Nonverbal Communication: A Research Proposal.

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Teaching all ages and levels of language learners in Japan has shown me that communicative ability doesn't depend solely on spoken language proficiency. The style of interaction and nonverbal behaviour contributes a great deal to the success of the communicative event. Gesture is considered by many in the field of education to be equally as important as that which is expressed through the verbal channel. Nonverbal behaviour can be used to compensate where there is a gap in linguistic knowledge or understanding ; it can help non-native speakers to decode native speakers' meanings; it may aid lexical retrieval; it can serve as a bridge between cultures with different communication styles and it apparently affects native speakers' perception of non-native speakers fluency and proficiency in the language.

Gesture has been called the "long neglected sister of language" (McNeill 1998 : 13) and is acknowledged to contribute considerably to the communicative process for both productive and receptive skills. Gesture has been proven to be so closely tied to the spoken word that even under conditions where speech production is disrupted, the gesture-speech synchrony remains intact. McNeill and Duncan (2000) even go so far as to suggest that it is partly through gesture that ideas are brought into concrete existence and theorize that it is actually a form of thought in itself, thus aiding lexical retrieval and the formulation of concepts.

Studies have shown that speakers use gesture when shifting from one topic to the next in a narrative and to clarify action scenes with descriptive hand movements, contributing more information than words can alone. Gullberg (1998) found that native speakers rated non-native speakers as having a higher level of proficiency when they watched a video of the speaker rather than just listened to an audio tape : the gestural performances helped to compensate for linguistic shortcomings and stopped the listener being irritated by pauses and hesitations. Her studies also confirmed Neu's observations (in Jungheim 1995) that non-native speakers who used a lot of gestures were consistently rated as having a higher level of proficiency than those who used only a few. Neu found this to be a discriminatory factor when a Japanese non-native speaker was assessed as lower than his actual ability whereas a Saudi Arabian speaker was assessed as being higher than his actual proficiency level. Gullberg found that although gestures prove to be an effective communication strategy, they are often not employed and that, "learners may refrain from using them for cultural reasons" (Gullberg 1998 : 179).

Aside from the pragmatic usefulness of gestures as a strategy for getting information across, they also function as a way that speakers develop rapport. Furuyama's research showed how interactants synchronized their nonverbal and gestural behaviour with each other as the communicative process became a cooperative event and noted that, "some (gestures) are very subtle but all of them very important in furthering or impeding the dialogue" (Furuyama 2000 : 99).

Given the importance of gesture as a way of relaying information and achieving rapport, it would seem vital that speakers from different cultures share knowledge of this nonverbal vocabulary both to avoid confusion and to open another channel of communication. What follows is a review of some of the relevant literature in the field of gesture and nonverbal communication. This review seeks to justify a research proposal aimed at examining the success of teaching nonverbal communication skills to a group of language learners.

Kendon, A. 2000. 'Language & Gesture : Unity or Duality?' in D. McNeill (ed.) *Language and gesture*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.

Kendon's approach to the investigation of gesture focuses on the light it sheds on the cognitive activity of language. He maintains that there is 'functional continuity' between spoken language and gesture and that as such, gesture has three aspects: i) to provide the context for the spoken expression; ii) to add to the propositional content of the utterance, and iii) to express the "speech-act status" of what is being said (p.55).

Kendon proposes that gesture is a 'mode of symbolic representation' just as speech is through the spoken word, and reasons that it is through both channels that meaning and understanding is achieved. He cites the example of someone recounting the Red Riding Hood story and their use of gesture to describe the action. The storyteller uses the verb "slice" to describe two different actions, one where the wolf's head is chopped off and the other where his belly is slit open. In each case the word is accompanied by a gesture, in the first instance a downward chopping motion and in the second, a longitudinal slicing gesture. He uses this example to demonstrate the inherently ambiguous nature of words and word usage, and to show how the gesture provides a context within which the verbal expression may be interpreted.

From his studies of Italian speakers in Italy, Kendon concludes that gestures are used to add layers of meaning to the spoken word. His studies of the well-known Italian gesture 'mano o borsa' (the pursed fingers and thumb gesture) show that it is often used as a kind of comment on what is being said. His example is of a speaker answering a question while simultaneously doing the gesture expressing, "Why are you asking me that?" Kendon also maintains that gestures can have 'pragmatic functions' ; his example being a speaker saying the same sentence twice, each time using a different gesture, by doing so in effect, "redesigning the utterance" (p.55).

Kendon's work demonstrates the importance of gestures in speech and sets up a framework of the functions of gesture. The specific examples may not necessarily transfer across cultures, but that gestures are shown to provide contextual information to clarify the message is an important factor in justifying the study.

McNeill, D. 1998. 'Speech & Gesture Integration' in J. Iverson & S. Goldin-Meadow (eds.) *The Nature and Functions of Gesture in Children's Communication.* San Francisco : Jossey-Bass.

McNeill proposes, as Kendon does, that gestures add semantic, pragmatic and discourse content to speech. He classifies gestures into two groups, 'Conventional Gestures' and 'Nonconventional Gestures'. The conventional gestures are sometimes termed 'emblems' and are specifically formed actions, usually of the hand, that are established and recognized within the communities they exist. The North American 'OK' sign or 'thumbs up' are examples of these. These gestures have a standard form that must be adhered to if it is to be understood, and it is this feature that has ensured the longevity of such gestures throughout history ; the gesture of 'giving the finger' was used in Roman times much as it is today. Nonconventional gestures, by contrast, have no such historical depth nor are they necessarily communicative acts in their own right. Rather they serve as integral parts, adding clarification to the utterance and unlike conventional gestures are bound to the spoken word. This is demonstrated in the study of clinical stutterers, where although the flow of words is disrupted, the speech-gesture synchrony is maintained.

McNeill classifies nonconventional gestures into four groups; i) Iconic Gestures which depict concrete events or entities; ii) Metaphoric Gestures, that also create images but of abstract ideas, concepts or relations; iii) two kinds of Pointing, Concrete Pointing and Abstract Pointing, which he describes as "pointing in the absence of any visible target" and iv) Beats, which are hand motions that typically appear when a speaker is introducing a new idea into the discourse or com-

menting on what's being said.

McNeill's research sets the scene for the study of gesture identifying what can be expected and providing insights as to the functions gestures serve. His claim that gestures add something to the linguistic construction that "cannot be reduced to speech" highlights the relevance of language learners studying gesture. He maintains that gestures are as much a part of the language as words, phrases and sentences and it is on this premise that the idea of teaching learners how to gesture appropriately is based.

McNeill, D. & Duncan, S. 2000. 'Growth points in thinking-for-speaking' in D. McNeill (ed.) *Language and gesture. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.*

McNeill and Duncan introduce the idea that speaking different languages induces different kinds of thinking and that speakers organize their thoughts to meet the demands of the linguistic coding. They consider speech and gesture together to be systematically organized in relation to one another and hold that gestures themselves are a part of the many forms of thinking. McNeill and Duncan's 'thinking-for-speaking' phrase refers to their idea that an extended process of thinking while speaking occurs, and that one does not come before the other. In their study, McNeill and Duncan observe native English speakers and native Spanish speakers as they recount a story and report the role gesture has in the process. They describe how English is a 'satellite-framed' language; that the 'path' or trajectory of the 'figure'or subject is coded in a so-called satellite, that is, as an adjunct to the verb, for example in the phrase 'drops it down'. Spanish, however is verb-framed where the 'path' information is included in the verb itself. They also contrast how English has a wide variety of 'manner' verbs, for example walk, stroll and amble, whereas in Spanish manner is often constructed outside the verb, frequently in a gerund. The authors consider that these differences play a part in how gestures are used. In English, they conclude, gestures either highlight the manner verb when it is the speaker's focus, or downplay it by not synchronizing

with it; in other words, speakers use gestures to modulate the lexical system of the language.

McNeill and Duncan's study exemplifies how different languages use gesture in different ways to convey meaning. It also highlights the importance of language learners studying nonverbal communication to gain a better understanding of cross-cultural interactions.

Furuyama, N. 2000. 'Gestural interaction between the instructor and the learner in origami instruction' in D. McNeill (ed.) *Language and gesture. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.*

Furuyama addresses the issue of how speakers interact with each other gesturally and seeks to shed light upon interpersonal as well as intrapersonal factors. His experiment is based upon the observations of a speaker explaining how to make an origami balloon without having access to any materials, pen, notepaper or origami paper. The task is highly demanding in terms of spatial thinking and was chosen because means other than purely verbal would have to be employed in its completion.

Furuyama poses two questions; what gestures will be observed in the learner, whose role is receiver of information, and do the learner's gestures systematically change in accord with the instructors'? Through the analysis and coding of video taped sessions he found that the learners' gestures did indeed synchronize with those of the instructors'. Learners reproduced their partners' gestures and at times created similar ones with additional elements: The learners' gestures where then reproduced by the instructor in subsequent instructions. Unusually, collaborative gestures were also observed as the subjects shared the responsibility of the communicative task. He also noted the importance of backchannelling, the almost constant stream of head nods and facial expressions that passed between the interlocutors, indicating comprehension or lack of understanding.

Furuyama's work demonstrates how nonverbal behaviour is taken into ac-

count by both the speaker and the listener in an interactive situation. If a narrator picks up by the nonverbal behaviour that there is a gap in the understanding of the listener, then repetitions or clarifications occur. The ability to give and understand this kind of feedback furthers the communicative process and language learners, in particular, can benefit from the acquisition of these skills.

Gullberg, M. 1998. *Gesture as a Communicative Strategy in Second Language Discourse: A Study of Learners of French and Swedish. Lund University Press.*

Gullberg's study with French speakers of Swedish as a foreign language and Swedish speakers of French as a foreign language poses many questions as to the nature of gesture use. One of particular interest asks what compensatory gestures adult second language learners use when faced with a native speaker and how these gestures function as a communication strategy. Gullberg discusses how gestures may facilitate the speaker in that they i) compensate, when the verbal channel breaks down; ii) enhance, making the message more vivid or complete and iii) facilitate, in their relationship to lexical access and planning. She discusses how gestures also have communicative value for the listener, which stresses their usefulness as compensatory devices. Gullberg uses McNeill's classifications of gestures; Iconic, Metaphoric, Deictic and Beats since they have already been used with large bodies of data. Gullberg's findings are that different gesture types are exploited strategically in different ways: Learners used iconic and referential metaphoric gestures to elicit lexical help from the interlocutor; other metaphoric gestures were used to express the speakers' attitude or modify the message. Deictics were used to elicit help or create redundancies at discourse level, and abstract deictics helped the speakers to maintain coherence in their narratives. Beats highlighted aspects of speech such as self-correcting and signaled that the speaker was aware of a problem and was trying to remedy it.

Gullberg also administered a 'Native Speaker Evaluation Test' where the subjects were evaluated on overall proficiency. She questioned whether gestures i)

improved the comprehension of native speakers and ii) if the presence of gestures affected evaluations of overall proficiency. She found that native speakers evaluated videotapes higher than audiotapes, and that the number of perceived gestures did in fact correlate with proficiency evaluations. However, the perceived number of gestures was not connected to the actual number of gestures used. It appeared that those subjects using mostly iconic gestures were perceived as gesturing more.

Gullberg's investigations conclude that gestures have the capacity to aid both communication and oral proficiency ratings and are affective as communication strategies because they involve the interlocutor in the solution of the task of understanding. This study exemplifies the usefulness of gestures for language learners communicating with native speakers.

Walsh, D. 2000. 'An Interview with Susan Steinbach' *Video Rising : Newsletter of the Japan Association for Language Teaching.* Vol.12,Issue 1(Winter 2000) www.jalt/video/vr_SSI.htm & Gareis, E. 1999. 'Review of Fluent American English' *TESOL Matters (April/May 1999)*

These two short articles are about Susan Steinbach, director of the multimedia lab of the International Education and Training Center at the University of California, and her video series 'Fluent American English' (1996). Steinbach advocates the use of video in the classroom in two ways, as part of the debriefing process where the students' activities are filmed and reviewed, and as a way of learning conversation management skills by the study of videos of native speaker conversations. Her area of interest is the differing conversation styles across various cultures. Steinbach maintains that it is not enough for learners to be proficient in only the data of a language, but in order to be successful communicators, they also need to be versed in the interaction and conversation conventions of the target culture. She identifies differences in conversation styles such as 'high involvement' and 'high considerate' and highlights the problems that speakers with high-considerate style, for example, may encounter when trying to interact in a culture

that uses high-involvement style. Steinbach likens the different cultural communication styles to different sports. Through this analogy, the video series enables learners to appreciate the importance of matching style to culture. US speakers of English are depicted as 'playing basketball' in their style of interaction, where the speakers take random rather than sequential turns, usually not pausing between speakers and with frequent interruptions and overlapping of turns. In contrast to this she terms the Asian conversational style to be like 'bowling'; here the speakers patiently wait their turn, there are pauses between speakers allowing reflection as to what has been said, and the participants respect the guidelines of etiquette in terms of hierarchical rank.

Steinbach's work with video in the classroom is relevant to this proposal in two ways : Firstly, concerning the importance of language learners' mastery of the interaction style of the target culture; the video series includes lessons on using body language to enter a conversation, backchannelling and using hesitation techniques, all of which may be addressed through gesture. Secondly, the methodology of studying examples of native speaker behaviour, copying them and filming the outcomes for feedback will be implemented.

Revell, J. and Norman, S. 1997. *In Your Hands : NLP in ELT.* London. Saffire Press.

Revell and Norman introduce the concepts of neurolinguistic programming and how it can be successfully used in ELT. NLP holds as one of its tenets, the importance of nonverbal communication and Revell and Norman cite research by Professor Albert Mahrabian who maintains that 55% of our message is communicated bodily.

The authors recommend that learners of foreign languages need to be aware of and practice nonverbal as well as verbal communication skills in order to use all available resources to get their message across. They claim that rapport is the key to successful communication and that maximizing similarities and minimizing

differences in nonverbal behaviour facilitates this. Matching and mirroring are ways in which learners can do this and the NLP concept of 'Modeling' focuses on developing such skills. Modeling, or the study of excellence, is based upon the idea that copying excellent behaviour leads to excellence, the idea being that if learners want to speak like natives they should model native speakers. The NLP approach to language learning focuses on this concept and videos are studied for both verbal and nonverbal behaviour thus raising learners' awareness of nonverbal communication. Techniques of mirroring and modeling will be used as a way of improving nonverbal communication skills and aligning them more closely to those of native speaker norms.

Jungheim, N. 1995. 'Assessing the Unsaid : The Development of Tests of Nonverbal Ability' in J. Brown & S. Yamashita (eds.) *Language Testing in Japan.* Tokyo : JALT

Jungheim set his study in the background of communicative language teaching and testing and expands Bachman's (1990) Communicative Language Assessment model to include three aspects of nonverbal ability. He defines nonverbal ability as knowing how to use and interpret a variety of nonverbal behaviours or cues appropriately for the target language and culture. The three aspects are: i) nonverbal textual ability, ii) nonverbal sociolinguistic ability and iii) nonverbal strategic ability. Nonverbal textual ability refers to gestures such as head-nods and gaze direction used to facilitate communication in backchannelling or turn-taking signals. The frequency and appropriateness of these behaviours is used to judge textual ability. Japanese speakers have quite different conventions when it comes to these actions and Jungheim maintains that inappropriate use of them affects the listener's impression of the speaker's fluency. Sociolinguistic ability refers to the understanding and appropriate use of gestures in the target culture and serves to improve communication with native speakers and avoid misunderstandings. Strategic ability covers the compensatory role of gesture a well as its role

in supporting and enhancing spoken language.

Jungheim developed two tests of nonverbal behaviour to discover the behaviours used and understood by language learners and to develop a scale that could be used to rate learners' ability in relation to these behaviours. Jungheim's work fits into the proposal as the backbone for the experimental design as the Nonverbal Ability Scales (NOVA scales) he developed will be used to assess gesture in this study.

Learning how to code and decode nonverbal information is clearly useful in the quest for successful communication across cultures. Knowing how and when to enter and exit conversations, understanding signals of attention and intent and being able to project a desirable self-image are all highly important, if little talked about skills.

An individual's interpretations and understanding of nonverbal signals are dependant upon the cultural framework from which they come. If verbal language can be learned to bridge the aural divide, then perhaps this nonverbal language can be learned too. What follows is a proposal for a research project in this field. The research question is: Will a programme of gesture training undertaken by Japanese university students increase their nonverbal textual and strategic ability in terms of head-nods, gaze direction changes and gestures as measured by Jungheim's Nonverbal Ability Scale? To clarify the terms of this proposal, here is an operationalisation of the key concepts and constructs :

The programme of gesture training :

This is a series of lessons based on the close observation and emulation of native speaker conversations. A video series such as Steinbach's 'Fluent American English' can be used if available, or any video featuring real or realistic conversations and interactions between native speakers. Exercises follow the 'Native Speaker Watching' pattern (Revell and Norman 1997) where half the class listen carefully to the verbal language in a video clip, while the other half focus on the

body language ; worksheets are provided, a dialogue gap fill for half of the students and a sheet to note the emotions of the speakers for the others. The students compare notes in groups and watch the clip again, this time with the sound turned off so that full focus is on the nonverbal communication. A body language worksheet is provided, (see appendix) that leads the students through the observations of the speakers and the matching and modeling exercises. The students are filmed doing short skits and the video reviewed to evaluate the performances. The session ends with a discussion of the differences in styles between the speakers in the video and those of the students'culture.

Nonverbal and textual strategic ability :

Nonverbal textual ability is based on Bachman's (1990) CLA model of textual competence where the speaker is evaluated for the ways in which they organize and perform the turn taking in discourse. The nonverbal behaviours associated with turn taking are head-nods, gestures and gaze direction changes used as backchannelling signals (Furuyama 2000; Gullberg 1998; Jungheim 1995; McNeill 2000). Japanese speakers have been shown to use head-nods more frequently and at different times than native English speakers and to have different gaze behaviour patterns (Jungheim 1995). In Japan head-nods are used to signal attention and encouragement to continue rather than agreement or understanding; Japanese subjects tend to focus less on the head and face of a speaker and have less eye contact than native English speakers. Jungheim states that "gaze direction is consistent among members of a particular culture" (Jungheim 1995 : 151), therefore, nonverbal textual ability may be assessed in relation to frequency and appropriateness of these behaviours. Nonverbal strategic ability covers the compensatory use of gestures as well as those implemented to enhance or clarify speech. Gestures such as mime will be considered where they are used to compensate for a lack of linguistic knowledge, as well as appropriateness of gestures made to support speech. If the speaker is understandable without the use of gesture, they will not

be evaluated as having poor strategic ability, but nonverbal behaviours such as 'nose-pointing' to indicate 'me' (as is commonly seen in Japanese speakers) will be rated lower for appropriateness. Please refer to the table 'Use of nonverbal behaviours in a nonverbal ability framework' (Jungheim 1995) in the appendix.

Gesture :

Gesture refers to the movement of the hand(s) or arm(s) and to movements that occur spontaneously during speech. McNeill's aforementioned classifications of gestures will be used for this proposed study : Gestures of 'self-touching' will not be considered.

The NOVA scale :

The NOVA scale was developed by Jungheim (1995) to measure the nonverbal textual and strategic ability of Japanese university students. The subjects are assessed for their use of head-nods, gaze direction changes and gestures in relation to native speaker norms. The test consists of a role-play task performed with a native speaker collaborator, which is videoed and analyzed for target behaviours. Raters are trained using the 'Nova raters guide' and training videos developed by Jungheim. The NOVA scales rating sheets can be found in the appendix.

Variables :

Independent variable: the programme of gesture training as defined above. Dependent variable: the frequency and appropriateness of head-nods, gaze direction changes and gestures as measured by Jungheim's Nonverbal Ability scales (NOVA scales).

Subjects :

Six classes of female, first and second year Japanese university students at a private liberal arts university. Twenty native English speakers (ten males and ten females) who are all language teachers in Japan will be used to collect baseline

data and provide the native speaker norms.

Materials :

i) Gesture training programme materials: videos for study (may include 'Fluent American English'); moviescripts and worksheet gap fills and 'Native Speaker Watching' worksheet (see appendix); video camera; tapes and VCR/TV.

ii) NOVA test materials: role play cards in English and Japanese; instructions for native speaker collaborator; (see appendix); video tapes of the subjects' performances and the native speaker performances to establish baseline data; NOVA raters guide and training videos to train raters; NOVA rating sheets (see appendix).

Procedure :

This study proposes the use of a quasi-experimental design to test whether a programme of gesture training will increase the frequency and appropriateness of Japanese university students' nonverbal behaviour. The design is quasi-experimental because the subjects will not be randomly selected from the language-learning community as such, but from parallel classes of matched ability students within the same university. Three of the six classes will be randomly assigned to undertake the gesture-training programme, the other three classes will take a programme that includes more general video viewing tasks (see sample worksheet in appendix). The subjects will complete a pre-test and a post-test consisting of roleplay tasks to be performed with a native speaker collaborator and video taped. (See appendix for role play instructions). On completion of the programme, fifty students from each group will be randomly selected and their role-plays evaluated by trained native speaker raters, according to the NOVA scales designed by Jungheim. The evaluations will be rated against the baseline data of twenty native speakers who have completed the same role-play tasks.

Approaches to data analysis :

Table of descriptive statistics for the NOVA scales.

		Textual Ability		Strategic Ability	
	Overall score	Frequency	Appropriacy	Compensatory	Appropriacy
Mean					
SD					
Median					
Low					
High					
Range					

This chart will be completed for each group for each test; the actual difference found between the two sets of data will be compared to the standard error of the difference (the difference that could be expected to be found by chance alone) by performing a one-tailed related pairs t-test with a $p>0.05$ level of significance.

Issues related to the reliability and validity of the study:

This study depends upon the two assumptions that have been made about the nature of gesture; i) that gesture and spoken language are interrelated such that gesture can be used as a compensatory device when the spoken channel breaks down, and ii) that gestures can be used strategically to enhance speakers' performance and therefore that they hold communicative value for the listener. These assumptions are based upon the aforementioned studies and address the very nature of the relationship between gesture and speech. If these assumptions hold true, then the basis of this proposal is sound.

According to Jungheim's (1995) research, the NOVA scales have been shown to be a reliable test of nonverbal ability. He found that the ratings generally produced a normal distribution for textual ability and a slightly positively skewed distribution for strategic ability, (which may be explained by the number of subjects

who did not gesture at all). Rater reliability is addressed through the NOVA scale training guide, and the comparison to native speaker norms obtained from the baseline data. Issues of internal validity are addressed by working with two matched groups; the effects of practice, learning, maturation and history should be equally distributed in both groups. Threats to the external validity of this study centre mainly on the lack of randomization of the subjects and the fact that they are all females. The findings, therefore, can only be generalized to the participants in this study. Content validity is addressed by the role playing tasks being realistic situations that the students may actually find themselves in. Criterion-related validity is difficult to account for in this study, since it would need an independent measure of the same construct to validate the test and due to the rarity of nonverbal ability tests, this is difficult to do.

Limitations.

The limitations of this study are mainly associated with the issues of validity cited above. The sample of students cannot be considered representative (they are all females) for generalizations to be inferred to other student populations.

In conclusion, it has been said that as much as 90 percent of the social content of a message is communicated paralinguistically or nonverbally (Bateson 1955 in Fujimoto 2003). Additionally, as there is no such thing as the opposite of behaviour, communicators must act and react in some way ; they cannot avoid communicating nonverbally. With this in mind, it becomes clear that not attending to the nonverbal elements of communication is doing language learners a disservice ; not addressing nonverbal behaviour "handicaps learners by denying them a rich source of extralinguistic techniques" (Capper 2000). Both Savignon's (1983) and Bachman's (1990) models of communicative competence include the ability to adapt to the cultural norms of the target language community. Wiemann (1977) found that the generally implicit rules governing the regulatory behavior of a communicative event were tied to the 'cultural scripts' which form and follow societies

shared frame of reference. Wiemann's research discovered how relatively small changes in these regulatory behaviours, for example interruptions and pauses in conversation for more than three seconds, resulted in sizeable variations of how successful a communicative event was perceived to be.

Grammatical errors may be irritating and impede understanding but generally they are apparent in the surface structure of the speech act. The addressee therefore, becomes alerted to the fact that the speaker is not fully grammatically competent ; once this has been noted native speakers seem to have little trouble in making allowances for such deficiencies. Pragmatic failures typically rooted in nonverbal incongruencies, however, are rarely recognized as such by non-linguists. If a non-native speaker is grammatically competent and speaks fluently, a native speaker is likely to attribute a pragmatic error not to any linguistic deficiency but to interpersonal reasons or elements. Thus, a speaker using a non-standard grammatical code is judged as speaking badly but a speaker using non-standard pragmatic principles is judged as behaving badly, for example as being untruthful, deceitful or insincere ; "conventionalized forms (of communication) are so ingrained that one cannot see the rationale behind another's conventionalized forms and cannot help but interpret them according to one's own cultural grid" (Beal 1990 : 21).

It is not the responsibility of the language teacher or linguist to enforce Western standards of behaviour, linguistic or otherwise, for that would be tantamount to cultural imperialism. Rather, it is the teacher's job to equip the student to express her/himself in exactly the ways s/he chooses to do so, whether it is rudely, tactfully, or in an elaborately polite manner but without being unintentionally rude or subservient. In other words, to be able to understand and manipulate the relationship between the communicative intention and the effect.

Proficiency in nonverbal communication is vital for the expression of emotions and conveying interpersonal attitudes, for presenting one's personality to others and for regulatory skills such as the management of turn-taking, interpersonal

feedback and the display of attention. Such social skills, firmly rooted in the norms and expectations of our native cultures, serve to synchronize and lubricate the communicative event and may be as important to a satisfactory interaction as the content itself. If we want students to be able to function well outside the classroom in real situations, they need to be exposed to the variety and complexity of the nonverbal behaviours of the target language community and be given opportunities to broaden their nonverbal vocabularies.

APPENDIX

Native Speaker Watching worksheet

With your partner, each choose one of the speakers to watch :

1) Count the number of head nods she/he does : _____

Watch again...

2) Count the number of hand and arm gestures : _____

Watch again....

3) Try to copy the head nods and gestures while you are watching :

4) Read the script with your partner :

5) Read the script again, this time try to add the head nods and gestures :

6) Turn the script over, try to act out the scene with your partner (it's OK to change the words a little)

Watch again...

7) Act out the scene in time with the actors, try to match speaking patterns and gestures :

8) Act out the scene again with your partner and video yourselves :

9) Watch the video of your scene : Do you look the same as the actors?

If yes, how?

If no, why not?

10) How can you be more like native a English speaker?

Movie Report

Name : _____

St. number : _____

1. Movie title : _____

2. Main characters' names : _____

_____

3. Who do you like best in the movie, and why? _____

_____

_____

_____

4. Who don't you like, and why? _____

_____

_____

_____

5. Which scene did you like best in the movie and why?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

6. What is the story of the movie?

_____

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Use of nonverbal behaviours in a nonverbal ability framework (Jungheim 1995)

Textual Use

Gestures

Hands are used by the speaker to emphasize speech.
Vertical head movement (nod) is used as a backchannel signal by the listener to indicate attention, understanding or agreement.
Vertical head movement (nod) is used by the speaker as a within-turn or turn-end signal.
Horizontal head movement (shake) is used by the listener to indicate disagreement or with laughter.

Gaze

Listener-directed gaze is used at the end of an utterance to elicit a backchannel response.
Terminal gaze (prolonged gaze starting just before the end of an utterance) is used to signal the end of an utterance.
Speaker-directed gaze is used to signal attentiveness.

Facial Expressions

Smiles are used to indicate attention or agreement.
Frowns are used to indicate disagreement or lack of understanding.

Strategic Use

Gestures

Mime (hand gestures) is used to compensate for a linguistic deficiency such as the lack of a necessary lexical item.
Hand gestures are used to support spoken language to communicate spatial relationships and physical shapes which are not always easily understood using spoken language alone.

Nonverbal Ability (NOVA) Scales (Jungheim 1995)

Textual Ability

Rating	*Frequency*
0	Extremely limited use of head nods and infrequent changes in gaze direction toward a partner in conversation.
1	Frequent use of head-nods and changes in gaze direction that are not acceptable by native speaker norms.
2	Frequency of head-nods and changes in gaze direction approached native speaker norms.
3	Frequency of head-nods and changes in gaze direction acceptable by native speaker norms.

	Appropriateness
0	Totally inappropriate use of head-nods and gaze direction changes by native speaker norms.
1	Frequent inappropriate use of head-nods and gaze direction.
2	Few inappropriate uses of head-nods and gaze direction.
3	Use of head-nods and changes in gaze direction acceptable by native speaker norms.

Strategic Ability

Rating	*Compensatory Usage*
0	No evidence of hand gestures to solve considerable linguistic problems.
1	Limited use of hand gestures to solve linguistic problems with occasionally unsuccessful results.
2	Hand gestures successfully used to solve linguistic problems.
3	Few linguistic problems requiring the use of hand gestures for compensation.

	Appropriateness
0	Never uses hand gestures to support or enhance meaning.
1	Occasionally uses hand gestures to support or enhance meaning, often inappropriately for native speaker norms.
2	Most hand gestures approach native speaker norms.
3	Use of hand gestures appropriate by native speaker norms.

Role-Play Instructions (Jungheim 1995).

You will be asked to perform a number of role-plays. Read each situation and imagine that you are really the person in the role-play. Specific details are not given but try to speak in as much detail as possible.

Non-native Speaker Subject's Role

Role play 1 :

You are having a karaoke singing competition and you want your teacher to be one of the judges. You go to your teacher's office to ask him/her to help. Be ready to explain why you need his/her help, what your teacher will have to do and where and when the event will be held in as much detail as possible.

Role Play 2 :

You want to apply to an American university's graduate school programme to study your major. You need a letter of recommendation from your teacher. You go to your teacher's office to ask him/her for one. Be ready to explain why you need the letter, what information it should contain and when you need it and what your teacher should do with it in as much detail as possible.

Instructions for the native speaker assistant.

1. Greet the student "Hi_____what can I do for you?"
2. Remember you do not know what the student wants beforehand.
3. Help the student speak but do not put words into his mouth. The burden to communicate should be on the student as long as the pauses are not too long. Be patient.
4. If the student does not give any instructions about what he needs/wants, ask questions about why he is there.
5. You will have four minutes for the role play, but do not worry about the time.If there is a chance close the conversation with small talk and a word of good luck.

Native speaker assistant role.

You are a professor at a Japanese university. A student comes to you to : i) ask you to be a judge at a karaoke contest ; ii) ask for a letter of recommendation so that he can study at an American university. Ask the student for details about his request, and try to get the student to explain in as much detail as possible what he wants you to do.

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