Corrective Treatment in Foreign-Language Learning

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The purpose of this paper is to explore some characteristics of corrective treatment in foreign-language learning, discussing the following points:

1 the significance and basic options of various kinds of corrective interactions in a formal classroom setting;
2 reconsideration of corrective reactions, including repetition and some characteristics of correction in an informal setting;
3 ways of reducing errors, such as natural sequences, delayed introduction of speech, and monitoring function; and
4 the significance of affective factors in corrective treatment, focusing on "unconventional methods."

1 Corrective Interaction

1.1 It seems common now to consider that errors are crucial to a foreign-language learner, since the analysis of his errors suggests that the "ill-formed" structures are the output of rules which a "transitional competence" uses. Corder (1967) stresses the same concept of error as rule-governed behavior and compares systematic errors with a child's language:

> A learner's errors provide evidence of the system of the language that he is using (i. e. has learned) at a particular point in the course. They are significant in three different ways. First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher

> evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly, they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has of testing his hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning. The making of errors then is a strategy employed both by children acquiring their mother-tongue and by those learning a second language.

What should be noted here, however, is that the learner does not deliberately create his errors as the most efficient way of hypothesis-testing and that he should learn after all to distinguish errors from correct instances so as to prevent the occurrence of "fossilization."

There are some researchers (e.g. George, 1972; Paulston and Bruder, 1976) who have pointed out the possibility of withholding correction altogether under certain conditions. It is not likely, however, that this approach can be maintained throughout the whole instructional program. Although considerable research has been conducted on the source and significance of the learner's error, it is only in some recent studies (e. g. Allwright, 1975; Holley and King, 1971) that the importance of the role of error correction has been re-discovered.

1.2 In order to discuss what is in fact a correction, criteria for isolating corrective treatments need to be clarified. Halliday (1976) has pointed out that behind the linguistic semiotics of a sentence frequently lies the semiotics of the language teaching process, referring to different linguistic interpretations of the sentence "*the teacher taught the student English.*" Similarly, the sentence "*the instructor corrected the learner's error* (in classroom discourse)" might be interpreted as follows:

(1) the instructor imparted to the learner information about making the error right,

(2) the instructor involved the learner in making the error right,

(3) the instructor caused the learner to make the error right,

(4) the instructor enabled the learner to come to make the error right, and

(5) the instructor enabled the learner not to commit the error.

In the last interpretation, correction succeeds in establishing the learner's consistently correct performance and ability of self-correction. It is obviously next to impossible to make correction in this strict sense within any period of formal instruction. The first concept of correction suggests a transactional view, as the handing over of a commodity to a recipient——with a giver (instructor) and a gift (information) as the leading roles; the presence of a recipient is not necessarily central. In the third concept, the learner is seen as "doing," with the instructor as a helper. In the fourth, the learner is the key participant,with the instructor as a helper and guide,and, furthermore, is enlarging his mental powers by acquiring new knowledge. In both the third and fourth concepts, correction occurs when a corrected response is elicited from the learner; correction here means "successful correction."

The second concept of correction includes any corrective treatment of the instructor concerning the learner's error. This interpretation is an interactional view of language learning rather than a transactional one. The leading roles are those of the instructor and the learner, although there is a suggestion here of the instructor of strong personality. It may safely be said that the first and second concepts are based on the "intentional use" of the term "correction" and the other three concepts on the "success use." This paper is primarily concerned with the second concept of correction.

1.3 Recent psycholinguistic investigations (cf. Iwaki, 1977) support the thesis that overcorrection is unnecessary and inadvisable. However, they do not mean the complete exclusion of "correction" itself. In pedagogical applications of error investigation or analysis, at some stage it needs to be decided how many corrections the instructor should make, and when and how.

In reality the instructor's decision is of considerable complexity; an error analysis in the classroom has to be "instant," and any corrective treatment given is "public." First, the instructor should be pro-

vided with as much information of the following sort as is availabe (Allwright, 1975): (1) What was actually said or done, (2) Who said it or did it, (3) What was meant by it, (4) What sholud have been said or done, and (5) What the native-language equivalent would be.

Second, the instructor might make simultaneous reference to various aspects of the error. These are summarized below (Allwright, 1975):

A. Linguistic description:		1	Content area
		2	Skill area
B. Importance:	(a) Present:	3	Relevance to pedagogic focus
		4	Frequency
		5	Number of learners affected
	(b) Future:	6	Accuracy
		7	Communicative effectiveness
C. Source:		8	Interlingual inference
		9	Intralingual inference
		10	L2 learning strategy
		11	Communication strategy
		12	Teaching
		13	Carelessness (including obtuseness)
		14	Stress (anxiety, fatigue, etc.)
		15	Factual ignorance
D. Ease of correction		16	Teacher's competence
		17	Resources available
		18	Time available

Third, corrective treatment in the classroom might also be influenced by various characteristics of the learner, such as (cf. Cohen, 1975; Papalia, 1976):

A. Learning style:	1	Cognitive style
	2	Sensory mode
	3	Interactive learning mode
	4	Study habits
	5	Personality type
	6	Intelligence attitude
	7	Others
B. Past history	8	Academic record
	9	Error types observed
	10	Previous corrective treatment type

	11 Others
C. Present state	12 Motivation
	13 Anxiety level
	14 Arousal level
	15 Fatigue
	16 Others

Allwright (1975) presents a series of basic options in corrective treatment and possible features of the correction process:

A. Basic options:	1 To treat or to ignore completely
	2 To treat immediately or delay
	3 To transfer treatment or not
	4 To transfer to another individual, a sub-group, or to the whole class
	5 To return, or not, to original error maker after treatment
	6 To call upon, or permit, another learner (or learners) to provide treatment
	7 To test for efficacy of treatment
B. Possible features:	8 Fact of error indicated
	9 Blame indicated
	10 Location indicated
	11 Opportunity for new attempt given
	12 Model provided
	13 Error type indicated
	14 Remedy indicated
	15 Improvement indicated
	16 Praise indicated

1.4 In initiating an actual corrective treatment, one of the chief difficulties is how to ascertain whether an item is an error or not, and another is how to establish a hierarchy of errors——that is, the issue of error gravity (cf. Iwaki, 1979). The role and significance of various types of corrective treatment have been investigated usually outside the field of foreign-language instruction. Zahorik (1968), for instance, explored the nature of instructor verbal feedback during the teaching-learning act with the aid of an observational instrument (a modified Aschner-Gallagher System). The results of the investigation suggest

that instructor verbal feedback during an interactive classroom situation is rather rigid behavior. Although the fifteen instructors under investigation displayed 175 different types of feedback, they only used sixteen types with regularity.

In another study Zahorik (1970) investigated the relationship of instructor verbal feedback to phase and type of venture employed in content development. Sixteen types of feedback during the medial and terminal phases of ventures in general and in relation to four types of ventures were examined. Significant differences were found between the types of instructor feedback used during the medial phase and the types used during the terminal phase. Significant differences were also found in relation to both medial and terminal feedback among the four types of ventures.

Zahorik conludes his discussion: "Perhaps a wider variety of types of feedback, including types that seem to carry more information, would be of benefit to learners." It is likely that foreign-language instruction will derive the full benefit of a better understanding of the role of corrective treatment.

1.5 Most of the attempts to describe corrective treatment of the learner's errors have employed fairly gross descriptive categories for treatment types, such as "answer repetition," "confirmation," "response development statement, and several-answers solicitation" (e. g. Zahorik, 1970; Allwright, 1975). These taxonomical categorizations are liable to lack a systematic view of the data to be analyzed——to overlook "component" features of corrective treatment and the potential effects of combination patterns of components in the larger teaching-learning system. In this connection, Chauldron's (1977) use of a flow chart model of discourse to synthesize the descriptive system for classroom discourse by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Allwright's (1975) basic options in corrective treatment gives valuable and workable suggestions.

In Figure 1 presented by Chauldron, the structure of classroom interaction is indicated in relation to the basic series of "Opening, Answering, and Follow-up Moves" in Sinclair and Coulthard's terms.

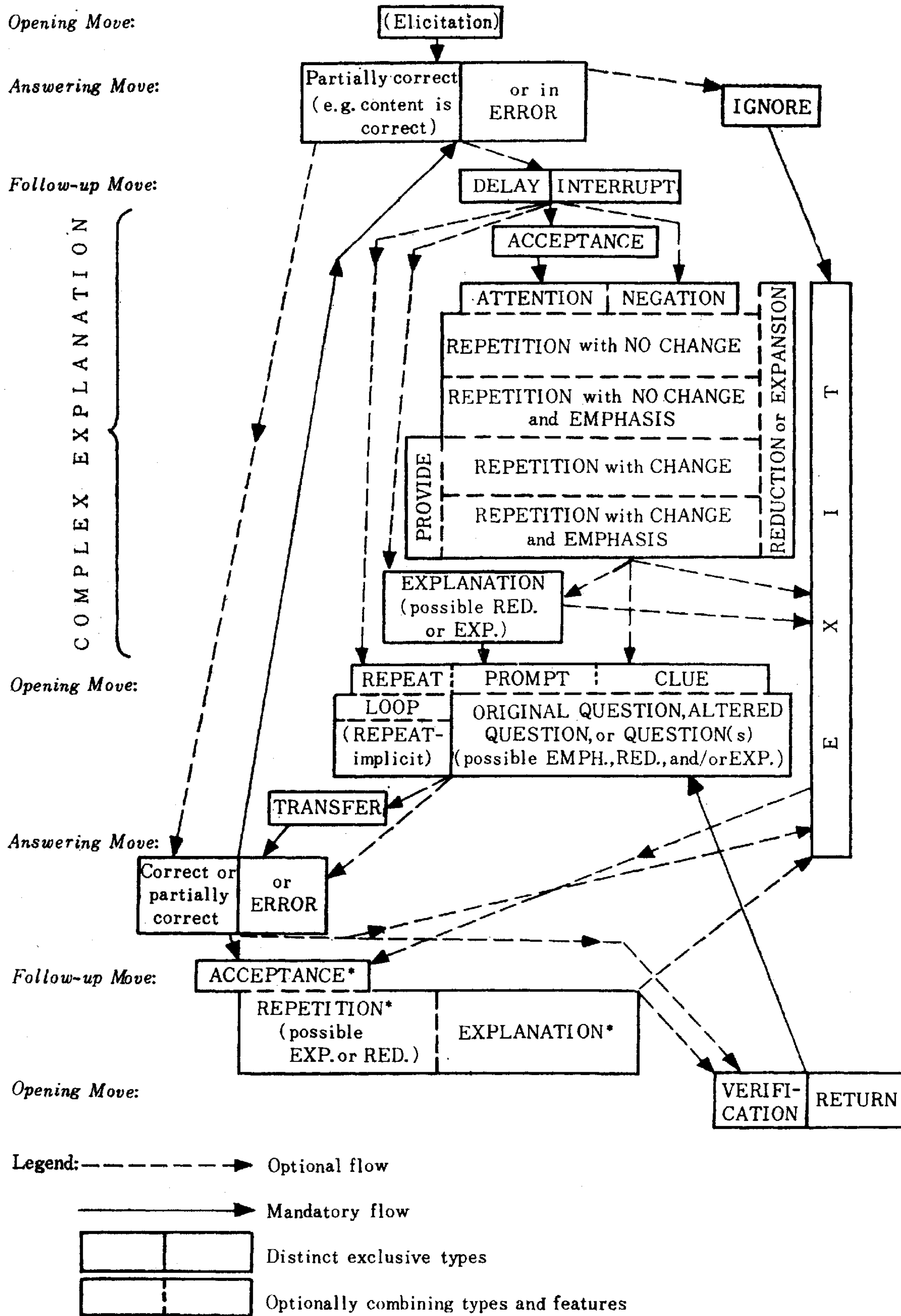

Figure 1

It is not the intent of this paper to present a more detailed or refined version of this model. Suffice it to say here that the flow of discourse should be further related to the "instruction phase" so as to indicate the progression of learning activities.

2 Corrective Techniques Reconsidered

2.1 Chauldron's model clearly shows that there are a large number of possible paths through corrective discourse. Yet, admittedly, the most frequently used type of formal corrective treatment is repetition, not only in "content subjects" but in foreign languages. Zahorik (1968) has found that the most frequent type of feedback is repeating the learner's answer approvingly and calling for or giving a new topic for discussion.

One of the maxims assumed in most current instruction practices is "Get the learner to utter the same structural pattern repeatedly." The validity of this assumption, however, seems arguable, since it may not reflect the ways of a child's language acquisition. On close examination of children's past tense formation, McNeill (1966) points out that the repetition practice which children do to learn irregular forms is less significant to them than the regular weak verb pattern acquired later.

Chauldron (1977) has investigated various types of repetition in order to show which types appear to lead to more successful correction. The model in Figure 1 shows that there are four basic types of repetition (with and without change, and with and without emphasis).

According to Chauldron, "repetition with change" alone is not effective in locating the error. "Repetition with no change" might be ambiguous in that it would model the incorrect utterance. The two features, "reduction" and "expansion," regularly occur with "repetition."

Cazden's (1965) investigation, which is the classic study in first language acquisition along these lines, reports that "repetition with expansion" is not liable to improve the learner's syntactic progress (the

picture is not that clear, though: cf. McNeill, 1970). Chauldron (1977) maintains that the effectiveness of repetition seems to depend on the nature of the information added, and that there is a positive relationship between "repetition with reduction" and success. Chauldron also notes that the use of "emphasis" increases chances of success——"an approximative ratio of 46% success for repetition with emphasis, compared to 20% without emphasis."

In an informal setting, it is revealed that a mother employs a variety of strategies in dealing with her child, such as repeating the input, prodding, correcting, and expanding the child's output. According to Kobashigawa (1969), repetition constitutes 34% of all utterances investigated——15% of the statements, 25% of the questions, and 60% of the imperatives. Snow (1972) mentions that repetition of complete sentences is three to four times as frequent for two year-olds as for ten year-olds, and explains: "Short term memory limits the time available for processing input. Repetition of a sentence would give added processing time, thus increasing the child's chances of successfully processing the sentence."

2. 2 It has been widely accepted now that the adult or parent rarely makes the child imitate a spontaneous adult utterance and probably never requires a child to "practice" adult forms. Gorbet (1974) proposes that practice or drill is the most effective tool to facilitate quick automatic responses and useful for the learner to formulate hypothesis, but that it is not effective in eliminating errors since it does nothing to help the learner in adjusting his hypothesis.

Correction techniques vary with the nature of the error, the type of drill, the level of practice, the easiness of correction, etc., but what is important is not to correct every error the learner commits. Paulston and Bruder (1975) refer to correcting errors in drilling. In mechanical drills, they admonish that all the errors on the new pattern and those of the previous week should be corrected. The learner working on internalizing a new rule has to learn the correct form. Their recommendation is for more presentation of the correct form and repetition

on the learner's side. Pronunciation errors should not be corrected in grammar drills any more than grammar errors in pronunciation drills. At the mechanical drill stage of learning a structural pattern, most of the errors are competence errors, and they advise that these are best corrected by supplying the learner with the correct form. At the meaningful stage, most of the learner's errors are likely to be performance errors. The emphasis of correction should be on the learner's self-monitoring of his speech. In communicative drills the emphasis is on the message, and they maintain that most errors should be ignored except serious errors which are on the focus of instruction or those which interfere with communication. Paulston and Bruder convincingly emphasize the importance of careful treatment according to the different stages of drill. Yet such treatment would not be sufficient without a deeper understanding of its affective aspect, as is implicitly suggested in Chauldron's (1977) research of "repetition."

2.3 In contrast to the significant progress in the field of reading instruction, there is no corresponding body of knowledge for listening comprehension. Like reading, listening comprehension should be regarded as a skill to be taught in its own light; it is never a passive skill. Wang (1971) insists:

> the process of speech recognition is an active interplay of guessing, approximation, expectation, and idealization that normally makes extensive use of all the redundancies found in a typical speech situation, phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, as well as many varieties of nonlinguistic redundancies.

The foreign-language learner——and even the native ——never comprehends in the strict sense all that the speaker intends, and he should always be using whatever clues the environment and the context may give him.

In order to be a "good language learner," one should develop his strategy to be "both comfortable with uncertainty and willing to try out his guesses" (Rubin, 1975). It might happen that one will spend lots of hours listening to speech which does not require complete compre

hension or a direct response. At some stage of his linguistic development, the learner should be allowed to respond even in his native language in order to concentrate first on listening comprehension.

Terrell (1977) insists: "the correction of speech errors is negative in terms of motivation, attitude, embarrassment and so forth, even when done in the best of situation." Gorbet (1974) also warns that correction of speaking errors may inhibit the learner. Paulston and Bruder (1976) strongly emphasize that during communicative interaction activities there should be no correction from the instructor. "It is inhibiting, hampering, and frustrating beyond belief to be consistently checked and corrected when one is struggling with ideas in another language."

Possibly there is no complete "natural" approach to reading and writing. Such approach is also inadvisable from the point of efficiency in that monitoring will work in these fields. Although there is no single standard method of dealing with errors in reading and writing, it should briefly be cautioned that direct correction by the teacher is not always productive. Self-correction and peer correction should find their proper place in current foreign-language instruction. Among their advantages and disadvantages, it should be recognized that self-correction is generally the most effective way of extinguishing error, that peer correction will reinforce and sometimes expand the partner's understanding of the nature of the rule in question and create a better classroom atmosphere for teaching the correctional aspects, and that both are effective in terms of "formative evaluation."

2.4 Findings conducted in informal learning situations since the mid-60's are substantial enough to warrant extrapolation to the mostly formal foreign-language learning situations. Most studies devalue the role of corrective feedback. Brown (1973) states that parents generally correct pronunciation, nasty words, and irregular allomorphs like *digged* or *goed*. As for syntax, however, they generally do not correct errors such as "Why the dog won't come?" In first-language acquisition, the child has much more freedom to commit errors in his development

toward an adult grammar than in second-language learning.

Some adults do attempt to correct the child's non-adult utterances, but such attempts rarely meet the intended result, as the followilng example (McNeill, 1966) shows:

CHILD Nobody don't like me
MOTHER No, say: nobody likes me
CHILD Nobody don't like me
(The dialog is repeated eight times.)
MOTHER Now listen carefully, say: nobody likes me
CHILD Oh, nobody don't likes me

Brown and Hanlon (1970) have observed that corrections are made primarily on the truth-value of statements. Ervin-Tripp (1971) makes similar observations:

> Adults listening to children speak are usually listening to the message, just as they are when they listen to adults. Our evidence is that they comment on the form only in the case of socially marked deviations such as obscenities, lower class non-standard forms, and in the case of Black families, forms believed to be "country speech."

Contemporary emphasis on innate universal principles as a basis for language acquisition is closely related to the assumption that children are exposed to random, often ungrammatical, samples of adult utterances. However, Brown (1973) quotes Labov: "The ungrammaticality of everyday speech appears to be a myth with no basis in actual life. In various empirical studies that we have conducted, the great majority of utterances——about 75%——are well-formed sentences by any criterion." It is also found in many investigations that the mother's speech directed towards her child is considerably different from that directed towards her husband. It is observed that speech to children basically lacks hesitations, false starts, and errors. Shipley, et al (1969) contend that the child at one stage responds best to commands at the next level in his linguistic development, and tends to be unresponsive to commands more than one level beyond his production. This might logically suggest that correction made at a level beyond the child's comprehension is not productive.

3 Error Reduction

3.1 The most highly valued syllabus in the behaviorist approach is that which enables the learner to attain the greatest degree of communication with the fewest deviant forms. The number of errors is the criterion by which the efficiency of instruction is evaluated. The successive linguistic forms are so ordered that the learner can proceed from one to the next with minimum difficulty. However, such ordering is impractical. The following excerpt from Cooper (1970) is sufficient enough to suggest the re-examination of the current behaviorist approach:

> Reliance on pattern practice drills, contrastive analysis, or graded, carefully controlled materials implies that we can specify enough of what it is the learner has to know to enable him to learn English. Our assumption is that if the student masters the material presented in successive drills and if the content of the drills or pattern practice is carefully enough designed and controlled, the student will learn English. We assume that we have been able to introduce, in a systematic and principled way, all that the student has to know. While it is true that certain items can be introduced systematically, *it is clear that at our present state of knowledge there is far more that cannot be introduced systematically.* (italics added)

Larson (1974) claims the high possibility of utility and frequency as the best criteria for ordering. This is based, of course, on the approach to language learning which attempts to adapt all the materials for producing as real communication as possible.

Another approach to the difficulty ordering in order to reduce errors would be the one based on the concept of the "natural sequence." Oller and Obrecht (1968) have demonstrated that second language learning is "more efficient when the natural order of utterances in communicative events is preserved." Dulay and Burt (1974) have compared the acquisition order of eleven morphemes for a group of Chinese and Spanish children learning English, and state that the order is nearly

identical between the two groups regardless of language background. A more astonishing result has been obtained from an investigation of adult second language acquisition in a formal setting. The order obtained is approximately the same as the order fonud by Dulay and Burt (Bailey, Madden, and Krashen, 1974).

These findings indicate that the second language sequence does not seem to be based on any known principles of grammatical complexity or frequency. It might be possible and desirable to establish an instructional sequence based on the "natural" ordering. It should be kept in mind, however, that agreement among learners has been indicated for only a small number of function words. Implicit in these studies, however, is the need of a language environment for the learner which is rich in the functional use of language as well as in the amount and variety of "meaningfulness."

Let it be added here that the aforesaid does not mean there is no place for systematic presentation of selected linguistic forms and controlled practice in foreign-language instruction. This paper agrees with Crymes (1979):

> At the very beginning stages, in particular, it is frustrating for students to be surrounded by language data that is structurally and lexically uncontrolled, and unless they have a strong motivation or need to learn the language, they might just give up. Furthermore, in acquiring the phonological system of the second language, they can benefit from conctrolled drill, since new habits of articulation need to be established.

3.2 In order to reduce errors postponement of active production might be proposed. Palmer (1921) early asserted that the learner should not be permitted to produce any utterance in the target language until he had internalized its structure. There are good reasons from cognitive psychology for stressing a gradual transition from receptive to productive tasks. Posner and Keele (1973), for example, assume that the utterance of a sound sequence is based upon templates which have been stored in memory, and such utterances cannot be produced properly until

the underlying templates have been well established. For error reduction, Posner and Keele's assumption suggests the advisability of stressing the attainment of good receptive competence before the introduction of productive skills. It is shown in Postovsky's (1974) study that learners of Russian who are not required initially to pronounce Russian sounds and words have, in the end, pronunciation equal to or better than that of learners required to speak from the beginning.

Asher, et al (1974) report that postponement of active production leads to promising results. Students are required to effect total physical response in reacting to commands; after this initial listening comprehension phase, they begin to speak quite spontaneously. Delaying active use of language has a well documented basis in observations of the acquisition of a second language in a free-learning situation.

3.3 Holley and King (1971) have revealed that a 5-10 second wait time before either supplying the hesitating learner with a response or cutting off the learner before he has completed his utterance, eliminates, over 50% of the time, the need for instructor intervention at all. This suggests that classroom errors may decrease as the instructor lowers the level of tension in the classroom. It can be speculated that if wait time alone does not answer, then careful drilling, such as rephrasing of the question, queing the learner with a word or phrase, or giving a full or partial sample sentence, provides the necessary stimulus.

The data obtained from observation analyses in which the present writer has been involved clearly show that a highly structured learning environment is normally designed in most classrooms. The instructor tends to monopolize class time, to give immediate correction to the learner's hesitation, and to cut off the learner's "unwanted" form before completion, frequently in mid-sentence. The characteristics of "outstanding" foreign-language instructors suggest that an "indirect" classroom structure is more desirable, that the instructor's pause and its concomitant non-verbal expectation of learner performance create a class climate conducive to active response, and that corrective treatment addressed to the class rather than to a particular individual is

usually more effective and productive.

The instructor should be careful not to be actually creating the learner's error because of his impatient interruption. Allwright (1975) attempts to include "failure to respond" in the investigation of the learner's behavior, in that it could represent the learner's error in an extreme form, and also in that it could represent an important aspect of the instructor's treatment which might be characterized as "error-creating."

3.4 Language acquisition refers to a subconscious process——"natural" internalization of linguistic abilities——whereas language learning is a conscious process. Except for a self-study program, language learning is conducted in formal learning situations, which are characterized by "the isolation of rules and lexical items of the target language,and the possibility of error detection or correction" (Krashen and Seliger, 1975). Krashen and Pon (1975) gathered data on the spontaneous speech of a Chinese adult immigrant who was enrolled in college. During the observation period, 80 errors were recorded, but, when they were presented to the subject immediately after her utterances, she was able to correct approximately 95% of them. It is not uncommon among Japanese learners of English that they are able to use their knowledge of English rules in writing and careful speech, whereas in casual speech they do not have time to monitor their output, being too preoccupied with the message.

Such discrepancies, as are seen between oral and written performance, or between careful classroom speech and casual conversation, lead to Krashen's (1977) proposal:

> ...adult second language learners concurrently develop two possibly independent systems for second language performers, one ***acquired,*** developed in ways similar to first language acquisition in children, and the other ***learned,*** developed consciously and most often in formal situations. The phenomena mentioned above, as well as certain experimental results, can be accounted for by posing a model in which adult linguistic production in second languages is made

> possible by the acquired system, with the learned system acting only as a monitor. The monitor, when conditions permit, inspects and sometimes alters the output of the acquired system.

Krashen further posits that aptitude variables are directly related to "monitor competence," their effects appearing when monitoring is encouraged, that attitude variables appear to have a direct relationship to acquisition, and that in monitor-free measuring of second language proficiency there exists a stronger relationship to attitude and little relationship to aptitude.

Krashen's clear-cut dichotomy seems to require further investigation; for example, there is the possibility of what might be called the "twilight" zone between the two systems in the model. As applied to foreign-language instruction, however, Krashen's model is sufficiently suggestive of the ideal classrroom structure, in which both creative activity in a natural setting and selective error correction are supposed to be highly effective for the "monitor-user."

4 Affective Domain

4.1 The preceding sections of this paper have occasionally touched on the emotional or affective aspects of corrective treatment. Observations of current foreign-language instruction would reveal that most instruction concentrates overwhelmingly on cognitive learning——that is, transmitting subject-matter knowledge and skills. Little conscious attention has been drawn to the affective dimension of such learning. However, the excessive concern of formal instruction for efficiency has been decried by humanistic educators in recent years (cf. Maslow, 1970). The impact of the need for humanistic, or affective, education is beginning to make itself felt in the field of foreign-language instruction.

To proceed with the present discussion, it should be asserted that, although cognitive activity divorced from affective activity is empty and meaningless, humanistic education must not stress affective domain to the exclusion of thinking. Brown (1971) maintains:

> We do not suggest as an ideal the hedonistic, anarchistic individual who expresses his feelings no matter what, where, or who. This sort of person is as "out of it" as the ones who have no feelings. A healthy individual has a mind and uses it——not to deny the existence of feelings but to differentiate how, when, and with whom it is appropriate to express feelings spontaneously from occasions when one must wait.

In order to explain some aspects of creative construction in language acquisition, Dulay and Burt (1977) present a working model with internal processing as the successive operation of affective delimitors, cognitive organizers, and the monitor, in that order. This model suggests that internal affective factors delimit to a considerable degree primary linguistic data and its sociolinguistic dimensions which the learner takes into account.

Taylor (1974) argues that there are no cognitive deficiencies with regard to second-language acquisition which separate adults from children, and that an xeplanation of the differences lies primarily in the affective domain. This affective aspect is deeply concerned with the effect of corrective feedback as well; the functions of KR (Knowledge of Results) would not be fully understood without due consideration of its "incentive" dimension. An interesting and convincing finding is presented by Vigil and Oller (1967), who examine a cybernetic model of factors involved in the fossilization of linguistic forms:

> As long as the effective messages conveyed to the student are predominantly positive, frequent instances of negative cognitive feedback are not likely to do any harm, and in fact are probably essential to a high level of attainment on the part of learners in foreign language classrooms.

4.2 Discussion of formal instruction in the preceding sections of this paper is primarily based on the observation of current "conventional" classrooms. Strong exceptions, however, can be found in some humanistic approaches to language learning, such as the Silent Way, Counseling Learning, Community Language Learning, Suggestopaedia, the Fantasy Journey, etc. The fundamental distinction of humanistic

education is what Curran (1972) calls "receptive learning," which contrasts to "defensive learning." In the former, learning grows up like "a seed planted in good soil, free of weeds and stones," whereas, in the latter, the learner treats each question or assignment as if it were something to be avoided, and he attempts to avoid the pain that comes from committing errors.

The pattern of "defensive learning" is predominant in current formal instruction, and the instructor seldom attempts to investigate the conditions for making "receptive learning" possible. However, the key tenet of post-audiolingual "unconventional" methods is "the subordination of teaching to learning" (Gattegno, 1972, p.1) as is seen in the Silent Way. If the instructor's activity is to be subordinated to that of the learner, the instructor must stop "interfering with and sidetracking the learner's activity." "Remain silent if at all possible" is the injunction which stems from the principle. In this new "spirit," learning is not primarily imitation or drill. Drill is valuable only insofar as it is substantially related to the learner's personality.

In a typical lesson of the Silent Way,[(1)] the learner gets only what he absolutely requires. From the first instant, the learner does more than 90% or the whole of the talking. Silence on the part of the instructor gives the learner's mind maximum opportunity to extract information from a short amount of aural input. The enforced silence produced by forbidding immediate repetition of new material compels maximum attention and superior processing. Deep involvement and concentration is seen to produce a palpable, dynamic tension.

Gattegno (1972, p.31) views the mind as an active agent, capable of constructing and refining its own "inner criteria." What has been called error seems to have unusual significance for the instructor in this Way:

everything produced by the mind at work while objectifying

(1) The observation of the Silent Way is based on the writer's personal experience in seminars and demonstrations given by E. W. Stevick, C. H. Blatchford (at the University of Hawaii), and D. Freeman (at Sapporo).

> mental energy into mental structures is psychologically correct, even though outwardly, socially, it is not yet what it will be later on when the criteria are formed... Against a common teachers' demand for immediate correctness through so-called imitation, I take upon myself the burden of controlling myself so as not to interfere. By doing so I give time to a student to make sense of "mistakes," (which are precious indicators of the discrepancy between what is and what shonld be) and to develop exercises that foster progress.

In the case of a correct response, the instructor is supposed never to react verbally and seldom nonverbally. This will lead to the reduction of the Parental Component (in transactional analysis) of the learner's behavior. Gattegno (1972, p.32) maintains: "Without immediate inner criteria functioning well, no true learning of language is possible beyond a certain point. With them, we can expect that what seemed the privilege of the exceptionally gifted is indeed open to all."

4.3 A number of observations and theoretical considerations concerning language acquisition and learning have been presented here which suggest the reconsideration of the significance of corrective treatment in foreign-language instruction. Some language instructors have been much accustomed to relying on their personal experiences alone for their instruction. Some theory-minded language instructors, in past decades, have hopped from one bandwagon to another, pinning almost blind faith to a single method, then moving to another method, and yet another, always rejecting the previous one. Many other instructors, consciously or unconsciously, have avoided using exclusively any one method, but have taken this or that aspect of any method that has turned up. The alternative to the blind eclectic approach, as Diller (1978) warns, should involve "judgement," and have its own criteria for selection.

As implied in the preceding discussions of correction, this "enlightened" eclectic approach should basically be provided with exhaustive information about affective variables——the human person. What has been lacking in the past and still is lacking in our foreign-language

instruction is a philosophical awareness of the idea that language learning penetrates beyond the purely intellectual and that the affective domain is of central importance as one of the factors contributing to successful language learning.

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