. the graduated pairing, through imagery, of anxiety-eliciting stimuli with the relaxed state

(Friedrich and Goss, 1984: 175).

In order to desensitize a person, a relevant hierarchy of anxiety-provoking situations needs to be constructed. Subjects in Systematic Desensitization are induced into a state of physical relaxation and then are presented a series of anxiety-provoking stimuli they are requested to imagine. If the subjects feel any
tension, they are asked to forget that imagined event and go back to a relaxed state; the trainer then resubmits the stimulus which caused anxiety. If no tension is reported by the subject, they are asked to go back to relaxing while the trainer prepares another stimulus item. Thus the sequence is relax, imagine, stop imagining, relax (Friedrich and Goss, 1984: 173-178). Friedrich and Goss state that it is important to realise that the success of the technique will depend on the personal characteristics of the client and the nature of the problem. The assumption behind the technique is that anxiety is not a natural state and therefore it is learned through negative experiences. Adult students may have a whole history of negative experiences relating to language learning. Being a behavioural problem it can therefore be treated by Systematic Desensitization. There are numerous explanations of the success of the technique, but the most popular ones focus on reciprocal inhibition, habituation and coping strategies. Friedrich and Goss refer to Wolpe who claims that Systematic Desensitization is an operationalization of the principle of reciprocal inhibition (1984: 183). Wolpe writes, 'If a response antagonistic to anxiety can be made to occur in the presence of anxiety-evoking stimuli so that it is accompanied by a complete or partial suppression of the anxiety responses, the bond between these stimuli and the anxiety response will be weakened' (Wolpe in Friedrich and Goss, 1984: 184). The authors present a succession of reasons why Systematic Desensitization is a successful way of dealing with anxieties such as Communication Apprehension, and conclude, 'One thing is clear. SD works, and it doesn't seem to matter a great deal how it is conducted' (1984: 185).

In an article Fremouw defines the treatment approaches available for cognitively oriented modification procedures for communication avoidance due to all types of performance anxiety. Communication avoidance is defined by him as 'a type of performance anxiety in which the person experiences anxiety when anticipating or engaging in communication with other people' (Fremouw, 1984: 209).
In his research on anxiety, Borkovec (1976) is said, by Fremouw, to have conceptualize anxiety as a shorthand term for a complex and variable pattern of behaviours. Borkovec's definition of anxiety is quoted by Fremouw as including 'cognitive arousal, physiological arousal, and both overt manifestations of arousal and observable avoidance behavior' (Fremouw, 1984: 210). Therefore, this concept of anxiety requires the multiple measurement of three separate response channels: cognitive, behavioural and physiological. Fremouw describes two approaches to overcome anxiety. The first one is Rational Emotive Therapy devised by Ellis.

5.1.3 The Rational Emotive Therapy

Ellis’s approach focuses on the underlying belief-premises that contribute to a subject’s thinking and maladaptive behaviours. He identifies eleven irrational beliefs which underlie all emotional problems and Fremouw cites from Ellis’s definitions, ‘Among the most common irrational beliefs are (a) everyone must love me all the time or I am a bad person; (b) I must be competent or successful in all situations or I am a bad person; and (c) when life is not the way I want, it is awful and upsetting’ (Fremouw, 1984: 210). The first aim of Rational Emotive Therapy is to identify the irrational beliefs which lead to the avoidance of communication; these beliefs are examined by the therapist who attempts to replace them with more rational ones. Thus, the strategy of the therapist who use Rational Emotive Therapy is to help the individual to reinterpret logically these irrational themes and provide the person with general philosophies designed to assist the person to cope with communication situations. Research on the effectiveness of Rational Emotive Therapy has been encouraging (Fremouw, 1984: 211). The second approach Fremouw describes is Cognitive Restructuring.

5.1.4 Cognitive Restructuring

It was devised by Miechenbaum who argued that it is not the incidence of irrational beliefs which distinguish normal and abnormal behaviours; rather, that people differ in the coping
response they make to their irrational thoughts (Fremouw, 1984: 211). Miechenbaum’s self-control procedure consists of three stages:

1. to teach the individual to become a good observer of their thoughts, feelings and behaviors;
2. the self-observation process leads to the emitting of adaptive cognitions and behaviors;
3. it involves determining the generalization of treatment effects and altering the content of individuals’ internal dialogues

(Fremouw, 1984: 211)

Role-plays are used to show individuals how to cope. The major steps in cognitive restructuring for the treatment of communication apprehension are summarised by Fremouw: step (1) involves providing the anxious subjects with a thorough rationale and purpose for the training; they are told that communication apprehension is a learned reaction and a set of behaviours that can be modified by learning new skills. In step (2) the individuals are taught to identify specific negative self-statements or thoughts that inhibit communication. These statements are then listed and rationally discussed in terms of how they affect communication and social behaviours. Common logical errors as overgeneralisations of the kind ‘I never speak well’, or self-fulfilling prophecies such as ‘I won’t be liked’ are discussed. In step (3) learning-coping statements replace negative self-statements. The trainer divides communication situations into temporal phases: before, during and after, and teaches the subjects to generate coping statements that can be used throughout the communication event such as ‘It’s only a small group of students like me’, ‘Speak slowly.’ The final step, step (4), consists of practice sessions where groups are formed and are asked to discuss topics of increasing controversy as they practise using coping statements. A diary is completed by each person in which stressful situations and coping statements are included (Fremouw, 1984: 212-213). This approach has been compared to other treatments and has proven effective for many communication problems.
These methods described above, Biofeedback, Systematic Desensitization, Rational Emotive Therapy, and Cognitive Restructuring are ways of dealing with communication apprehensives by trained specialists. Some of their precepts and techniques seem a little difficult to apply these techniques on a regular basis as language teachers are not usually trained therapists, do not have the time to devote to handling extreme cases of anxiety, and do not have the funds for the special equipment, as Foss and Reitzel note (1991: 130). However, it is good for a teacher to be aware of these therapies as some of their approaches can be useful in classroom management.

I examined these techniques which are used to overcome anxiety in communication, that is to say, Biofeedback, Systematic Desensitization, Rational Emotive Therapy and Cognitive Restructuring. I shall now turn my attention to two techniques which have as an aim the production of effective communicators and focus on improving communication skills. These are the Skills Approach, and the Relational Competence Model.

5.1.5 The Skills Approach

What is the Skills Approach? It is a method based on the assumption that correct performance of a behaviour results in competence. The question posed is 'Does this happen in second language learning?' Foss and Reitzel rightly comment on the fact that for the Skills Approach to be effective, the students must view their behaviour as competent. However, language teachers often face adult students who are never satisfied with their level of skill and avoid communication or become communication apprehensives because they have no confidence in their level of skills and, for these students, the Skills Approach might actually increase their anxiety. What is needed, then ask Foss and Reitzel? They answer this question by proposing an approach to language-learning anxiety that takes into account the significance of self-perception throughout all phases of language learning and performance and that can be handled, within the time, practical constraints of a classroom situations (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 130). Self-perception is seen by these authors as a critical factor in both
language-learning anxiety and communication anxiety (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 130). They suggest that language teachers use the method established by Spitzberg and Cupach called *The Relational Competence Model*. 'We choose to view relationship as a confluence of behavior and perception. To us, it is at least as important to know how people view the behavior of self and other in terms of relational dimensions as it is to know what behavior is actually performed' (Spitzberg and Cupach in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 131).

### 5.1.6 The Relational Competence Model

Spitzberg and Cupach's model is based on the concept of competence, which they define as 'not something intrinsic to a person's nature or behavior; it is an impression that a person has of self or other' (Spitzberg and Cupach in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 132). Competence is, therefore, only a matter of degree and for them; the question changes from "What behaviors are competent?" to "What behaviors are most likely to be viewed as competent?" (Spitzberg and Hunt in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 132). Perceptions of competence can vary from situation to situation and even within a particular episode. For example, a behaviour that someone perceives to be a *faux pas* on one occasion might pass unnoticed (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 132). Indeed, I believe, as a poet, that linguistic *faux pas* may become creative visual images and sources of poetry. In a way, metaphors and similes could originate from such *faux pas* as, we could argue, that uttering a statement like 'The road snakes its way between the mountains' is a misuse of a noun into a verb and is based on the inappropriate understanding of the concept of snake. The poet is seen as competent in his/her use of metaphors but the learner of English may not be when using the same images. The significant step taken by Spitzberg and Cupach then, for the language teachers is that the distinction between the stages of acquisition / learning and performance is less important than the recognition that perception will determine how a student will handle each phase. The notion that competence can be determined only by looking holistically at the interactional situation makes this model truly communication oriented, conclude Foss and Reitzel (1991: 132).
Let us look in detail at the Relational Competence Model. It includes five fundamental processes: motivation, knowledge, skills, outcomes and context. Motivation is the foundation of this model as it means the difference between communicating and not communicating. As far as I am concerned in this thesis, this component will be the most important. What Spitzberg and Cupach mean by motivation is 'the affective approach or avoidance response to a particular communication situation (Spitzberg and Cupach in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 132). Scovel's concept of debilitating anxiety (as seen already in chapters three and four) which motivates the learner to flee from a task will be involved in the attitude of avoidance (skipping classes, dropping out) of students and, in particular, adult students who have the choice to sit or not to sit for final examinations.

Some communication avoidance may also be due to a rejection of the second culture. This rejection sometimes originates from a negative perception of the second language native speakers, a sense of culture shock, (as seen in chapter four) a desire not to associate with the second language speakers. Foss and Reitzel summarise the fact that the motivation to learn and use of the second language depends on students' perceptions of their abilities in the second language and their feelings toward the second language (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 133).

Knowledge is the second step in this model. It is defined by Spitzberg and Cupach as a repertoire of behavioural patterns and strategies upon which a person draws in order to decide how to communicate in a given situation (Spitzberg and Cupach in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 133). This is the most daunting stage of the process as the task of learning a second language appears overwhelming. If symptoms of tension, fear, panic accompany the students' effort to study the new language, their efforts may be ineffective.

Skills are viewed as the necessary tools to converse successfully in a new language. What is important to remember here is that, although a person may be motivated to interact competently and
may understand, theoretically, how to manage the fundamentals of a language, he or she will need certain skills to converse successfully in the new language (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 133). Spitzberg and Cupach affirm that, at times, students' perceptions may or may not be consistent with their actual skill levels and they may not perceive their level of competence as others would (Spitzberg and Cupach in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 133).

Outcomes, the fourth component of the model, include those which are likely to be taken as evidence of communication competence. They include communication satisfaction, relational trust and interpersonal attraction. In a language classroom teachers and students alike are responsible for establishing and evaluating appropriate outcomes.

Context, the final component of the Relational Competence Model demands that attention be given to the subjective dimensions of environment as well as to its objective features (Spitzberg and Cupach in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 134). Indeed each person, via his/her perception, creates an environment that facilitates or hinders language learning. According to Spitzberg and Cupach, the self-perceptions of the context often are more important than the context itself and can fluctuate greatly across time and situation (Spitzberg and Cupach in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 134). Strategies are described to handle language learning anxiety at each step of the Relational Competence Model.

In the Rational Emotive Therapy, described earlier, one can use anxiety graphs to help students contemplating a communication situation. The technique devised by Brownell and Katula was adapted by Foss and Reitzel for use in the second language classroom. The anxiety graph is designed to help students gain an accurate understanding of the nature of their anxiety, to pinpoint when anxiety is at its highest in a given interaction and to approach the situation more realistically. On the graph, students mark their anxiety about a conversational encounter immediately after it occurs (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 136). The anxiety graph can help students to internalize the fact that speaking a new
language is not a uniform process that is constantly difficult and anxiety provoking' (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 136).

An Anxiety Graph


Some exercises are suggested to address the anxiety associated with the ability to put knowledge into practice. Role plays, drama and oral interpretation are used frequently in classrooms. I shall study in detail the use of role plays and drama in another chapter when we examine Global Simulations. However, oral interpretation which involves the practised oral reading of a script before an audience can be discussed here. The scripts selected by the instructor are practised for correct pronunciation, intonation, volume and timing; in this respect, then, emphasis is put in terms of meaning in and behind the words; non-verbal communication is planned and practised and then their interpretations are performed in front of an audience. In the view of many writers, the group preparation, evaluation, and performance lessen communication anxiety for many students, as does the fact that they are performing the works of others (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 137). Many positive responses on the part of students and teachers suggest that oral presentations are a way to overcome performance anxiety (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 138). I shall come
back to this point, in chapter six which covers in detail the use of performance and oral presentation in the context of my thesis.

The outcome component of the Relational Competence Model involves the individual's impressions of the communication events. The opportunity to reflect is very important to develop specific objectives for continuing competence, allowing the students to keep in mind the importance of their perceptions in determining the outcome of a particular communication event. As Foss and Reitzel note, journals have been used by English teachers, communication teachers and language teachers to open a dialogue between teachers and individual students, to examine personal value systems, to explore intercultural issues which are encountered in the new culture and to assess current competencies' (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 138). I have used journals during the Global Simulation weekend, as we shall see in the final chapters of this thesis, so that the participants may evaluate and reflect upon their anxieties. The use of journal writing proved very beneficial. One of the participants at the Global Simulation weekend wrote,

> I see now that this attitude is irrational, so perhaps I will be more relaxed today. Having now analysed why I felt so anxious, and having realised that my reasoning is unsensible, perhaps my subconscious will cause my anxiety levels to lower (Journal 7, Appendix F).

As Foss and Reitzel state, individuals can also write through their feelings of inadequacy and arrive at a more realistic, positive sense of their progress (1991: 138). Students also establish more realistic communication goals by writing a hierarchy of specific goals to work toward in the remainder of the class.

The context component of the Spitzberg and Cupach model involves identifying the objective environment and the subjective perceptions which influence the way students interact in that environment (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 139). Case studies involving ethical issues are given to the students to show them how many ways can be used to look at a specific situation from a variety of individual and cultural viewpoints and the students get in touch
with their own ways of perceiving and discussing events (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 139). Another exercise which is suggested is the cultural artifact exercise which consists of bringing to class one or two physical objects that signify some aspect of their culture and to discuss possible uses for these objects; this activity allows students and teachers to compare and contrast their cultural 'artifacts' and what these artifacts symbolize to them in a non-threatening manner (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 139).

In the analysis of Spitzberg and Cupach's Relational Competence model, which followed the examination of the Skills Approach in the context of discovering methods to overcome communication apprehension, I have come to the conclusion that the first component of their Relational Competence Model which encompasses five fundamental processes, Motivation is the most crucial one for my thesis in which I am concerned with the actual teaching/learning situation, the learning which has been induced or influenced by some form of deliberately planned social intervention, by my teaching.

As we have seen previously in this chapter Spitzberg and Cupach define motivation as 'the affective approach or avoidance response to a particular communication situation' (Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 132). If a person avoids a situation, the ability to communicate is not available. Some language learners might withdraw from a communicative situation because they judge their linguistic competencies as inadequate. As we have seen in chapter two, one of the greatest challenges of the adult/learning and teaching situation is the lack of confidence which is often experienced by them, a lack of confidence which prevents some of them from learning a second language. I have mentioned, in my introduction, the physical problems due to anxiety, excessive perspiration, shakiness and other anxiety reactions which prevent them from engaging in a communication situation. Spitzberg and Cupach affirm that avoidance at the motivational level reinforces the perception of incompetence because the individual never puts himself or herself in a position to increase skill levels. Some adult students resort to skipping classes or dropping out of language programs completely. As we also saw previously in chapter two,
Scovel summarized debilitating anxiety as the factor which motivates the learner to flee the new learning task and which stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behaviour. We also considered the fact, in chapter four, that, at times, students may rebel against the second language and culture because of culture shock. The concept of motivation is, I believe, crucial to the overcoming of communication anxiety in adult students.

5.2 An Aspect of The Relational Competence Model: Motivation

When asked what were the main characteristics of an ideal language learner, the participants at the Global Simulation weekend organised at the Grange the participants ranked motivation as the number one characteristic (Appendix A).

5.2.1 What is Motivation?

I shall now turn to a detailed analysis of motivation. One of the most thorough examinations of the role of group forces in language learning is found in the Northeast Conference Report on Motivation (Tursi, 1970). Motivation is not 'a fuel poured in from outside to provide energy for learning or a goad operated on by an outside agent poking the learner to move' (Kent and Libit in Tursi, 1970: 36); motivation is a function of content, material and method. In their study, Kent and Libit with their working committee examined in detail the concept of motivation. Their funding indicated that the quality of instruction must be such that the students are kept enthusiastic and have a sense of accomplishment. It is necessary also to consider a realistic framework of goals, and attention must be given to the adequacy of linguistic, cross-cultural, paralinguistic and kinetic descriptions. The instructor's role is to have a relevant strategy to present the facts using teaching aids, to be sensitive to the learner's individual needs and to give feedback and provide opportunities to students to use the target language. Adult students need intrinsically interesting materials as they want to participate. Nelson states that, 'Fluency is more important than accuracy, if we wish to maintain the student's interest' (Nelson in Tursi, 1970: 59). To
avoid secondary anomie, a concept which I am going to consider further on in this chapter, the instructor, says Nelson, should provide as many opportunities for students to communicate in the target language. 'But the real goal of FL learning is not mastery; it is communication with representatives of the FL culture. As one participant at the Global Simulation weekend wrote

> When I was in Cambodia and Vietnam I had to converse in French with people, because they used French before English and many people could not speak English. I was comfortable and, while I know my French was much worse then than it is now (all present tense), minimal vocab), I did not feel anxious using French because I knew that everyone’s expectation of me was low. That experience gave me the incentive to take up French when I returned to Australia, as I did. I enjoy it very much (Journal 7, Appendix F).

In the FL program, this largely means communication with the teacher in as many settings as possible' (Nelson, in Tursi, 1970: 61-62). The Global Simulations as we shall see in chapter six and seven, provide this variety of settings, in a unique fashion.

Stern, in his book *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching* (1984), states that often language teachers treat the importance of motivation as self-evident, however a more systematic investigation of affective and personality factors in language learning has interested researchers since the early fifties. The most consistent research over twenty-five years, in the view of Stern, has been done by Gardner and Lambert in Canada and by the National Foundation for Educational Research in Britain under Burstall’s direction. They used similar methods of investigation, the instruments being primarily attitude tests and open-ended expressions of view. Stern states that the main attitudes and motives investigated in both groups have been similar. They examined attitudes towards the community and people who speak the target language, attitudes towards learning the language concerned, and attitudes towards languages and language learning in general. Both groups also studied the principal motives that prompt learners. Gardner laid particular stress on a distinction between *instrumental* and *integrative* motives (Stern, 1984: 375-377).

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These studies also investigated the attitudes that the learning process had engendered and the degree of motivation maintained during the progress of the language course. The results of both studies harmonized. Both recognised that 'there is a positive association between measured learning outcomes and attitudes towards the target group and the language' (Stern, 1984: 377). To resolve an earlier apparent inconsistency between what he had thought, that is to say, that an integrative motivation was needed and the results from his empirical studies which showed that, in some settings, successful learning was associated with the instrumental orientation, Gardner attempted to link the social milieu with the learners' motivational orientations. Gardner sees in attitudes and motivation a principal cause of more or less successful learning; however on the basis of her longitudinal studies, Burstall has concluded that successful early learning experiences promote successful later learning and more positive attitudes (Stern, 1984: 378-379).

According to Lambert and Jakobovits, there are various kinds of motivation. Motivation can refer to the desire for a coin, toy, a grade which someone has promised as a reward for satisfactory performance, or the desire to fulfill the dream to be admitted, say, to a career in the Foreign Affairs Department, or to read novels or scientific articles in foreign languages. These motivations are called instrumental (Lambert and Jakobovits in Stevick, 1976: 48). The other kind is referred to as integrative and includes general interest in language study, attitudes toward the teacher, the culture and ability to endure being in a position somewhere between them, anomie, and the degree to which each student strives for accomplishing the goals that are set before him or her (Jakobovits in Stevick, 1976: 48). Other authors have used the terminology of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation but, says Stevick, the distinction between instrumental-integrative is not a dichotomy and these two terms cannot be paired off easily with extrinsic and intrinsic (Stevick, 1976: 49).

Maslow's hierarchy, a well known formulation, states that there are, at the bottom of a pyramid of human beings' needs, air, food
and water; then come some less immediate needs which affect
security, like, for instance, shelter, stability, protection, freedom
from fear and chaos; when these needs have been attended to,
come matters of belonging, finding one's place in a group and
forming one's own sense of identity. Higher still, the person
responds to needs for esteem for others and himself; this includes
a desire for the feeling of strength, independence and adequacy,
reputation, appreciation and importance to others. Finally, in
Maslow's pyramid comes the need to realize one's own purposes
to see one's life as making sense in a satisfying way. Maslow
names it self-actualization which is similar to what is called by

Related to the need for identification with a group but separate
from it, is the need to interact with people. Stevick refers to the
case of a North American lawyer who in spite of his excellent
ability to read and understand Spanish was unable to speak it, his
pronunciation being execrable, his knowledge of grammar
nonexistent and his vocabulary poor. He always travelled with an
interpreter who was an important part of the 'meaning': a
prestige symbol which served to keep the Latin Americans at a
distance and to maintain part of his self-image, that is his sense of
superiority (Stevick, 1976: 60). How ready one is to interact with
another depends on what the consequences of the interactions are
expected to be; these expectations depend on two factors: the pre­
existing personality structure and what happens in the classroom
(Stevick, 1976: 61).

Studies on personality, prejudice and child training suggest that
the attitudes to country, its languages, and the motives for and
against language learning should be considered against the
background of personality factors that affect the learning of a
language. It is sometimes said that students with histrionic talents
are more successful language learners (Stern, 1984: 379). A person
who sees her/himself as a strong silent type will resist verbal
interaction more than someone with an outgoing, gregarious self­
concept. Indeed, as Stevick says, we must be aware of the
personality of the students whom we teach; I covered the aspect
already in chapter two in reference to adult teaching/learning.
Stevick states that we may accuse someone of having no communicative competencies in a foreign language and forget that this is also the case in their own language (Stevick, 1976: 61).

A valuable teaching tool was given to me by an experienced French teacher who reminded me that often a student who does not read fluently in French is also poor at reading aloud in English. It is also the case with conversational skills and competencies. In chapter two, I also referred to the concept of the self with regards to adult students. It is well known that any threats to a student’s ego will result in some kind of adaptive reaction, often of a defensive nature. Some defensive reactions may be aggressive, some may be of a withdrawal type leading to a partial or complete loss of fluency. Here I would like to refer to a personal experience. As a student of English, at a famous university in France, I was asked, after due explanations were given on the plural of compound nouns, to give the plural of Boyfriend. I answered Boysfriends. The lecturer replied tersely and ironically to the whole lecture room: ‘It shows you have not had many boyfriends.’ My ego was duly reduced to nought particularly as, at that time, the reflection was true. My reaction was to resolve never to utter another word while under that particular language teaching power regime.

5.2.2 Motivation and Anomie

The Gardner-Lambert research has included assessments of authoritarianism, prejudice, stereotypes and other social attitudes such as anomie and Machiavellianism. Ethnocentrism is the tendency to view one’s own community as superior, whilst Machiavellianism, a tendency to manipulate others, involves the systematic subordination of right to expediency. Anomie is noted by Stern to be a concept originating with Durkheim and which refers to the loss of an unconscious acceptance of society as it is and which now encompasses the feeling of dissatisfaction with one’s role in society (Stern, 1984: 380).

In the study on motivation, a quality called secondary anomie is referred to a situation in which students complain about feeling
alienated not only from their American culture but also from the foreign language culture (Tursi, 1970: 61). This occurred mostly when the students lacked opportunity to speak the foreign language and who sought in the foreign language an opportunity to realize goals and satisfy needs that the native culture could not provide (Tursi, 1970: 61). Jakobovits quotes Lambert who summarizes his conclusions on anomie and ethnocentrism in this way: 'The learner's general ethnocentric tendencies, his attitudes toward the particular other group, and his value orientations toward learning the language in question are believed to regulate or control his motivation to learn, and ultimately his success or failure in mastering the new language.' He adds 'However the more proficient one becomes in a second language, the more he runs the risk of finding that his place in his original membership group is modified at the same time as the other linguistic cultural group gradually becomes something more than a reference group for him.'

He states also that, 'Depending on how the individual adjusts to this dual allegiance, he may experience feelings of chagrin or regret as he loses ties in one group, mixed with the fearful anticipation of entering a relatively new group' (Jakobovits in Tursi, 1970: 69-70). From personal experience, the statement made to me, a few years ago, "You speak French really well; where did you learn it?" was devastating as the statement robbed me of the central core of my being, that is to say my "Frenchness" the concept of my French self. At times I wanted my competencies in English to wane so that my communication needs could only be fulfilled in French. One day, however, I realised that I was not diminished as a person, because I was unaware of neologisms in French. Indeed my linguistic baggage was more than adequate in English, a feat that most French people would envy me. Sometimes, though, I consider the time when, approaching the end of my life, I will be regressing to French as my main linguistic tool. This process of regression is currently under investigation by medical scientists.
5.2.3 Personality and its Effect on Motivation

What kind of qualities of personality does language learning require? Appendix A shows the results of a survey on the characteristics of the ideal language learner. At the Global Simulation weekend organised at the Grange, participants who were asked to rank the five most important characteristics ranked perserverance and a risk-taking spirit very high. Curiosity, positive attitude toward required task and open-mindedness were also mentioned as important characteristics for learning a language. As was seen earlier in this chapter, motivation was considered as the most important characteristic of the ideal language learner. I agree with Stern who says that: flexibility, openness to new language norms and norms of social behaviour, positive task orientation and perseverance (Stern, 1984: 380) are important qualities to consider. I would also like to add also social and emotional qualities as a person who is sociable, outgoing and uninhibited is almost certainly a better communicator. A positive self-image, a willingness to take risks and a tolerance of ambiguity facilitate communication also. These however are not enough to describe the qualities required for language learning.

I shall now turn to the concept of empathy as both Stern and Stevick agree on its role in the ability to learn a second language, Stevick emphasizing more the part played by empathy in the predicting of accuracy (Stevick, 1976: 55). There is a strong link between empathy and integrative motivation. A person willing to and capable of empathy can more easily appreciate a foreign culture. The studies done in the early 1970s by Guiora and others, showed that empathy, ‘the willingness and capacity to identify with others’ (Stern, 1984: 381) could be applied to the ability of the second language learners to identify with the communicative behaviour of users of the target language and how empathy related to the capacity of pronouncing the language accurately (Stern, 1984: 381). It has been suggested that the psycho-analytic interpretation of ego development can be applied to language development. Just as a child acquires a body image the individual acquires a language ego which, from fluid and not rigid, becomes less malleable and less permeable.
5.2.4 Emotional States and their Influence on Motivation

According to Ellis, 'the learner's affective and cognitive orientation to learning also plays an important part in structured language learning' (Ellis, 1990: 188). Learners will be more successful at learning if they have a 'positive affective orientation to learning the L2...' (Ellis, 1990: 188); 'tolerance of ambiguity and motivation govern the extent to which individual learners are open to input and also how frequently they participate in classroom activities...'. (Ellis, 1990: 188). He adds also that learners who find their learning style incompatible with the instructional style 'may develop anxiety and so lose confidence and motivation, perhaps even to the point of abandoning instruction' (Ellis, 1990: 188). 'The influence which various emotional states have on activity in general and pedagogical activity in particular is of great importance' (Leontiev, 1981: 70). In language learning the emotional state of mind of the learner is very crucial. As seen in chapter three of this thesis the concept of the affective filter was first proposed by Dulay and Burt (1977) to explain how affective variables affected the process of second-language learning. The affective filter was defined in Dulay, Burt and Krashen's work (1982) as 'the part of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language based on what psychologists call "affect": the learner's motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states' (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 46).

Our study of anxiety so far has shown that a high level of anxiety is detrimental to the development of communication competencies in the students. Leontiev develops the concept of emotional tension and distinguishes two types: the purely emotional kind which eventuates when, in assessing a given stressful situation, one finds that there is an imaginary or real incompatibility between one's motives, possibilities, capacities and the demands of that situation when the aims, for example, and motives of the activity do not coincide. Operational tension is linked to the necessity of carrying out a task; as Leontiev says '... it allows a person to "settle into" that activity, and always leads to the best possible performance' (Leontiev, 1981: 70).
We can ask the question, therefore, of how the emotional factor influences teaching, learning or any other activity. Leontiev says it depends on a range of conditions including the correlation between motive and aim of the activity, the presence in a given situation of standard emotion-generating factors, the emotional background of mood and the peculiarities of the student's personality and the type of higher nervous activity (Leontiev, 1981: 71). The teacher's role is therefore essential to the creating of a climate that will avoid states of pure emotional tension but will stimulate the emergence of operational tensions (Leontiev, 1981: 71). The personality and experience of the teacher are more important than the methodology used. When we are teaching communication skills in a foreign language, says Leontiev, emotional tension leads to noticeable disruption. For instance it causes: 'drying up and rigidity, lessening of attention, diminishing control over mistakes, worsening of the operative memory, and lowering of the overall work capacity' (Leontiev, 1981: 71). Creativity falls, accidental mistakes augment and, if the teacher subjects the student to ridicule, a strong negative emotion arises in the learner.

The qualities required of a foreign language learner have been examined (see appendix A). What are the qualities required of the language teachers? According to Leontiev, language teachers must get actively involved in the emotional atmosphere of the lesson and ensure the emergence of positive emotional states in their students. In psychology, the term emotional activation is used to describe the low level of tension which favourably influences the performance of a given activity. It would be fair to say that from the 1970's emphasis was put in the teaching context on the development of emotional activation. Curran introduced the whole person model for education and developed Counseling-Learning in education; he said, 'perhaps the most exciting thing that is now emerging is the sense of worth and meaning in each human person' (Curran, 1972: 1). We looked very thoroughly, in chapter three, at the Community Language Learning theory developed by Curran, a Professor of Psychology at Loyola.
University in Chicago. We saw how he applied his psychological counseling techniques to learning, under the name of Counseling Learning. The nature of industrial depersonalisation and the mass quality of computerisation both heightened the necessity of reviving the sense of self and uniqueness in each person (1972: 2).

Each person must personalize the necessity to regard oneself as a unique human being; this will help opening all kinds of experiences in the realization of our worth as total persons. 'I can recognise my own worth in the redemptive way others convalidate me in their regarding actions toward me. And I demonstrate this in my convalidating regard of them. By convalidation we refer to a mutual relationship in which the persons involved convey to each other a sense of each one's unique worth and dignity' (Curran, 1972: 2). If convalidating takes place in a classroom, the emotional activation should be achieved.

Curran's contribution to education is his development of the Counseling-Learning Theory (already introduced in chapter three). He saw the need for a new educational experience that allowed each student to grow in self-worth and self-understanding and in appreciation of himself and others as his knowledge increased (1972: 2). A new concept of man or woman as a being where psyche and soma were united and grew, emerged.

Curran combined counselling and therapy with learning to move 'toward a more personalised and integrated concept of learning, including the whole person in the process... So, in this new approach to learning, we relate to the total person of each knower and learner as he is here and now at the moment of learning experience' (Curran, 1972: 3). In this approach, the knower (the teacher) becomes at the same time the sensitive, perceptive counselor because he or she recognises the anxiety of the learner. At some time, at a later stage of learning it is the knower who tends to become anxious and threatened in the face of the growing knowledge and self-assertion of the learner and the position changes and a cognitive counseling relationship grows between student and teacher, affirms Curran (1972: 5). In this
type of learning, knower and learner are engaged in methodic trust and open commitment in an experience that is mutually fulfilling and convalidating for both parties (Curran, 1972: 7).

One of the participants at the Global Simulation weekend wrote

I am not afraid to speak in French with people of a similar standard to me, nor am I afraid to speak with my teacher whose mother tongue is French, but with native English speakers whom I have never met before and who all speak French fluently (or close to fluently), I feel anxious. I feel nervous about saying things correctly and feel as though I must understand them properly the first time they say something without them having to repeat themselves. Whereas, with my teacher, I feel relaxed (in a classroom environment) and know that if I do not understand something, she will happily reword it for me and help me to understand (Journal 7, Appendix F).

5.2.5 Motivation and Teachers

If teachers of foreign languages must consider, as we have just seen, the personality and the ability to empathise in their students, in order to achieve a lowering of anxiety, what must be done to the environment to provide a safe learning one? Quite possibly, our adult students could learn languages without us if they were placed under the right conditions in the right cultural and linguistic environment said Stevick (1980: 16). However, since this is very rare the teacher still performs an essential role. Stevick describes five functions of the teacher:

- the cognitive function,
- the classroom function,
- the function that has to do with practical goals,
- the function which he describes as personal, or interpersonal
- the more subtle one of having to instill enthusiasm and conviction of the value of the task.

These constitute the structure for making the teacher the centre of the language instruction (Stevick, 1980: 17). For Stevick, the teacher must demand and rightfully accept to be the centre of the language instruction stage. Is there a conflict between the centrality of the teacher and that of the student? Stevick answers negatively as, for him, there is a way to define control and initiative, with the teacher having almost 100% control and the
student having 100% initiative. The teacher has control over the structuring of the classroom activities making the teacher central to a language class and over the correction of errors – making sure the student is au fait with the use of the target language. These two aspects of control can be shared with the students but not prematurely.

Initiative refers to 'decisions about who says what, to whom, and when' (Stevick, 1980: 19), these decisions consist of choices among a number of possibilities which are provided by whoever is in control; therefore, control does not interfere with initiative. When the student displays initiative s/he starts to play an ‘active, central, self-validating role in a "world of meaningful action"’ (Stevick, 1980: 19). The teacher is responsible for conveying enthusiasm and conviction to the class. The language classroom can be a place of alienation for student and teacher alike. Stevick agrees with Becker, whom he quotes as saying, ‘that what any person needs is, first, an overall view of how everything fits together and, second, possibilities of action within that view’ (Stevick, 1980: 22).

Alienation as the absence of that combination says that the human self-contradiction is a social problem, a problem of what society will allow people to know and to do. No one can establish and maintain his own meaning, in a convincing manner all by himself (Stevick, 1980: 22). Stevick poses the problem of what a language teacher can do to contribute toward breaking the cycle of internal and external conflict, of alienation and guilt which accompanies so much the language learning process. First, we must avoid letting the classroom become a power vacuum. Even in Curran’s Counseling–Learning and Lozanov’s Suggestopaedia or in the Silent Way, the teacher remains central, as we saw in chapters two and three already.

5.2.6 Motivation and Environment

Is a safe learning environment in conflict with an evaluative one? An evaluative climate is often, for students, a stressful and anxiety-creating situation. Stevick (as already noted in chapter four) quotes Gallwey, the tennis coach, as saying that if your
opponent's forehand is giving you trouble, you might want to compliment him or her, activating his/her Critical Self. Praise is two-edged, says Stevick, it has the beneficial elements insofar as it shows that one has given pleasure to another human being (the teacher) but the negative elements are self-consciousness and the expectation that the pleasure-giving performance ought to continue (Stevick, 1980: 24). I reported this to my adult students and after a short discussion, they reassured me that the positive evaluations I have attributed to some of their performance (usually by a word Superbe! which means terrific!) were most welcome and that, in cases of teachers, they used superbe with their own classes with remarkable results. However, I agree with Stevick who says 'I am doubtful about the wisdom of trying to enclose the student in too much linguistic security' (Stevick, 1980: 24). Indeed, without risk-taking and errors the students will not progress in what is, I believe, one of the most rewarding learning experiences. We'll note that risk-taking was ranked very high in the survey of characteristics which an ideal language learner displays (see Appendix A).

Stevick sees several points a teacher should keep in mind: know your students, their attitudes toward speakers of the target language, language study, study in general, the pressures they are under. Teachers should look at their lesson plans and actual classroom activities in terms of control and initiative; they should also improve the likelihood that a feeling of community will arise within this class to provide its members with a feeling of security, a desire to be mutually supportive. Stevick says, 'And when I am able to be helpful to my fellow students, I gain feelings of satisfaction and of status which can themselves become powerful sources of reward and motivation' (Stevick, 1980: 27). I agree wholeheartedly with what Stevick calls the giving of 'good vibes', or indications of confidence in oneself and in the student, of acceptance of the student and of pleasure in the encounter; for Stevick, they take the forms of non-verbal clues like facial expressions, body postures, tones of voice; they speak, says Stevick in the student's brain and set the scene for language study.
Stevick states that the teacher's role is to be able to wear what he calls the Ordinary Person's mask (Stevick, 1980: 29). The 'mask change' links the world inside the classroom with the world outside it; this, I believe, can be achieved by the Global Simulation as we shall see later in chapters six and seven. It can give to the student an exhilarating sense of adequacy within that world. Conversations conducted in this way may contribute to 'acquisition', as contrasted with more 'learning' through 'conversation practice'. At the same time, these conversations draw on, and can be supported by what has been recently learned (Stevick, 1980: 29).

Stevick states also that one of the essential characteristics which a teacher should keep in mind, is to provide the student with a model for his or her Critical Self; in the end the student's conscious Critical Self should have learned to help, and not hinder, his/her Performing Self. The teacher's role here is to lend him/her self as a temporary Conscious Self, at the same time serving as a model for how the student's own Conscious Self may come to act; the control function of the teacher is to bring the Performing Self into contact with appropriate models, setting goals and noticing results (Stevick, 1980: 29-30). Stevick concludes that one must leave the students free to talk openly about their reactions to the course and the language. The teacher listens carefully during regularly-scheduled teacher-student conferences or in class. These constitute Stevick's advice to teachers of foreign languages with regard to what a teacher should keep in mind to provide a safer learning environmental.

For their part, Crookall and Oxford suggest that teachers can improve the classroom climate through pair work, small group work, games, simulations and structured exercises that alter the communication pattern of the classroom (1991: 142). By this, the authors mean that instead of having a teacher-centered classroom we have now a pattern of student-to-student communication with the emphasis on conveying meaning rather than underscoring mistakes. We can then expect debilitating anxiety to lower and witness students starting to relax.
Crookall and Oxford state that 'Learners then usually become more concerned with trying to communicate their viewpoint than with avoiding public humiliation, saving face, or impressing the teacher with parrot "correct" answers' (1991: 142). However, one must keep in mind that this type of ideal classroom is not always possible through constraints in curriculum and through the preferences of some students to be taught in a more authoritarian way. It still remains the case that when the classroom is a non-threatening place the students often respond by relaxing and becoming less anxious (Crookall and Oxford, 1991: 143).

We should not, however, be oblivious to the fact that some learners are naturally anxious and therefore no teacher can guarantee an anxiety-free classroom. In some cases, anxiety has to be addressed in a more direct way. Ideally, teachers and students should tackle this problem from the same side, as partners; the teachers could say, for example 'If the students and I feel anxiety is a little too high, perhaps we could stop for a while and together see what its causes are and how we may reduce it' (Crookall and Oxford, 1991: 144). This is when learner training should be used. What is learner training?

5.2.7 Learner Training and Motivation

Learner training is an approach which aims to help learners consider the factors that affect their learning. It focuses attention on the process of learning so that the emphasis is on how to learn rather than on what to learn (Crookall and Oxford, 1991: 144). What must be done is to sensitize the students to some linguistic and learning aspects of their course, where 'Nine hours of language learning proper and one hour of learner training may be better than a ten-hour diet of "pure" language learning' (Crookall and Oxford, 1991: 144).

Dealing with anxiety in an explicit and purposeful way is part of true learner training. Crookall and Oxford give the readers a selection of activities designed to help students and teachers deal with anxiety; for instance, The Agony Column involving the students in a small editorial simulation in which they take on three
roles: themselves as language learners, an Agony Aunt in a magazine and advisors/counselors. *The Ghost Avengers* is another strategy whereby students take revenge on their past language teachers by making them speak with a funny accent, lose their pay if the students don’t achieve good marks, while the mistake panel aims at making students look at errors with amusement and at realizing that far from being taboo, they contribute to learning (Crookall and Oxford, 1991: 145-148).

Other ways have been devised to reduce anxiety by focussing upon a more formal basis inherent to language programmes. Campbell and Ortiz (1988) describe a workshop that was designed to prepare students for language learning. In 1987, Campbell and Ortiz created a four hour Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop that all beginning students of languages at the Defense Language Institute, San Francisco Branch, attended. It attempted to prepare students psychologically for the experience of learning a language by dispelling common myths about foreign language learning and by developing foreign language study skills. In addition, the workshop helped students acquire positive attitudes toward foreign language study. The students were given a survey of attitudes specific to the foreign language classroom to assess students’ anxiety level before and after the workshop and to monitor their reactions throughout the course. A discussion followed the filling in of a questionnaire entitled, *The Myths and Realities of Foreign Language Learning*. They were also given information on learning strategies, exercises to sensitize them about the importance of developing self-confidence, trust in the teacher, a sense of camaraderie with the group members, an exercise in code deciphering to teach them how to cope with frustrations and a discussion of the characteristics of the ideal Foreign Language student (Campbell and Ortiz, 1991: 155-156).

Some responses to the problem of how to cope with anxiety in a foreign language teaching and learning context have been done on the level of the institution. Cope Powell describes a number of approaches including support groups and supplemental instruction which provided reviews of content being taught in class, informal talks on how to study foreign languages,
independent study groups, strategies which helped students to be more comfortable and effective in their language classes. Cope Powell stresses also the importance of developing positive and productive attitudes toward language learning (Cope Powell, 1991: 169-176).

Conclusion

In this chapter I have looked at techniques to overcome anxiety in communication, some aimed at reducing communication apprehension (Biofeedback, Systematic Desensitization, Rational Emotive Therapy, Cognitive Restructuring) and some aimed at improving communication skills (the Skills Approach and the Relational Competence Model). I examined in detail the five components of the Relational Competence Model (motivation, knowledge, skills, outcomes and context) and with particular reference to motivation, various strategies which will be reviewed in detail in the next chapter, chapter six. Indeed, I have recognised the value of these strategies proposed by Spitzberg and Cupach (Foss and Reitzel, 1991). I examined Curran’s Counseling-Learning Theory again after having examined his theory in chapter three and looked at the qualities needed from teachers, learners and environment in the partnership of learning/teaching to overcome, in my adult students, communication anxiety. In my experiment with the Global Simulation at a weekend held at the Grange, in Campbell Town, Tasmania in August 1998 and entitled Un voyage en train et ses aléas, I used the techniques described in this chapter: anxiety graphs based on Brownell and Katula (1984), journals (appendix F) as advocated in this chapter by Foss and Reitzel (1991), some of the ideas advocated by Campbell and Ortiz (Foss and Reitzel, 1991) to cement the group dynamics (I used icebreakers) and their questionnaire on foreign language learning (see Appendix A).

My journey so far in my quest to find ways of helping my adult students overcome their communication anxiety took me through an analysis of adult teaching and learning and the challenges facing me (chapter two), an examination of the various methodologies which I could use to produce affective communications (chapter three), an analysis of anxiety and its
effects on communication (chapter four) and the various techniques I could use to help my adult students overcome their anxiety (this chapter). In the next chapter, I shall turn my attention to the Global Simulation as a technique to overcome communication anxiety.
Chapter Six

Global Simulation as a Technique to Reduce Communication Anxiety
Chapter Six

Global Simulation as a Technique to Reduce Communication Anxiety

Introduction

In this chapter I shall specifically analyse games, role plays, simulations and Global Simulations and the role they play in education with the view to using these techniques in my teaching French to adult students who suffer from anxiety and hence face communication apprehension, the effects of which were analysed in chapter four of my thesis. In chapter five, I analysed the techniques which can help overcome communication apprehension.

In this chapter, I come closer to discovering the beneficial effects of Global Simulations. As Holmes said so rightly, 'Part of the task facing any language learner is of acquiring sociolinguistic competence: learning how to use language appropriately for a variety of functions in a wide range of situations' (Holmes, 1978: 134) in order to communicate in a more relaxed manner. As we have seen in chapter five, the Skills Approach recognises that, to be effective as partners, students had to develop linguistic skills. How can we provide for adult students, for whom learning to use the language appropriately is an ongoing process, that is to say what kind of environment do we try to provide, to enhance a variety of interactions which are a virtual re-creation of the France we cannot live in. Is the traditional classroom the best environment to do so? Usually, the classroom provides a formal standard variety of languages where transmission of facts, opinions and skills is carried out. Holmes examines the non linguistic components of the classroom situation to analyse classroom interaction.

There are five components of the situation which seem relevant to my thesis:

- *The setting* where, in traditional 'chalk and talk' classroom, the teacher is the focus of attention and the students 'communication are addressed to him/her. 'This traditional lay-out of the classroom "both reinforces and symbolizes a definition of learning as dependent on one teacher with many children engaged in a highly organised sequence of activities (Edwards in Holmes, 1978: 134).
• **The participants:** the role relationship between the teacher and the students is asymmetric: the teacher, usually older, is regarded as being of superior status and is expected to keep an appropriate distance from the students. Holmes quotes Waller (1932) who described the teacher as "a paid agent for cultural diffusion" where status is described by virtue of his role (Holmes, 1978: 136).

• **The topic.** The official contents or topics of classroom communication are gradually narrowed down and prescribed. They become 'subject-areas' with an increasing use of technical terminology. As Holmes says, the problem here is that the students learn the language of the textbook which students would not normally hear or use in speech. Holmes adds that 'It is only possible to hypothesize about the extent to which teachers might use colloquial or informal language to discuss particular topics in the classroom since the bulk of research to date provide very few examples' (Holmes, 1978: 137).

• **The medium,** Holmes' fourth nonlinguistic component of the classroom used to examine classroom interaction, may be distinctive to the subject matter being presented. The written medium, he says, contributes to the formality of classroom language (Holmes, 1978: 138).

• **The function,** or purpose of classroom interaction is usually considered to be to instruct and inform. The relationship between this aim and the way it is realized in many schools reflects, according to Holmes, the beliefs of white and middle class society about the ways children should learn. The relationship between function and form of classroom interaction is clearly a complex one. Theoretically, language functions such as expressive, directive, metalinguistic, referential, and so on (Hymes, 1964) may be realised in any code, and in a variety of forms within any code (Holmes, 1978: 138). In practice, says Holmes, for cultural reasons, these functions are expressed in a relatively formal variety of language (Holmes, 1978: 138).

The whole of my education in France, from primary school to University, was done in a typically teacher-centred classroom of the 'talk and chalk' format, where questions and answers summarised the interaction between teacher and student. Some of my teachers did not know the sociolinguistic norms of the students they taught and conflict often arose. We have seen, in chapter three of this thesis, new methodologies used to change the culture of the classroom and to extend the sociolinguistic competence of second language learner. I still remember three decades later, the most effective
teacher of Spanish I ever had who brought along reproductions of paintings by Goya in order to make us speak in Spanish instead of keeping to the book. As language teachers in Australia it is difficult financially to organise visits to the country where the target language is spoken. Students cannot afford to follow teachers in a voyage of discovery through the streets of Paris, Berlin, Tokyo, Rio de Janeiro or Madrid but they can be taken through virtual travelling. This virtual travelling can be done through the interactive use of CD roms, surfing the Net, or using E.mail. 'Role plays or "classroom mockups" of situations are sometimes suggested as alternative ... , but however useful these may be in "stimulating the learner's interest" they can never be completely satisfactory as a means of teaching communicative uses of language, as Criper and Widdowson (1975) point out' (in Holmes, 1978: 152).

The use of role plays and mockup exercises is limited, and is shown in this view. However role plays and mock up exercises can be extended to provide a variety of sociolinguistic experiences. The use of Global Simulation, as we shall see, overrides this problem.

I shall now examine those ways which help students to enjoy their learning experience and allow them to be absorbed by their learning. As D.W.Lawrence said so rightly,

There is no point in work
Unless it absorbs you,
Like an absorbing game.
If it does not absorb you,
If it's never any fun,
Don't do it.

D.H. Lawrence.

What are those ways mentioned above? Let us now turn to a specific examination of games, simulations, simulation games, role plays, their use in education and Global Simulations.

6.1 Games

Games have been used for thousands of years. Ancient China had a war game entitled Wei-Hei (Encirclement) and India had Chaturanga which is said
to be the forerunner of chess; chess is itself a very old game, being a product of the Middle Ages. In the late 18th century Abbé Gaultier, who had fled France during the Revolution to settle in England, invented some children's games which were concerned with social teaching and these became widely used. Following the defeats by Napoléon, the Prussians developed a series of war games at their Kriegsakademie (War School). In the 20th century the Americans followed this example and after World War II the military use of simulated training techniques were applied in management training.

However, this was after the invention of the game of Monopoly by the Parker Brothers in the 1930s (Heitzmann, 1974: 5). Amongst board games used in families no other game seems to have been as popular as Monopoly, one of the best selling commercial simulation games yet devised (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 3). Families have played for hours trying to become the richest, the most powerful, the owner of the most prized real estate properties in New York, London, in Paris or Berlin. The idea of using fake money and representational houses and hotels, of drawing cards which, like in real life, made you wealthier or poorer, was, without doubt, the essential raison d'être of this classic among games. As Taylor and Walford remarked 'Though in some important respects it caricatures the situation it seeks to represent, it can be termed a 'simulation' game because of its basic representation of real life with a simple model' (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 3).

A game is a complex activity because it has extremely formalised rules and procedures. In games, players strive to win. 'An initial situation is identified and some direction given about the way the simulation is expected to work; rules then provide a framework within which decisions take place' (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 12). A game is often a simplified slice of reality as Gordon says 'Its structure reflects a real world process that the designer wishes to teach or investigate: the game serves as a vehicle for teaching that process or for learning more about its working...' (Gordon in Heitzman, 1974: 7). Games have objectives, a set of rules, and are often competitive but need not be so (Seidner, 1978: 13-14). Some games act as 'simplifying and restricting mechanism compared with the freedom of role play, yet nevertheless some games are concerned with the desire to "understand the decision-making process." Others however, may have as a prime objective a desire to "understand the model", or to examine the process which the game represents in simplified form' (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 12). The Chinese
war game of *wei-hei*, already mentioned, is estimated to have started in about 3000 BC and was a model for the game of chess, with the Japanese game *GO* as a modern version of it. By 1963, Taylor and Walford state, some two hundred operational war games were listed (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 12-13). Another technique used to stimulate learning, apart from games, are simulations.

### 6.2 Simulations

I shall now examine simulations in detail. What are some of the objectives that simulations aim to achieve? Garvey expounds on the five objectives, which he sees as being of prime importance. They are

- providing a vehicle by which participants may acquire factual or conceptual information,
- providing a vehicle by which participants may integrate information which contributed to the "structure" of knowledge;
- providing a laboratory experience in which participants may acquire or improve social skills;
- providing the students with an opportunity to experience what they would not in real life;
- developing theory concerning a social process and the testing of that theory.

(Garvey, 1971: 206).

As an example of simulations providing factual knowledge to those using it, it is interesting to note that simulations were used in the training of Allied airforce pilots during the Second World War. Perhaps surprisingly, the first aircraft simulations were adapted from amusement park attractions. Edwin Link (1904-1981) is generally acknowledged as the originator of the flight simulator. Born in Indiana, Link learned to fly as a hobby in the 1920s and his first simulators were designed for amusement park rides (McCollister, 1998: 9). His original designs were further developed by the U.S military resulting in the first real flight training simulators. The Link Trainer was '...little more than a stationary box which resembled a cockpit, the trainer coupled analog gauges with moveable flight controls which allowed student pilots to practise scans coupled to specific maneuvers' (McCollister, 1998: 9).

The early models were basically cockpit procedure trainers with no motion capabilities but they were time and money-saving systems for the teaching of scan patterns and checklist applications (McCollister, 1998: 9). As the fully moving Link Trainer was developed, it allowed trainee pilots to experience a model of the actual flying situation. 'Even so, the early full-motion simulations were crude, causing one old captain to remark, "A pilot flies
airplanes and learns to operate simulators” (McCollister, 1998: 9). Present-day jetliner simulators are built by a variety of computer technology companies and are often difficult to distinguish from the real aircraft. Progressing phases of simulator certification is accepted in the United States by the Federal Aviation Authority as a full-license qualification in some models (McCollister, 1998: 9) with the result that the first time a pilot can see an actual aircraft type is when he or she is flying real passengers on a revenue flight though a check captain will accompany the new pilot on the first flight, as a line qualification requirement (McCollister, 1998: 9). The use of CD-ROM software has also allowed the practising to perfection in aviation training and sometimes pilots are not sure about whether a situation is simulation or reality (McCollister, 1998: 9).

Simulations are not all inventions of recent times and some are indeed centuries old. Landmarks can be identified in the history of the three most common strands of simulations: role plays, gaming and machine and computer simulations. How do we define simulations? Simulations are defined by Garvey as “… activities which produce artificial environments or which provide artificial experiences for the participants in the activity…” allowing them “… to perform a selected portion of a process …, … social process which are replicas of processes observable in the real world” (Garvey, 1971: 206). Other writers agreed with the definition, for instance Klietsch stated that ‘A simulation is a replica of a real world situation worth learning’ (Klietsch in Heitzmann, 1974: 8).

Dukes also insisted on the same concept that in the broadest sense, simulation refers to the dynamic execution or manipulation of a model of some object system. In education, simulation entails abstracting certain elements of social or physical reality in such a way that the student can interact with and become part of that simulated result (in Dukes and Seidner, 1978: 15).

Tansey states that simulation involves the use of a model which is, in fact, a simplified version of reality, but the model taking only those parts which are essential to the learning objectives, reduces the complexity of the real-life situation (Tansey, 1973: 4). In another view, Broadbent defines simulation as ‘...a means of allowing students to live vicariously’ (Broadbent in Heitzmann, 1974: 8) and this is one of the aims of the Global Simulation – as we shall see later, to provide a virtual framework into which the participants will create
their virtual *theme-place* and adapt new personalities without having to consider their real self and their baggage of fears. There is another kind of simulations, the computerised ones which I shall study now.

### 6.3 Computerised Simulations

These simulations differ from the ones studied previously as 'In this case, the parameters that define the referent system are completely contained in the computer program' (Seidner, 1978: 15). These *all-machine simulations* are used in research by planners and theoreticians. In *man-machine simulations*, individuals interact with a computerised system. They make decisions that affect the functioning of the system and become, therefore, participants. An example of these is *Sierra Leone* in which the students who have become economic advisors make decisions which will have a bearing on the economy of a developing country. Their decisions are transmitted to the computer which calculates a status report and requests another decision, and so on. Although the instrumentation of human-made simulations is largely dominated by computers, it should be pointed out that students may also interact with other types of mechanical systems (usually termed simulators), such as a driver-training simulator' (Seidner, 1978: 15). A recent study which was conducted at Linköping University has indicated that simulation games are useful tools for industrial training and that best results are achieved when simulation games are used in conjunction with traditional learning methods. Villegas states that simulations have become widely recognised as valuable means of learning and training in educational environments such as schools, universities and industrial companies. The new trend of using computer-based simulation for industrial training purposes is based on the concept of encouraging trainees to take part in simulation activities. This has been made possible by the development of the personal computer and appropriate new simulation software which has made increased interaction possible (Villegas in Saunders and Cox, 1997: 144-146).

The benefits of computer simulations are numerous. By combining their ability to mirror a task environment with their ability to give quick and effective feedback, a great opportunity for skill-development is created (Godfrey, 1991: 5). Amongst other benefits, Godfrey mentions the low cost of simulations, the large number of possible participants, the avoidance of costly mistakes, and the time-effectiveness.
An important question must be asked in the context of simulations and games. Can we say that simulations and games are synonymous in an educational context? Jones states,

"This is confusing in an educational context, where "game" has its own distinctive connotation. In education there can be genuine games in the classroom, and these are not at all the same as simulations (Jones, 1985: 4)."

He goes on to cite the example of a sociology course at the University of California in Berkeley, which, in his opinion, consisted of nothing but simulations labelled, unfortunately, as games, and which had to be discontinued, despite its educational success, because of the opposition of parents and politicians, amongst others, who objected to the students 'playing games'. Jones stated that teachers will object to using games on the premise that they are not in the entertainment business (1985: 4). Another problem is that in a game there is competition not used in a simulation. Monopoly, for example, says Jones 'is dominated by scoring mechanisms, measured by the amount of money and the number of houses and hotels the players possess. The players' thoughts are the thoughts of gaming' (Jones, 1985: 4) but in a property development simulation the motivation is different. 'Even if the property development simulation is competitive, and many are not, these are usually person-to-person activities, not the attitude of 'Now it's my turn, I throw the dice, move my counter, increase my property, and now it's your turn' (Jones, 1985: 4). Is it possible for a simulation to become a game? Yes, if as Coleman suggests "success is defined in terms of players' goals; there is a prescribed criterion for winning" (Coleman in Seidner, 1978: 17). Seidner takes the view that in simulations that are not games a winner is not explicitly determined, thus a specified goal or objective may be used to distinguish between a simulation and a simulation game (Seidner, 1978: 17). Another technique which could be used in teaching to stimulate learning is the simulation game.

### 6.4 Simulation Games

Other researchers have examined simulation games as instructional tools as, for example, Sivasailam Thiagarajan and Harold D. Stolovitch, who in their book on Instructional Simulation games present a model and then analyse it to identify the characteristics of simulation games in general. They define a simulation game as
According to Thiagarajan and Stolovitch, to every simulation game there are five elements to consider: conflict, constraints, closure, contrivance and correspondence. These elements make these simulation games different from ordinary simulations. In simulations per se there are no personal scores, no rules, elimination of players, no winners or losers. What are simulation games used for?

Simulation games can be very effective as testing devices, or as experimentation tools. They are effective in introducing the instructional content for a course, or they can be used at the end of a course to provide students with an opportunity to try out their newly acquired skills and knowledge; they are also excellent performance tests to measure the ability of students to transfer and apply their skills in novel situations. They also provide needs analysis and formative evaluation data to improve instruction (Thiagarajan and Stolovitch, 1978: 20-23). These are not the only uses of simulation games. As Thiagarajan and Stolovitch state they can also be used for research as they enable students to model some aspect of reality, and they can also be used to generate and test hypotheses (Thiagarajan and Stolovitch, 1978: 23-25).

So far in this chapter, I have looked at games, simulations, computerised simulations and simulation games in an attempt to situate Global Simulations in an historical background and a pedagogical context. Before I delve into the realm of Global Simulations, which I suspect will be an invaluable tool to help adult students overcome their anxiety in communication, I wish to examine the concept of role plays as they have been seen in the foreign language teaching area as valuable pedagogical tools; I wish to examine them also as they constitute an intrinsic part of the Global Simulations. What is a role play?

### 6.5 Role Plays

Garvey defines *role playing* as the act of being someone else or the act of acquiring experience in a set of activities in which the actor seeks to acquire or to increase his competence (Garvey, 1971: 207).
In role plays, the participant is placed in a position in which he or she is given the opportunity to 'feel' what is at stake (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 9). In French, we may use the following role play: Vous êtes dans un restaurant avec des amis. Le garçon vous apporte un menu. Vos amis ne comprennent pas un mot de français. C'est à vous que revient la charge de les aider à choisir ce qui convient le mieux à leurs goûts culinaires et leurs problèmes de santé. (You are in a restaurant with your friends. The waiter brings you a menu. Your friends do not understand a word of French. It is your task to help them to choose a meal that will best suit their culinary tastes without impinging on their dietary or health requirements). In this type of role play used in foreign language teaching generally, the participants, placed in a hypothetical situation rely on spontaneous communication.

It constitutes the simplest form of simulation and does not have any real formal structure, indeed all that is required is for the participant to accept a new identity by stepping into someone else’s shoes and then acting and reacting as appropriately as one is able.

What may happen in role play is anyone’s guess. There are no formal restraints on a situation, even if the group involved may be aware of some general objectives (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 9).

In a role play the participants may gain a greater understanding of other roles and relationships as well as becoming more aware of their own roles and what they themselves are doing. This technique has a history in the social sciences. In the 1930’s a growing interest in small group behaviour by sociologists, psychologists and psychiatrists led to the use of role play to help understand human behaviour and as a form of therapy. Moreno’s work with the therapeutic technique which he called psychodrama, for example, made use of roles or incidents which an individual would enact in the presence of a therapist on the assumption that the therapeutic stage would offer a relatively protected environment for the expression of troublesome emotions or deep conflicts (Reber, 1985: 614). In another interpretation of the technique, Debyser states

Who says “role play” says play and roles and ... who says psychodrama says psycho, that is to say, revelation and analysis of a subconscious more or less neurotic and drama, that is to say difficulties of the person, painful phantasms going back, often, to childhood * (Debyser, 1976: 26).
Indeed, role plays of a non psychodramatic nature have been used by psychologists to help patients reveal certain social behaviours. Feasey (1972) dismisses the argument which is used against the quasi-drama/emotional form of education as for him it is not a dangerous tool. He states that although 'It is sometimes alleged that mysterious dynamic forces are released in drama-group situations which are destructive' (Feasey, 1972: 7) it has to be admitted 'that some of the deliberately induced tension of the "encounter group" and "sensitivity group" (what a terrible description!) (Feasey's words) is often assigned to role play groups' (Feasey, 1972: 7). Feasey goes on to state that, having worked in 'sensitivity group' settings with adults and children, he does not share the fears often expressed about the dangers of emotional shock and damage that are alleged to occur. 'Human beings,' he says, 'have splendid defense mechanisms which come into action at the slightest sign of real threat. "Encounter groups" on the other hand frighten me and I don't think I would touch them with a barge pole' (Feasey, 1972: 7). He then states that role plays do not require special skills from either the leader or the participants and it is nice to be doing something in the classroom that anyone can be good at (Feasey, 1972: 7).

In a language class, the aims are not to reveal deep-seated psychosis, behavioural and social problems in the learners; therefore some precautions will have to be taken. The confronting nature of some psychodrama techniques is indeed an issue of importance when applied to language teaching. Debyser, for instance, states that one must avoid scenes that resemble too closely psychodrama, or the use of themes which may bring back traumatic memories. With children one should avoid leading to a more frightening fabulation or with adults one should avoid themes and debates which are too closely associated with the participants (racism in a group where the problem is a vivid one is an example)* (Debyser, 1976: 26). For Tansey (1972: 4) also there is a type of role play which is akin to free drama and those in which the participants' roles are defined in detail or in less detail. The Shelter simulation game, for instance, specifically assigns roles to describe the plight of seven families in multiple occupation of an old house, whilst the Oxfam Aid Committee simulation is concerned with allocation of aid to developing countries and assigns roles in a less determined fashion. Role plays in this educational context cannot be anything pedagogical as the teachers do not always have the expertise, qualifications, or desire to become a psychotherapist, psychologist or psychiatrist. As Caré notes 'The role play is pedagogical, and the language teacher not having had a specific training as
an analyst or therapist cannot take the risk to see developing a situation that is getting out of hand" (Care, 1983: 41).

However, Care underlines the importance of risk taking, observing that excessive prudence can also have negative effects. 'To refuse emotivity, the progressive climbing of a certain dramatic tension can distort the game' (Care, 1983: 41). The leader also has certain tools at his or her disposal: to stay empathetic with the participants, measure the intensity of the implications and to intervene if necessary; to suggest to some participants the roles of mediators, or policemen, or customs officers; to intervene discretely with the participants, or to stop the game if he or she feels he or she has lost control (Care, 1983: 41).

Role plays are widely used and require the participants who take part to assume roles. Role plays motivate students to acquire the knowledge they will need to take part effectively in a simulation (Tansey, 1973: 4). Indeed, in role plays used in the teaching of foreign languages, the students who have acquired the knowledge in linguistic and cultural terms will be more successful and rewarded than those students who do not possess these linguistic and cultural competencies. Taylor and Walford state that children learn through play, testing out their perceptions of reality; they play Mummy and Daddy, doctors and nurses, teachers and students; they are acting the adult roles to mimic the adult world which is their reality but also to demystify the world they live in. 'They are also concerned to play with adult roles in order to try them for size, maybe just to see what they are like, though sometimes with some sort of vocational consideration. Finally a child plays with a role for purely empathetic reasons, requiring to know what it feels like without ever desiring the reality — just aiming at understanding' (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 11).

Role play has also been used with adult students since the 1960s and adult classes have been observed where the teaching method has been centred on the role play, with, in some cases of intensive classes, very satisfying results (Care, 1983: 42). To help achieve the linguistic objectives of a lesson with the final role play, it is necessary to propose a relatively constraining canevas d’invention (invention canvas); however this may seem incompatible with the search for spontaneity and improvisation. To avoid this, Care states, 'one must be ready to let the students choose possible reinvestments, to accept that they be differed, and never systematically issued from one given
A possible solution is through the use of déclencheurs (triggers or starters). These can be places, objects, phrases, or pictures (as proposed by Dufeu) but should be employed without excessive imposition (Caré, 1983: 42).

After having examined games, simulations, computerised simulations, simulation games, and role plays in historical and pedagogical terms let us look now at the place which they hold in education.

6.6 Games, Simulations, Computerised Simulations, Simulation Games And Role Plays and their Place in Education.

At the end of the seventies business and management games had become accepted practice in schools and adult education, the general aim is to communicate management principles and business skills in various spheres of marketing and production. Abbott Training Systems Pty. Ltd. (ATS) was founded in 1986 by Lynne Dickson Abbott and John Abbott to create and market seminars, group and individual training products and professional services that use modern technology. It aimed to provide clients with a range of training ‘tools’ which would mirror the realities of business; these tools which are computerised business simulations have proved to be an extremely effective means of educating managers. Since 1986, over fifty Australian corporations have worked with ATS and employed simulations in which participants ‘learn by doing’. They do not sit passively, rather they learn theories, apply concepts in a completely risk-free environment. One such simulation, Strategic Management Game, involves participants in becoming the managing directors of a multi-million dollar enterprise. The programme highlights the interdependencies of various areas including marketing, operations, finance and production. Participants manage their own organisations over a period of three to four years in a dynamic and competitive environment. Hundreds of managers have participated in this course and are reported to have found it to be one of the most effective training methodologies they have experienced (Godfrey, 1991: 3). Other simulations include The Complete Project Manager, focussing on the human aspect of project management as distinct from the technical systems involved.

Simulations are the most useful and the most used in a classroom situation where the information technology has not reached certain schools because of budgetary constraints or where the expertise in computer management
or literacy have not yet been achieved by the teachers. These all-man and man-machine simulations are designed, states Seidner, to reflect social rather than physical systems. This fact has led to the use of the term social simulation and when the concept is coupled with the elements of a game, the term social simulation game is used (Seidner, 1978: 16).

In all-man simulations, the parameters of the referent system are embedded in a set of specifications, or rules, that define the roles and resources of participants. These specifications are devised to reflect the restraints inherent in the referent system so that simulation participants will experience some of the same kinds of pressures and influences that would occur in a real-life setting (Seidner, 1978: 15).

Educational gaming has a long and respectable history in business and military training. There is a built-in competitive element in it and therefore some disadvantages are felt when using the gaming methods. ‘Some students may feel a sense of inadequacy at “losing”, just as a younger child may feel upset when beaten in a playground game. Careful interpretation and guidance from the teacher will help the student towards understanding of why and how the simulation worked out as it did, and help relate the experience to real life.’ (Tansey and Longley, 1973: 5) Taylor and Walford note that early applications of this were in the field of political and “crisis” gaming, notably by Guetzkow (1959). His Inter-Nation Simulation was refined and developed as a tool in the teaching of international relations over a number of years, into kit form and used in American, Canadian and English schools” (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 17).

Urban development gaming expanded at an increasing rate as planning became more a total science. An ‘extensive range of simulations designed for education and training, hypothesis generation and testing, and charting the alternative of possible course of dynamic situations over a period of time‘ (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 18) existed. As Boocock and Schild (in Taylor and Walford, 1978: 18) stated, in commenting on the American experience simulation games for the classroom, one must identify three distinctive if overlapping phases of development:

Phase 1 “Acceptance on Faith”
Phase 2 “Post-honeymoon period”
Phase 3 “Realistic optimism”

(Taylor and Walford, 1978: 18).
It may be helpful to identify several innovative forces and projects which have been responsible for the development of simulation material in the classroom. Jerome Bruner, Watts Professor of Psychology at Oxford University, has highlighted the academic utility of simulation ideas, and the benefits which they offer (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 19).

The most persistent problem in social studies is to rescue the phenomena of social life from familiarity without at the same time making it all seem "primitive" and bizarre. Four techniques are proving particularly useful in achieving this end. The first is contrast... the second is the simulation and use of informed guessing, hypothesis making, conjectural procedures. The third is participation – particularly by the use of games that incorporate the formal properties of the phenomena for which the game is an analogue. In this sense, a game is like a mathematical model – an artificial but often powerful representation of reality. The fourth is the ancient approach of stimulating self-consciousness (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 19).

One must remember, though, as Seidner states about simulations in general ‘They are abstractions and simplifications of the real world. They focus upon particular aspects of the referent system rather than upon all of its elements.' (Seidner, 1978: 16). When children and adults play these games they become active participants in the process of learning.

James Coleman was another influential figure in the development of simulation (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 19). As Head of the Department of Social Relations at John Hopkins University, Coleman encouraged the use of games to awaken the interest of children in the concept of social organizations as he believed that children had, for too long, been taught facts without being given the chance to discover the underlying processes and principles governing a situation (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 20). In the early 1960’s, state Taylor and Walford, the act of designing games was seen in the United States as more than every man’s occupation. Project Simile, for example, was first coordinated by Hall Sprague and Garry Shirts, concentrating on developing simulators in the humanities field and focused on the way in which games aroused interest and changed attitudes (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 20). At the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor, Meier and Duke were instrumental in setting up the Environmental Simulation Laboratory in 1964 and made a contribution to urban gaming simulation activities.

Professors Allen and Goodman have ensured that the University of Michigan’s contribution has been in no way narrow. Layman Allen’s logic and mathematical games much like Fred Goodman’s ‘priming’ and ‘frame’ games have quickly established an international reputation. Coppard, Laufer, Steinwaraks, amongst
others, have added to this expertise and Ann Arbor's Games Club and the Michigan Extension Gaming Service are in many ways unique dissemination mechanisms (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 22).

The United States Government has funded many curriculum reform projects.

The American High School Geography Project can be quoted as an example. It ran for nine years from 1961, and was funded with a total of two and a half million dollars. In the early part of its life it was concerned with an attempt to develop a definite course taught by means of TV video tapes, but the Project changed course on the appointment of Nicholas Helburn to the Directorship in 1964, and from then on concentrated its resources on much more pupil-centered activities (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 22).

When the material was on trial in a large number of schools, students and teachers ranked the activities of the Project's course work in terms of interest and sense of worth. 'Out of a total of twenty-three activities the three simulations came out in the following rank order:

Teachers-interest: 1st, 2nd, 5th
Teachers-sense of worth: 1st, 2nd, 5th
Students-interest: 1st, 2nd, 4th
Students-sense of worth: 1st, 2nd, 4th

As a result of this the Project increased the proportion of simulation material in their subsequent units, and it represented over half the activities in the latter section of their work.' (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 22).

In Great Britain the use of simulation in the field of humanities, geography, social studies and other fields has been expanded since 1966 and an organisation, the Society for Academic Gaming in Education and Training (SAGSET) which was founded in 1969, has played a major role in this growth. A further spur to the creation and dissemination of simulation games came through projects which were funded by Schools' Council, between 1966 and 1975 (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 23). When the second generation of funded Projects was coming to a conclusion, simulation was commonly gaining a place in the list of suggested classroom strategies. As the approach was being developed in teacher training institutions, students training for both school and adult situations became aware of the characteristics of the technique in their initial understandings about methodologies. Sometimes this took the form of playing sample games and
simulations followed by discussion, and sometimes simulation approaches were used in the courses themselves, often as simulated school situations. (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 24). William Taylor led a team which developed a comprehensive and multi-situational simulation called 'Severnside Comprehensive' aimed at practising teachers. This was later used as the basis of a series of T.V programmes for teachers on Harlech TV. The idea of developing simulated school situations also became the basis for several postgraduate education courses. For example, at the University of Cambridge's Department of Education a radical change in course structure in 1975 produced, instead of a formal lecture course, a set of twelve 'situations' developed in a simulated 'Coalstream' school. The students found themselves faced with classroom problems, curriculum issues, problems of administration and management, letters from parents and so on. Their task was to respond to these as young practising teachers through twice-weekly workshop sessions which sought to draw out the theory behind the pragmatic issues mainly in retrospect. (Taylor and Walford, 1978: 2) and almost all European countries have now adopted and developed some or many forms of simulation technique.

So far, I have examined in this chapter, chapter six, games, simulations, computerised simulations, simulation games and role plays and the place they occupy in the sphere of education. I shall now turn to the concept of Global Simulation which, I believe, is an outstanding technique to overcome communication anxiety amongst adult students of French.

6.7 Global Simulations

In France, the simulation technique was developed into most notably Simulations Globales. Yaiche states that Global Simulations are used in the teaching of languages, of French as a second language, of French as a foreign language, or of French as a mother tongue and in the teaching of adults. In answer to the question 'What is a Global Simulation? Yaiche states 'A first approach leads to the enunciation of two fundamental principles. To launch into a Global Simulation, you need to build a 'theme-place' and to build 'fictitious identities'.* (Yaiche, 1996: 10). He develops these two principles in this way. To build a 'theme-place' like an island, a block of flats, a village or an international conference, one needs to bring the group into this imaginary place which will function as a milieu and as a theme. I believe that the fact that the place is imaginary is important to participants as it can be the
place where one unleashes the beast within, without having to put too much emphasis on the veracity and exactitude of the geographical features of France. This place will bring together written and oral activities, to relate them to each other; these activities can be a reflection, a debate, a creativity exercise, or even linguistic and grammatical activities, the objective being to give them a meaning or a dynamics. In Francis Debyser's expression this is 'the unifying and cumulative dynamic of the collective construction of a universe where every one will be a participant'.* (Debyser in Yaiche, 1996: 10).

In fact, states Yaiche, the *Simulation Globale* is an extension of the simulations which have been used in various teaching contexts as Debyser has noted.

In relation to simple simulations, like simulating a conversational exchange, a transaction, taking a decision or even negotiating, the Global Simulation is more ambitious. It is about creating progressively with the group-class, a universe of complete discourse, with its framework, its characters, their individual and collective experiences, their relationships, their interactions; it is the collective creation of an actual world, a symbolic and therefore a shared culture... in a foreign language.* (Debyser in Yaiche, 1996: 10).

Therefore, argues Yaiche, the 'theme-place' of the Global Simulation, will be not only the place where the different classroom activities will be intertwined but a place where the experiences and cultures of the participants will be linked together. The 'theme-place' where everything is possible and an ideal meeting place with the other (Yaiche, 1996: 11), is the first opportunity given to the participants to shed their own cultural background but also their perceived factors relevant to French culture; this allows the participants to relax in the knowledge that there is no right nor wrong dimension. Yaiche states further that building fictitious identities consists of putting aside one's real identity to slide into the skin of the character one wants to *animate* in the true sense of the word, that is, to give it a soul (Yaiche, 1996: 11). Again, to be able to discard one's own identity brings participants a step further towards a more relaxed frame of mind.

The Global Simulation will therefore consist in 'doing as if' on two levels:

- as if one were somewhere else away from the classroom and bringing back, through imagination, the fictitious universe into the classroom
- as if one were someone else, finding within one the resources to make the fictitious character credible and by a paradoxical movement of coming and going between oneself and the unknown of oneself (that
other self formed by the fictitious identity) to be able to express oneself more than if one had stayed within the contingent framework of one's true identity


Therefore, to quote Yaiche's definition of a Global Simulation, one can state that '... a Global Simulation is a way to bring the real into the universe of the classroom, that real which is often left at the door of the classroom and which only appears in a ghostly way, at best in an episodical and therefore a disjointed way, at the mercy of exercises, a debate done around existential questions* (Yaiche, 1996: 11). The Global Simulation done by my students at the Grange allowed them to bring to Tasmania, elements of life in France, as we shall see in the next chapter; a trip in a train is always full of hazards in both the meetings one makes and the administrative pitfalls of the S.N.C.F. (Société Nationale des Chemins de Fer Français), the French railway system where strikes and bomb alerts are to be expected.

To contextualise the analysis I shall now look at the history of the Simulation Globale technique. In 1970, says Yaiche, the Bureau d'études pour les langues et les cultures (BELC), witnessed tensions between different and conflicting ideological and literary currents which either preached total freedom as a condition for creativity (Surrealists) or said that rules and constraints could constitute precious allies for the flourishing of imagination (Yaiche, 1996: 12). Global Simulations were used to present teaching and learning experiences in such a way that teachers and students did not have the feeling that they were experimenting without follow-up. In 1973-74, Francis Debyser, the then Director of the BELC, published three articles in which he sought to prove the value of the use of Global Simulations. He is reported to have stated that teachers and learners reject '...methodological ways which set in advance the contents (choice of elements) and the didactic procedures (organisation of the classroom and nature of the exercises)* (Yaiche, 1996: 12). In 1977, an article published by Debyser appeared in Le Français dans le monde stating that from 1970, the BELC had proposed: 'a re-emphasis on the learner, more active methods, the development of free expression and creativity, the setting in place of a real communication competence'* (Debyser, 1996: III). Debyser (1996: III) noted that the concept of communication competency (a concept we saw in chapter four of this thesis) had not appeared yet in the first works of the Council of Europe nor in Systèmes d'apprentissage des langues vivantes pour les adultes, a key work
published in Strasbourg (1973) nor in The Threshold level (Strasbourg, 1975). In these works the term of communicative functions was used. From 1975 to 1980, the BELC concentrated on creativity techniques. During that time the Council of Europe promoted notional-functional methods which were also designated as communicative approaches. After preparatory studies and the publication in 1975 of the Threshold level, the CREDIF published its own niveau-seuil (threshold level) in 1976. A shift appeared and the concepts were used in the education of adults.

At the end of the seventies, editors and authors prepared communicative text books like Cartes sur table (Hachette) and Archipel (Didier). During the same period the BELC systematically developed research on creativity, expression, pleasure of words and language as well as the aspect of game and play in communication (Debyser, 1996: III). The BELC had to dispel certain ambiguities and show that creativity in language classes did not have as an aim game and play but work with creativity to learn better. It also had to show that creativity techniques were more meaningful for those who took part than manipulation of rules, phrases and texts and lastly that creativity techniques could be regrouped into a pedagogical, coherent and global project which would allow a class to work for several hours (Debyser, 1996: IV). At the beginning of the 1980’s, ‘generalist’ Global Simulations began to multiply. The Village initiated in a workshop in 1981 by Jean-Marc Caré, was used in primary classes in non-francophone settings. A literary courant had been developing, L'OUILPO (l'Ouvroir de Littérature Potentielle), specifically created by Queneau, Le Lionnais, Pérec, Roubaud et al. It was spreading and enhancing the philosophy of the Global Simulation. Between 1980 and 1990 Global Simulations were expanding in France and the francophone world and were being introduced in many fields other than the teaching of foreign languages (Yaiche, 1996: 14). This ambitious project allowed to go beyond the temptation of play at any cost with its dangers of childishness and the derisory and floundering. Thus were born L'Immeuble, Le Cirque, Le Village and La Conférence Internationale. I have used very successfully the invention canvas of Le Village and L'Immeuble and I have witnessed the lowering of communication apprehension in my students.

Global Simulations were born with the idea that text books had to disappear and that to learn a language you had to be put in situ at a communicative level (Yaiche, 1996: 12). The term Simulation Globale was coined by the BELC when it became clear that brief simulations had to be replaced with longer
Chapter eight

Conclusion
simulations which could incorporate a plurality of communicative aspects (Yaiche, 1996: 13). These longer simulations were developed from 1974 to 1979 under the auspices of the BELC by Jean Marc Caré, Francis Debyser and Christian Estrade who had conducted several workshops. Debates had taken place concerning the place of pleasure and motivation in learning. Play was seen as a universal phenomenon. Indeed philosophers, psychologists, educators and other theorists and practitioners throughout the ages had commented upon the role that play had in the growth and development of children. I referred to this factor earlier in this chapter when I examined role plays. Plato, Commenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel, and more recently, Piaget and Freud, established that play had an important role in the emotional, intellectual and cognitive development of children (Heitzmann, 1974: 9).

Developments at the BELC were in fact very much current with developments in educational and psychological thinking elsewhere. Assimilation and accommodation were two concepts which Piaget had developed in 1951. Assimilation described the process of taking in information as it was received and changing it so that it became part of a child’s knowledge, while accommodation meant the adjustments made in the process of assimilating the information. When the two processes were in equilibrium, there was cognitive growth (Heitzmann, 1974: 9). To underscore his point, Heitzmann quoted the famous psychiatrist Bruno Bettelheim

If we gave children the opportunity to play, maybe some of them would not be driven to compensate for time lost by playing “revolution” or “cops and robbers” in their twenties (Heitzmann, 1974: 9).

It had also been viewed by some famous social psychologists such as George Herbert Mead (Seidner, 1978: 11) as essential to the development of the self, as games required that the child deal with the anticipated actions of other players towards him/her, but also that he/she see himself as others see him/her; this being considered by Mead as the genesis of the social self as the anticipation of the action of others in a symbolic task with the processes of cognition involved (Seidner, 1978: 11). In the examination of the self in chapters three and four, it was obvious that the way others see a person influences the way this person feels about him/herself. Piaget further explored the place of play in the processes of cognition. According to Seidner
His work indicates that childhood games play an important role in the evolution of intelligence. Thus, play is viewed by social psychologists and cognitive theorists as an essential element in the social and intellectual development of children (Seidner, 1978: 11).

George Simmel at the turn of the century expressed the view that a social game provided a way for the individual to play or practise society (Seidner, 1978: 11), while Anderson and Moore analysed further the link between culture and play forms. Moore related the development of simulations to the necessity of having scientific models which would represent reality, a world in transition (Seidner, 1978: 12).

Why is play so little used in the education of children? The obvious reason is that play involves fun and for many decades learning was seen as a serious and grave matter. Learning was also seen as a painful exercise, and only recently has the use of games and simulation been recognised as a learning activity appropriate to a formal setting. Seidner stated 'Dewey noted the link between play and social life and advocated the use of games as an integral part of the curriculum. It is likely that many creative teachers over the years have recognized the fact that any drill can be turned into a game and have proceeded to do so whenever it seemed appropriate. The "spelling bee" is certainly not a recent innovation' (Seidner, 1978: 13).

Zucherman and Horn (in Seidner, 1978: 12) noted a 50 percent increase in the readily available games and simulation from 1970 to 1972 (Seidner, 1978: 12). Why this increase in educational games? Three factors are important.

(a) the questioning of the traditional socialization function of our educational institutions, (b) the current emphasis on the active learner and the discovery learning, and (c) the appearance of a new medium, the simulation game (Seidner, 1978: 12).

When it is said that children learn by playing, one should extend this statement to adults. Indeed, I can see how my adult students like to have fun and regress in their child-like ego (see chapter four). One of the participants at the Global Simulation weekend wrote

However interpersonal communication is a whizz. Most people seem to have occasional mental blocks like I do, and we help each other along. The games are fun. One's vocab is like a disorganised toy box from which one must extricate certain toys in a certain order. The games just add another dimension to this. The "7 items in a valise game" I'm going to use in the
classroom. It is one that can be adapted for most age groups likewise “Guess the métiers” would go down well with my 9/10’s (Are there patents pending/copyrights to these??) (Journal 5, Appendix F).

With Global Simulations, game is related to a noble activity. The first ones to be allowed to play in a learning situation were not children, notes Yaiche, but adults (Yaiche, 1996: 13). ‘To seduce them and to avoid the awakening of painful memories, animators put aside forbidding exercises and propose to them more and more games and simulations’* (Yaiche, 1996: 13). I can validate Yaiche’s statement from my own experience and the videotape of the Global Simulation done with my students will be a visual affirmation.

Yaiche observed that simulations have existed since the origin of humanity. The wearing of a mask and the act of simulation were at the centre of the problematic of ‘games’ and of the ‘I’, the questions one might have asked about roles, status, identity, the multiplicity of the aspects of an ‘individual.’ What then does to simulate specifically mean in Yaiche’s use of the term? For him, to simulate is to do as if; it is also to pretend, to feign.

- an emotion: surprise, anger, joy, fear, etc.
- a feeling: affection, hatred, contempt, etc.
- a state: illness, intoxication, death, aggressiveness, etc.
- an act: attack, retreat, evasive action, etc.
- a role: playing Mum and Dad, Cowboys and Indians, etc.


As, Yaiche said, the concept of simulating exists in various contexts: in social relations which are dictated by etiquette, in dissimulation processes when children pretend to be sick to avoid going to school. He warned, though,

To make others believe something about oneself, to deceive them, so be it; but to believe it oneself, here is the limit not to be crossed. And certain people – so comforted by the gaze of others – end up believing in the character that they played by game or by necessity* (Yaiche, 1996: 17).

To simulate, said Yaiche, is also ‘...to disguise an act under the appearance of another...' and one is here ‘...in the domain of dissimulation, theatre, strategy, lie, hypocrisy or falsehood’* (Yaiche, 1996: 17). Love is also the domain, par excellence, of the expression of simulation in the French theatre of the XVIIIth century, in the works of such masters as Molière, Racine, Corneille, or of the XVIIIth and XIXth centuries, from Marivaux to Musset, where one also sees the act of simulation and dissimulation (Yaiche, 1996: 180).
Simulation is often a compromise in the Freudian sense which is, according to Yaiche, the possibility of living a reality, one would otherwise be incapable of living; it functions also as a reaction of social defense on the same level as avoidance, intimidation, attack, blocking, retraction, submission, justification, or seduction (Yaiche, 1996: 18). A function of these simulations, says Yaiche, is that it allows the participants to enter into the realm of what is possible: ‘...a world of hypotheses in arborescence of life’* (Yaiche, 1996: 18). My adult students chose characters for the Global Simulation which were either in total contradiction to their person, or in total accordance with my perception of their “real” self. They entered fully into the realm of what was possible and beyond.

Yaiche reflected upon the distinction made by Huizinga between the propositions that we are and we act differently. This temporary abolition of the ‘habitual world’ is manifested in childhood but appears just as clearly amongst adults in the ritual games of primitive peoples (Huizinga, 1995: 34). When initiations take place, there is a moratorium on quarrels, fights, and acts of vengeance and there is also a temporary suspension of the daily life of the community (Huizinga, 1995: 34). In English universities, students’ extravaganzas have existed in such a way that a suspension of human rights take place in the mistreatment, for example, of ‘freshers’? Huizinga refers more specifically to such licentious saturnalias codified in the ‘rag-ring’ defined in the dictionary as an extensive display of noisy, disorderly conduct carried on in defiance of authority and discipline (Huizinga, 1995: 34). Yaiche also refers to the view of René Girard that imitation is an essential part of learning even if it is, as he states

...a cause of conformism and gregarious spirit... we are always against imitation but in a different way from Plato. We have chased it out from a little everywhere, even from our aesthetics. Everywhere our art and our literature are dead set against resembling anything or anyone by mimesis* (Yaiche, 1996: 18).

However, Girard also stated that there is no human intelligence or cultural learning without mimesis which is the essential power of cultural integration (Yaiche, 1996: 18).

Global Simulation is, at certain times, an imitation of reality, and students feel real pleasure in trying to imitate and to conform to a given ‘pattern’ (or stencil). But very quickly comes the temptation to free oneself from the imitated world and add one’s own elements* (Yaiche, 1996: 19).
The Global Simulation done in August 1998, 'Un voyage en train et ses aléas' showed that adult students want to be free to add their own elements and the freedom which was given to them rendered them less anxious, more talkative, more fluent in French.

In yet another view discussed by Yaiche, that of Jacques Monod, it is the powerful development and the intensive use of the function of simulation which seem to characterize the unique properties of the human brain. This is the basis of cognitive function, on which language rests and which it clarifies only in parts (Yaiche, 1996: 19).

Yaiche expounded on the use of simulation in the natural sciences. For scientists, simulation is experimentation on a model being itself an artificial reproduction of the phenomenon which one wishes to observe (Yaiche, 1996: 19).

Whether it be Ashby's homeostat, conceived to stimulate the functioning of the brain, Sejnowsky's neuronal computer baptized Nettalk of Rosenblatt's Perception, the XVIIth and XVIIIth centuries automation or Vaucanson's model of the human body (1738) or the Wiener's cybernetic animals (the electronic turtle) one always runs after the same Chimera: to reproduce the real to make it one's own* (Yaiche, 1996: 20).

Yaiche points to children's models of planes, trains and cars as the best known simulations, especially when they are actually working with engines. As Maidment and Bronstein (1973) cited in (Yaiche, 1996: 20) there is a distinction between a model which, when its elements are fixed and are not designed to move, is a static model. When we take this model and set it in motion so as its components interact with others, like in real life, we have created a simulation (Yaiche, 1996: 20). Yaiche states that Global Simulations introduce to the classroom a 'scale model' of reality. 'That is to say that this reality may be considered as an ersatz of reality*' (Yaiche, 1996: 21).

Simulations on computers have spread rapidly but as Yaiche states, 'in no way can simulations on machines allow one to understand processes, facts, or to yield analyses. Certain data give certain results and it is left to the individual to choose and to analyse'*. At the beginning of the 1980's, France was overtaken with role play games originating in the United States, with Dungeons and Dragons being the most common. Invented in 1974 by Gary Gigax, who was interested in black magic but disappointed by war games, this game has become the most famous of role play games in the history of games. Yaiche considers the fact that the
success of American style role play games can be explained by the necessity felt by modern societies to find substitutes for the carnivals and saturnalia of earlier times which have almost disappeared and also in the desire that individuals have to experience several lives (Yaiche, 1996: 22). As Huizinga stated also:

The ability to be another and the mystery of the game are manifested in masquerades. There the “insolite” character of the game is perfect. The disguised or the masked play another character. He is another character* (Huizinga, 1995: 34).

A child starts playing with imaginary characters based on dolls and soft toys and will elaborate relationships and role plays, sometimes in a very sophisticated way. At times, the child will be a prince or a princess, and will become

...more beautiful, more noble, more dangerous than one is normally... the child feels moreover that degree of enthusiasm which leads him/her to a “believe - I am” state without making him/her lose completely conscience of “ordinary reality”* (Huizinga, 1995: 35-36).

Adults who are also very good at building imaginary characters, based on a semi-reality, exploded into real human beings with a history and a future who go beyond their reality in the Global Simulation exercise done for this study. One participant wrote:

The ‘En Voiture’ session was much more relaxing even though I knew that the objects in my valise would create a stir. Having to lie one’s way out of being arrested for owning detonators and skeleton keys, is a good way to get the adrenaline going! (Journal 9, Appendix F).

Yaiche refers to Louis Porcher and in particular his book Quelques Remarques Sociologiques pour une formation des enseignants. Vers le Plurilinguisme (1991) where he writes about children’s passion for stories:

... stories, tales, all secularized forms of myths are their daily bread. Childhood is the triumph of narrative, of fuzzy frontiers between dream and reality, of the narrated world. Many adults are still, in this domain, children, but it is not on the same level. If being a child is now a profession, it remains marked by a kind of impunity which characterizes a new relationship with the world and like a right to simulation, to worlds other than the world. It is an ordinary dimension, always present, of childhood. The learning of languages could not escape this fact even if it were ignored* (Yaiche, 1996: 22).
Another writer, referred to by Yaiche, is Jacob Levy Moreno (1889-1974), the Austrian psychiatrist already mentioned earlier in this chapter and who was the inventor of group psychotherapy, psychodrama and role plays. J.L. Moreno developed the psychotherapeutic technique in which individuals act out certain roles or incidents in the presence of a therapist and others who may be part of a therapy group. The procedures are based on the assumption that role-taking allows the person to express troublesome emotions and face deep conflicts in the relatively protected environment of the therapeutic stage (Reber, 1985: 590). His concept of 'man as an actor in a situation', acting or acted on the stage of daily life, dating from as far back as the period 1917 - 1921, is among the important sources of the fundamental idea of role play and psychodrama (Yaiche, 1996: 23), as we saw previously in this chapter. A role play is in fact a simple simulation where the participants limit themselves to taking a fictitious identity and act in the most credible and authentic manner which can exist under the cover of that identity (Yaiche, 1996: 24).

In language classes, states Yaiche, up to 1996, role plays were not very interesting as they did not give a psychological or biographical depth to the characters. Nowadays, text books give indications to prepare effective role plays which often lead to Global Simulations (Yaiche, 1996: 24). If the whole world is a stage so is the classroom where languages are taught. Every class has its individual personality, a particular feeling which can be promoted by laughter, kidding and teasing. Everyone must laugh and be laughed at (even the teacher) at one time or another; the classroom must be an intimate place in which the students know their role. 'The classroom is both an arena and a theater of sorts' (Jakobovits in Tursi, 1970: 80). In a Global Simulation students lose themselves in the language and act in a way in which they would hesitate to act elsewhere; 'everyone is a character in one way or another' (Jakobovits in Tursi, 1970: 80). As one participant wrote

**Preparation of his character**

I had a reasonably good idea of his character before arriving at Campbell Town since I'd chosen an old wooden plane as my surprise object and had put about constructing a person who might be a cabinet maker. The 'nobombs' shirt which was his principal selected item of clothing and that almost helped to clarify the character for me.

When we were sent off to begin defining his description, I found myself taking this thing far too seriously (possibly a good indication of my anxiety) and it was really only after hearing Shane, Christiane and Florence fabricating personality that I started to give his character a really melodramatic flavour and to start to 'act' it out (Journal 9, Appendix F).
Conclusion

I started this chapter with a description of yesterday's archetypical classroom, as seen by Holmes, with a chalk-and-talk setting, an asymmetric learner-teacher relationship, a prescription and formal classroom communication approach and an interaction reduced to instructing and informing. As we saw previously, D.H. Lawrence said, there is no point in work unless it's fun, unless it is an absorbing game. Games have been seen as 'a simplified slice of reality' (Gordon in Heitzmann, 1974) which involve the players and provide a learning experience, insofar as the players want to 'understand the decision-making process' (Taylor and Walford, 1978).

Simulations provide artificial environment and artificial experiences for the participants in the activity, allowing them to perform selected portion of social processes which are replicas of processes observable in the real world (Garvey, 1971) and allow them to live vicariously (Broadbent in Heitzmann, 1974). I examined different sorts of simulations (computerised, simulation games) and their effective use in terms of interest and financial cost. I also examined role plays which have been used as therapeutic techniques in, for instance, Moreno's technique of psychodrama and in education.

I have mainly analysed them in terms of foreign language teaching as the aim of this thesis is to find a technique to overcome adult students' anxiety problems in communication. Caré's analysis of role plays was examined in detail. I then examined the place of games, simulations and role plays in education spheres before approaching in detail the concept of Global Simulation, a technique devised in France by the BELC (Bureau d'études pour les langues et les cultures). A history of the technique was followed by a description of its aims and it is now in the following chapter that I shall unveil the true powers of the Global Simulation technique in the proposed venture of helping adult students overcome their anxiety when communicating orally.
Chapter Seven

Global Simulations
A Case Study
Chapter Seven
Global Simulations
A Case Study

Introduction

In this final chapter, I wish to explain what a Global Simulation is in more
detail than in chapter six and to bring together my written thesis and the
practical thesis component, the videotape made during the weekend at the
Grange, Campbell Town, Tasmania, during which I directed a Global
Simulation exercise entitled: *Un voyage en train et ses aléas (A voyage by train
and its hazards).*

7.1 Background to *A voyage by train and its hazards*

On the 8th of August 1998, a group of 17 made up of students and several
French teachers from around the state of Tasmania assembled at the Grange.
Situated in historic Campbell Town, this old manor built circa 1847 offers
superb colonial accommodation and old English gardens. One can even
stand on the site of an observatory built for the transition of Venus in 1874
or sit and relax under a stately old Elm tree. This Olde World mansion is
even said to house a ghost.

Under the auspices of the French Embassy, Canberra, and with the help of
my colleagues Mr Shane Parker and Mme Florence Creavin, I organised an
immersion weekend during which a Global Simulation took place.

As we have seen previously, a Global Simulation is a protocol, a scenario
structure which allows the participants to create a referential universe – a
block of flats, a village, an island, a circus, a hotel and to animate it with
interacting characters and to simulate all the functions of language that this
setting, which is both a theme – place and a universe of discourse, is likely to
require (Debyser, 1996: IV).

The dynamics of the Global Simulation is that of a narrative which generated
a multiplicity of characters and events. The unexpected is in itself educational
as it develops, in those who participate, an aptitude to face the unforeseen like in life and language games. The Global Simulation is also theatrical as the participants are actors in a human comedy, always being renewed just as in life itself. As Shakespeare said so eloquently

“All the world’s a stage,  
And all the men and women merely players.  
They have their exits and their entrances,  
And one man in his time plays many parts,  
His acts being seven ages.”

(William Shakespeare, As You Like It)

‘To describe the world, to tell the story of life and to live the comedy of human relations, such is the pedagogical gamble of simulation. It is the extent of this ambition which explains the term *global*’* (Debyser, 1996: V).

I created in this Global Simulation *Un voyage en train et ses aléas* (A voyage by train and its hazards) a humanistic experience in which communicative interaction occurred. I put in practice Freire’s philosophy that ‘through dialogue, the teacher-of-the-students and the students-of-the teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with students-teachers. The teacher is no longer merely the me-who-teaches, but me who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn, while being taught, also teach. They become jointly for the process in which all grow’ (Jarvis, 1992: 244-245).

Before we started the session, I explained to the participants what my research’s aims were and I explained that, to overcome communication apprehension and anxiety, I would test the technique of Global Simulation, as a way to facilitate their communication in French (The videotape records the whole introductory talk). Before starting the first workshop I fulfilled the necessary tasks of ethics clearance and asked the participants to fill in various questionnaires seen in approaches examined to reduce communication apprehension and anxiety in chapter four. Some questionnaires devised by Campbell and Ortiz (1991: 168) included ‘The Ideal Language Learner’ which attempts to mark the five characteristics that an ideal language learner displays and a survey of attitudes specific to the foreign language classroom. A foreign language classroom anxiety scale to assess students’ anxiety level, before and after the workshop was also included. The participants were also asked to fill in the questionnaire which
was devised by McCroskey (Meijas, Applbaum, Applbaum, Troover, Language Anxiety, from Theory and Research to Classroom Implications, 1991: 90) showing 24 statements concerning feelings about communications with other people and which was also seen in chapter four. The participants were also asked to keep a journal over the weekend. I asked if they could use the anxiety graphs devised by Brownell and Katula, 1984 (in Foss and Reitzel, 1991: 137) and examined in chapter four of this thesis. These graphs can help students to internalize the concept that speaking a new language is not a uniform process that is constantly difficult and anxiety provoking. In their journals, the participants were asked to

- Assess their current competencies
- Expound on their perception of the French culture
- Write their feelings of apprehension and fill in the anxiety graph (perhaps 3, 4 times) after having recorded the instances of interpersonal communication: with whom, about what, when, where, why.
- Write about whether they experienced negative episodes/incidents while learning, speaking French (at school or while travelling in a francophone country) which had lowered their self-esteem and self-confidence.

As seen in chapter five, one of the approaches used to overcome communication apprehension suggested the use of cultural artifacts (in Spitzberg and Cupach's Relational Model of Competence). This gave me the idea of asking participants to bring an unusual object so that the physical prop could be of assistance to those who were anxious.

7.2 Icebreakers

To make the group more homogeneous, we organised some icebreaking activities. In chapter five, I discussed Campbell and Ortiz's Four Hour Foreign Language Anxiety. To reduce anxiety within the group they suggested some exercises in which trust could be developed not only between the participants themselves but also with the teachers or leaders. The icebreaking activities released the tension as is shown on the videotape of the weekend.

Each participant had to choose one colour, one animal and one city with three adjectives describing each one. They had to make sure that the adjectives chosen were the best ones to describe the colour, animal, city.
They used dictionaries and the linguistic knowledge of the group and the organisers. The ice was broken when we revealed to them that the colour represented the way they saw themselves, the animal the way others perceived them and the city their sexuality. This first bout of laughter relaxed the atmosphere and the homogeneity of the group started to be evident to the organisers.

7.3 Workshop One: Create your Characters

7.3.1 General Statements

In the first workshop, the participants were required to choose a character and to fill in an identity card with name, age, weight, physical characteristics, personality traits, phobias. They also built a biography of the character chosen, with specifications on why they were travelling on this train. The videotape shows each participant presenting their characters. Some were a little nervous as they were unsure of their French and felt somehow inadequate linguistically. The pedagogical art of the Global Simulation requires that the participants suspend reality and pretend to be somewhere else and someone else as we saw in chapter six.

What is the teacher’s role in a Global Simulation? As Debyser notes the teacher’s role is manifold: a game-master who organises the distribution of tasks, sets up the configuration of the classroom, gives advice, manages the various tasks, prepares linguistic activities, proposes additional material, helps in the written production, corrects oral productions, evaluates some of them, and stays vigilant as far as the group dynamic is concerned (Debyser, 1996: VI). As the videotape shows, all these were achieved by myself and the other organisers. Many hours of preparation went into this exercise. As was discussed in chapter six there are many types of Global Simulations on the market. There are generalist simulations and functional ones. Whilst l’Immeuble, Le Village, Iles have a generalist aim, La conférence Internationale and L’Hôtel are aimed at a professional adult population. They have all been published and are referred to in the bibliography. Some general simulations can be functional however, and a functional simulation should remain imaginative.
I proposed to set our simulation in a train as trains are an ideal setting to keep all the participants together in the virtual situation and trains are also part of a romantic and dramatic culture.

I also had some authentic documents like train tickets, train timetables and they acted not so much as models but as examples providing information, vocabulary and structures. There is a paradox examined by Debyser which some specialists in language teaching pose. Are the use of authentic documents authentic when done in a classroom context? Others ask 'Is it natural for students who speak the same mother tongue to communicate in another language?' (Debyser, 1996: V). Debyser's view is that if one accepts this apparent paradox as problematic, one might as well close down all bilingual or immersion classes. For Debyser, outside the real use of the target language with a foreign monolingual interlocutor, the paradox mentioned above is solved by a learning situation where one pretends. It is the basis for all simulations. The Council of Europe's document *Cadre européen commun de référence pour l'apprentissage et l'enseignement des langues*, proposes in the chapter dealing with education (Chapter IV) that 'Students engage in a "willing suspension of disbelief" to play the game of the use of a target language in activities centred on access to meaning, instead of the use of the mother tongue which is simpler and more natural' (Debyser, 1996: VI). Should the make-believe be as close as possible to real life or does it only rely on real or imaginary experiences and the use of the language the aim of which is creative and meaningful expression? Debyser quotes Maley who gave an answer to this question by opposing 'the reality of illusion' to 'the illusion of reality' (Debyser, 1996: VI). Debyser adds that the gamble of Global Simulations is, therefore, to create a fictitious reality more real than the fragments of concrete reality introduced in a language class, from the made-up referential world and characters collectively created (Debyser, 1996: VI).

Another problem arises in establishing a theme place in Global Simulations. Simulations in French present three possibilities: the imaginary place is in France or any other francophone country, in the students' own country or somewhere utopic. Most teachers
use, as I did, the first possibility, as it is a way to teach about French culture and civilisation. The students must have a plausible place where the inhabitants will live à la française. Some risks are involved; indeed it is possible that there will be transposition of the students’ culture or a multiplication of classical cliches and stereotypes. However, the risks are worth taking as the students will most likely do some research which will lead to acceptable productions (Debyser, 1996: X). In my case, all the participants had visited France at least once. The make-believe would be more absurd if one was happy to imagine, in French, a series of scenarios taking place in one’s own country. However, says Debyser, in the case of francophone countries like Canada it is possible to effectively move the simulation to one’s own country. In the case of a utopic place, one can build generalist simulations which don’t have French civilisation as an aim: a mysterious island can lead to science fiction. I have myself introduced an imaginary future city called Amsterdamville in a Global Simulation as part of my teaching English to a Writer’s Workshop class. As Debyser says, in functional simulations, the theme-place or the town is not so important, as a conference room is much like another, whatever the country in which it is taking place (Debyser, 1996: X).

After having chosen and established the theme of the Global Simulation the creation of the characters was left entirely to the participants. To add realism to the exercise, I had asked participants to dress up, therefore it meant that they already had an idea of the identity they would assume. There are dangers as Debyser states, that the characters may become stereotypes. He says ‘beware of stereotypes: from stereotypes to racism there is only one step that one makes without noticing. In Paris, there are undoubtedly Portuguese caretakers, but a Portuguese woman can also be a singer, a computer programmer or a doctor’* (Debyser, 1996: XI). These dangers are very real during the first stage of decor and character building. It is up to the teachers to make sure that the students do not fall in this trap without following, to the letter, political correctness which can lead to other excesses. A cultural or intercultural reflection can be, in that context, particularly enriching. The main conclusion drawn by Debyser is
that '... the teacher will intervene so that the characters that the students invent will not present cultural put-downs which emanate from stereotypes, preconceptions and preconceived ideas' (Debyser, 1996: XII). This did not eventuate in this Global Simulation; all the participants were adults with open minds, intelligence and flexible. The latter being one characteristic, as we have seen in chapter four, which makes a foreign language student more successful.

7.3.2 Case Study: Characters

This first workshop entitled Create your characters, was dedicated to imagining characters and giving them biographical depth. As one can see, from what is to follow, the participants did not refrain from creating unusual and exciting characters. Who were the travellers on this train which departed from Nîmes to go to Paris? The characters which were presented were as follows:

- **Hervé Bartez**, who during the Paris Dakar car race had lost his best friend Roland, the navigator. His heart broken by regret and guilt, Hervé felt the need to carry saffron with him perpetually.

- **François Delon**, a fanatic of equitation was going to take part in a competition. He loved work, fairness and disliked lazy people.

- **Jacqueline Picasso**, who was the widow of the famous painter. Her aim in life was to look after her husband. Too sad to stay at home, she travelled on this train searching for another soul mate.

- **Simone Martin**, who was a British Airway flight attendant wanting to work for Air France.

- **Edith Piaf**, who had started life tragically, had overcome her lack of happiness. She started singing in a circus and was discovered and named The Little Bird. Although she was
now wealthy, she felt emptiness in her heart. To fill the gap she travelled by train and sang all the way.

- Monique Allard, who was a tennis player had, during an accident, broken her arm. She was going back to Chambéry to recover some joy with her family. She felt that, now at the age of 25, she was too old to play competitive tennis.

- Marguerite, who was a Scottish golf player, had a body made for swinging. She was dynamic, active, aggressive and violent. Her bad temper hindered her married life and she saw her 4th marriage dwindle. She admired Clinton, Blair, Howard and disliked Pauline Hanson and Margaret Thatcher. She was ambitious, jealous and her aim was to find some land to build a golf course for women. Her Japanese husband was supporting her avidly.

- Arlette David, who was a physical education teacher, after having been accused of physical harassment by one of her students and losing her job was travelling (not to go on a desintoxication clinic nor to avoid a jealous husband). She just needed to travel.

- Odile Dupont, who was a professional wife, was following her fifth husband who was courting an 18 year old. Disguised in black, she wanted to find proof of his infidelity to obtain a divorce with a maximum of financial compensation.

- Marie Blanchard, who was a retired television star living in Toulouse, felt there was something missing in her life. Was she looking for a new love after the last disastrous affair? Was she too impulsive to find happiness?

- Claude des Cavernes, who was disliked by all. He lived in a sewer, didn't wash and his body odours provoked violent reactions. He survived by begging in the streets. He had made enough money to pay for a trip on this train.
• Jeanne Colbert, who had left behind an unfaithful husband and her grown up children; she had, however, kept the credit cards and the family jewels.

• Olga Cheval, who was a cellist from Chernobyl. The nuclear disaster had left her husband impotent and two of her children had died. She was still healthy and was forced to play the cello in the underground stations. But she had had to sell her shoes to pay for the train ticket and was now wearing her husband’s Blundstone shoes.

• Charlotte, an English missionary, who had returned from Africa. She was so unattractive that her parents had encouraged her to leave the family home. She had not found a husband yet.

• Roland Le Rouge, who was a 32 year old carpenter, activist and revolutionary. His aim in life was to kill the businessman Gateau Jaune (Yellow Cake) who imported uranium from Australia to make nuclear weapons. He held Gateau Jaune responsible for his mother's suicide and knew a lot about explosives.

• Lisiane Foucault de Pussy, who was a mediocre author of children's books had been devastated by the death of the only man whom she had ever loved. He had died hunting rabbits. She now had a hatred of real fur and women who wore them. She herself wore fake ones.

• Florian Prévert, who was not only a train controller but also a poet and womaniser. He was married in Marseille where he had fathered twelve children but was single in Paris where he was courting two ladies, a stripteaser and a belly dancer.

• Marie, who was a 12 year old child had borrowed her mother’s boots and glasses. She was a girl from an impoverished family whose only dream in life was to be a gardener. She had kept the gold watering-can offered by her grandmother. She did not want to marry a rich man, as
her parents had planned for her. She was going everywhere.

All these characters allowed the participants to remove their ethnocentric masks and the participants did not have time to fall into the trap of secondary anomie which we looked at in chapter five of this thesis: secondary anomie being a situation in which students complain about feeling alienated not only from their own culture but also from the foreign language culture (Tursi, 1970: 61). This absence of ethnocentricity and anomie are motivational factors as we have seen in chapter five.

Debyser warns potential users of Global Simulation about the dangers of derision and ridicule in the building up of fictitious identities. Indeed, he states that perfectly valid in literature, derision or ridicule have no part in Global Simulation. One must not fall into the realm of the ridiculous. Whilst the discourse of derision is active, corrosive, liberating and lampooning, it shows whatever is the object of cult, admiration or respect as derisory. It can strip the King naked and uses humour, irony, antiphrases and pastiche. It can transform the real in a subversive way by turning the world upside down and upsetting norms and accepted beliefs. Ridicule, on the other hand, can fail in its humour and lead to stupidity, childishness and discouragement. It is the teacher’s role to make a clear distinction between what is derisory and what is ridiculous. ‘Don’t let the group become childish, I would, even say don’t render the children childish’* (Debyser, 1996: XII). None of the characters used in this Global Simulation A voyage by train and its hazards fell into the danger mentioned above so my role as a teacher was made easy.

It was noted in the preceding chapter, chapter six, that a formal classroom setting was not conducive to acquiring the sociolinguistic competence needed to use the language appropriately in a wide range of situations which Holmes describes as being the task facing language learners (Holmes, 1978). In the Global Simulation exercise which I am describing now, I reorganised the setting, with my colleagues, to resemble as closely as possible the situation we were involved in. For
instance, in the train, we arranged the chairs in order to simulate train carriages; in the chapel, later on, we arranged the chairs as they would be in a confessional or in a church (The videotape shows this very clearly).

Simulations have a high motivational function (Garvey, 1971: 205). Garvey observed students who were previously hesitant to participate in class discussions, who begin to voice their opinions in a simulated situation (1971: 26). They also dress for the part, motivated as they are to adopt changed behaviour patterns says Garvey (1971: 26). The videotape of the weekend shows that the participants all dressed up for the exercise and that they were motivated to use dictionaries on a regular basis. Students state that simulations are enjoyable. 'If students find a learning situation enjoyable, it is reasonable to expect that they will learn more than if they are compelled to take part in an unenjoyable situation. That performance improves in pleasant surroundings compared with usual performance in less pleasant surroundings is widely accepted.' (Garvey, 1971: 212).

'Everyone enjoyed themselves – but I for one feel ready now to share my new enthusiasm and to share some of the skills I have learned' (Journal 11, Appendix F), wrote a participant. In the context of this thesis, it is clear that the surroundings chosen were very pleasant and the participants felt at ease in this large and welcoming olde world mansion; the gardens provided a reserve of smells and colours which permeated through each room and blended with forerunners of culinary delights. These sensory elements played an important role in the creating of a very pleasant, informal environment as prescribed by the humanistic methodologies which we examined in chapter three. Lozanov, for example, suggested that the teachers of foreign languages should create situations in which the learners are more suggestible and more relaxed to open up the learning processes. Lozanov relies heavily on the use of music to create the right ambience. It was very lucky that one of the characters developed by one of the participants was in fact Edith Piaf, the famous French singer. We were able to interplay with the simulated character by using tapes of Piaf's most famous songs and in
particular of Mon Dieu which fitted with the 'religious' overtones of the Global Simulation done at the Grange.

7.4 Workshop Two: All Aboard!

In the second workshop, the participants were seated in their carriages. We required them to fill in their own train tickets. They had been given a copy of a ticket, a map of the railway system in France with a list of discounted travelling time. All these realia items made the experience more real through manipulation and actual filling out of forms. They were then asked to write in an envelope the content of their suitcases and hand these to the organisers. They wrote down nine objects plus the strange object which they had brought with them. Once seated, they partook in activities similar to the ones which we, as travellers, would do. They played games which all helped to relax their minds and they were feeling more and more at ease in their new "skin". Until, of course, something happened to challenge them.

A class which is starting a Global Simulation is, at the outset, very motivated, mainly during the invention of the decor and the characters; sometimes a stage of boredom, perhaps even discouragement can follow. It is through the first stages of the collective work and the keeping of records that these difficulties will be overcome. More difficult and new activities such as role plays rectify those problems. A Global Simulation which is too absurd or strange can become boring. Some users of Global Simulations have mentioned the psychological dangers which can erupt from role plays and over identification with the characters chosen.

One participant wrote

The menu activity - trying to work out who had eaten what after the food-poisoning drama - was now - stressful for the same reasons, the only anxiety occurring when we thought the acting was a little too realistic and that one of the 'sick' people might have actually hurt herself (Journal 4, Appendix F).

However, these risks are minimal as the role plays which are proposed are theatrical and not psychodramatic as can be seen on the videotape made during the weekend. The teacher must make sure that the role plays avoid excessive aggression or the isolation of certain characters. At all times, the participants were involved in group activities in the carriages of the train. As Debyser states, life usually goes on according to established scenarios and
routine but the art of communication is to face unforeseen situations; this is why in a Global Simulation there is always a break, in the form of some unexpected events. In *L'Immeuble*, for example, some events like 'The secret of the cellar' or 'A false identity', 'A crime in the block of flats' are introduced. These events should be introduced from the beginning, but great care must be taken so that they do not hold an excessive importance and should not be allowed to lead the participants to strange excesses which would undermine credibility (Debyser, 1996: XII-XIII).

7.5 *Coup de Théâtre - Number One*

In the Global Simulation exercise, *coup de théâtre, déclencheurs*, triggers propel the narrative forward. For the first one, we chose to pretend that a bomb had been planted on the train. This phone call was the start of an interactive exercise. When the train had stopped abruptly, all the suitcases had fallen down and all the objects were scattered on the floor. Participants had to find their own suitcases by asking the content of the envelope. Once all luggage had found their rightful owners a group activity started. The strange objects which the participants had to bring with them, were now presented by the train controller who had found them scattered on the ground, and the owners had to explain their use in front of the audience. Amongst these were a wig, a miner's lamp, a banana skin, a bird pendant, an Olympic Games medal, a necklace, a photo, a bible, a black glove, a whistle, a horse whip, a plane, a miniature cat. All these objects were there for a very specific reason. Even our cameraman Andrew had to give an explanation for his objects through an interpreter. The videotape shows the gregarious atmosphere and the relaxed attitudes of the participants. When listening to the French used, one cannot fail to be impressed by the level of fearless creativity, ability and expertise shown by the participants who express very complex ideas and concepts in the most fluent manner without fearing to make a mistake or being laughed at, elements which cause anxiety. In Global Simulations no evaluation in terms of correctness of the grammar is done; thus the fear of making a mistake is replaced by a desire to communicate as fluently as possible and a desire to live happily and successfully in a make-believe world that has been stripped of most of its anxiety-creating demands and where the aim is to understand one another, to reconstitute the puzzle of life in a meaningful interaction. As Pérec says in the preamble to *Life, A User's Manual*, a book which shows that the users'
guide of life constitutes as many novels like the destiny of the inhabitants of 11, Rue Simon-Crubelie.

Puzzling is not a solitary game: every move the puzzler makes, the puzzle-maker has made before; every piece the puzzler picks up, and picks up again, and studies and strokes, every combination he tries, and tries a second time, every blunder and every insight, each hope and each discouragement have all been designed, calculated, and decided by the other (1987)* (Debyser, 1996: 1).

In chapter four, a chapter dedicated to anxiety and its effects on communication, I quoted Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope who defined communication apprehension as 'a type of shyness characterised by fear or an anxiety about communicating with people' (1991: 30). The videotape shows that apart from one person who shows reluctance to speak at first, all of the other participants showed no shyness, anxiety or reluctance in the Global Simulation infrastructure.

7.6 Workshop Three – What a Catastrophe!

In the third workshop, another activity based on linguistic competencies and cultural knowledge was organised. After having chosen their meals on the menu card the participants relaxed in their seats. Unfortunately three of the travellers suffered from food poisoning and we needed to discover which food they had eaten in common and which drink could have been the cause of their poisoning and ill-health. Three participants had been chosen in advance for their histrionic talents to show the symptoms of food poisoning. As the videotape shows so well, one of the participants acted so well that the group, including the couple who was filming, showed surprise, dismay and utter concern for the well being of the person affected by food poisoning. The students were well prepared linguistically as they had received lists of vocabulary on food and illness.

When all was well again, the participants took part in question and answer games. They were given a card with a job written on it and they had to answer the questions from their fellow passengers who were trying to guess the job. Travellers were also given a sheet with a list of food and some literal and figurative meanings which they had to match.
7.7 Coup de Théâtre – Number Two

As the Global Simulation progressed a second coup de théâtre, was devised. This time, perhaps because the French nation is often affected by strikes, a strike had blocked all trains in France and our travellers had to find a place to sleep. All hotels were booked out and they found themselves outside, in the cold and they kept warm by singing. The videotape shows well the relaxed ambience, the sense of fun and the smiling faces.

When Soeur Marie-Thérèse from the Couvent des Saintes-Nitouches, (a translation of Sainte-Nitouche being: a little hypocrite; butter would not melt in her mouth) arrived, she invited everybody to the Convent. She warned that each person had to follow the rules that applied not only for behaviour in the chapel but also for hygiene. For instance: you are not allowed to exchange crosses, knit in the chapel, sleep with the window closed; you must wipe your feet before entering. You are not allowed to make noise, shave, or wear make up in the chapel.

Once inside ‘the convent’, I explained to the participants that convents in France are opening their doors to tourists. Catholicism, prayers, confessions are part of the French culture and I have often been asked by French teachers to give them the text of prayers in French. I asked if anyone was shocked by our reference to religion and even those involved in teaching in Catholic Schools responded negatively and enthusiastically directed their attention to what was to come in the fourth workshop, entitled My God! A participant wrote to vindicate my choice,

The idea of having a nun was excellent! The scene at the confessional was hilarious in the extreme. Florence was a brilliant choice and the confession idea was great! All levels of language were catered for and the enjoyment level was very high (Journal 11, Appendix F).

7.8 Workshop Four – My God!

Participants were divided into two groups after having been handed a card on which were inscribed either NC or C. The NCs were the non croyants (Non believers) and the Cs were the croyants (believers). To be able to stay at the convent the Cs had to confess their sins and the NCs to convert to catholicism. To be absolved, the sinners had to make a public confession to Sister Marie-Thérèse and they received a forfeit; the other group had to offer
their services to the sisters of the Convent. A list of the seven capital sins was given to the participants. The sinners confessed to being jealous, angry, proud, having impure thoughts. Edith sang badly, the flight attendant poured coffee on a traveller, Roland Le Rouge wanted to commit murder, the controller was still experiencing lustful thoughts. Some converted were told to empty the bottles in the chapel, look after children, wash up, clean toilets, wash the floors, play modern composers on the cello, work in the garden to grow cabbages for the safeguard of the expecting mothers’ progeniture. As Debyser states in a Global Simulation, part of the work can be given to the linguistic preparation of an exercise (tense, adverbs ..). Some of this work can be done in a group or individually, written as a role play or part of a scenario. Leaders should prepare the organisation of the group in advance, determine space and time and utilise the participants’ skills and talents (Debyser, 1996: VII). In our Global Simulation the relevant activities, in this session in particular, the participants seem to have left behind the Critical Self as seen in chapter four and described by Stevick (1976). The Performing Self (concept also used by Stevick and described in chapter four of this thesis) was unleashed; the prayer and the hymn performed as a group were the culmination of an activity which brought out humour, intelligence, wit, creative and musical talents.

7.9 Workshop Five: One Year After

In the fifth and final workshop ‘One year after’ which is essential to debrief the participants, they were asked to say how this trip had changed their life.

One character had met an Englishman and moved to Australia to open a restaurant in Sydney in front of a catholic church and had become much more appreciative of nature. Another had settled in Campbell Town and was winning races. The so-called ugly missionary had long, frizzy hair, but after having seen a dentist and a plastic surgeon had better lips and teeth. More elegant now, she was hoping to attract men. The singer had become very famous after singing the hymn. The dirty man had washed and married the Mother Superior, the lover of saffron had found a new boyfriend and had opened a restaurant in Africa: The Old Camel. The train controller, come poet, kept his little train and had been made famous by the song ‘My Choo Choo Train’. The animal lover had become a spokeswoman for the protection of animals and had become famous thanks to Virgin Records which had given her a contract to sing Gregorian chants.
The Revolutionary had chopped wood, found his way to Marseille, boarded a boat and landed in Burnie (Tasmania) where he now was chopping wood with David Foster, the Tasmanian World Champion wood chopper. The famous golfer had built golf courses in Australia and did not get involved with men any more. The tennis player was happy being her own person after realising that others had bigger problems and had opened a tennis school for needy children. The physical education teacher had sent an anonymous letter to the controller’s wife to warn her of her husband’s unfaithfulness. Oh! sweet revenge! She was also working in the convent robbing jewels from the rich to help the poor. The air hostess was now helping the poor and the cellist had returned to Chernobyl after discovering that the French liked Debussy.

This last session which took place at the end of the two day Global Simulation, showed that in a relaxed environment, with a group of participants which have formed a bond (whether it is after drinking a lot of wine at dinner time as some journal writers will state, ‘(w)hat is there to say except that we drank too much of it’ (Journal 16, Appendix F) or not), the reduced-personality and culture shock syndromes presented by Littlewood (in Crookall and Oxford, 1991: 142) and examined in chapter four, and so often felt by learners of foreign languages dissipated.

One participant wrote

Weekends such as this weekend are very helpful in regaining confidence – I discover that I haven’t really forgotten everything, and I re-discover my enthusiasm and pleasure in being able to express myself in another language and I will be active and anxious about improving my French for quite some time. Watching the French news regularly has also been helpful – in feeling that I can still understand French in learning more about what is happening in French and in learning new words (Journal 10, Appendix F).

As the participants felt more confident in this Global Simulation they lost their sense of alienation and became very French; they were re-born into their French characters by accepting what Stern calls the infantile status (seen in chapter four). Typically the participants at this Global Simulation, were prepared to make fools of themselves without fear of rejection. They accepted the challenges born from ambiguous and at times, incomprehensible and confusing situations. One participant wrote

I guess I knew we were going to be put in uncomfortable situations but I wasn’t quite prepared for introducing myself in another character. I guess it
wasn’t okay but I found that I was nervous and that interfered with my presentation. I became less fluent and more halting in speaking in French and my pronunciation goes. I found the conversation times easier when it was just talking to a smaller group of people or 1 or 2 people in French.

I found a definite link with confidence and ability to speak and understand French. The less confident I felt, the worse I would be speaking or understanding. Realising that many others in the group were so much better than me at French, made me feel a bit daunted and more conscious of my own mistakes. At certain times it was counterproductive to be immersed. I agree that being immersed in French is very good and valuable probably the best way to learn a language, and most of the day this was the case. But at times it was frustrating if there wasn’t an opportunity to get a translation or a few clues about what was being said or if everything was too fast to understand. By the end of the day my brain was reeling from so much concentration! At other times during the day I found my confidence returning so therefore my French improved (Journal 6, Appendix F).

As Debyser states there are no objective yard sticks to evaluate quality; yet one can aim for quality and find the means to accomplish it. For written productions one must insist on the high quality of presentations which will give more power of suggestion to them, as for example in plans, letters, publicity. Even in more radical writing the graphism must be good to give more authenticity. The use of photography, pictures, documents add to the novel-simulation. The ideal is that at the end of a simulation, the participants leave with their own contributions and the collective ones. Therefore, one must carry out a process of editing. It stresses to the students the importance of stylistic, grammatical, orthographical correctness (Debyser, 1996: XIV). To overcome the difficulty of the keeping of oral communication one can use video recorders as I have done. My aim was to show that the Global Simulation technique was a valid one to overcome anxiety in adult students speaking French. The videotape which records the participants’ contributions shows the state of relaxation, the sense of fun and achievement, the creativity of each character, the tightness of their narrative, the beauty and humour of the hymn and prayer. As Debyser states, in verbal interactions, spontaneity and improvisation should be encouraged. In the production of written texts, one should look for the rigour of the writers of L’OULIPO rather than the awkward practices of automatic writing advocated by the surrealists as discipline has never been the enemy of creativity or imagination (Debyser, 1996: XIV). The participants at that weekend at the Grange showed all of these qualities: spontaneity, improvisation allied with rigour and discipline, creativity and imagination. This is a fitting example; here is the prayer written by the believers.
Nous sommes les voyageurs
Dans le wagon du péché
Nous cherchons Dieu
Je cherche un ami
Je suis pleine de haine
Je cherche le paradis
J'ai les yeux fixés aux cieux
Je cherche l'éternité
Je veux me libérer du péché
Je cherche l'espoir de l'amour après la mort
On n'a pas peur du diable
Nous arrivons à notre destination
A la gare éternelle
Avec lui réunis en paix (Journal 5, Appendix F)

We are travellers
In the wagon of sin
We are looking for God
I am looking for a friend
I am full of hatred
I am looking for Paradise
My eyes are fixed on Heaven
I search for eternity
I want to be free from sin
I am looking for the hope of love after death
We are not afraid of the devil
We are reaching our destination
In the eternal station
With Him, in peace, united.
(My translation).

In his conclusions, Debyser noted ‘Let us remember that a quality process
does not aim at perfection, which, as we all know does not exist in this world
...; it simply allows a group and its members to use their talents as best as
possible in a collective project’* (Debyser, 1996: XIV). As one participant
wrote

The idea of throwing ourselves on the tender mercies of the mother superior
led to many enjoyable activities, which we didn’t really have much time to
write about. The confessions were probably more relaxing for the non­
believers, but the rest of us did have to listen carefully to choose the right ‘act
of contrition’, which was fun. The writing of the prayer and the song were
excellent co-operative exercises, and the “where are they now?” activity to
conclude was very entertaining (Journal 4, Appendix F).
The same participant wrote

The activity of guessing the person’s occupation was one which worked well in a small group because everyone was involved and each person could control his or her level of involvement. Because of this everyone, at least in our wagon, was encouraged to ask questions and it was a very relaxed activity. (Not that we didn’t become mildly annoyed at having to give in on one of the six) (Journal 4, Appendix F).

I am firmly convinced that the possibility to obtain the best results in a collective project was achieved and that the aim of my thesis which was to show that Global Simulations are valid techniques to overcome anxiety was also achieved as the results of the evaluation by participants will show. One participant wrote

I haven’t spoken much in any form for close to ten years and so this weekend has been fairly daunting. I have been quite surprised that I can speak any French at all in anything like grammatical sentences and found that the exercises were very helpful! My comprehension was better than expected and I was able to contribute to some of the games. The main problem in fluency in spoken French which will need several months of immersion to improve (Journal 9, Appendix F).

This participant added,

The main problem for me is that while I’m reading French a lot, I haven’t really spoken it for nearly ten years and, yes, I was anxious about this during the day. I found myself gravitating towards the people I know – amazing that I knew so many of the people at The Grange (!) – but even so felt frustrated with my lack of reasonably fluent French. The other surprising thing about the early part of the simulation was that I understood much, much more than I expected I would (Journal 9, Appendix F).

It is clear that speaking was not the only competency to be improved upon. As the above participant wrote his/her understanding of spoken French was enhanced and as one participant wrote ‘(i)f it’s anything to go by in assessing the weekend reflect on the fact that I am having trouble writing this because I have to prevent myself writing in French’ (Journal 16, Appendix F).
7.10 Case Study: Evaluation

The questions asked in the evaluation were as follows.

7.10.1 Evaluation Questionnaire

Immersion weekend, (8-9th of August 1998) The Grange, Campbell Town, Tasmania

Simulation Globale
Un voyage en train et ses aléas.

1) Did this GS lower your anxiety?

2) Did you suffer any incident which reduced your self-confidence? Specify.

3) Did you suffer any incident which enhanced your self-confidence? Specify.

4) Could you recommend it to others as a way to reduce the level of foreign language communication anxiety? Specify.

5) Did you find this method intrusive? Specify.

6) Did this method invoke painful memories? Specify.

7) Was it an enriching exercise? Specify.

8) Was it a memorable exercise? Specify.

9) Did you fully adopt a new persona?

10) Did you have fun?

11) Did Christiane Bostock achieve the aims of her GS?

7.10.2 Results of the Evaluation Questionnaires

Participant Evaluation. Global Simulation Globale Immersion Weekend: 'The Grange'
August 8-9, 1998: summary
N=17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>(Percentage in Brackets)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Did this GS lower your anxiety?</td>
<td>Yes: 10 (58.8); No: 5 (29.4); Positive Evaluation: 10 (58.8); Negative Evaluation: 5 (29.4); No Comment or Ambiguous Response: 2 (11.7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Did you suffer any incident which reduced your self-confidence?</td>
<td>Yes: 7 (41.1); No: 9 (52.9); Positive Evaluation: 9 (52.9); Negative Evaluation: 7 (41.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Did you suffer any incident which enhanced your self-confidence?</td>
<td>Yes: 13 (76.4); No: 2 (11.7); Positive Evaluation: 13 (76.4); Negative Evaluation: 2 (11.7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Could you recommend it to others as a way to reduce the level of foreign language communication anxiety?</td>
<td>Yes: 15 (88.2); No: 1 (5.8); Positive Evaluation: 15 (88.2); Negative Evaluation: 1 (5.8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Did you find this method intrusive?</td>
<td>Yes: 1 (5.8); No: 16 (94.1); Positive Evaluation: 16 (94.1); Negative Evaluation: 1 (5.8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Did this method invoke painful memories?</td>
<td>Yes: 2 (11.7); No: 15 (88.2); Positive Evaluation: 15 (88.2); Negative Evaluation: 2 (11.7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Was it an enriching experience?</td>
<td>Yes: 16 (94.1); No: 0 (0); Positive Evaluation: 16 (94.1); Negative Evaluation: 0 (0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Was it a memorable exercise?</td>
<td>Yes: 11 (64.7); No: 0 (0); Positive Evaluation: 11 (64.7); Negative Evaluation: 0 (0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Don't Know</th>
<th>Partial</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. Did you fully adopt a new persona?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(58.8)</td>
<td>(23.5)</td>
<td>(58.8)</td>
<td>(23.5)</td>
<td>(17.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Did you have fun?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(100)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Did Christiane Bostock achieve the aims of her GS?</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(76.4)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(76.4)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
<td>(23.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTAL 187**

145 22 20

(77.5) (11.7) (10.6)

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1. Adapted from Horwitz and Young, 1991: 160-162
2. The inappropriate use of this word “suffer” is acknowledged and regretted.
3. Typographical error; should read “evoke”.

### 7.10.3 Conclusions from the Summary of the Participant Evaluation

The first point to be made is that, as we have already noted, learning a language can be, for an adult, an extremely intimidating, anxiety-producing undertaking, and so therefore an extremely high evaluation result cannot be expected.

This notwithstanding, an overall positive evaluation of the weekend as 77.5% can only be interpreted as a powerful and incontrovertible confirmation of the efficiency of the technique.

Taking individual questions, it is notable that 0% of responses indicated that Christiane Bostock did not achieve the aims of her GS. Of the four ‘no comment’ or ambiguous responses, some were of the nature ‘I hope so’ indicating a positive evaluation.

In regard to the questions relating to lowering anxiety (1), ‘reduced self-confidence’ (2) or ‘painful memories’ (6) the relatively high proportion of negative responses (29.4%), (41.1%), (11.7%), can be interpreted as a failure in this instance of the GS.
method to completely overcome residues of anxiety and other damage caused by inappropriate technique in the past.

Of the relatively high proportion of participants reporting difficulties in adopting a new persona (23.5%), some expressed lack of confidence in their own acting ability, or the wish for further experience in this technique before evaluation.

The strongest individual endorsements came from question 4 (recommendation of the technique to others) (88.2%) and question 10 'Did you have fun?' 100%. The latter is in agreement with the principles of humanistic education as exposed by Stevick (1990).

The evaluations confirm the hypothesis that Global Simulation is an effective technique in the overcoming of anxiety among adult learners of French. The Journals and the Practical thesis give further amplification of this conclusion.
Chapter eight

Conclusion

As established in my thesis, one of the most examined topics of speech communication is the tendency in certain individuals to avoid and even fear oral communication as they are too anxious. Anxiety is commonly described as a state of apprehension and communication anxiety as an abnormally high and debilitating fear associated with real or anticipated communication with one or more persons. As we have seen also in chapter four, anxiety is associated with the desire to be perfect when speaking, a fear of making mistakes, a sense of low self esteem, and high feelings of self consciousness.

When we referred to the Transactional Analysis theory (chapter four), we, as language teachers, were interested in making connections with the Child ego state of our students. In their memory tapes feelings of inadequacy are often enclosed. They may remember having been wrong, of having been the object of disapproval, correction and punishment. Stevick (1978: 78) said that the storage of feelings alongside linguistic material may cast light on the aetiology of a disease that can appear at any level of language programmes: lathophobic aphasia or the unwillingness to speak for fear of making a mistake, as seen in chapter four of this thesis. There are many adult students who exhibit perfectionist behaviour.

As we saw earlier, the presentation of the self-image is the first law of psychological survival. The public scrutiny of our self-image can be debilitating or invigorating, but the need for success and achievement must also be fulfilled. However when we learn a foreign language, new information is imposed on us and we may infer that, what we already know is inadequate, we may feel ignorant, powerless, constantly evaluated and therefore our primacy is denied. The lessening of a feeling of primacy does not necessarily come from outside; in chapter four we saw that our own divided-self is in constant battle with our critical self and our performing self, with the result of an increasing level of anxiety and tension and lessening of performance. Littlewood’s concept of reduced personality is akin to Stern’s concept of infantilisation or loss of adult status as
discussed in chapter four. We are influenced also as language learners by a degree of tolerance of ambiguity. Ambiguous situations are characterized by novelty, complexity or insolubility and tolerance of ambiguity defined as the tendency to perceive such situations as acceptable as discussed in chapter four.

We also saw the view of Stengal (Schumann, 1978: 166), a refugee psychoanalyst who had settled in England, and who had made some observations on the emotional resistances of adult learners who were learning a foreign language in a foreign country. He remarked upon the dread of appearing comical, the uncertainties caused by idiomatic uses and certain similarities between language defeat in pathological conditions such as aphasia and epilepsy and the difficulties experienced by the learners of second languages. Schumann, (1978) as discussed previously, drew attention to affective and sociocultural problems in learning a second language. He developed the concept of acculturation, i.e. the social and psychological integration of the learner with the target language group.

We also saw that shyness, defined by Buss (1988) as discomfort, inhibition and awkwardness in social situations, especially with people who are not familiar, can have the same effects as communication apprehension, that is to say, withdrawal, reticence, inhibitions and the avoidance of social contacts and emotional components like fear, self-consciousness or both. When people are confronted with a situation which they assume will make them uncomfortable they react with a fight or flight process concepts. The most common one amongst those who experience communication apprehension is the flight reaction with avoidance or withdrawal. Crookall and Oxford, (1991) state that it lowers students' self esteem, reduces their self confidence, strengthens inhibitions, lessens willingness to take risks and decreases the possibility of achieving a high degree of language proficiency. We also examined the thoughts of McCroskey (1991) who added that a high level of communication apprehension is a potential inhibition of the development of both communication competence and communication skill and is a direct precursor of negative communication affect. It will be a barrier to communication competence and the acquiring of communication skills and will lead to a dislike of what is feared and makes us anxious.
In chapter two, I examined the challenge of adult learning and teaching considering several approaches of learning (the Behaviourist approach, the Cognitive-Gestalt approach and the Humanist approach) and the problem associated with the effects of ageing on learning abilities, the concepts of self and personality and motivation and the use of andragogy in the context of adult learning.

As in this thesis, I have been mainly concerned with the teaching/learning situation and the learning induced, influenced by my teaching, I felt the need to dedicate chapter three to the challenges of language learning and teaching. I explored therefore, various methodologies such as Grammar-Translation Method, Direct Method, Reading Method, The Audiolingual Method, the Audiovisual Method and Cognitive Theory Method. Apart from the above six, I examined five methods which are more humanistic in their aims, that is to say, the Silent Way, Suggestopædia, The Community Language Learning and the Communicative Language Teaching Method and the Total Physical Response Approach.

In chapter five, I looked at techniques to overcome anxiety in communication, some aimed at reducing communication apprehension (Biofeedback, Systematic Desensitization, Rational Emotive Therapy, Cognitive Restructuring) and some aimed at improving communication skills (the Skills Approach and the Relational Competence Model). Based on the concept of competence, the impression that a person has of self or other, it includes five fundamental processes (motivation an affective approach or avoidance response to a particular communication situation; knowledge the repertoire of behavioural patterns and strategies upon which a person draws to communicate; skills the necessary tools to converse successfully in a new language; outcomes which include communication satisfaction, relational trust and interpersonal attraction and context which demands that attention be given to the subjective dimensions of environment as well as to its objective features).

I examined Curran’s (Richards and Rogers, 1986) Counseling-Learning Theory again after having examined his theory in chapter three and looked at the qualities needed from teachers, learners and environment in the partnership of learning/teaching to overcome in my adult students communication anxiety. In
my experiment with the Global Simulation at a weekend held at the Grange, in Campbell Town, Tasmania in August 1998, and entitled *Un voyage en train et ses aléas* (A voyage by train and its hazards) I used the techniques described in chapter five: anxiety graphs based on Brownell and Katula (1984), journals as advocated in chapter five by Foss and Reitzel (1991), some of the ideas advocated by Campbell and Ortiz (Foss and Reitzel, 1991) to cement the group dynamics (I used icebreakers) and their questionnaire on foreign language learning.

Rodgers (1978) said (chapter three) humanistic approaches like the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Communicative Language Teaching, aim at teaching communicative competencies in a more individualised and personalised way, putting more emphasis on

- message meanings
- communication
- problem solving
- context interpreting strategies
- creating content
- student-student interaction
- extra-linguistic and paralinguistic devices
- physical teaching environments and
- more attention to positive first-language transfer

(Rodgers, 1978: 252)

I created in the Global Simulation *Un voyage en train et ses aléas* (A voyage by train and its hazards) a humanistic experience in which communicative interaction occurred. I tried to put in practice Freire’s philosophy, as seen in chapter six, that ‘through dialogue, the teacher-of-the students and the students-of-the teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with students-teachers. The teacher is no longer merely the me-who is teaching, but me who is himself taught in dialogue with the students, who in turn while being taught also teach. They become jointly for the process in which all grow’ (Jarvis, 1992: 244-245). As the videotape component shows, leaders and participants became travelling companions in the *ill-fated* Nîmes-Paris train. The Global Simulation requires the techniques referred to above, as defined by Rodgers (1978) and these emphases were indeed adhered to in the Global Simulation. When the characters are defined with their physical characteristics, their psychological make up, their autobiography and when they dress up in their new clothes they are able to convey meaning and create content. They also interpret context and
interact with the participants (students and teachers) in a more meaningful fashion and in an uninhibited way. Their true self has nothing to lose as they have become fictitious characters and they can choose their degree of infantilisation, as indeed they can become a child in Global Simulations. They are virtually put in-situ in the target culture and they must consider a new set of cultural rules to follow or to break. In the Global Simulation there is no loss of status either and the emphasis is not on the desire to be perfect. The emphasis on interacting in a pleasant and fun manner within the new world that the participants have created. They develop coping strategies to enhance their own linguistic participation in a group with which their new persona identifies. The ethnocentric masks come down and the participants do not have time to fall into the trap of anomie; they do not have the time to fearfully anticipate a new cultural group as they are too busy belonging to that group already. Within the new world created each student grows in self-worth and self-understanding and shifts from being the learner to the knower as needs arise.

As we saw in chapter seven, in Global Simulations no evaluation in terms of correctness of the grammar is done; thus the fear of making a mistake is replaced by a desire to communicate as fluently as possible and a desire to live happily and successfully in a make-believe world that has been stripped of most of its anxiety-creating demands and where the aim is to understand one another, to reconstitute the puzzle of life in a meaningful interaction. Evaluation is the act of determining the value of an unknown in terms of that which is known. At best, precision of measurement is difficult and frequently impossible in education (Garvey, 1971: 204). Is it possible to evaluate a Global Simulation activity? Is it possible to evaluate a lecture or a group discussion?

Simulations have a high motivational function (Garvey, 1971: 205). As we saw in chapter seven, Garvey observed students previously hesitant to participate in class discussions, who begin to voice their opinions in a simulated situation (1971: 26). They dress for the part, motivated as they are to adopt changed behaviour patterns, go to the library to research their roles. Students state in overwhelming numbers that simulations are enjoyable. 'If students find a learning situation enjoyable, it is reasonable to expect that they will learn more than if they are compelled to take part in an unenjoyable situation. That performance improves in pleasant surroundings compared with usual
performance in less pleasant surroundings is widely accepted' (1971: 212). There is no doubt that the environment provided at The Grange was conducive to high level of motivation, and contributed to the sense of fun and the climate of relaxation.

Did Un voyage en train et ses aléas (A voyage by train and its hazards) bring together all the pieces of the puzzle presented throughout this thesis to produce a meaningful educational experience for its adult learning participants by lowering their levels of anxiety? Adhering with the procedures of the Ethics Committee of the Northern Territory University, three instruments of evaluation were used: a Participant Evaluation, a Personal Journal, and a videotaped record of proceedings. The results of the Participant Evaluation presented, the transcripts of the journals (included in Appendix 4) and the edited version of the videotape which accompanies this written thesis as a Practical Thesis show clearly that the Global Simulation technique is an invaluable tool to overcome anxiety in adult students who are communicating orally.
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Appendices

These instruments were given to the participants in the Global Simulation weekend. Of the 17 participants 8 were teachers of French (4 teaching in Private Schools, 4 in State Schools). Two were teachers but not of French and were students in my evening class. Two were teachers in the Distance Education section of the Department of Education in Tasmania but were not teaching French. One participant was a member of the Art School (University of Tasmania). The other four were students of French in my evening class. So of the 17 participants, 8 were my students.

The following appendices are included

Appendix A  The Ideal Language Learner questionnaire
Appendix C  Survey of Attitudes specific to the Foreign Language Classroom.
Appendix D  The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
Appendix E  Anxiety graphs
Appendix F  Journals
Appendix A:
The Ideal Language Learner questionnaire
In this survey the participants had to rank the five characteristics which, in their opinion, were displayed by the ideal language learner.

Here are the results gathered at the Global Simulation weekend at the Grange.

The Ideal Language Learner

Using the list below, rank (1 to 5 = highest to lowest) the five characteristics that, in your opinion, the ideal language learner displays:

1. Intelligence (1,5,5,3,2,5,2,3,3,5)
2. Cooperative spirit (1,5,4)
3. Motivation (2,4,2,1,1,1,3,1,1,1,1,4,1,1)
4. Extroverted (2,4)
5. Perseverance (=firm or obstinate spirit of continuation; persistance) (5,4,2,3,2,5,2,5)
6. Fortitude (=courage in pain or adversity) (-)
7. Open-mindedness (2,1,5,3)
8. Mastery in the first language (4,2,1,2,2)
9. Self-discipline (1,5,3)
10. Good study skills (i.e., knowing how to study well) (4,4,3,4,4,2)
11. Risk-taking spirit (3,3,1,2,3,5,5,3,4,2,1,3)
12. Maturity (-)
13. Patience (4)
14. Curiosity (4,4,5,3,4)

15. Positive attitude toward required tasks (e.g., completion of a language program) (3,2,4,4,1,5,5)

16. Hard-working spirit (2,5)

17. Task orientation (i.e., desire to achieve academic or physical heights) (-)

18. Achievement-orientation (i.e., desire to achieve academic or physical heights)

19. Competitive spirit (-)

20. Creativity (5,3)

(Adapted from Campbell and Ortiz, Horwitz and Young, Language Anxiety From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications, 1991: 168).
The McCroskey Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

Directions:

This instrument is composed of 22 statements concerning your feelings about communication with other people. Please indicate in the space provided the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you 1) Strongly Agree, 2) Agree, 3) Are Undecided, 4) Disagree, or 5) Strongly Disagree with each statement. There are no right or wrong answers. Many of the statements are similar to other statements. Do not be concerned about this. Work quickly, and just record your first impression.

____ i. I dislike participating in group discussions.

____ ii. Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.

____ iii. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.

____ iv. I like to get involved in group discussions.

____ v. Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.

____ vi. I am calm and relaxed while participating in group discussions.

____ vii. Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.

____ viii. Usually I am calm and relaxed while participating in meetings.

____ ix. I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.

____ x. I am afraid to express myself at meetings.
xi. Communicating at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable.

xii. I am very relaxed when answering questions at a meeting.

xiii. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous.

xiv. I have no fear of speaking up in conversations.

xv. Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.

xvi. Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.

xvii. While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed.

xviii. I am afraid to speak up in conversations.

xix. I have no fear of giving a speech.

xx. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.

xxi. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.

xxii. While giving a speech I get so nervous, I forget facts I really know.

(Adapted from Meijas, Applbaum, Applbaum, Trooter, Language Anxiety From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications, 1991. In Horwitz and Young, p 90.)
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Key: 1 = strongly agree  2 = agree  3 = undecided  4 = disagree  5 = strongly disagree
This survey was administered anonymously so the results were not matched with the journals. Note that the number given to each participant does not match the number given to the journal.

This instrument consisted of 22 statements (I regret the typographical error, which, in the survey given to the students states “24”).

The first question stated ‘I dislike participating in group discussions’. The answers showed that two participants only strongly agreed, one participant agreed, one was undecided, seven disagreed, six strongly disagreed. The second question stated, ‘Generally I am comfortable while participating in group discussions’. The answers showed that three participants strongly agreed, twelve agreed, one disagreed and one strongly disagreed.

The third question stated ‘I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions’. To this one strongly agreed, three agreed, three were undecided, eight disagreed and two strongly disagreed.

The fourth questions stated ‘I like to get involved in group discussions’. To this five strongly agreed, eleven agreed, only one strongly agreed.

The fifth question stated ‘Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous’. To this one strongly agreed, three agreed, two were undecided, eight disagreed and three strongly disagreed.

The sixth question stated ‘I am calm and relaxed while participating in group discussions’. There were two participants who strongly agreed, eight who agreed, four who were undecided, two who agreed and one who strongly disagreed.

Question seven stated ‘Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting’. The answers were: five who agreed, one who was undecided, eight who disagreed and three who strongly disagreed.

Question eight stated ‘Usually I am calm and relaxed while participating in meetings’. To this question 4 strongly agreed, seven agreed, two were undecided three disagreed and one strongly disagreed.
Question nine stated 'I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting'. To this, one strongly agreed, four agreed, three were undecided and eight disagreed, one strongly disagreed.

Question ten stated, 'I am afraid to express myself at meetings'. The answer to question ten were; one strongly agreed, two agreed, two were undecided, eight disagreed, four strongly disagreed.

Question eleven stated 'Communicating at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable'. The participants answered this way: two strongly agreed, three were undecided, nine disagreed, three strongly disagreed.

Question twelve stated 'I am very relaxed when answering questions at a meeting'. The answers were: seven agreed, 5 were undecided, four disagreed and one strongly disagreed.

Question thirteen stated 'While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous'. The answers given were: five agreed, two were undecided, six disagreed and four strongly disagreed.

Question fourteen stated 'I have no fear of speaking up in conversations'. To this question the answers were: one strongly agreed, eleven agreed, four were undecided and one disagreed.

Question fifteen stated 'Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations'. Two agreed, ten disagreed and five strongly disagreed.

Question sixteen stated, 'Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations'. The answers were as follows: three strongly agreed, ten agreed, three were undecided and one disagreed.

Question seventeen stated 'While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed'. The answers given were as follows: three strongly agreed, seven agreed, three were undecided and four disagreed.

Question eighteen stated 'I am afraid to speak up in conversations'. Answers given were: one agreed, twelve disagreed and four strongly disagreed.
Question nineteen stated 'I have no fear of giving a speech'. The answers were: two strongly agreed, four agreed, one was undecided, five disagreed, two strongly disagreed.

Question twenty stated 'Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid when giving a speech'. Answers given were: two strongly agreed, six agreed, three undecided, five disagreed and one strongly disagreed.

Question 21 stated 'I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence'. To which two strongly agreed, five agreed, seven disagreed and three strongly disagreed.

The last question stated 'While giving a speech I get so nervous, I forgot facts I really know'. The answers were as follows: two strongly agreed, three agreed, three were undecided, eight disagreed and one strongly disagreed.
Appendix C:
Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom
Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom*

Please answer parts I and II below. Take as long as you need to answer each question. Your answers are anonymous.

I. Experience with the foreign language

1. Were any of your immediate family members (father, mother, brothers, or sisters) born overseas?
   Where?

2. Were you born overseas?
   Where?

3. Do any of your immediate family members speak a foreign language fluently (not slightly)?
   Which family member(s)?
   Which language(s)?

4. Do you speak a foreign language fluently (not slightly)?
   Which one(s)?
   Did you learn at home or in a school?

5. Below, fill in the number of years that you studied the foreign language(s) at school. First, identify the language; then, place the number of years.

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II. Attitudes specific to the foreign Language Classroom

Please respond to the statements below using the following scale:

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

Once again, please take your time thinking about each answer. Your answers are anonymous.

1. It is necessary to have a special aptitude (i.e., an inborn talent) in order to learn a foreign language well.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

2. It is necessary to have a special intelligence (i.e., a higher I.Q.) in order to learn a foreign language well.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

3. It is necessary to have a special "ear" in order to learn a foreign language well.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

4. I become anxious when I have to speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

5. I feel silly when I have to speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

6. I become anxious when I am being spoken to in a foreign language in a classroom setting.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

7. I become anxious when I am asked to write in a foreign language in a classroom setting.

1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
8. I become anxious when I have to read in a foreign language in a classroom setting.
   1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

9. I fear making a mistake when I speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting.
   1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

10. I fear not understanding what the teacher is saying in a foreign language when I am in a foreign language classroom.
    1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

11. I fear making a mistake in writing in a foreign language in a classroom setting.
    1. 2. 3. 4. 5.

12. I fear making a mistake in reading in a foreign language in a classroom setting.
    1. 2. 3. 4. 5.
Survey of Attitudes specific to the Foreign Language Classroom.

This survey was administered anonymously. The number which appears next to the participant does not refer to the number assigned to the journal. No correlation can therefore be made between these various instruments. The participants answered using their following scale:

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Undecided
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

It is interesting to compare the results of the survey with the number of years of study.

Statement one said 'It is necessary to have a special attitude (i.e. an inborn talent) in order to learn a foreign language well'. The answers were as follows: six agreed, four were undecided, three disagreed, three strongly disagreed.

Statement two said 'It is necessary to have a special intelligence (i.e., a higher I.Q.) in order to learn a foreign language'. The answers were: five agreed, three were undecided, five disagreed and three strongly disagreed.

Statement three said 'It is necessary to have a special "ear" in order to learn a foreign language well'. The answers were: eight agreed, five were undecided and three disagreed.

Statement four said 'I become anxious when I have to speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting'. The answers were: five agreed, four were undecided, five disagreed and two strongly disagreed.

Statement five said 'I feel silly when I have to speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting'. The answers were: one agreed, four were undecided, four disagreed and seven strongly disagreed.

Statement six said 'I become anxious when I am being spoken to in a foreign language in a classroom setting'. To this the participants answered as
follow: five agreed, two were undecided, eight disagreed and one strongly disagreed.

Statement seven stated 'I become anxious when I am asked to write in a foreign language in classroom setting'. The answers were: three agreed, one was undecided, nine disagreed and three strongly disagreed.

Statement eight said 'I become anxious when I have to read in a foreign language in a classroom setting'. The answers were: five agreed, seven disagreed and four strong disagreed.

Statement nine said 'I fear making a mistake when I speak in a foreign language in a classroom setting'. The answers given were: one strongly agreed, seven agreed, two were undecided, three disagreed and tree strongly disagreed.

Statement ten said 'I fear not understanding what the teacher is saying in a foreign language when I am in a foreign language classroom'. The participants answered this way: two strongly agreed, seven agreed, one was undecided, five disagreed, one strongly disagreed.

Statement eleven said, 'I fear making a mistake in writing in a foreign language in a classroom setting'. With which one strongly agreed, two agreed, one remained undecided, 10 disagreed and two strongly disagreed.

Statement twelve said 'I fear making a mistake in reading in a foreign language in a classroom setting'. The participants answered this way: one strongly agreed, two agreed, two were undecided, nine disagreed and two strongly disagreed.

The survey results thus showed that anxiety is a problem for a significant proportion of the student population and therefore is a real barrier to learning.
## Survey of Attitudes specific to the Foreign Language Classroom: Results

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<td>No answer</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Key:** 1 = strongly agree  
2 = agree  
3 = undecided  
4 = disagree  
5 = strongly disagree
Appendix D:
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
| Participant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1           | N | D | A | A | SA | SD | A | A | D | SD | D | A | N | A | A | D | A | D | D | D | A | D | D | D | A | D | SD | SD | D | - |
| 2           | A | D | SD | N | A | SD | A | A | N | D | D | D | A | SD | D | SD | N | D | N | SD | N | A | D | SD | SD | SD | SD | N | D | D | D | SD |
| 3           | N | D | A | N | A | D | N | N | N | N | B | A | N | D | N | A | N | A | D | A | N | D | D | N | D | N | D | A | N | N | D | D |
| 4           | A | D | A | A | A | SD | N | D | A | D | D | D | A | A | D | A | A | SD | D | D | D | A | A | D | D | A | A | A | A | D | D | A |
| 5           | D | A | D | D | A | N | N | N | N | D | D | N | A | D | A | N | D | N | D | D | N | D | D | N | D | N | N | N | N | D | D | A |
| 6           | SD | SD | SD | SD | SA | SD | SA | SD | SD | SD | A | SD | N | SA | SD | SD | N | SD | SD | SD | SD | SD | SD | SD | SA | SD | SD | SD | SD | A | SD |
| 7           | A | A | D | N | A | D | N | N | A | N | D | N | D | D | N | D | D | D | N | D | D | N | D | N | D | D | N | A | A | A | N |
| 8           | D | A | D | SD | SA | D | N | N | D | N | D | N | D | D | SD | D | N | SD | N | D | SD | D | N | D | N | D | D | A | SD | D | D | SA |
| 9           | A | N | N | A | A | D | A | D | N | D | N | D | A | D | A | D | A | D | N | A | D | D | N | N | N | D | D | - | N | N | N | SA | D | D | N |
| 10          | A | N | D | D | A | N | N | D | N | N | A | A | N | D | N | D | N | N | D | D | D | N | D | N | N | N | D | D | D | D |
| 11          | D | A | D | D | SA | N | A | A | D | N | A | D | A | N | D | SD | A | D | D | A | D | A | D | A | D | D | A | D | D | D | D |
| 12          | SA | A | N | SD | A | N | A | N | SD | SD | D | A | SD | A | SD | SD | SD | N | SD | N | D | A | SD | D | SD | N | SD | A | SD | D | SD | A |
| 13          | N | A | D | N | D | N | SA | D | A | A | D | N | A | B | SD | N | N | N | D | N | N | N | N | A | SD | A | N | D | N | N | N |
| 14          | N | N | A | D | A | D | N | A | D | D | N | D | D | N | D | N | D | A | D | A | D | D | D | D | A | A | D | D | D | A | N |
| 15          | SA | D | SA | A | N | D | A | SD | SA | B | D | SA | N | SD | A | SD | D | D | A | D | N | A | SA | N | N | A | A | A | A | N | D |
| 16          | A | A | SD | SD | S | SD | SD | A | D | D | D | SD | N | SD | SD | N | SD | SD | SD | N | D | D | SD | D | N | D | SD | SD | SD | N | SD |
| 17          | A | D | SD | SD | S | SD | SD | A | A | D | D | D | SD | SD | SD | A | SD | SD | SD | D | A | A | SD | A | D | A | D | D | D | D | D |
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Adapted from Horwitz 1983)

Please circle the letter that best describes your attitude:

SA = Strongly agree
A = Agree
N = Neither agree nor disagree
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly disagree

1) I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Participant 1 did not answer

2) I don’t worry about making mistakes in my language class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

3) I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in my language class.

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<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
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4) It frightens me when I don’t understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.

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<th>SA</th>
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<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>5</td>
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5) It wouldn’t bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.

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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</table>
6) During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.

   SA  A  N  D  SD
   0   0   5   6   6

7) I keep thinking that the other students in the language class are better than I am.

   SA  A  N  D  SD
   1   7   7   0   2

8) I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.

   SA  A  N  D  SD
   1   6   5   4   1

9) I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.

   SA  A  N  D  SD
   1   3   4   7   2

10) I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.

    SA  A  N  D  SD
    0   2   4   7   4

11) I don’t understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.

    SA  A  N  D  SD
    0   2   3   9   3

12) In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.

    SA  A  N  D  SD
    1   9   1   6

13) It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.

    SA  A  N  D  SD
14) I would *not* be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.

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15) I get upset when I don’t understand what the teacher is correcting.

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16) Even if I am well prepared for my language class, I feel anxious about it.

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17) I often feel like not going to my language class.

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18) I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.

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19) I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

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20) I can feel my heart pounding when I’m going to be called on in language class.

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21) The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.

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22) I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.

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23) I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.

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24) I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.

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25) Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.

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26) I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.

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</table>

Participant 9 did not answer

27) I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.

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<td>8</td>
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28) When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.

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<td>9</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</table>
29) I get nervous when I don’t understand every word the language teacher says.

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30) I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.

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<td>8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

31) I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.

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<th>SD</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

32) I would probably feel more comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
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<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
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33) I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven’t prepared in advance.

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Participant 1 did not answer.

(Campbell and Ortiz, in Horwitz and Young, *Language Anxiety From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications*, 1991: 32-33).

This shows that generally in language classes participants were not quite sure of themselves, worried about making mistakes and considered themselves as inferior in ability to other participants.

Although participants in general were not nervous speaking French with native speakers and were not embarrassed about answering questions in class, they were still nervous and stated that they forgot things they knew because of this nervousness.
Appendix E: Anxiety Graphs
### Participant 1

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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

255
Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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Before the Communication Remarks | Remarks Communication After the Communication
Opening Response Closing
Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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Before the | Opening | Response | Closing | After the | Communication |
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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Before the | Opening | Response | Closing | After the | Communication |
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
Participant 5

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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

Opening speech - introduction (bibliographic)

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
LEVEL OF ANXIETY

Very high 7
High 6
Moderately high 5
Moderate 4
Moderately low 3
Low 2
None 1

Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

"The roof came to speak, explaining our positions."

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

LEVEL OF ANXIETY

Very high 7
High 6
Moderately high 5
Moderate 4
Moderately low 3
Low 2
None 1

Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

"The wagon" (sic) then came with other..."
LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
### LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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- X marks indicate specific times of heightened anxiety.

#### Anxiety Graph

(Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

---

264
# Participant 9

## LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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**Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)**

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**Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)**

265
Participant 9

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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
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High 6
Moderately high 5
Moderate 4
Moderately low 3
Low 2
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Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

LEVEL OF ANXIETY

Very high 7
High 6
Moderately high 5
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Low 2
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Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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Low 2
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Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

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Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz, and Young, 1991)
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

LEVEL OF ANXIETY
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
### Anxiety Graph

Anxiety Graph *(Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)*

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Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
 LEVEL OF ANXIETY

Very high 7
High 6
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Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)

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Before the Opening Response Closing After the Communication Remarks Remarks Communication

Anxiety Graph (Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)
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**Anxiety Graph** *(Bromwell and Katula, Horwitz and Young, 1991)*

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Appendix F
Journals
I know that my French conversation at present is very rusty. I love French; it was the first foreign language I learnt and I was taught very well at school and at university. But that was 30 years ago and I have just returned to teaching French last year after 25 years. In the meantime, I have taught German and learnt and am currently teaching Japanese.

Consequently, I fear my French has been neglected and is very out-of-date. Nevertheless, I have been able to make myself understood this week-end and have been able to understand most of what Christiane, Shane and Florence have said in the workshops.

I am really here for the fun of it and to make the most of the opportunity of taking up my love affair with French again. I have never visited France and this kind of immersion experience is the next best thing for me.

I still have plans and dreams to visit France and I have very happy memories of my first contacts with the language in Adrian Harmsen's classes at Hobart High in 1955. There my love of foreign language was awakened and the whole fabric of my life wonderfully enriched.

I really enjoyed this morning's session: the visit to the chapel and the confession of sins and the allocation of appropriate penances to the offenders. La sœur Florence était formidable!

It was fun, but also an insight into an important facet of French culture: the prayers, the language of the confessional and the phrases used by Florence as she listened to the list of sins.

From my childhood, I knew the equivalent expressions in English: it was fascinating to hear them today in French.

Allez en paix, mon enfant!

Our group worked well composing the prayer - everyone contributed ideas, following the model of the lord's prayer, which made the languages more authentic.

The second group composed a hymn which was very cleverly constructed (leader and chorus) and performed with true-to-life intonation.
When I started learning French in 1990 it was exactly 30 years since I had left school. My compulsory schooling took place under an authoritarian system, and although I did well, it was not a pleasure. The only rewards were marks.

So I started to learn French in part as an experiment to see if it was possible to do so "without really trying", - a game if you like. I realise now, that what I have learned so far was not really without trying, but the trying was not for the purpose of earning marks, but simply out of interest and fascination. My current competencies are probably very uneven. I think (it might well be an illusion) that I can read current (modern) French writing, novels and newspapers etc. with a fair degree of comprehension without using a dictionary too often. As for speaking ordinary subjects with friends are not a problem, and I could probably find my way around a French speaking country without too much trouble. "in depth" discussions (relatively speaking) pose more problems due to lack of vocab, but those that interest me most are easier.

2. I enjoy the intellectualism of traditional French culture. Modern French culture shows alarming signs of americanisation (it is not alone here). Maybe one day I shall have more time to explore the former.

3. I grew up terrified of making mistakes as one was quite often physically punished for doing so. So initially my first year at Adult Ed, - I found it very hard to speak, but I think it would have been so in any subject, not particularly because it was a foreign language. By now it does not worry me at all in an ordinary classroom or social situation. (Teachers here are totally different!).

However, having to present a previously prepared piece of work, standing in front of a group of people, and worse, having to wait for it is not my favourite activity; eg. presenting the "personnage" on Saturday. I don't think the anxiety in that situation had very much to do with the fact that I had to speak French. It would have been as bad in English. Depending on the audience one could forget the most basic facts, like one's own name.

Situations where I have to rely on my wits rather than preparation produce less anxiety (no apprehension, perhaps).

4. One can avoid negative episodes by choosing the right moment (and attitude) to approach people. It also helped to be a cyclist in France, as I found that most people there are well disposed to cyclists and would approach one spontaneously with the most astonishing information, and they appreciated visitors who tried to speak their language. Not very well put - learning anything must do something for self-esteem and confidence. But I didn't expect to be perfect or even to necessarily maintain a particular level, so I don't apply a
success/failure test everytime I speak French – just do the best I can at the time and leave it at that. My self esteem and self-confidence is not really tied to my ability to speak perfect French – although it might be so if for instance my job depended on it.
Journal 3

1. I am constantly trying to improve my competencies in French and I consider it a life-long learning experience. I am confident speaking with native speakers and I prefer that contact to situations with fellow learners. For my own selfish reasons I like to have those above my level help me improve my skills.

2. I am a francophile and I take advantage of any opportunity to learn more about the language, people and culture. My main limitations are time and money. I no longer teach French and my current responsibilities are very demanding as I have little time to pursue this interest.

3. I am not comfortable in “acting” situations. I am not theatrical and I am more inhibited about trying to be creative than I am about the actual use of the language. I admire those who are dramatic but this is not my character. I prefer discussions and presenting information or points of view. I continue to participate in simulation exercises (I’ve now attended four weekends) because I wish to be supportive. I feel that I receive more than I give though and wish that I could bring myself to be more extroverted.

Anxiety Graph 1

The first presentation of my “character” I know what to expect so I had some idea before I came. This idea changed continuously and even on the spot when I made my short presentation. I didn’t want to read my part so I ended up skipping sections which I had written. Afterwards I wished that I would have said more. I keep going back over what I said and I try to see how I could have improved it. Therefore my anxiety level was actually higher after the short presentation than before it.

Anxiety Graph 2

At dinner. In social situations such as the dinner, I’m usually anxious about where I will sit and who will be my dinner partner. At other such occasions I have found that the organizers sit together and have very lively spirited conversations leaving other tables to provide their own stimulation. I was delighted to see upon my arrival to the dining room that Christiane, Shane and Florence had taken separate tables. These people could animate a conversation and include those around them. As I was able to sit next to Christiane, I had a wonderful evening. It did not consist of banal, contrived conversations. I was able to get to know some of the others and enjoyed the evening.
Sunday morning confession
I started this activity with more confidence and a desire to try harder to participate. I volunteered quickly and tried my best but I was disappointed in myself. I had the same feeling of wanting to do it again and improve upon my first effort.

4. When I was an exchange student I was living with a fantastic family. There were three children and I was the same age as the middle one. We made a close friendship with all four of use (two girls, two boys) feeling like loving, caring brothers and sisters. None of the three were interested in English so they were anxious for me to improve my French speaking skills very quickly. They were extremely supportive and never made me feel uncomfortable.

One weekend the oldest brother was invited to the wedding of his friend. He was able to take a guest so he invited me. Though I was a few years younger than the others at our table for the wedding dinner, I felt very comfortable. I joined in the conversation the best that I could. The evening was going very well until I tried to express my opinion on the topic which was being discussed. I was in the middle of a sentence when my “brother’s” friend stopped me and asked my French brother how he could tolerate my poor French. He said that he should correct me when I made a mistake and not let me continue to insult the language as I was doing. He was very effective. I didn’t make another mistake for the rest of the meal because I felt so humiliated that I refused to speak another word.

Fortunately, this was an isolated incident. I had the support of my French family and friends and they helped me to gain confidence and improve my speaking skills. I accept that I will always make mistakes and have a distinct accent but I’m willing to take risks in order to make progress, no matter how gradual.
Having attended all the previous *stages d'immersion* I must admit from the beginning that this has the effect of reducing considerably any anxiety levels which might normally be experienced. I also feel that creating a character and playing a role which is definitely not 'you' helps people relax, and that many small group activities are more encouraging for those who may not feel very confident or their skill.

The individual presentation of one's character in front of the whole group is one activity where I certainly don't feel totally relaxed, even though I'm reasonably confident about my ability to speak. I still worry about tripping over my tongue and making errors of pronunciation because I'm not quite relaxed, and I'm always nervous of having to speak straight after someone who is very fluent, or someone who is very dramatic and amusing. On the other hand, the audience response helps ease the anxiety, and once the speech is over you can relax and enjoy the other presentations.

Being prepared in advance, the character presentation is probably easier than the unexpected, such as having to explain the missing items from one's suitcase. Having to improvise on the spot is probably more like a real life situation. My anxiety level at this point was, however, negligible compared with that experienced by the young cameraman, at least until we found an interpreter for him, given that his other language is Japanese. (Now, if I were to do a graph of my anxiety levels when preparing and presenting a speech for second-year University Japanese, which had to be done from memory, the difference would be considerable, as I still remember being practically paralysed with nerves, visibly trembling and feeling physically sick – all of which my fellow students, knowing me to be a teacher, found quite incomprehensible. This was also in front of the whole group, but by this time it was established that the group was sympathetic and non-critical, which eased the stress.

The activity of guessing the person's occupation was one which worked well in a small group because everyone was involved and each person could control his or her level of involvement. Because of this everyone, at least in our wagon, was encouraged to ask questions and it was a very relaxed activity. (Not that we didn't become mildly annoyed at having to give in on one of the six). The menu activity – trying to work out who had eaten what after the food-poisoning drama – was now – stressful for the same reasons, the only anxiety occurring when we thought the acting was a little too realistic and that one of the 'sick' people might have actually hurt herself.

French conversation in the breaks and at meals seems to follow on naturally from the workshop sessions and is very relaxing and enjoyable for me. (It reminds me of a past experience at the Alliance Française competitions, when a colleague greeted me in French. We had quite a long conversation in French while my Grade 7 & 8 students listened and watched open-mouthed, after she moved on down the corridor, one of the boys said, in awe and disbelief, “you
actually talk that stuff?! To which I could only reply that yes, it was a language, and talking is actually one of the main things you can do with it.)

**Sunday**
The idea of throwing ourselves on the tender mercies of the mother superior led to many enjoyable activities, which we didn’t really have much time to write about. The confessions were probably more relaxing for the non-believers, but the rest of us did have to listen carefully to choose the right ‘act of contrition’, which was fun. The writing of the prayer and the song were excellent co-operative exercises, and the ‘where are they now?’ activity to conclude was very entertaining.
While completing matric French, my level of competency rose so enormously I started to dream in French. I knew whether and which verbs took à or de after them. I was fully cognisant of all tenses and fluent in their use. My conversation skills needed practise but my writing was accurate and my vocab extensive.

When I did pre-tertiary French in California, my dreams in French continued.

It's a wonderful thing - to dream in another language. Now 20 years on, I am searching for this degree of accuracy and fluency, I know I once had. It is so sad to have had something of such value and to have lost it. The last 3 years of tertiary French plus several immersions at UNE and now here have not ensured a return to this degree of accuracy.

I love French but I recognise that my current competency is but a shadow of what I have possessed.

My perception of French culture... Wow a broad topic - teaching philosophy in school or calling French Fries “frites”. As a Francophile I like to pass on cultural links to my students we try French recipes; glean French cultural traditions from the France magazines and other new resource books; laugh at French idiom; learn a little French history and geography; research French people down the ages.

APPREHENSION
Atelier 1: this was scary 3 hours driving in a car. New people, strangers, and now presenting.... for the cameras! My anxiety levels went way higher than I even expected they would. Who was it who started explaining anxiety levels Christiane? Like Corporal Jones on Dad’s Army yelling “Don’t panic! don’t panic!, of course, everybody panics. Yes Atelier I was a great example of how to run an anxiety attack! I don’t think I was less confident in my ability, but I probably relied on my script more than was necessary, and I found it increasingly difficult to look at the audience because I was afraid of losing my place. Being afraid of losing my place → increased anxiety.

However interpersonal communication is a whizz. Most people seem to have occasional mental blocks like I do, and we help each other along. The games are fun. One’s vocab is like a disorganised toy box from which one must extricate certain toys in a certain order. The games just add another dimension to this. The “7 items in a valise game” I’m going to use in the classroom. It is one that can be adapted for most age groups likewise “Guess the métiers” would go down well with my 9/10’s (Are there patents pending/copyrights to these??).

I must say that all my French learning has been a positive learning experience. From early schooldays in UK, to flying through at High School, to the wonderful encouragement from (- - ) as well as my teachers at UNE. A Swiss
friend is also a terrific backup. All this help has worked to boost my self confidence, which continues to encourage me in my endeavors to learn, speak and teach French.

9/8/98 THE CONFESSION

C'est un bon jeu! Everyone entered into the spirit really well. The penalties fitted the owners.

As I waited while others had their turns I could feel my anxiety level rise. I was so cross that I had not brought a scarf with me (fundamental drama prop.) This increased my anxiety level.

When it came my turn, I had borrowed dark glasses from L'Inconnue and a scarf from mine host. Once into it, my level of anxiety reduced to nervousness. It was hard to understand La Bonne Soeur through the table, perhaps because I rely also on facial expressions and watching the lips for conversation cues. However it seemed a little hard to have to give up all my clothes and jewels make a religious song cassette and donating the profits to the poor was a much better suggestion. (Fancy suggesting I donate my clothes to the Africans!) La bonne soeur a été un moment fou, je pense!

Nous sommes les voyageurs
Dans le wagon du péché
Nous cherchons Dieu
Je cherche un ami
Je suis pleine de haine
Je cherche le paradis
J'ai les yeux fixés aux cieux
Je cherche l'éternité
Je veux me libérer du péché
Je cherche l'espoir de l'amour après la mort
On n'a pas peur du diable
Nous arrivons à notre destination
A la gare éternelle
Avec lui réunis en paix

OK here's one for the behaviourists. I'm really enjoying myself at this immersion, but why when I'm asked to go solo do I get the shakes? Another thing, I packed a new packet of Panadol in advance knowing that I may well suffer from headaches. (It would be a bad year for me to have headaches more than twice). Yet prior to lunch, I have taken a second dose of panadol. A cause de l'inquiétude? mon prof de français à l'uni de Tasmanie m'a dit que j'étais une anxieuse. Maintenant je pense qu'il a dit le vrai!

Un An Après

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La bonne sœur a changé ma vie. J’ai fait le disque pour les pauvres. Beaucoup de gens l’ont acheté et le couvent a ouvert deux autres à Paris pour pouvoir être plus généreux avec les pauvres. Maintenant je suis très heureuse de vous dire qu’il n’y a plus aucun pauvres en France à cause de ce disque, et un petit iseaup m’a dit qu’on a envoyé une lettre au Pape demandant que je sois canonisée immédiatement. Je suis vraiment “La Reine de coeurs” en France.
At first I was a little nervous and curious about what was going to happen before the Global Simulation started. I could understand most of what was being said but as a general rule as the day progressed I found myself losing my grip on the language and found I could understand less and less. Although maybe it was more that I had to concentrate a lot harder to understand.

I guess I knew we were going to be put in uncomfortable situations but I wasn't quite prepared for introducing myself in another character. I guess it wasn't okay but I found that I was nervous and that interfered with my presentation. I became less fluent and more halting in speaking in French and my pronunciation goes. I found the conversation times easier when it was just talking to a smaller group of people or 1 or 2 people in French.

I found a definite link with confidence and ability to speak and understand French. The less confident I felt, the worse I would be speaking or understanding. Realising that many others in the group were so much better than me at French, made me feel a bit daunted and more conscious of my own mistakes. At certain times it was counterproductive to be immersed. I agree that being immersed in French is very good and valuable probably the best way to learn a language, and most of the day this was the case. But at times it was frustrating if there wasn’t an opportunity to get a translation or a few clues about what was being said or if everything was too fast to understand. By the end of the day my brain was reeling from so much concentration! At other times during the day I found my confidence returning so therefore my French improved.

Playing the character was fairly nerve-racking, especially when I was called upon or singled out. Doing that sort of thing is hard enough in English let alone in French. But it was also very entertaining. I think I understood about 50/50 most of the time. Sometimes more sometimes less. Less usually when I was less confident or getting tired.

The element of surprise was good if disconcerting levels of anxiety increased, I think.

I think that there were many levels of competence at speaking and understanding French and that I felt fairly close to the bottom level of ability. I found I could converse in a more relaxed way with my “contemporaries” rather than those “above my level of ability” – speaking with an expert, I was more conscious of all my mistakes and I felt that I had to say things correctly, whereas conversing in French with “my level of ability people” I was more able to laugh at my mistakes.

On Sunday I think I felt a bit more relaxed but then I think I felt a bit more like I knew my limitations and I didn’t get frustrated if I didn’t understand everything.
I think I understand the gist of most things and was pleased when I was able to get a joke.
At the beginning of the weekend, I had been feeling reasonably confident about my ability to communicate in French, although less confident about being able to understand instructions if given in French.

However, as I heard others speaking almost fluently, and realised that my level of competency was certainly well below that of others, I began to lose confidence. As the day progressed, and I heard more and more people speaking with each other and apparently understanding all of what each person was saying, my self-esteem lowered and I felt quite incapable because I was unable to understand them well, and was struggling to keep up.

I am not afraid to speak in French with people of a similar standard to me, nor am I afraid to speak with my teacher whose mother tongue is French, but with native English speakers whom I have never met before and who all speak French fluently (or close to fluently), I feel anxious. I feel nervous about saying things correctly and feel as though I must understand them properly the first time they say something without them having to repeat themselves. Whereas, with my teacher, I feel relaxed (in a classroom environment) and know that if I do not understand something, she will happily reword it for me and help me to understand.

I do not feel nervous to speak in French with native French speakers or my French teacher because I know that they know I am only a learner and they expect me to be making mistakes as part of the process of learning. But with people who are naturally English speaking, (particularly if I don’t know them or anything about their background, eg. they may have lived in France for several years or something, which would equip them with very good French) I feel as though I am expected to be at the same level as them. I feel as though they must have had the same circumstances as me, and therefore we should be able to understand things and speak at the same level. When I realise that I can’t keep up with them and they are obviously far more competent than me, I feel inferior and in some way a failure. “If we have had the same experiences, then why don’t we have the same level of (in)fluency in French?” I think to myself.

I realise this is not a reasonable way of thinking, and that in “real life”, people have different experiences as well as different levels of intelligence etc, and that I should not compare myself to others in terms of our ability to speak/understand French when I don’t compare myself with them in any other fields. Perhaps it was just because I didn’t realise there would be so many people here who are not from my class and who are so good at French. I was expecting the W/E to be attended by French students and until I discarded that all these people by whom I feel so intimidated are actually French teachers who have studied (and passed) French at university level, I was feeling useless and incompetent.
I guess my subconscious thought (in summary) was: "They're not French, and I'm not French, therefore we should be on the same level."

I see now that this attitude is irrational, so perhaps I will be more relaxed today. Having now analysed why I felt so anxious, and having realised that my reasoning is unsensible, perhaps my subconscious will cause my anxiety levels to lower.

Furthermore I should not be basing my esteem on how my level of competency compares to that of others. I should have my own standard or level of expectation for me, independent of others. When I was doing this I was happy with my understanding of French, and my ability to converse, but when I saw how much better everyone was than me, I think I subconsciously raised my standard and expectation for myself, to a level unrealistic for me. Naturally if my goals are too high, I will lose confidence when I fail to attain them.

I would be interested to see the video to see whether or not I can understand things better when I am not required to respond to them eg. The "confession" with Sister Maria – Theresa. I found that when it was my turn, I had to work hard to understand what was being said to me (because I was anxious); yet I found it much easier to understand what was said to others when it was their turn and I was merely watching.

When I was in Cambodia and Vietnam I had to converse in French with people, because they used French before English and many people could not speak English. I was comfortable and, while I know my French was much worse then than it is now (all present tense), minimal vocab), I did not feel anxious using French because I knew that everyone's expectation of me was low. That experience gave me the incentive to take up French when I returned to Australia, as I did. I enjoy it very much.
Journal 8

General Comments
I was surprised by the emphasis in the questionnaires or finding out anxiety levels. I don't really see any reason for anxiety here, learning French in Tasmania without any real possibility of a put-down. The competency of the teachers among the group is obviously way ahead of the secondary students (ie. me) but so what? We are where we are. Certainly those who are used to 'performity' to a class have little trouble in a simulation, but is this because they are being someone else, or because they are 'professional performers' anyway?

The exercise reminds me of a technique I've recently come across for relieving nerves in musical performances, where nerves have an even more critical effect. This involves getting the player to 'image-ine', - ie. run imagery and/or a story with the music, which seems to push aside a lot of self consciousness and anxiety.

It is very tiring to be always speaking French – like overuse of one particular muscle gives strain, so does so much French all at once. I think that's why the 'student students' rebelled at dinner and spoke English and drank rather too much wine.

YOUR QUESTIONS

1. I'm not currently very competent in French, having just this year begun to re-study it after some 27 years of Francophone silence. But things keep emerging from the depths of my school French, often when I least expect it.

2. French culture seems to be a mixed bag – of the sensual rather than intellectual, even when it's intellectual! It's a deal less restrained than the Tasmanian/Anglo Saxon culture. I look forward to being able to explore more of this culture – learning another language is like entering another, parallel world, or like seeing one bill board being stripped to progressively reveal another – but only partly, which sort of makes an even more interesting picture than either the first or second.

4. No negative episodes.
Preparation of his character

I had a reasonably good idea of his character before arriving at Campbell Town since I'd chosen an old wooden plane as my surprise object and had put about constructing a person who might be a cabinet maker. The 'no-bombs' shirt which was his principal selected item of clothing and that almost helped to clarify the character for me.

When we were sent off to begin defining his description, I found myself taking this thing far too seriously (possibly a good indication of my anxiety) and it was really only after hearing Shane, Christiane and Florence fabricating personality that I started to give his character a really melodramatic flavour and to start to 'act' it out.

The main problem for me is that while I'm reading French a lot, I haven't really spoken it for nearly ten years and, yes, I was anxious about this during the day. I found myself gravitating towards the people I know – amazing that I knew so many of the people at The Grange (!) – but even so felt frustrated with my lack of reasonably fluent French. The other surprising thing about the early part of the simulation was that I understood much, much more than I expected I would.

The character I had created after the 'breaking the ice' session was a little prosaic and especially after I had heard Kate Black introduce her character, I started to fiddle around with the descriptors/adjectives and to try to spin a tale. I knew it would be virtually impossible for me to deliver my speech 'ex tempore' so during lunch I went away and re wrote the piece along with several embellishments.

In the run up to my delivery I didn't really feel a big rise in anxiety although when it came to the actual moment I was very conscious of my accent and started to lose the rhythm. Being a lecturer, I am aware of the performative aspect of this kind of delivery. But felt hampered by the necessity to refer to the text all of the time and the fact that I couldn't stop hearing myself speak. Usually when I lecture I am more conscious of giving the information to others but in this situation I felt a bit like what it must have felt – I was listening to the voice as much as to the content. To have been able to have delivered it seamlessly would have been a joy.

The 'En Voiture' session was much more relaxing even though I knew that the objects in my valise would create a stir. Having to lie one's way out of being arrested for owning detonators and skeleton keys, is a good way to get the adrenaline going! I guess I continued to be worried about the accent and being conscious of having to construct every sentence. That lack of fluency is frustrating but I guess that I was aware of this long before getting to Campbell Town.
The various exercises during the afternoon were interesting and quite relaxing – low stress levels! What I noticed was that at times in the 'what profession do you have' we all reverted to single word questions – even the most fluent in the group.

All up a very interesting day. My level of stress can be gauged by the headache which isn't entirely the result of the lack of air, etc in the room!

At dinner our table conversed in French all of the time and I found that really interesting, partly because I was able to take time between to phrase questions and answers; also, it seemed much easier to be able to ask for a 'lost' word or phrase in that context; found myself discussing some quite complex issues in art as well as digital imaging. Stress levels were really quite low in that situation, particularly since we have the opportunity to sit back and listen for periods of time.

CURRENT COMPETENCY
I haven't spoken much in any form for close to ten years and so this weekend has been fairly daunting. I have been quite surprised that I can speak any French at all in anything like grammatical sentences and found that the exercises were very helpful! My comprehension was better than expected and was able to contribute to some of the games. The main problem in fluency in spoken French which will need several months of immersion to improve.

FRENCH CULTURE
I have a special interest in French nineteenth century art and art criticism and so have quite a detailed knowledge of this period in French history. Also, because of the fact that I'm involved with the management of the School of Art's Paris Studio at the Cité Internationale des Arts, I am getting constant positive feedback from a stream of artists who have been residents at the Cité.

SBS TV has been my favourite channel over the past 2 1/2 months with the 'Coupe du monde' and the hit 'Tour de France!'

SUNDAY
The Confession

I spent a little time thinking about how Roland Charpentier would respond to this situation and I really enjoyed constructing the piece with suitable melodrama. Although it was quite daunting, I understood what was required in the introduction and enjoyed Florence's assumption of the role of the sister. An inspired 'situation'. I felt much more in control with this simulation and less concerned about pronunciation, more concerned with delivery. I was surprised that I understood virtually all of the response. An enjoyable morning.
I learnt written French 30 years ago at high school and at University. The emphasis was firmly on written competency, with little or no spoken French at high school, and students at Melb. Uni (in my day!) simply expected to 'pick up' language skills.

Thus, I've had a good grounding in all the rules of French and have read a fair amount of French literature. This has certainly helped with my knowledge of French and my understanding of spoken and written French.

Over the last 30 years I have had to force myself to become more competent at speaking French - for my own satisfaction and to truly assist my students. I have certainly improved. A visit to Nouméa at age 18 was an excellent start, and I attended the Paris, - Manosque Stage in 1996. This helped enormously - mainly with confidence building and learning not to be afraid to make mistakes.

In January 1998, my husband and I visited France and I organised everything before and during our visit to Paris and Lyon. Again, this helped confidence, as part of the problem with speaking French is that in Launceston, there are very few opportunities to do so, except with students and that is very basic!

Knowing that you haven't used any French, except the most basic, for months leads to a lack of confidence - one feels one is 'losing' all the skills so painstakingly acquired.

On my visits to France, I have been impressed by the pride French have in their culture. Teachers at the stage were very knowledgeable about their country, its history and its politics. The French family I stayed with at Manosque were also interested in and curious about their culture and other cultures - very different from the 'laid back' attitude in Australia.

Negative incidents with languages have only occurred on a few occasions. When I have needed help (eg with maps, directions) I have been careful to ask politely. Australians can be inadvertently rude because we are more casual. People were extremely helpful most of the time, and this encouraged me to attempt more difficult questions etc. Lack of response/rudeness are devastating. The aspiring language speaker is a very fragile being! Interest, encouragement, tactful assistance were wonderful.

For me, most 'damage' was done when I was a young student - we were not encouraged to experiment with the language in any way and we rarely heard or experienced the spoken languages we studied. My knowledge of Italian progressed much faster because I heard and saw the language around me when I lived in Melbourne.
3. When speaking French, the worst anxiety is usually before speaking, rising to fear just before the first sentence. Once started, conversation seems more manageable.

Apprehension about speaking in a foreign language is worse when an unexpected response is required one feels more secure if words phrases etc. are already prepared in one’s mind. It is also much more threatening if I feel I have missed a key word in a question or description.

Speaking with less skilled speakers is much less threatening. Speaking about simple topics – weather, job, family are also less threatening. It is very difficult if I don’t know a word essential for my explanation and I can’t think of a way to re-phrase what I want to say.

It is more threatening to have to speak a foreign language when I haven’t thought or spoken in that language for some time eg. after weeks of work with grade 7 and 8 French, I feel I am ‘losing’ my ability to speak more sophisticated French.

Weekends such as this weekend are very helpful in regaining confidence – I discover that I haven’t really forgotten everything, and I re-discover my enthusiasm and pleasure in being able to express myself in another language and I will be active and anxious about improving my French for quite some time. Watching the French news regularly has also been helpful – in feeling that I can still understand French in learning more about what is happening in French and in learning new words.

My anxiety about speaking French (or Italian) definitely increases if I feel inadequate – in preparation in having the necessary vocabulary, in pursuing a negative response, or if the person I am about to speak to appears busy, not interested etc.

Over the weekend having models, lists etc. certainly helped me to feel more capable about tackling the various tasks set. The relaxed and accepting atmosphere made presentations not threatening at all.

Everyone enjoyed themselves – but I for one feel ready now to share my new enthusiasm and to share some of the skills I have learned.
Journal 11

Saturday 10.20am
All this talk of anxiety is a bit off putting – I’m feeling anxious about not being anxious. But I can relate to other people’s anxiety, especially if this is their first Global Sim. I was anxious at my first but as I love doing role plays etc I don’t feel anxious, I wish I hadn’t heard that word at all.

Sunday 9am
Yesterday started in a most amusing way as we all presented our characters. This for me was the highlight of the day – the activities we did were okay, but I would have preferred doing something further with our characters eg. writing them a letter or staging a conversation with a particular human. I remember doing this at another immersion weekend (at Port Huon) and it went well – although perhaps not for everyone.

I love the fact that there is a new and interesting mix of people – not just the same lot of (boring) teachers – the addition of the students is warmly welcomed. They are refreshingly ‘non teacherial’. Intelligent, different, interesting – it’s the first time I’ve met a group of French students who are not school students.

Back to anxiety – I do feel anxious whenever speaking to ( - - ) (in particular) as she is pretty scary and so teacherish. With someone like Florence I feel very relaxed and she is not teacherish, I can have a conversation without correcting pronunciation defaults. In fact, Florence is one of the least daunting French people I have ever met. I love her!

Whenever I’m in the company of French people, I feel fine if I’m the only non-French person I don’t at all mind being chatty and myself but in a group of French teachers it’s different. The fact is, I don’t like the teacher image and find that they are responsible for a lot of non-learning, even antilearning behaviours. I’ve lived and worked and traveled a lot in Francophone countries. I have never felt alienated because of my linguistic (in)competence.

Everything I’ve done in the way of PD since becoming a French teacher 7 years ago has increased my knowledge of the French, and their language. However I deplore the fact that most language teachers actually deteriorate in a linguistic sense unless they have a real commitment to PD.

The idea of having a nun was excellent! The scene at the confessional was hilarious in the extreme. Florence was a brilliant choice and the confession idea was great! All levels of language were catered for and the enjoyment level was very high.
Journal 12

I'm not sure about what I'm supposed to be doing. I can't understand everything they are saying.

I'm getting more nervous.

Christiane was helpful explaining things. I wish I was as good as the others.

It was a very full-on day yesterday. It was daunting to be with others who spoke much more fluently than me. It's hard too because I'm not understanding everything and this is a bit frustrating.

On the bright side I am finding thinking and speaking in French much more automatic. I am also understanding more French because I'm hearing it all the time.

Day 2
I'm anticipating it will be easier because I know the other people better and I am surprised at how much more French I am understanding.
As far as my current competency in the French language is concerned, I know I can converse/communicate/make myself understood.

However I also know that my standard of spoken French is much lower that many, perhaps most of the people here.

Sometimes I find the prospect of speaking to someone with a better competency than me daunting and intimidating but usually not – it depends largely on the person and their personality.

Sometimes after speaking in a class or after a conversation with someone I will reflect on what I have said and wonder if I a) used the imp in a certain context or b) used the feminine form of an adjective, because I have no recollection. It has passed in a blur. I have no idea whether or not what I said was a total jumble of errors or a coherent, nearly perfect monologue.

Often I find here at Campbell Town Sun am. and I found when I did a language course in Aix-en-Provence that I begin confidently and manage well but lose confidence ie. Saturday I began confidently and felt comfortable but Sunday morning instead of being easier it was more difficult to speak with confidence for fear of making mistakes perhaps my concentration lapses.

(2) I love the French culture: that they have a culture is something to be envied. I'm not saying we don't have a culture but ours is still developing. Australia is so young. But in France, the history! the architecture, buildings, monument just reek of the history of a time long gone. I was in awe of the citizens of Aix-en-Provence who went to work in a city building, who lunched beside fountains hundreds of year old who went to school in C18th buildings and who never considered for a moment how wonderful, how magnificent these things were. There were much older churches, the roman buildings in Arles, the arenas the archeological dig at Aix-en-Provence. I found it fascinating when travelling to see from the train the homes of cream, white, apricot almond colours with orange tiled roofs of Provence change to stone buildings slate roofs of the Dordogne and even more changes again in Brittany.

The food changed with the architecture Narry an olive can be found outside Provence but 'les cepes', les truffles' 'foie de gras' l'oeie etc. de la Dordogne and the fish dishes in Brittany. Alsace, which I haven't visited yet has its own gastronomic dishes/cuisine etc. unique to that area. La Raclette de Haute-Savoie – formidable! I love it all! so rich, strong, pervading, enveloping one is constantly bombarded with visual stimuli that are French and French alone.

(3) Anxiety Levels
Low on arrival and hovered around there till we began to fill in forms. I must admit I loathe filling these type of forms because I feel I'm not being true to
myself nor the "questioner?" because in fact I end up answering with little lies. I prefer words like "generally I feel" "Usually I.............." I always is not the case I never is not life. In which language class - the one at Uni, the one at Alliance Fr - the conversation that I have. The three situations that I'm part or are so different but they all present the same conditions: speaking a F.L. in front of or with others.

In one I might feel very comfortable all the time in another I might feel comfortable except with a certain person or persons. In the other completely fazed and uncomfortable because of the teachers' behaviour, attitude etc.

Another ex. "I start to panic when........ of course, in some situations but not all situations, by any means.

Anxiety levels dropped while preparing identities of characters but rose as each person before me stood to introduce themselves. Anxiety levels peaked at 7 when the person before me sat down. I forgot my name and everything I had written down I probably missed out important details? I can't remember.

Levels remained fairly constant till I found out at lunch time that I was sharing a room with someone who spoke so well, was so articulate had had experience in France (I could tell, but I didn't really know). I was nervous about not being a good enough partner for conversation. To expose my real feelings, in fact I feel stupid sometimes when I make mistakes (see No. 4) Pendant l'apres-midi the anxiety levels were rock bottom because a certain numbness of the brain had developed and I was operating on automatic pilot to a degree.

Today, Sunday there have been no situations to provoke or create any increase in levels of anxiety.

(4)
In my 1st + 2nd years at high school I loved French + German. They were my strongest subjects. I was good at them, they were the subjects I looked forward to. Actually Jim Hunt was 1st year language teacher - what a great introduction.

In my 3rd year of high school the downward spiral began. My teacher was English, arrogant, male, nostalgic for his university days and time he spent in France and he was a poor conveyor of grammar rules and certainly didn't inspire one to speak French. In fact I have no memory of actually speaking French at all only preparation at the end of year 12 for the oral exam. I do remember well though being told after making an error in grammar no you stupid girl and being the butt of a personal attack for 5 minutes or more; one of many this teacher made on me, for all manner of things. Twenty two years later with trepidation, but mixed with anticipation I took up my studies of French again.

I must thank this teacher though for introducing me to Edith Piaf and for teaching me 2 songs: "Chevaliers de la table ronde, goûtons voir........" et ah
quelle cha, ah quelle cha, quelle chaleur, dans la baraque, on est mou, on est mou, on est mouillé jusqu'aux os.....”

Funnily enough most of the French I recalled when I began again at Uni was that from my 1st two years not much from the later years.
I have majored in French and German over 27 years ago but I do not regard myself as being as fluent as I would like to be. I have been to France/Paris 2 times more than 18 years ago and only for short visits for a few days. I can make myself understood but I have difficulty understanding a native speaker when talking at his normal fast speed. I’m getting better at this as I try in the holidays to tune into SBS French news. My competency thus is like having a skeleton without a body I know the body and structure but forget the vocabulary. The more I use it the better I get at remembering vocab.

I teach French in a Senior School but only use oral instruction in which I can control the language through structured conversation in which the vocab can be developed by changing one word in a sentence. I also use plays written and tied to other parts of the curriculum in which there is a lot of repetition and vocab changing.

If I spent a few weeks in France my fluency would develop very quickly.

(2)
Perception of the French Culture

Basically (essentially) I feel they are a western country similar to England and USA and Australia.

Apart from slight differences in eating, food, clothing I do not feel there is a great difference. These differences are superficial.

The French are more into relationships, more passionate, more sensitive to their feelings than Australians. Europeans (French/German/Italians) think more deeply on issues of the meaning of life than do Australians. This is reflected in their literature. The English seem more cold and rational in their philosophy whereas the Europeans (more German than French) seem to want to try to rationalise emotional forces in order to bring meaning to what they do.

(3)
Feelings of Apprehension

On arrival, I didn’t know whether to dress up on entering the building. So I put on my cap with some apprehension.

Quite high before I had to give my presentation.

Not so high after that but as the day wore on I was more and more tired so that I couldn’t think straight.
I was more apprehensive when speaking to those who were running the weekend rather than to the other participants because the fluency of the former was so much better than mine. I was more at ease with other participants.

(4)
In France - when I couldn't understand the bus driver who was yelling at me in a bus full of passengers and I didn't understand a word of what he said.

There is a slight contradiction in GS in that native and fluent speakers are needed to improve fluency and accuracy but I feel more relaxed with speakers who are not as fluent.
1. Issues current competencies
I can comprehend sufficiently to be able to follow directions and understand what is expected in conversation depending on the level of noise I can understand usually what is being said the more competent the speaker the easier it is.

Speaking is another matter! I think that as the weekend progresses I do better, I need much more Immersion!

2. In France I found that the French were very much like my Australian friends when we all have the same needs! However the French appreciate their beautiful buildings, theatres etc. and are so proud of them perhaps more than some of us. They enjoy the good things of life, but don’t we?

Anxiety graph of introduction and mise en scène not knowing what was expected - anxiety and apprehension. Christiane opening address: my anxiety level low - I appreciated learning what her study is about. This also encouraged me because I felt that everyone else had feelings of anxiety too.

The presentation of our personnages: high anxiety during preparation as there didn’t seem enough time to prepare. None of us (the four TOLS) really understand what we were to do - some thought we were contributing to a general dress up box and would be allocated a personnage.

The presentation: anxiety but moderate. I had done some preparation and although I didn’t say exactly say what I had intended it was okay.

I spent a week in Paris several years ago and managed to order raw steak for my husband from a menu! Definitely ego lowering. My French friends are generally encouraging, but my expectations of my own ability are obviously too high.

The Train - Wagon 3
I experienced anxiety at the beginning of each activity but it was surprising that the presentation at the beginning had shown an excellent introduction and I knew who each person was and each was sympa! This enables me to participate more easily. The fact that I was paired with a friend made it easier. This might be a useful device to consider in future events. Where there are students who are not so competent.

Dinner
Not so much anxiety because I was hungry! However, when I was en face de Florence I felt more anxious because I had to converse she made it easy for me. But because of the noise around me I found it difficult to hear her and therefore
difficult to comprehend what she was saying. Also the level of tiredness was increasing - the words weren't just there.

The Film
The sous-titres helped a lot thank you.

Sunday Morning
The grève: amusant! I was in the NC group, but found it difficult to understand what the sinner was saying, because we would not see the person actually speaking because it was a group activity little anxiety.

My perceptions of French culture: I know that French people are predominantly Catholic so they really make jokes continually about their religion? Probably.

Last Session
Little anxiety because of lots of preparation time.
Global Simulation

Anxiety, group dynamics and cab-sav.

Anxiety
Diane was quite concerned about the weekend knowing it was to be videoed, responding to the request for costumes, conveying images of what might be demanded of her. Diane was anxious.

But me? Well I like to think that nothing much worries, especially thinking about it in advance but I was concerned for/about Diane.

This anxiety was the only slight emotion I registered as I listened to the description of what the weekend was to be about and the background to and the fundamentals of global simulation.

The same feeling was there when we had to present our biographies. Perhaps 10,000 sleeps together (and a few) gives us an affinity; knowing that she might find an out the front presentation pretty tough.

But the group was supportive and Diane got over it. From then on it was just me.

Let me skip now to the contents of the valises, no the exposure of the objects.

Each person who claimed their object was subject to a brilliant grilling by Joan "the controller". In each case she had control of the conversation, very clever very effective. You may note that I didn't volunteer ownership of my object and waited until the end, and took over the conversation Ou est ma lampe, vous avez ma lampe, vous êtes voleur etc. My control of the conversation (brief though it was as neither of you sought to regain control). I escaped my anxiety I might otherwise have suffered or experienced.

From then on my comprehension of what was going on went downhill. It wasn't that I wasn't listening but only 5% of the words rang with me and since I didn't always understand the context one in 20 words wasn't enough to keep me in touch.

This annoyed me but it certainly didn't make me anxious.

When I was a youngster anxious to impress, all my mates and peers purchased cars and hotted them up and those with good jobs purchased good cars. Why compete? I bought an old land rover a clean statement that I wasn't competing of course everyone has 4 wheel drives now for all sorts of reasons and having one is a statement that you are competing but then it was the opposite!
Likewise if I understood more and could converse better I would be thrust into the game whether I liked it or not. The only anxiety I expect is when I am competing in a race where not only can I not win, but I can't do well enough other than to disgrace myself.

So with French conversation I am not competing therefore there is no anxiety; there is certainly annoyance when I am bombarded (too strong a word) with words which I don't understand. I switch further off perhaps and regret my lack of oral recognition and vocabulary etc.

Let's skip then to another opportunity to have control. In the session where we were given "professions" and others had to ask questions, guess what they were. If not the subject one quickly can gather a few key question and participate if the answers are short.

As the subject one is in control and surprisingly focusing on the questions is quite fun. "Non" or 'oui' are easy words to say in answer to the questions and the questioners quickly adapt their questions to the level which the subject can answer.

Skipping (again) to the next morning (I will return to the evening later) another time when I struggle to work out what to do but eventually realise I am to make a confession. There is hardly any point in using a dictionary the nouns and adjectives are given. "Write a short speech and wait your turn." Good fun annoyance at not being able to understand the questions or even the comments. My problem but again the source of some annoyance but anxiety perhaps a little. What, I ask myself, would be my reaction if I had to do it in English? Perhaps similar level of anxiety (very low) but no annoyance at not having a clue about what was being said.

**Group Dynamics**

We have together people who know one another, people with 'perfect' French, people with little French (plus Diane and Sue) because we were tired after the day and before we sat down to tea we had a conversation going. The six to a table layout played into our hands and we settled into a "quartier anglais" talking in English until the early hours. This was not a conscious effort to avoid the others, we simply got carried away enjoying ourselves and forgetting that there were others to avoid.

Apart from visits from Diane, Matthew, Judy, Margaret, Shane and Christiane we were left alone.

Perhaps a different table layout, a pair of French speakers (?) on our table or predetermination of seating positions would have prevented our self segregation.

**Cab-Sav**

What is there to say except that we drank too much of it.
Christiane
You are such a dynamo. You add to every situation so much intelligence, humour and class.

If it's anything to go by in assessing the weekend reflect on the fact that I am having trouble writing this because I have to prevent myself writing in French.

Regards
Bonne Chance