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Seven women and men from

around the nation receive

ACTFL.....

professional awards.

Motivating Parents to Support Second Language Programs

Edwin G. Ralph

Based on an assumption that second language (L2) teachers provide the key motivating force facilitating this parental support, this paper presents several successful strategies - grounded both in L2 teachers' actual experiences and in related action-research – which have been shown to enhance parental support for school L2 programs.

he nineties are witnessing a growing societal demand for increased involvement by parents and the community in the improvement of education. Recent social, political, economic, and ecological events, worldwide – which often receive instantaneous exposure because of the advancement of global communication systems have combined to exert pressure upon the educational establishment to become more effective, accountable, open, and collaborative with respect to the public they serve (Simpson, 1994).

Gone are the days when educators could "sidestep" demands from parents or could deflect societal pressure by arguing: "We are the trained professionals in education, parents are not. Just let us alone to do our jobs: we will teach your children what they need to know." Today's educators, on the other hand, are becoming increasingly pro-active in their deliberate solicitation of family involvement in education and are, as well, welcoming wider community participation by business, industry, and other agencies (Brandt, 1994).

Background and Rationale

The rationale supporting increased family and community involvement in schooling generally - and in L2 education specifically - rests upon three key assumptions. Although these foundational premises are not necessarily new nor profound, they have recently regained prominence - particularly in the light of the tenuous balance currently existing between the desire for international cooperation among nations, on the one hand, and the dangers of global competition, on the other.

The first assumption is rooted in the fundamental purpose of schooling in society. Schools were initially established by Western nations to be service agencies accountable to the families and citizens who financed them. The latter paid taxes to be used for the purpose of providing education for their children. Logically, then, those who pay for such educational services should have the right to be involved in examining the results of the enterprise, and in requiring improvements if necessarv.

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The language graduate who never reads a professional journal and participates only minimally, if at all, in professional meetings, will stagnate.

There is an onus on the profession in all areas to upgrade and keep abreast of current developments in the field.

Peter Heffernan

Motivating Parents

continued from page 1

Traditionally, this involvement was secured in North America by several means:

- the election of representative school boards who set educational policy for groups of schools in a district;
- the establishment of school-division wide citizen advisory groups to provide school trustees with "grassroots input" about education from the community;
- the establishment of parentteacher associations at each school; and
- other ad hoc committees set up from time to time, to provide information or to present concerns on educational matters to governing bodies at various levels.

In this paper, "second-language education" has a much wider scope than English-as-a-second-language (ESL), and French-as-a-second-language programs (FSL). Although the term includes ESL and FSL programs of all types, it also encompasses the so-called "modern languages" and the Heritage/International languages, as well as the First Nations

languages. With respect to second-language education in Canada over the past few years, the groups just described have pressured school districts in many regions to make policychanges in favour of providing a variety of language-learning programs (See, for example, Ralph, 1979). In fact, it would be fair to say that - as a group - the parents of children in Canadian L2 programs, particularly those whose children are enroled in the various immersion options across the Nation, would tend to rate higher in "being motivated" about these school programs, than would comparable groups of parents whose children are not in these L2 programs. This is so because of the unique phenomenon in Canada that is unlike the experience in most parts of the world where people learn two or more languages, as a routine. In Canada, parents who choose immersion programs for their children must face several issues, some of which are:

- Will they and their children be stigmatized for "breaking neighbourhood ties" by sending pupils to centralized immersion schools?
- Will they be labelled as "elitist" because of this decision (and because of often receiving "free" bus transportation to and from the immersion schools that are often a distance away)?
- Will their children's scholastic achievement suffer, in L1? in L2? in the other subjects?
- How will parents ever know if they have made the right decision?

In short, because these parents, as a group, have risked "daring to be different", they will naturally tend to form a close-knit, supportive group, who become highly motivated in seeing their children succeed and thus will support the

school program.

A second assumption underlying the principle of encouraging parental and community support for L2 programs is rooted in the fundamental biological/psychological basis of parenting. Parents care for their children, and they are ultimately the most important influence in their children's lives. While it is true that the make-up of the traditional family has recently shifted (Pawlas, 1994), it is equally true that the vast majority of parents, from all types of family units, are interested in being involved in assisting in their children's school experiences, but are often not sure of how to go about it (Elam, Rose, Gallup, 1993; Epstein, 1993).

For example, Canter (1991) reports that in a recent poll, only 25% of parents reported receiving systematic requests/instructions from teachers with respect to assisting in students' learning activities at school or at home. In order to help remedy this situation, he consequently suggests – on the basis of his research in this area - that educators must capitalize on this ready parental desire to help, and that schools should initiate specific efforts to "turn parents into partners". The key to gaining and maintaining this support is effective teacher communication that expresses to parents a genuine interest in having every student succeed, and that treats the parent the way the teacher – if a parent – would want to be treated by her/his child's own teacher (Canter, 1991).

One of the clearest examples of organized parental involvement in L2 education has been the growth of Canadian Parents for French (CPF) over the past 20 years (Sloan, 1989; MacIsaac, 1990; Morissette, 1992). CPF, now numbering more than 18,000 members throughout Canada's 10 provinces and two territories, has been recognized as "the most successful educational lobby in history" (Hood, 1989)). This parental organization has been a major factor in exerting pressure:

- (a) to increase access to improved FSL instruction (both core and immersion programs) for children in all regions of Canada;
- (b) to promote para-educational activities for these students (e.g., FSL exchanges, trips, weekends, camps, media/materials, and interactive experiences); and
- (c) to call for improved governmental second-language services for minorities in Canada.

Educators must capitalize on this ready parental desire to help, and [...] schools should initiate specific efforts to "turn parents into partners".

A key result of CPF's efforts is that the current generation of Canadian school children ranks as the most bilingual in Canada's entire history (Maclsaac, 1990); and what is equally as notable, is that 90% of a recent survey of CPF members indicated that they would provide their children with the same FSL experiences, again, if they had the opportunity (Morissette, 1992). This association has not only demonstrated a consistently organized and powerful voice in presenting parental and community concerns to educational policy-makers, but they have been influential in helping establish and/or modify L2 policies/practices for individual schools and school districts.

In the United States, a comparable organization called "Advocates for Language Learning" (ALL), is a similarly powerful parental group that supports L2 school programs (Antonek, Tucker, and Donato, 1995). Erlich (1987), the founder of ALL, indicates – as does CPF – that immersion programs provide ideal means for children to learn a L2 within regular school programs.

Another more recent example illustrating the increased importance of parental and community involvement in education on a broader front was the 1994 announcement by United States Secretary of Education, Richard Riley, of the formation of a nation-wide partnership among the U.S. Department of Education, the 45-member National Coalition for Parent Involvement in Education, and several prominent parent, religious, business, civic and community-based organizations (U.S. Department, 1994). This coalition is directly linked to one of the 8 National Education Goals recently enacted by the U.S. government as part of the Goals 2000: Educate America Act, which is to promote partnerships that will increase parental involvement and participation in the activities of the school. These examples illustrate the underlying fundamental assumption with regard to parental support that is backed by 30 years of research: "Greater family involvement in children's learning is a critical link to achieving a high-quality education and a safe, disciplined learning environment for every student" (U.S. Department, 1994, p. 1).

A third foundational premise underlying the need for family and community support of students' learning is that the classroom teacher is the key source in initiating and upholding the school-home relationship. Although government legislation, school-board policy, and school-site expectations are all needed to promote school-community bonding, it is essentially the responsibility of the teacher - and mostly through her daily interactions and relationships with students during the routines of school-life – to nurture and sustain this relationship. Parents promptly learn from their children - often even before the "September Open-House" is held - what the teacher is like (whether or not such an "assessment" is accurate). According to their children's descriptions, reactions, and opinions of the teacher's work, conduct, and attitude at school, the family's perceptions and views of the teacher and the program are soon formed, and the teacher's reputation becomes firmly established. Whether positive or not, this perception becomes relatively difficult to change. In fact, one director of education from a school district in Western Canada (on the basis of his 25 years' experience in education) recently advised a group of teacherinterns embarking on a job-search for their first teaching position that:

If parents think you are effective as a teacher, then they will readily forgive you if you make a blunder -even a serious one! However, if they don't like you – on the basis of what their kids, and others, say about you –you will have an uphill struggle... You have to show that you really - not superficially care for their children... (Johnson, 1994).

Effective Ways to Involve Parents/Communities

Using the above rationale as a conceptual framework, I draw upon three sources from which to derive some specific practices that have proven successful in encouraging families and community to support L2 education. The three sources are:

- responses both from practising and from retired educators (many in L2 education) (Ralph, 1994b);
- recent findings reported in the related educational literature (Danesi, 1993; Mollica, 1993);
- my own 30 years' experience in education (as L2 teacher, L2 program coordinator, school principal, career counsellor, president/director of a publishing firm marketing L2 instructional materials, college/ university professor, and supervisor of teacher-interns).

In many countries, government legislation and policy at both federal and provincial (or state) levels -together with local school district and individual school-site policies, regulations, and procedures - have all been combined to establish overall guidelines for L2 education. However, in recent years, the traditional top-down, hierarchical governance and administration of education has been displaced by: trends toward increased collaboration among stake-

holders; more empowerment of school-based personnel to participate in decision-making and policy-formation that affects them; and transformational leadership, whereby administrative and supervisory tasks are shared among *all* professionals.

In the light of these reforms, and based on the assumptions undergirding quality parental cooperation, what specific practices have been shown to promote the involvement of the family and the community in L2 programs? Several practices are presented below. It should be noted, again, that even though some of these initiatives may be externally legislated, or bureaucratically mandated by various educational officials, it is the L2 teachers, themselves, who are key determinants in the degree of lasting success of these efforts.

Orientating Parents to L2 Programs

Several effective projects and programs that effectively link parents and the community to L2 programs have been reported. One initiative that invariably motivates parents and the school community - particularly in the case of immersion schools (or immersion programs within regular schools) is an "Orientation Evening" or "Open House" typically held early in the school year. At such sessions, school-based personnel describe the L2 program, answer parents' questions and allay their concerns about the program. Presentations on such topics as "Why Learn a L2?", or "What A Quarter-Century of Research Findings Tell Us About L2 Program Options" prove very valuable in clarifying misconceptions and/or reassuring parents that they have made sound decisions in enroling their children in particular programs.

With respect to the "Why Learn a L2" topic, I have found in my experience as a teacher of L2 and a coordinator of L2 programs in a Western Canadian school district, that I was able to help defuse certain criticisms and fears of parents, students, and the community by first of all clearly articulating opponents' doubts about a specific L2 program,

and then by deliberately refuting these misconceptions, one by one, using the well-established research results for second langauage programs. Furthermore, at these meetings, I was able to describe and clarify the strengths and comparative limitations of the various L2 program-options (i.e., early, intermediate, and late immersion; extended programs; and core and conversational courses) (Ralph, 1981).

Canadian Parents for French has been recognized as "the most successful educational lobby in history." [...] In the United States, a comparable organization, "Advocates for Language Learning" is a similarly powerful group.

Several current writers have synthesized the rationale supporting the study of a L2 (Danesi, 1993; Mollica, 1993; Ralph, 1982, 1994a). A particularly valuable resource for this topic is Mollica's (1990) "The Clipboard Series" of eleven postersize visuals presenting valid, practical reasons for learning a L2 (e.g., Spanish, Italian, or Heritage Languages).

A technique I found to be particularly effective in this vein was to present these concrete benefits of being bi-or multi-lingual to students and parents. Stating the following advantages proved to be a powerful means either to reduce negative attitudes or to bolster parent/student commitment towards various L2 programs:

- (a) in general, people who know more than one language have a certain mental enrichment or cognitive stimulation about their personalities, not observable in comparable groups of monolinguals;
- (b) bilingual/multilingual individuals' scores on psychological tests (both verbal and non-verbal) are as a rule higher for divergent thinking skills and diversified reasoning processes, than are similar scores for monolinguals;
- (c) people who know more than one language typically get to know their mother tongue better than

5

do comparable groups of monolinguals

- (d) bi- or multi-linguals, compared to their unilingual peers, tend to have a more socially relaxed and at ease reaction to meeting others from different cultures;
- (e) they are generally less provincial, stereotypic, prejudiced, and biased in their views of other cultures or individuals, than are similar groups of monolinguals; and
- (f) compared to unilingual peers, bilinguals as a group, enjoy more pragmatic benefits, such as being more disposed to travel to other countries overseas, and having access to wider job and career opportunities, because of their L2 abilities (Ralph, 1982, 1994a).

Furthermore, providing parents with attractive, concise print materials outlining the L2 program, its expectations, and its activities (and a time-schedule for these activities) in the form of brochures, newsletters, and bulletins is typically well-received (Canter, 1991).

Capitalize on "Current Practicalities"

Recent global events have emphasized the critical importance of multinational communication. Growing trade and commercial relationships among European nations, among Pacific rim countries, and among our own North American partners - plus the potential to forge further links between/among these larger international blocs – signal that people skilled in various languages will be required to help expedite these communicative relationships. For example, because of expanding free-trade among Canada, Mexico, and the U.S. on our continent, Spanish will no doubt become increasingly important, here.

With respect to the pragmatic benefits of knowing an L2, educators currently involved in Ukrainian language programs could especially use to their advantage in promoting the L2 program the recent events that have developed in Canada/Ukraine relations. For example, the 1994 visit to Canada by Ukraine's President Leonid Kuchma (Roberts, 1994) could be used by teachers to enhance the status of the study of Ukrainian

in Canada. Not only did the two nations form an accord to increase their trade partnership, but Canada has agreed to share commercial and business information and to provide consultants in areas of Ukraine's economic growth, investments, and scientific/technological/ environmental concerns. During this visit, Canadian Prime Minister Chrétien noted that Ukrainian settlers helped to develop Western Canada a century ago, and now it is Canada's turn to reciprocate by assisting Ukraine to develop its newly acquired democracy and free-market system. He stated:

We are the best country to benefit from Ukraine, because we can offer a lot of Canadian experts who speak Ukrainian... We are the best country to take advantage of the economic growth that will eventually come in Ukraine ("Canada Giving," 1994).

Recent global events have emphasized the critical importance of multinational communication. Growing trade and commercial relationships among European nations, among Pacific rim countries, and among our own North American partners – plus the potential to forge further links between/among these larger international blocs – signal that people skilled in various languages will be required to help expedite these communicative relationships.

Kuchma later visited Western Canada, home of thousands of citizens of Ukrainian descent. He attended the G7 meeting in Winnipeg, and later met with Saskatchewan's Premier Romanow, himself of Ukrainian ancestry. The two discussed establishing business and government ties to help Ukraine in the areas of energy, agriculture, and health care.

One interesting incident that L2 teachers could use a motivator for senior students and/or parents occurred near the end of this Kuchma-

Romanow visit. The President invited the Premier to visit Ukraine, but jokingly advised that he would need to improve his Ukrainian first (Smart, 1994). Teachers could use this actual event to alert students that if native speakers of a language (even key politicians) need to work at ameliorating their linguistic skills, then L2 learners should not feel discouraged if their performance seems slow at times! These recent events graphically represent realistic possibilities for students of Ukrainian to pursue in order to prepare themselves to take advantage of future career opportunities. They will be able to use their bilingualism to assist the two nations in the fields of government, business, industry, labour, and education relations.

Such a pragmatic goal has also been recently highlighted by another Saskatchewan initiative involving the Ukrainian language (McMahen, 1994). In order to help Ukraine improve its schools and teaching since its 1991 independence, a joint initiative has been undertaken by representatives the Saskatchewan Teachers of Ukrainian (the only provincial association for teachers of this language in Canada), the Saskatchewan Department of Education, and the University of Saskatchewan. This project has established a growing number of educational exchanges (of teachers, professors, students, and administrators) between the two countries. During the past three years there has been a 1991 joint education conference in Ukraine, a 1992 student exchange, a sharing of resource materials, Saskatchewan educators' visits to Ukraine in 1993, Ukrainian officials' visits to Saskatchewan schools, and a second joint educational conference in Ukraine in 1994. All of these activities - and potential future developments have combined to bolster the image of Ukrainian L2 education in Western Canada.

Building Bridges for Students' L2 Growth

Although a school's annual "Open House", "Back-to-School Night", or "Meet/Greet Treat" in September are basic means in attracting parents, additional ways have been recently

reported to enhance these activities. Research by Epstein (1993) and Canter (1991), for instance, suggests that the school - through its individual teachers - must not only introduce but continue clear and interesting communication links with each family. Some of these initiatives are:

 (a) "introductory letters" to parents in August to present briefly the teacher and the L2 program, and to invite them to the first September meeting;

(b) a short form sent to parents on which they are asked to describe "What the teacher should know about my child" (e.g. his/her likes/dislikes, academic strengths/limitations, pertinent background/experiences);

(c) occasional "positive" notes/memos/telephone calls home throughout the year to support, or acknowledge a child's particular performance/improvement/contribution in L2;

- (d) specific teacher requests for parental assistance in: helping a child with a particular L2 homework project; being a classroom guest to share with students a unique expertise/skill/trip concerning L2; or filling out a brief check-list indicating the tasks/events/projects regarding L2, in which the parents would be willing to assist during the school term; and
- (e) invitations to assist children, individually or in groups - at home or at specific times at school - in practising their L2 skills (conversing, reading/listening to reading, and writing).

An excellent example of how interactive homework strategies are currently being used to promote home-school collaboration is the work reported by Antonek, Tucker, & Donato, 1994; 1995) related to a K-5 Japanese Foreign Language in the Elementary School (FLES) program in Pittsburgh. The researchers found that the majority of parents completed and appreciated an assigned amount of interactive homework with children. It was also found that even though the parents had not studied the target language, themselves, prior to this project, they welcomed the teachers' initiatives as helping:

[...] them to understand, to participate in, and to support their children's learning experiences [...] They provided a valuable tool for enriching the partnership between home and school that has seemingly been ignored (Antonek, Tucker, and Donato, 1995, p. 9).

Although it is generally believed that this last initiative (i.e., parents helping children learn at home) is a common occurrence, recent research suggests just the opposite! Devlin-Scherer and Devlin-Scherer (1994) discovered in a study examining the 5779 tasks assigned over a 4-year period by 10 school boards in Vermont, less than 2% of those tasks dealt with parent involvement - and not one of these tasks dealt with assisting student learning at home. Both Canter (1991) and Riley (U.S. Department, 1994) believe that schools in the 90s must help remedy this problem by implementing such projects as:

- (a) recommending families to undertake a family learning project (e.g., to go on a "Walk 'n Talk", listing [using L2] 10 things that they saw/heard/smelled/felt);
- (b) providing parents with brief but specific guidelines/tips for guiding children in their completion of [L2] homework assignments (and having the parents, the student, and the teacher to sign a follow-up document as the student finishes it); and
- (c) reinforce children's successful [L2] achievements (and parents' assistance towards these) with short, genuine, and positive communications - by note, telephone, or in person

With respect to Ukrainian-as-a-L2 programs, L2 teachers of Ukrainian, themselves, have found that having parents/grandparents, or other interested community-members who know the language, to take on tutor roles – either as occasional guests, or on a semi-regular basis at school has proved to be a powerful "win/win/win" motivator for all participants. That is,

- (a) the visitors feel like worthwhile contributors to the L2 program;
- (b) the students are permitted to practice their language skills with "authentic" speakers; and

(c) the teachers sense "a warm glow of satisfaction" from facilitating these successful experiences.

Involving Parents in Cultural Projects

As well as participating in linguistic activities with students, parents have been effectively involved with cultural activities and promotions in the L2 program. (In fact, this article contains several suggestions actually made by the conference attendees during a brainstorming session conducted by Dr. Ralph, as part of his presentation at the STU 1994 Conference in Saskatoon). Teachers of Ukrainian report high volunteerrates by families of students for such projects as assisting teachers and their classes in:

- (a) preparing traditional Ukrainian meals;
- (b) helping or conducting cultural musical and/or dance programs;
- (c) teaching/guiding special art projects; and
- (d) providing assistance for Christmas Eve and Easter ceremonies (e.g., see Onyschuck, 1994).

A recent example that generated substantial parent and community interest in Ukrainian culture, in a non-Ukrainian school district where no Ukrainian L2 programs existed, occurred with one of my teacher-interns. The intern, who is of Ukrainian descent, and who is a skilled performer in a Ukrainian dancetroupe, was invited to have the sixth grade class, with whom he was working during his internship, to learn and perform a traditional Ukrainian dance-routine at the school's annual pre-Christmas, "Community Cultural Program". Not only did the teacher-intern and his students practice, prepare, and present an outstanding performance, but the reaction from the rest of the student body, the school-staff, the dancers' parents, and the "fullhouse" audience from the surrounding community was highly supportive.

This case reinforces the underlying theme of this present article: the teacher is the key agent to solicit parental involvement. In this case, the entire school community was positively disposed toward the Ukrainian culture by a single

teacher, who through his own enthusiasm, motivated the students and consequently their parents and

the community at large.

Such teacher motivation is clearly essential -but insufficient - to achieve success in garnering continued community support for L2 programs. Indeed, to rouse parental motivation, initially, is one thing, but to sustain it over time it requires what effective teachers have always practiced: persistence. creativity, and respect! My experience in establishing and maintaining parental and community support for L2 education has been consistent with what other educators and researchers have repeatedly confirmed (Brodkin, 1992; Canter, 1991, Epstein, 1993), and that is: teachers should deal with all L2 students as they would want their children to be treated if they were in that particular program.

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Primo Levi: Holocaust Witness, Writer and Educator November 4-6, 1995, Vancouver, BC

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Learning Languages in the Context of Canada's Many Cultures

Roseann Runte

Heritage/International languages contribute to economic and cultural development, but they play an important role in the intellectual growth of the individual and in the construction of a world where communication and peace are possible. History and logic are engaged in the response to critics of Canada's cultural and linguistic policies.

ast summer I had the privilege of sailing in the Queen Charlotte Islands and visiting various sites where the Haida had once lived, including the UNESCO World Heritage Site on Anthony Island, or Ninstints, as the Haida call it. I invite you to imagine a glorious August day. The sun sparkles on the sea in a myriad of jewelled reflections. Whales lazily ply the seas and fill the air with their mournful cry. You tread on a thick carpet of moss under ancient trees, each the size of a house, to a clearing where beams of golden sunlight illuminate the last few totems which remain standing. All weathered grey, they will soon join the others rotting on the ground. The graceful sculptures are fast disappearing. And with them, their meaning. For the Haida believe that they must not touch these poles. They are sacred, as is the desire of their ancestors not to scar the earth with signs of their passage. All should return to the forest and regenerate growth for the next generation. Already tiny trees sprout from the tops of the totems and ferns find nutrients at their

But the next generation no longer lives in the forest. The Haida have abandoned the forest for the city, the isolated log cabin for the school, the hospital, the services available in town. Very few Haida sculpt totems any longer. Indeed, the few totems now sculpted are made with the express purpose of selling them.

The language of the Haida is not written. Very few natives still speak it. Few recall the meaning of the sculptures.

This is, perhaps, as it should be. Cultures rise and fall. Change is the

only certitude we have.

Northrop Frye said that the only crystal ball we possess is the rearview mirror (1991). I ask: What will happen to the young generation of Haida, the ones who will have lost all contact with the past - with their identity? What will happen to the pride the warriors now share, a pride which makes them strong ecologists and fearless fisher folk? An unwritten language and a culture which depends on oral transmission is exceedingly fragile. It will surely disappear. Using Northrop Frye's crystal ball, that is, the rear-view mirror, can we not learn from the lessons of the past? Can we never understand that a people without a language has no past, has no rear-view mirror, no crystal ball - no hope for the future? We have all witnessed this in other small, northern communities on the news, or personally.

The more languages, the more flexibility the person brings to the job, the more doors are likely to open.

In this context, I would like to share with you the story of a professor I knew who was dying of cancer. She had spent several years in a prison camp in Germany during the war. Languages, words and books were, she said, what kept her alive, what constituted her life, her hope. Language - the beauty of words, could not be taken from her even though she had been stripped of all else. And so, she left her library to the university for young people to discover and to share. She joked that she was giving them the "gift of life." It was, indeed, the greatest gift she could give. Somehow, I think that language is the greatest gift we could give our own children, the children of the native populations, the children of Canada.

Does the U.S. melting pot cheats individuals while the Canadian mosaic cheats both individuals and society?

Neil Bissoondath (1994), author of Selling Illusions: The Cult of Multiculturalism in Canada, would say that the decline of culture and the disappearance of language are normal. Fine. After all, his great-grandparents lost their Hindu language and for him, the past is but a mystery, a lost religion. He writes: "We felt no sense of loss, no tincture of regret, no romantic attachment to a language that no longer served the purposes of our circumstances" (p. 79). Such loss is immeasurable. How do you know whether the Iliad is well translated if you never read the original? How do you know how many friends you never had, how many business deals our country never made, how many wars might not have been fought?

Bissoondath's family moved in a few generations from indentured labourers to middleclass professionals. The loss of language was concomitant with an economic gain. From this perspective, retaining and maintaining a heritage language is not an economic good. However, today there are fewer jobs for the middle class. The same trajectory of economic growth does not exist. Each person should develop all he or she has to offer. The more languages, the more flexibility the person brings to the job, the more doors are likely to open.

Bissoondath would say that culture must change. And I would agree. Culture must change, but not disappear. Bissoondath joins recent critics of the multicultural policy of

this country who conclude that individuals should be prepared to give up their cultural heritage and languages when they assume a new nationality.

Bissoondath says that the U.S. melting pot cheats individuals while the Canadian mosaic cheats both individuals and society. This is true if you take American culture as a definable entity and a good. I do not. The French critic Todorov outlines three axiological value judgements which occur at the point of encounter between two cultures (pp. 191 ff.). The first is the acceptance of the values of the Other, the identification of Self with Other (the U.S. model). The second is the imposition of one's self image on the Other, implying submission of Other to Self (this model often involves war). The third is neutrality or indifference and an insistence on relativity. (I suppose this would be akin to life on the island of Cypress.) I believe that there must be another way to survive the encounter of two cultures. I believe it is in complementarity, not in opposition; in mutual respect, in understanding. When we learn each others' languages we are paying the ultimate tribute of respect to our neighbours and to ourselves. We are adding value to our own cultural baggage and we are learning to listen, one of the hardest and most useful things we can do – and one which is an essential part of communication. Thus, as teachers of Heritage/International Languages, you have an essential role to play in the development of Canadian society and world peace.

Now, I can just about hear some of you thinking that this is too naive, too idealistic. Well, I ask you, if we as teachers are not idealistic, if we do not espouse actively the goals in which we all believe, who will? We share a large burden of responsibility. Shouldering that burden will take courage and vision. Today we seek leaders who have vision. We regret that we do not have more of them. However, we are also very prompt to criticize and to be negative. Everyone can easily name three things that are wrong with Canada, three reasons for which the country does not work. It is much harder to find people willing to give reasons for which Canada does indeed work. It should be easier for bilingual persons to learn another language. If language learning increases our understanding, we can certainly make a splendid nation.

Language is much more than grammar. It is more than a way of structuring thought. It is a way of signifying our deepest feelings, our most sincere beliefs.

Each time I learn a word which has no translation into another language, I feel that I have discovered a rare gift, a new idea, a fresh insight.

Bissoondath says that the multicultural policy today supports cultural fairs, the caravan and cultural centres, and that these are useless. What we should support, he posits, is antiracism. However, if we want to create a peaceful, tolerant society, and if, in this United Nations Year of Tolerance, this is, perhaps more than ever, worth contemplating, we must create citizens who can understand and respect each other. To achieve this, people must first have a sense of identity and self-knowledge. Multiculturalism is much more than fairs; it is language, meaning, values. Multiculturalism has recently suffered from a bad press. In a way, this is typically Canadian. We are terribly modest, perhaps too much so, even to a fault. Charles Taylor (1991), the philosopher, has said:

This has ultimately been a failure to understand and accept the real nature of Canadian diversity. Canadians have been very good at accepting their own images of difference, but these have tragically failed to correspond with what is really there (p. 119).

What is really there, is much more than perogies and pizza. It is a way of thinking, of perceiving, a way of being, which is fundamentally different and which can only be understood by and through language.

Tom Symons (1989) describes langage as culture and its manifestations as meaning and communication. Communication is empty without meaning. And meaning is

linked closely with values. Chomsky (1972) once wrote that

knowledge of language results from the interplay of initially given structures of mind, maturational processes, and interaction with the environment (p. 23).

Language is much more than grammar. It is more than a way of structuring thought. It is a way of signifying our deepest feelings, our most sincere beliefs. Each time I learn a word which has no translation into another language, I feel that I have discovered a rare gift, a new idea, a fresh insight. We can laugh at inept translations such as those I saw in a hotel in Japan. In the restaurant, on the menu I read: "Cocktail for ladies with nuts." And in the room, on the airconditioning unit, it was written: "To reduce the temperature, control yourself." The words are perfectly correct. The meaning is scrambled. It is in chuckling at this ineptitude that we discover nuance. It is in appreciating the subtlety of meaning and words that we learn their importance, whether we are drafting some international trade agreement, a poem or a peace treaty. It is in realizing that words may have different meanings for each person that we can become good negotiators. This is a skill which is enhanced through language learning, and negotiating and peace-keeping are, I like to believe, special features of the elusive Canadian identity. Thus, enriching our knowledge of heritage languages will not make our citizens less Canadian, but more Canadian, more sensitive to meaning, to difference. This mosaic approach is at once much more interesting than being part of a unified mass and more difficult to describe, because the mosaic is fluid, moving, and because the shape it is taking may well, like modern art or like that infamous elephant described by a number of blind sages, vary in the eyes of the beholder and again with that beholder's vocabulary.

The Canadian poet Douglas LePan wrote about the solitude of this nation. His poem is entitled, "A Country Without a Mythology." And yet, we bring to these great spaces our inherited myths, our own, unique meanings. And it is these meanings which are celebrated

in our heritage languages, in our policy of promoting a cultural mosaic.

In the Rocky Mountains there is a park called Writing-on-Stone Park. The writer Mark Abley (1994) describes his visit there (pp. 151 ff.). At first all he sees are indiscriminate markings on the rocks. As he studies them, he begins to be able to see the fading designs. He says that it is like learning a language: you have to work at it, ask questions and suffer frustration. But sooner or later it all starts to make sense. The native name for the park is Aysin'eep. This means "is being written." Our history and our literature are still being written. Even those who are learning to read the rock are discovering themselves, their past and their environment. And as they write their impressions, they are contributing to the evolution of our thoughts. As language teachers, it is our task to offer our students the joy of discovering meaning where they saw only confusing signs. It is our privilege to read with them the texts and to discover new meaning and to create a new, personalized synthesis. In the sixteenth century, English peasants who saw a Shakespearean play were limited by their cultural and lingusitic backgrounds. Today, a young Canadian, one of the thirty percent of our citizens who possess a cultural tradition different from the native, anglophone and francophone groups, brings to the play a wealth of history and values which give the text new meaning and renewed vigour. This is the evolution of Culture. It is a performance of Shaw's Saint Joan in which, like the one last year at the Shaw Festival, reference was made via the music and staging to all the wars fought since the martyrdom of the French heroine. It is a kind of reading of the text written on the rock face, a reading done with the knowledge that the text is still being written.

Frederick II, back in the eighteenth century, visited a jail. Each of the prisoners was brought before him. Each one threw himself at the King's feet and proclaimed his innocence and requested that the King use his royal authority to free him. Only one admitted his guilt. The King freed him so that the innocents in jail would not be contaminated. The logic is faulty. Just as is Bissoondath's. It is certain that culture evolves. The Acadians who live in the Maritimes today do not resemble their ancestors. I cannot imagine what Dièreville would have thought of walkmans, day-glo t-shirts and microskirts. But I am certain he would have been proud of the schools, the teachers, the language.

Learning languages promotes interdisciplinarity and the ability to think across boundaries in a creative fashion. It promotes creativity and discovery. Languages teach us new ways of seeing things, new perspectives.

Language is also a tool of communication. It can be body language just as well as words which express our meanings, our origins. Learning languages promotes interdisciplinarity and the ability to think across boundaries in a creative fashion. It promotes creativity and discovery. Languages teach us new ways of seeing things, new perspectives. In Europe, in the early sixteenth century, the language of international communication and learning was Latin. People spoke French, Italian, Spanish and German at home, but the institutions functioned in Latin. A few years ago, I used to worry that English would take over as the lingua franca and that other languages would gradually disappear. Yet, we can observe that this is definitely not the case. Languages survive and flourish despite or perhaps even because of electronic mail and the Internet. We still hear stories about the number of languages which will disappear. Yet, there seems to be a veritable renaissance in languages today. I suppose it is a case of the press being reluctant to print the good news. As former Prime Minister John Diefenbaker once said: "Nobody will read the story of the dog who came home." Well, the hundreds of students who learn well, the ones who get jobs, the success stories receive little ink.

Language learning is also an economic benefit. Learning a language allows us to communicate. Bissoondath says that culture cannot be bought or sold. However, one must

possess language and culture to sell. The Royal Society of the Arts Journal stated: "Beyond all doubt we suffer in competition abroad from ignorance of foreign languages, by our merchants, agents, clerks and mechanics." That was in 1879. It is still true. The Japanese speak other languages, we do not. Economists such as Reich (1991) and Drucker (1986) state that the future opportunities for growth lie in the area of knowledge and technical workers. Reich (1991) calls them symbolic analysts and says that twenty percent of the wealth will be owned by this class. It is time for us to develop this resource in Canada. Everyone has surely heard the story of the engineer who was called in to solve a problem at an oil well. All he did was bang on the pipe with his hammer. The oil flow returned and he billed the company \$250.00: \$5.00 for hitting the pipe and \$245.00 for knowing where to hit it. Cedric Ritchie (1991), the former chief executive officer of the Bank of Nova Scotia, said that

we have to focus this country's talents and energies on the real challenge - the external challenge from the growing number of countries in Asia, Europe and even in Latin America that have really gotten their act together.

In 1985 the cultural sector was the ninth-largest industry in Canada, earning \$12 billion, and it was the fourth-largest employer. Culture and languages, which are the essential features of culture, are extremely important. In Manitoba, schools are doing testing in sixty-six different languages. In Ontario 120,000 elementary students are studying fifty different languages, and some 5,000 teachers are involved in the program. I am pleased to note that in the Report of the Royal Commission on Learning, it is recommended that acquisition of a third language become an intrinsic part of the common curriculum up to grade nine.

If this recommendation is followed, Ontario will be able to begin to compete with Europe where the concept of a global curriculum is fast becoming a reality. In Europe a second language will be required for all students by age 6 and a third by age 9. The portability of diplomas is becoming universal and it is projected that ten per cent of all university

students will spend a year studying abroad in another language. At Johns Hopkins University, knowledge of a second language is required for all medical students. The United States is promoting study abroad. According to John Naisbitt (1990), the number of American students studying abroad increased by thirty percent over the last five years. The number of international studies programs in American colleges quadrupled in the past decade and many U.S. universities have satellite campuses in Europe and Asia. Language learning is supported under the National Defence Education Act and is given a priority. In California, through an agreement with Mexico, bilingual schools for Mexican immigrants are staffed by Mexican teach-

I am pleased that in Canada we are gradually overcoming our linguaphobia. Barbara Ward, a British economist, looking at the makeup of Canada's population, declared that Canada was becoming "the world's first international nation" (quoted in Symons, 1989). This is perhaps the realization of Sir Wilfred Laurier's dream when, on returning from England he said that he was greatly impressed by a cathedral built of granite, marble and oak; the elements were all distinct and yet they all contributed to support a structure of incredible size and beauty. In like fashion, he expressed his hope that Canada's immigrants could retain their identity and at the same time create a "nation, great among the nations of the world" (quoted in Symons 1989).

Today our students face many problems: change and instability, violence and lack of meaning, fragmentation and loss of identity. Communication, creativity and unity are the solutions to these problems, and they are all found in and promoted by the learning of languages. Hubert Reeves, the physicist and philosopher who wrote about the end of the universe, discussed the problems of violence and poverty. His solution was jubilation. Mine is the jubilation of learning. Taylor (1991) cites the need for a spirit of communitarianism which emanates from a feeling of solidarity, not fragmentation, and a solid commitment beyond Self to Other and to society. To establish

that Rousseauian social contract which is essentially at the basis of all democracies, we must understand the language it is written in. We must establish a form of linguistic exchange, of communication, with others. Montesquieu, who wrote the *Spirit of the Laws*, said that democracy needs education and communication to succeed. For both of these we need languages and language skills.

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We all remember that the Order of Good Cheer was established in Port Royal, Nova Scotia, in the winter of 1605 to encourage the new settlers to spend the winter enjoying good fare and good humour. It was a celebration of the arts. The first play ever written in North America was written there by Marc Lescarbot and it was performed by the settlers. This made history. At the same time, a soldier named Gargas was composing his memoirs. Nobody reads them. They have never been published. I suppose one could say that he also made history. But it was not very glorious. Gargas spent his winter walking behind the cart picking up the nails that dropped out of the barrels which were not very solidly made. In the evening he had to count them. Nails were in such short supply and such great demand that they formed the basis for Gargas's North American career. When he finished his job, he wrote his memoirs complaining bitterly about the quality of life on the new continent.

Sometimes I think that not much has changed in nearly four hundred years. We still have to count the nails. Twenty per cent of the countries on earth possess eighty per cent

of the wealth. And, as we all know, it is unequally distributed even within the confines of a wealthy nation such as Canada. We are universally still good at complaining. And we are still writing splendid plays and books with which we can amuse ourselves over the long, cold winters. But there is a difference. It is that we now have more cultures and more languages with which to warm our spirits and to inspire our finest thoughts.

For the Gargases and the geniuses in your classes, I thank you for your commitment to a noble and entirely worthwhile cause, to profound cultural pluralism and to the creation of the conditions necessary for tolerance and world peace.

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The Foray into the Neurosciences: Have We Learned Anything Useful?

Anthony Mollica and Marcel Danesi

Introduction

A perusal of the major journals in second language acquisition published during the last three decades reveals that a growing number of researchers in the field have been looking to the neurosciences for insights and guidance. Between the lines of the published reports there seems to be an implicit belief that knowledge about the brain will provide an empirical basis upon which to construct a truly coherent theory of second language acquisition, or at the very least, a framework for assessing and interpreting theories or models of second language acquisition. The fuss over the brain sciences seems to have started when Eric Lenneberg's widely influential 1967 study put forward convincing evidence to support a "critical period" for the acquisition of language, that is, a biologically-determined timetable for language that starts at birth and is completed at adolescence. Debate on the implications that this finding had for second language acquisition in adolescence and adulthood was ignited almost immeand diately, it continues uninterrupted to this day. We mention, as a case-in-point, a recent issue of Studies in Second Language Acquisition (vol. 17, 1, 1995) in which the value of studying the brain-language nexus for second language acquisition is argued vigorously (e.g. Eubank and Greggs 1995, Jacobs 1995; see also Schumann 1990, Jacobs and Schumann 1992). In the area of second language teaching (SLT), too, this foray into the neuroscientific domain has been influential in shaping at least three major teaching methods over the last thirty years

- Asher's Total Physical Response (e.g. 1977, 1981),
- Lozanov's Suggestopedia (e.g. 1979), and
- Krashen's and Terrell's *Natural Approach* (e.g. 1983).

The fundamental feature that differentiates these methods from others is an explicit sequencing and formatting of the material to be learned and practiced in ways that are purported to simulate how the brain handles incoming information.

The authors of the present study, too, have not been immune from the "neuroscientific bug" that has been infecting second language acquisition researchers and second language teaching practitioners (e.g. Danesi, 1986, 1988, 1991, 1994; Danesi and Mollica, 1988). Our interest in this line of thinking was triggered in 1986 when one of the authors became involved with neuropsychologists and psychiatrists working with language-handicapped children in Italy (e.g. D'Alfonso, Danesi, De Lellis, and Mastracci, 1986; Danesi and De Lellis, 1994). Collaborative projects on how to design effective teaching materials for such children led to the framing of bimodality theory, or the view that the two modes of learning experiential and analytical - are systematically cooperative in the processing of verbal input (language which a learner receives and from which he/she can learn) and in influencing verbal intake (input which the learner can actually utilize cognitively). In turn, this has led various second language teaching practitioners (e.g., Lombardo, 1988; Nuessel and Cicogna, 1992; Pallotta, 1993) and second language acquisition doctoral students (e.g. Arnò, 1993; Curro, 1995; Smor, 1995) to cultivate a more general interest in the implications of bimodality theory for the learning and teaching of second languages in all kinds of tutored learning contexts. Incidentally, when the term bimodality was proposed in 1986, we were not aware of the fact that it had already been in use among neuroscientists as a synonym for complementary hemisphericity theory (e.g. Bogen, DeZure, Tenhouten, and Marsh, 1972; Dunn, 1985). It continues to be used in this

way in the relevant literature (e.g. Ressler, 1991). We were also not cognizant of the fact that the term was employed by Laurence Ridge, a professor of mathematical education at the University of Toronto, five years earlier in 1981. Ridge's use of the term in that year was, to the best of our knowledge, the first time it was so employed in the educational literature.

Three decades after Lenneberg's watershed study, the time has come to ask ourselves if the fuss over the neurosciences in second language acquisition and second language teaching has been worthwhile. Can knowledge about the brain truly inform second language acquisition research? And what does it mean to say that a teaching approach is "brain-compatible?" We doubt if these questions can be answered affirmatively, simply because there is no empirical way to demonstrate that a specific teaching procedure, for instance, is capable of activating a certain part of the brain – unless we put our students through a PET (Positron Emission Tomography) scan as we teach them something! And even if it could be shown that certain parts are activated at certain stages or in response to certain instructional stimuli, what does that truly mean? We know so little about the connection between brain activities and learning processes that all it would really show is a "co-occurrence" between an input and a brain activity, not a "correlation" between the two. Nevertheless, it is our cautious opinion that the foray into the neuroscientific domain on the part of second language acquisition researchers and second language teaching practitioners has been anything but fanciful. If nothing else, it has forced us to look more closely at the conditions we create in a classroom and at the theoretical suppositions underlying instructional practices and teaching curricula.

From a biological perspective, language acquisition implies a reorganization of the structure of some, if not most, parts of the brain. Evidence has emerged, for instance, that bilinguals and advanced second language learners are equally lateralized in each of their languages (i.e., they have their two languages distributed equally in the brain) and

that there might be a greater right hemisphere involvement in the early stages of second language acquisition. However, we alert the reader to the fact that in their enthusiasm, neuroscientifically-inclined second language educators have perhaps not always been judicious and cautious in applying neuroscientific theories. We cannot but agree with Spolsky (1989: 86) when he remarked a few years ago that

the body of hard data on the neuroscience of second language learning comes nowhere near matching the enormous amount of speculation or the large number of studies.

The present synopsis, therefore, will highlight only the main ramifications that have ensued from the neuroscientific perspective in second language acquisition research and second language teaching practice. We believe that the use of neuroscientific insights has truly enriched the research agendas, discourses, and practices of our profession.

Some Background Historical Matters

It is now common knowledge that the left hemisphere (LH) is the primary biological locus for language. The apparent superiority of the LH for language was established more than a century ago in 1861 by the French anthropologist and surgeon Pierre Paul Broca, when he published his classic study of a patient who had lost the ability to articulate words during his lifetime, even though he had not suffered any paralysis of his speech organs. Noticing a destructive lesion in the left frontal lobe of the LH at the autopsy of this patient, Broca was thus able to present concrete evidence to link the articulation of speech to a specific cerebral site. Thirteen years later, in 1874, the German neurologist Carl Wernicke brought forward further evidence linking the LH with language. Wernicke documented cases in which damage to another area of the LH consistently produced a recognizable pattern of impairment to the faculty of speech comprehension. Then, in 1892 Jules Déjerine found that reading and writing deficits resulted primarily from damage to the LH alone. So, by the end of the nineteenth century the research evidence was pointing convincingly to the LH as the biological locus for language. This led to "localization theory" – the view that specific mental functions had precise locations in the brain. A corollary to this theory was the notion of "cerebral dominance" – the view that the verbal LH was the dominant one for generating the higher forms of cognition.

With a few notable exceptions (e.g. Lashley, 1929; Vygotsky, 1931; Jakobson, 1942; Luria, 1947), localization theory dictated the research agenda of the neurosciences during the first half of the present century. The dissenters argued that language in a restricted sense – i.e. as sounds, words, and meanings – could indeed have a primary locus in the LH; but as a more encompassing expressive phenomenon it was more likely to involve neural processes that were distributed throughout the brain. Vygotsky (1931) also suggested that the whole brain was endowed at birth with a unique kind of "plasticity" that rendered it highly sensitive and adaptive to environmental stimuli during childhood. Therefore, he put forward the intriguing proposal that the neurological structures associated with the mental functions were constantly subject to modifications from sociocultural influences.

It was, however, during the Fifties and Sixties that the first serious doubts were cast on the theory of dominance by the widely-publicized studies conducted by the American psychologist Roger Sperry and his associates on epilepsy patients who had had their two hemispheres separated by surgical section (see Springer and Deutsch 1993 for a detailed account of the relevant experiments). These studies made three crucial accomplishments possible:

- they showed that both hemispheres, not just a dominant one, were needed in a neurologicallycooperative way to produce complex thinking;
- they provided a detailed breakdown of the main psychological functions according to hemisphere;
- 3. they confirmed that the LH was the primary site for language.

As mentioned, the latter finding was further entrenched in 1967 when Eric Lenneberg published his famous book. On the basis of a large

body of clinical studies, Lenneberg noticed that most aphasias - the partial or total loss of speech due to a disorder in any one of the brain's language centres – became permanent after the age of puberty. This suggested to Lenneberg that the brain lost its capacity to transfer the language functions from the LH to the nonverbal right hemisphere (RH) after puberty, which it was able to do, to varying degrees, during childhood. Lenneberg concluded that there must be a biologicallyfixed timetable for the lateralization of the language functions to the verbal LH and, consequently, that the critical period for the acquisition of language was before adolescence. Although his time frame has been disputed (e.g., Krashen, 1973, 1975; Scovel, 1988), Lenneberg's basic hypothesis that there is a fixed period of time during which the brain organizes its division of labor remains, to this day, a plausible theory and a target for much debate.

target for much debate.

By the early Seventies the neurosciences had charted out a flourishing field of inquiry for language scientists to pursue. Neuroscientists were beginning seriously to question the idea that the LH alone was responsible for lan-

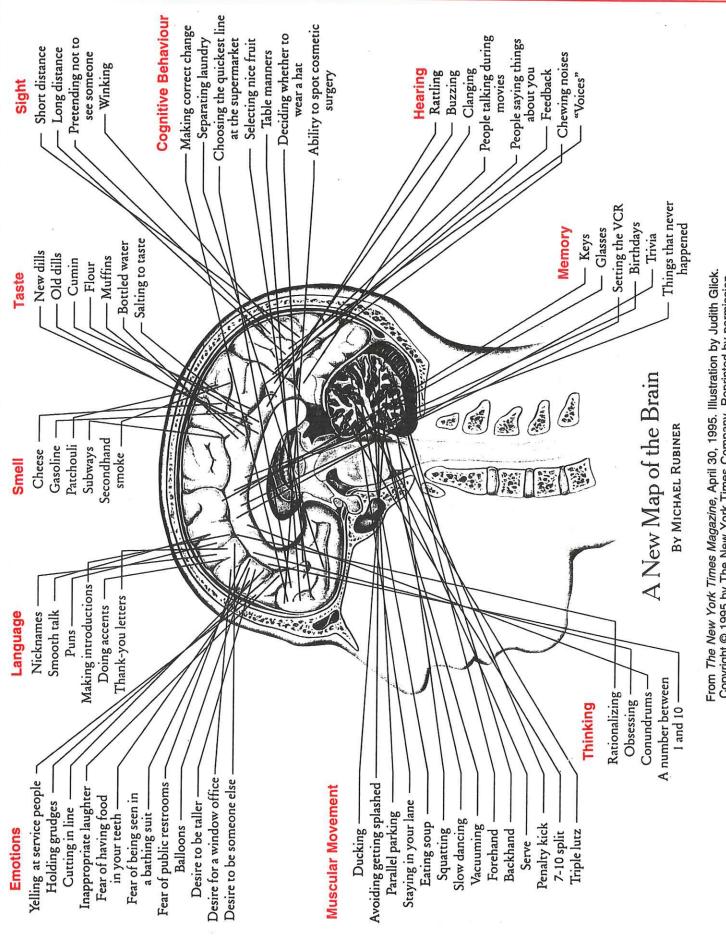
guage, and to entertain the possibility that the functions related to discourse programming - putting a message together to fit a situation, a topic, a need, etc. - were controlled by the RH. If this is indeed the case, then the discussions on comprehensible input (e.g. Krashen, 1985; Gass and Madden, 1985) can be seen to have supporting neurological correlates. The brain research suggests, in fact, that for any new input to be comprehensible, it must occur in contexts that allow the synthetic functions of the RH to do their interpretive work. In the case of tutored, or classroom, second language acquisition this has rather far-reaching implications. Above all else, it suggests that the brain is prepared to interpret new information primarily in terms of its contextual characteristics. The whole proficiency movement (e.g. Omaggio, 1986; Pal-

work in such neuroscientific work.

Today, neuroscientists have at their disposal a host of truly remark-

lotta, 1993) will certainly find a

highly supportive theoretical frame-



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able technologies for mapping and collecting data on brain functioning. The use of positron emission tomography (PET brain scanning), for instance, has become a particularly powerful investigative tool for neuroscientists, since it provides images of mental activities such as language (Calvin and Ojemann, 1994). Figure 1 shows the kind of detailed maps of the brain that the new technologies have allowed neuroscientists to draw.

We should mention, for the sake of completeness, that such maps have given us an idea only of how the neocortex is involved in producing various psychological functions, psychomotor movements, etc. However, there are other areas of the brain of which very little is known such as the areas below the cortex, which are involved in the emotions. In evolutionary terms, these areas are older, tying us to our primate heritage. So, although much has been learned about the neocortex since 1861, the brain in its totality still remains a largely mysterious organ.

Neuroscientifically-Raised Issues for Second Language Acquisition Research

The foray into the neurosciences on the part of second language acquisition researchers and theorists has made it possible to raise several issues that have far-reaching implications for both second language acquisition research and second language teaching practice. These can be summarized as follows:

First, there is the question of a "critical period" (Lenneberg 1967). Krashen (1973, 1975) has argued that the period of lateralization is completed at a much earlier age - by around five or six - than what Lenneberg postulated. This being the case, some other explanatory framework, other than a critical period one, would have to be elaborated to account for the supposed decrease in the capacity of adolescents and adults to acquire native-like competence in another language.

Perhaps the most exhaustive critique of this hypothesis has come from the pen of Thomas

- Scovel (1988) who, in reviewing the extensive body of research evidence assessing the critical period, has reached the conclusion that there are no clear-cut findings to suggest biological constraints on language acquisition, but rather psychological ones such as motivation, cognitive style, and affective variables. Lenneberg, as Scovel points out, simply assumed that language acquisition was easier for children. Scovel also remarked that the critical period hypothesis applies mainly to the acquisition of pronunciation. This suggests that the hypothesis probably should be recast in order to account for the loss of the ability to acquire native-like pronunciation after puberty. As Seliger (1978) and Walsh and Diller (1981) have suggested, perhaps there are many critical periods corresponding to the various levels, or subsystems, of language.
- The recent work on brain mapping suggests that the two hemispheres differ not so much in the type of stimuli they are designed to process but, rather, in the manner in which they process stimuli. This is why previously (Danesi and Mollica, 1988) we have preferred to adopt the terminology L-Mode and R-Mode, to refer to LH and RH functions respectively (in imitation of Edwards 1979), so as to allow for the fact that the RH may be involved in some contralateral (L-Mode) functions and the LH in R-Mode ones. Moreover, the research now indicates that while each hemisphere is specialized to handle a certain specific function, it does so in tandem with complementary or parallel processing patterns taking place in the other hemisphere - pure analytical thinking simply does not exist in the human brain, nor does pure intuitive thinking!
- Research has shown that the RH has a role to play in semantics and discourse (e.g., Chiarello, 1988; Joanette, Goulet, and Hannequin, 1990). This has supported theories of second language acquisition and the design of teaching methods and approaches based upon them

- (e.g., Obler 1980; Galloway and Krashen, 1980; Danesi and Mollica, 1988). These posit that the R-Mode dominates the second language acquisition process during its initial stages, with the L-Mode taking on more of the burden in later stages. Bimodality theory claims, more specifically, that the second language acquisition process will enlist the R-Mode and/or the L-Mode according to the specific nature of the language learning task at hand. It ascribes a crucial role to the R-Mode for discourse and semantic tasks which first language schemata cannot accommodate. But it sees the L-Mode as dominant for other kinds of tasks.
- The neuroscientific focus in seclanguage acquisition research has opened up a meaningful debate on the validity of the notion of Universal Grammar (UG) in linguistics. According to the UG paradigm, there exists a "language organ" in the brain that equips humans by the age of two with the ability to use the rules of a "universal" grammar to develop the specific languages that cultures require of them. The child only has to "set" a few language-specific "parameters" on the basis of parental input, and the full richness of grammar will ensue when those parameterized rules interact with one another and with universal principles. The parameter-setting view has been put forward to explain the universality and rapidity of language acquisition.

Those who disagree with UG theory point out that there is nothing in the neuroscientific research literature, outside of the fact that language acquisition occurs during a critical period, that would support the idea of a "language organ." Some second language acquisition theorists (e.g., White, 1990; Clahsen, 1990; Carroll and Meisel, 1990; Comrie, 1990) have argued that universal principles continue to play an important role in second language acquisition. Whether or not this is the case will have to be seen. At present, the theory of universal grammar excludes the possibility of second language ac-

quisition ever equalling first language acquisition in childhood. To ascribe the inability to master a second language in adulthood to the accessibility of language universals rules out too many other possibilities - life experiences, previous training, etc. which have nothing to do with biology. As Jacobs (1988: 330) aptly puts it, any theory of second language acquisition "will have to consider what the environment brings to the brain, including both the input itself (e.g., structure, intonation, morphology) and the surrounding situational variables (e.g., gestures, discourse context); and, just as importantly, must also consider what the brain does to this information."

Neuroscientifically-Designed Methods

The foray into the neurosciences has also been a productive one for second language teaching practices. The research on the role of the RH in language, for instance, has led to the design of three major second language teaching methods in the last three decades – Lozanov's (1979) Suggestopedia, Asher's (1977, 1981) Total Physical Response, and Krashen's and Terrell's (1983) Natural Approach. These can be characterized schematically as follows:

- Lozanov stresses the importance of creating a learning environment that is capable of activating subliminal R-Mode processes. This is why he suggests the technique known as the séance a period during which students relax and sit comfortably in reclining chairs listening to background music (usually the slow movements of Baroque composers such as Bach, Handel, Vivaldi, Corelli and Telemann) while new language input is being read in the second language and in translation.
- Asher's Total Physical Response method is designed to impart the second language mainly through physical activities. Moreover, he suggests that the criterion for including an item of vocabulary, grammar, or communication at a

particular point in the learning sequence should be the ease of assimilation shown by the students. If the item is not learned rapidly, then they are obviously not ready for that item. Hence, it should be withdrawn and presented again at some future time. The "flow" of learning which Asher intends to set in motion with Total Physical Response goes from concrete actions to linguistic abstractions; i.e., from the R-Mode to the L-Mode. Asher claims that when a sufficient amount of R-Mode learning has taken place, the L-Mode will be triggered naturally to produce the more abstract linguistic notions. So, he views grammatical training as virtually unnecessary.

Krashen's and Terrell's Natural Approach became one of the most discussed teaching proposals in the Eighties, probably because of its intuitive appeal to teachers and learners alike. It too ascribed great salience to the R-Mode during all stages of second language acquisition, but especially during the initial ones. Krashen and Terrell viewed the R-Mode as the natural "acquisitional" mode of the student. They deemed grammar training to be virtually useless, since they claimed that knowledge of structure would emerge inductively through the L-Mode's inbuilt "monitoring" system. However, before his untimely death in the early nineties, Terrell (1991) modified this radical view somewhat.

Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response, and the Natural Approach have constituted the first serious attempts to organize classroom second language teaching around the brain's acquisition mode - the R-Mode. In so doing, however, they have downplayed the role of the L-Mode perhaps too drastically. They seem to generate much interest and enthusiasm in teacher and learner alike during the initial stages – the stages during which the R-Mode probably dominates the intake of novel information. But their overemphasis on this mode throughout the course of learning also probably explains why they have not caught on across the entire second language teaching profession. They simply do

not place enough importance on the L-Mode and on the analytical learning sub-systems that it encompasses. There really can be no method or approach that is designed in a purely R-Mode or L-Mode fashion. Omaggio (1986: 69) is correct in calling Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach modern adaptations of the Direct Method, given that they have rehabilitated the second language acquisition = first language acquisition metaphor. Hence, both are really evolutionary second language teaching methods, rather than revolutionary ones.

General Issues and Implications for SLT

In addition to spawning the methods just discussed, the foray into the neurosciences has also raised some important general issues for the entire second language teaching profession. As we have claimed in previous work (Danesi and Mollica, 1988), the neuroscientific evidence suggests at least two "instructional-design principles" for second language teaching generally: the modal directionality principle and the modal focusing principle.

Modal Directionality

It would appear, before all else, that the teaching of new notions and structures should follow an R-Mode (experiential) to L-Mode (analytical) "flow." This means that during the initial learning stages students need to assimilate new input through observation, induction, role-playing, simulation, oral tasks, and various kinds of interactive activities. But we would quickly add that formal grammatical explanations, drills, and other L-Mode procedures must follow these stages, since we have found that control of structure will not emerge spontaneously, as Asher and others claim. Incidentally, identifying a learning task or unit as having an L-Mode or an R-Mode focus implies only indicating which mode is to be emphasized in the overall design of the task, and does not necessarily indicate which specific hemispheric functions will be activated. The modal directionality *principle* thus claims:

 that experiential forms of tutoring belong to the initial learning stages, and

that teaching should move progressively towards a more formal, analytical style in the later stages.

An analogy to music teaching can perhaps be used to illustrate the practical implications of this principle. Learning how to play a new piece on the piano, say, entails the ability to mold the component mechanical skills needed to play the notes, phrases, etc. of the piece successfully into the global skill of "playing the music." So, in order to give the learner's L-Mode a better opportunity to analyze and organize the component skills into automatic psychomotor routines, the teacher normally starts out by playing the piece for the student, making appropriate aesthetic comments here and there. In this way, the student's R-Mode has an opportunity to decipher the new musical input in a global aesthetic way. The component mechanical skills can now be understood separately and practiced apart from their expressive modali-

Needless to say, an advanced music student who is already in firm control of the required L-Mode skills through previous training will not have to spend as much time on this component as would a beginner. When the student has mastered the L-Mode aspects of the piece, then he/she will be in a position to integrate them with the R-Mode ones as he/she performs the piece. A consummate performance of the piece is, from a neurological perspective, a bimodal feat, requiring the integrated contribution of both the R-Mode and the L-Mode to the performative task at hand.

The modal directionality principle implies, above all else, that the teacher should leave ample room for student improvisation during the early learning stages. Instructional techniques which focus on discrete categories (words in isolation, sentence structure, rules of formation, etc.) will be of little value, since the students generally have no preexisting L-Mode schemata for accommodating the new input directly. In order to make the new material accessible to the L-Mode (intake), therefore, the early stages should in-

volve teacher and learner alike in activities enlisting exploration, imagination, spontaneity, and induction. Once the initial learning stages have been completed, the teacher can "shift modes" and begin to focus more on formal, mechanical, rule-based instruction.

Modal directionality can be seen to be a different version of the oldest principle in second language teaching – the inductive principle. But unlike its use in strictly inductivist methods (e.g. the *Direct Method*, the Audiolingual Method, etc.), it does not require the deployment of induction for *all* learning tasks, only those that involve new input. Thus, if a learning task contains knowledge or input that the learner can already accommodate cognitively, directionality can be efficiently avoided. So, modal directionality is really a common-sensical pedagogical principle that good teachers, and the better second language teaching methods, have always embodied into their modus operandi. It is virtually a "law of learning" which claims that teaching should ensure a constant movement from experiential to expository learning conditions, from practical to theoretical content, and from concrete to analytical presentation styles. Indirect evidence in support of modal directionality exists throughout the second language acquisition and second language teaching literature. Jeffries (1985), for example, has shown that the use of grammatical discourse as a presentation technique (an L-Mode practice) poses a serious obstacle to classroom learning.

Modal Focusing

The principle of *modal focusing* claims that at certain points in the tutored learning process the students will need to focus on one mode or the other for various reasons. After the learners have grasped the new concepts in an R-Mode way, for example, their mental systems can be said to be prepared to assign them to appropriate L-Mode categories. At this point, the teacher can step in with suitable L-Mode techniques which focus on pattern practice, grammatical instruction, etc.

Modal focusing might also be required at points in the learning proc-

ess when, for instance, a learner appears to need help in overcoming some error pattern that has become an obstacle to learning - L-Mode focusing allows the students an opportunity to focus on formal matters for accuracy and control; R-mode focusing on matters of discourse formulation and conceptual meaning. Students themselves use their L-Mode overtly when they search for some ending to a verb, when they try to think of a word they have forgotten, etc. On the other hand, they use their R-Mode when they try to think of what to say. True acquisition can be said to occur when the students' attempts at discourse formulation can be seen to enlist both modes in a cooperative way.

It is important to point out that the modal focusing principle in no way implies that mechanical practice be conducted in an uncontextualized way. On the contrary, meaningful contexts should always be provided not only for new input, but also for focusing routines. This allows the R-Mode to complement and strengthen the intake operations of the L-Mode, especially during more mechanically-oriented focusing tasks. Contextualized language instruction enables the learners to relate L-Mode *form* to R-Mode content.

To conclude, the general teaching implications that modal directionality and modal focusing call forth can be summarized in point form as follows:

During an R-Mode Stage:

- Classroom activities should be student-centered.
- Novel input should be structured in ways that involve sensory, experiential learning. As in Di Pietro's (1987) Scenario Approach, the learners should also be allowed to generate their own strategies for orchestrating roleplaying scenarios.
- The students' inductive and exploratory tendencies should be encouraged to operate freely when introducing new grammatical or lexical information.

During an L-Mode Stage:

 The focus now shifts to the teacher.

- Grammar explanations, drills, etc. should follow the experiential learning phases.
- Focusing on some problematic aspect of grammar, vocabulary, etc.
 is to be encouraged if a student appears to have difficulty grasping it or using it.

Concluding Reflections

The reader is by now aware that we posed the question in the title of this essay, namely, "Have we learned anything useful from the foray into the neuroscientific domain?", only rhetorically. It has been indeed a fruitful foray. But we also wish to emphasize that it has produced very little in the way of empirical research findings. Most of the current neuroscientifically-shaped theories of second language acqusition, and of the neuroscientifically-designed methods of instruction, have been based primarily on extrapolations from the neuroscientific literature or from the observations of teachers. So, we cannot help but agree with Obler (1983) when she observes that, unless we are very careful, many unnecessary problems are bound to crystallize when extracting too many implications from the work on hemisphericity.

Interpreting the research on the role of the RH for second language acquisition, and then translating it into pedagogical principles, has been particularly instructive (Satz, Strauss and Whitaker 1990). It has now become apparent that the two hemispheres do share some features. The LH has been shown to have the capacity to engage in some holistic and parallel processing, and the RH in some analytic and serial processing. But, for the most part, RH language performance is inferior to that of the LH (see McKeener and Hunt 1989, Segalowitz and Cohen 1989, Cohen and Segalowitz 1990, Richards and Chiarello 1990, Hunter and Liederman 1991, Beeman 1993, Faust, Kravitz and Babkoff 1993a, 1993b for recent work in the fleld). All attempts to construct models of SLA based on the participation of the RH at various stages, and to translate such models into instructional practices, therefore, must tread very cautiously and judiciously. We are in agreement with Ellis (1986: 273)

when he remarks that neuroscientific accounts of second language acquisition are probably more useful in providing "additional understanding about second language acquisition," rather than constituting explanations of it.

In addition to the issues raised above, it should be pointed out that the foray into the neuroscientific domain raises another interesting question, that is rarely addressed. Is it possible or desirable to take account of the likelihood that learners will have different hemispheric learning styles? There exists some evidence in the neuroscientific literature that hemispheric style (a preference for one or the other learning mode) correlates with handedness, gender, and various environmental factors (Geschwind and Galaburda, 1987). From an educational perspective, it is obvious that a student with a dominant L-Mode learning style will gain very little from an abundant use of R-Mode techniques. Similarly, grammar-based instruction for students with an R-Mode learning style would probably prove equally futile. However, much more empirical work would need to be done in this area. Nevertheless, the fact that the above question can be asked in the first place is an outcome of the foray into neuroscientific turf.

As a final word, we would like to remark that the foray should continue in the future, producing interesting hypotheses, constructs, and suggestions for conducting research on second language acquisition and for modelling second language teaching instruction. If second language teachers are truly interested in understanding how their students learn and in responding pedagogically in an appropriate way then, as Spolsky (1985: 279) put it a decade ago, it is "certainly not unreasonable to seek insights from the brain sciences."

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The Reading/Listening Library

Stephen D. Krashen

oreign language students do not have the advantages that second language students do. The situation at the beginning level for the two groups is roughly equivalent, because both are dependent on the classroom for their comprehensible input, but the intermediate second language student has the advantage of the presence of native speakers outside the classroom. I would like to suggest a simple, inexpensive way for foreign language programs to give students some of the advantages of the second language student: the free reading/free listening library.

We discuss first the most obvious reason for a library: books. It is well established that reading, especially free voluntary reading, is a very powerful means of increasing language and literacy competence. Free reading appears to be the major source of our reading comprehension ability, our writing style, our vocabulary, our spelling ability, and our ability to deal with complex grammatical structures (Krashen, 1993). Foreign language programs rarely take advantage of free reading. Extensive free voluntary reading may be the bridge between lower levels of language proficiency and the ability to understand and produce "academic" language; someone who has done a great deal of "light reading" will be better prepared to read scientific texts, newspapers editorials, and, of course, classical literature.

The library can also be a source of aural comprehensible input in the form of tapes of radio programs, speeches, TV programs, and films. Some foreign language programs have invested substantial sums of money in high-tech computer labs. There is, however, no evidence supporting the use of these machines. The lower-tech approach I am recommending is much less expensive, and theory and research strongly suggest it will be effective in supplying the aural input missing outside the classroom.

According to the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), the best use of the library is the simplest: Students should be allowed to select their own reading and listening, and feel free to switch to another book or tape before finishing if the current one is boring or too hard. Most important, they should be encouraged to read and listen for pleasure a great deal. In fact, this activity should be the core of homework for intermediate students, and even for beginners, if interesting but less difficult material can be found. Of course, in order to allow self-selection and to provide variety, the library needs to have a substantial collection of books and tapes on many different topics and

at different difficulty levels.

Because self-selection of reading and listening guarantees comprehension and interest, students need not be tested on what they read: There need be no accountability, no comprehension questions or quizzes. This is highly desirable, as it is likely that testing will detract from the pleasure of reading and listening. Some students may not take advantage of the library, however. It could be argued that accountability is necessary to insure all students do the reading and listening. The answer to this objection is that the reading and listening material should be so interesting that students will want to read and listen. In most cases of reluctant readers I am acquainted with, there was a lack of interesting reading material available. It is quite true that we can "lead a horse to water but we cannot make him drink", but first we must make sure the water is there.

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Reducing Stress in the Foreign Language Classroom: Teaching Descriptive Adjectives Through Humour

Domenico Maceri

Ithough many instructors have been emphasizing the oral aspect of the language for quite a while, the publication of the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) proficiency guidelines created a greater awareness of the importance of this facet of language learning. Recently-published textbooks reflect this trend and more of them continue to expand the oral communication activities.

This stress on oral communication with its inevitable goals on student performance brings about many positive changes since it puts more into focus the linguistic objectives inherent in language learning. At the same time, however, it increases a problem students have in our classes – their anxiety in having to perform orally in class. As we all know, the biggest fear people have is public speaking. In surveys, in fact, it rates highest, surpassing even the fear people have of death. The ACTFL guidelines added to this fear.

In our foreign language classes this fear is apparent on a daily basis. Not simply are students called upon to speak in front of teachers and classmates, but they have to do it in a language that they are struggling to learn. Their fear is caused by the perceived notion of vulnerability to the teacher's and classmates' "assaults." Students' fear may be irrational as many phobias are, yet it is nevertheless true that students feel anxiety in a foreign language classroom because of the emphasis on performance.

Although studies indicate that anxiety has only a modest relationship to actual performance in achievement (Phillips, 1991) students do feel that apprehension and that is all that really matters. Their anxiety will affect their performance and their feelings will affect their decision as to whether to continue

their study of the language or drop it.

There are a number of ways to combat this fear. Humour is certainly one of them. As Powell and Andresen point out,

a hearty laugh wipes out, if only momentarily, differences in status and viewpoint (p. 80).

In teaching descriptive adjectives one can use humorous associations to lower the affective filter and make students feel comfortable and eager to participate. The lesson is conducted entirely in Spanish. The teacher begins by drawing a short and a long line on the board and identifies them with numbers 1 and 2, respectively. Students repeat after the instructor.

La línea número uno es corta. (corta is stressed).

La línea número dos es larga.(larga is stressed).

Students have no trouble understanding everything. Questions can then be put to the entire class.

¿Cómo es la línea número uno? ¿Cómo es la línea número dos?

After a few chorus responses, the teacher should ask a few individual questions and then ask for negative and affirmative answers:

¿Es corta la línea número uno? ¿Es corta la linea número dos? Finally, one can ask,

¿Cómo es la línea número 1? ¿Cómo es la línea número 2?

to several students individually. The purpose of beginning with *corto*, -a and *largo*, -a is twofold:

- it serves as a prelude to the teaching of other adjectives and
- at the same time it reviews the interrogative ¿Cómo? which is essential in the lesson.

I am using Spanish examples. However, the same lesson works well with other Romance languages and quite likely with additional ones. Once this has been done, one can proceed with other descriptive adjectives.

Brasil es grande.

Rhode Island es pequeño.

Students have no problem understanding these two adjectives. To make them absolutely clear, one can open the arms very wide and close them to show big and small. A few examples about a very small local city and asking them

¿Es grande Harmony? bring smiles to students. (Harmony is a very small city on th central coast of California). They understand that you are asking for a negative answer and will gladly give it. The opposite also works very well.

¿Texas es pequeño?

By this time students are beginning to feel very comfortable and are warming up to the "game" of learning descriptive adjectives.

At this point one can go on with adjectives to describe people, which is really the most enjoyable part. It's a good idea to use the names of famous people. Teaching *alto*, -a and *bajo* -a is very easy especially if the instructor happens to be *bajo* or *baja*. Have students repeat:

Michael Jordan es alto.

El profesor no es alto.

El profesor es bajo.

Then ask them:

¿Cómo es Michael Jordan? ¿Cómo es el profesor?

Continue with the negative.

¿Es alto el profesor?

¿Es bajo Michael Jordan? If the instructor is bajo, -a, students will find humour in the contrast and will feel more comfortable about answering the teacher's questions orally. Afterwards, use some of the students in the class. Choose a tall student and ask the class if s/he is bajo -a. Students will begin to chuckle and give you the correct response. You may want to begin to point out the masculine and feminine forms especially if you have picked a young lady as your model. Bonita and guapo follow. The names of famous men and women are again very useful. Kevin Costner, Julio Iglesias, Brooke Shields, Sharon Stone, may do the trick.

Kevin Costner es guapo. Brooke Shields es bonita. Students will repeat and understand. You may want to teach the opposite right away. Ask the class,

¿Quién es feo?

explaining that "feo es el contrario

de bonita o guapo."

Then ask individually about some famous names and whether they are *guapo*, *bonita*, *feo*, *-a*. You may want to begin to pick up alto and bajo as review. Cognates that students might have already learned can be easily integrated into these questions.

Casado, -a, soltero, -a, delgado, -a and gordo, -a, inteligente, tonto-a (Gilligan?) rico, -a and pobre, viejo, -a and joven can be taught using similar approaches and other famous names. It's a good idea to occasionally ask

¿Quién es guapo? ¿Quién es rico?

¿Quién es alto? joven, viejo, etc. It's also a good idea to bring it all back to the class. Have a few students stand up and ask the class,

¿Cómo es...?

Students are very good about saying positive things about their classmates. Some students may show particular interest in a certain classmate. Asking them,

¿Ud. quiere el número de teléfono de...?

will surely bring out laughter. Questions can be asked such as

¿Es alto, -a...? rico, -a? (They aren't; all of them are poor). Eventually you may want to ask several individual students to describe themselves using the adjectives they have just learned and other cognates.

At this point one may want to explain that gordo, -a and viejo, -a:

En español no son negativos; en español y en otras culturas - orientales, por ejemplo – gordo y viejo son positivos. Gordo indica rico. Viejo indica inteligente, tiene experiencia, etc.

Students understand these simple sentences in Spanish, and in addition to learning the adjectives, they are also learning culture.

Humour in a second language differs considerably from that of a first language. What would most certainly be a cliché in the first language: "Gilligan is silly," "Sharon Stone is pretty," "Michael Jordan is not short" may gain life in a foreign language. The cliché of the first language becomes fresh and humorous

in a language students do not know very well.

Humour is something that instructors need to use in the foreign language classroom. It does not substitute for quality teaching, yet it is a key ingredient in any learning situation. The integration of humour in the foreign language classroom can make the lessons enjoyable for students as well as instructors. If the material studied is interesting, students' achievement will increase, fulfilling in this way Horace's maxim "Omne tulit punctum, qui miscuit utile dulci." (He who manages to blend the useful and pleasurable has achieved perfection.)

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AATI to meet in Italy

hanks to the generous invitation by the President of the Università per stranieri, Siena, Prof. Mauro Barni and the President of the Università per stranieri, Perugia, Prof. Paola Bianchi De Vecchi, and the former rettore, Senator Giorgio Spitella, the AATI (the American Association of Tecahers of Italian), will hold its annual meeting in Chianciano Terme, Perugia and Siena, December 11-13, 1995.

Founded in 1924, the AATI is the oldest Italian language association in North America. This is the first time in the Association's history that a meeting is held outside North America. Past meetings have been

held in conjunction with MLA and more recently with ACTFL.

Over 50 sessions dealing with literature, culture, and pedagogy will involve Italianists from the US, Canada, Italy, France, the United Kingdom, Spain and other European countries.

Special flight "packages" have been prepared and interested colleagues wishing to attend this conference should write (in the US) to: Professor Christopher Kleinhenz, Vice-President, AATI, c/o Department of French and Italian, University of Wisconsin, 1220 Linden Drive, Madison, WI 53706. Tel. (Bus.): [608] 262-3941, Fax: [608] 247-6731,

or (in Canada) to: Professor Anthony Mollica, President, AATI, 4 Oakmount Road, Welland, Ontario L3C 4X8. Tel. (Res.): [416] 732-2149, Fax: [905] 788-2674.



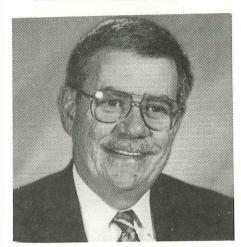
(From left to right: Dr. Gianclaudio Macchiarella, Italian Cultural Institute, New York; Senator Giorgio Spitella, former President, Università per stranieri, Siena; Prof. Anthony Mollica, President AATI; Prof. Christopher Kleinhenz, Vice President, AATI; Prof. Mauro Barni, President, Università per stranieri, Siena.

Seven Receive Prestigious ACTFL Awards

even women and men from around the nation received prestigious professional awards on November 19, 1995, at the 28th Annual Meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages in Atlanta, Georgia.

Commemorative plaques were presented to each recipient, along with the congratulations of their colleagues. The three awards named to honor Emma Marie Birkmaier, Anthony Papalia, and Paul Pimsleur also included cheques for \$500 provided by *The Modern Language Journal* or the New York State Association of foreign Language Teachers.

The award winners are:



Thomas W. Alsop, Spanish teacher at Ben Davis High School in Indianapolis, received the ACTFL Nelson Brooks Award for Excellence in the Teaching of Culture.



Dr. Susan M. Bacon, Associate Professor of Spanish in the Department

of Romance Languages at the University of Cincinatti, received the ACTFL-MLJ Paul Pimsleur Award for Research in Foreign Language Education.



Dr. Diane W. Birckbichler, Professor in the Department of French and Italian and Director of the National Foreign Language Resource Center at The Ohio State University in Columbus, received the ACTFL Florence Steiner Award for Leadership in Foreign Language Education, Postsecondary.



Dr. Gladys C. Lipton, Coordinator of Foreign Language Workshops and Director of the National FLES (Foreign Languages in Elementary Schools) Institute at the University of Maryland/Baltimore County, received the ACTFL Florence Steiner Award for Leadership in Foreign Language Eduction, K-12.

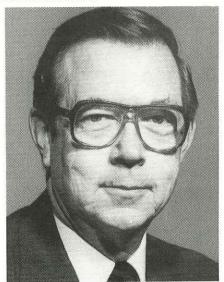
Dr. Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, Assistant Professor and Director of the GER Program in the Department of Spanish and Portuguese at the University of Iowa in Iowa City, received the ACTFL-MLJ Emma Marie



Birkmaier Award for Doctoral Dissertation Research in Foreign Language Education.



Jeffrey J. Munks, Director of Marketing and Sales for AT&T in Monterey, California, received the ACTFL Edwin Cudecki International Business Award.



Dr. Lynn A. Sandstedt, Professor of Spanish at the University of Northern Colorado in Greeley and Executive Director of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP), received the ACTFL-NYSAFLT Anthony Papalia Award for Excellence in Teacher Education.



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