TOWARD A MODEL FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAMS IN U.S. MULTINATIONALS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The rapid growth of international trade in the last ten years has resulted in a renewed interest among U.S. multinational firms in the foreign language capabilities of their employees. Companies investing in or exporting goods or services to other countries are increasingly interested in eliminating language-related barriers to their business activities. In addition, foreign companies who employ U.S. nationals often require foreign language fluency.

This need for employees with foreign language skills is expected to grow even stronger as more U.S. multinational companies prepare to enter the united European market of 1992. The year 1992 will bring a major increase in global competition as export nations attempt to attract the giant European consumer market, estimated at over 325 million consumers.

Although some United States multinational firms have responded to the increased internationalization of business by introducing training programs, few have implemented formal in-house foreign language training programs similar to those in Europe and Japan. A recent study (Seabrook & Valdes, 1988) indicated that these companies turn to either commercial language schools, overseas immersion programs, or local colleges or universities to meet the language training needs of their employees.

University foreign language departments throughout the United States have tried to respond to the business community's need for language-proficient employees by, either solely or in cooperation with business departments, developing applied language programs, or Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) programs. Although much has been written regarding curriculum development for university LSP programs, little has been published on curriculum development for elementary level language training for professionals in business and industry.

This study attempts to develop a model for curriculum development for effective foreign language training programs within the business or industrial setting by reviewing the literature on current language education programs within business, academia and government, by identifying elements common to successful programs, and by selecting appropriate curriculum principles from those programs considered to be successful.

It is hoped that the results of this study can be useful to designers of foreign language training programs in multinational firms, especially to those firms whose employees are unable to pursue intensive language training overseas prior to their overseas assignment. Intensive overseas language training has been long considered the most effective method for acquiring any foreign language. However, few companies can afford to send their employees abroad for an extended period and few employees are able to take such time away from their professional and personal responsibilities. Multinational businesses often send only their key managerial personnel for intensive training but, for cost reasons, cannot justify training support personnel. In reality, most employees of firms doing

business overseas will experience to some degree the need to speak the language of that country. It is assumed that secretaries and assistants to engineers or managers communicate with their foreign counterparts at least as much as their supervisors.

After being interviewed by members of ERFA, a European professional organization of language trainers, an executive of a European multinational company commented that "foreign languages should be taught for all at all levels, beginning on the shop floor, because direct, personal contacts at all levels will increase" (Beneke, 1981, p. 40).

Judging from the success of Japanese companies, it is probable that far-sighted American companies will see a long-range return-on-investment of training as many of their employees as possible in the language of their overseas operations. The often unavoidable sudden need for language-competent employees can be quickly met if multinational companies take a pro-active approach by continuously offering general language training. It is hoped that the model proposed by this study will enable these companies to provide needed effective language training at a reasonable cost for all employees involved in overseas operations.

This model can also be useful to university LSP programs, since multinational companies often turn to academia to provide instruction in language training. In addition, university students of various disciplines desiring to acquire a second language can be served by such a model. University teacher education programs can use the model in training future foreign language instructors, as

many of them are likely to be called upon to provide programs to meet the needs of the business community. The results of this study can also be useful to those business schools offering international degrees that do not have a foreign language proficiency requirement, but want to provide their students foreign language instruction within the school curriculum.

It is recognized that America's need for an internationally competent workforce can only be met through a long-range commitment to internationalize education from kindergarten to the university level. The need for this commitment has been recognized since the 1970s and has yet to be met by the American educational system. Unlike academia, business can move much more quickly in changing programs to meets its needs. The model presented here is proposed as a flexible guide for business foreign language training programs.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to develop a model for curriculum development for an effective foreign language training program in United States multinational firms. Such a model can provide companies with a basic framework to develop their own in-house training programs to meet their particular foreign language needs.

In order to develop a model for curriculum development of foreign language training programs, the following objectives must be met: to identify components of effective foreign language training programs in the areas of (1) assessment of

needs, (2) preparation of goals and objectives, (3) selection of materials and methods, and (4) selection of evaluation procedures.

Limitations

A limitation of this study is the lack of availability of information on components of successful commercial language and culture training programs. Little written information exists relating to such programs due to their entrepreneurial nature and their refusal to cooperate in research studies. Therefore, entrepreneurial or commercial programs will constitute a small portion of the data base used to generate a training model.

Definitions

The following terms and their definitions are provided to facilitate understanding of this study:

Academia refers to the world of scholarship and higher education. (Morris, 1973, p. 6)

Achievement, as opposed to proficiency, in foreign language study refers to the completion of levels of study. Achievement has traditionally been measured by means of written and oral testing. Achievement may be defined as "learning" the linguistic structure of a foreign language, or having a high level of expertise about the grammatical and lexical features of a language. Proficiency may be defined as "acquiring" a foreign language, or being able to function in that language in various social and professional situations.

ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines refer to guidelines developed in 1986 by the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Language through grants from the U.S. Department of Education. The guidelines represent levels of integrated performance in speaking, listening, reading and writing. These guidelines represent stages of proficiency, as opposed to achievement, and allow assessment of what an individual can or cannot do in the target language. (Lisken-Gasparro, p.11)

Communicative competence is the goal of current language instruction programs which emphasize communication rather than grammar. Programs stressing communication competence are learner-centered, use authentic materials, and deal with real-life situations and problem solving within culturally correct settings. Communication competence involves both linguistic and cultural knowledge, skills and behavior.

Culturally ethnocentric is the characteristic of believing one's culture, or ethnic group, is superior to that of others. (Morris, p. 450)

Expatriate refers to a person who has been transplanted to a foreign country. (Morris, p.461)

Foreign language proficiency refers to the ability to functionally use a foreign language in a variety of situations. There is a hierarchy of proficiency levels, each with its own proficiency rating. (Lisken-Gasparro, p. 12)

Functional job analysis refers to the study of specific and important behaviors, skills, attitudes and accompanying vocabulary necessary for a particular job or function.

ILR refers to Interagency Language Roundtable, the committee which created the government's proficiency guidelines and ratings. This committee consists of representatives of government agencies and bureaus involved in foreign language use or training. (Crawford, 1983, p. 1)

Language learning strategies are techniques, behaviors, or actions used by the language learner to help acquire, store and retrieve and process information. (Oxford & Crookall, 1989, p. 404)

Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) refers to university applied language programs which offer specific content courses with specialized vocabulary, conducted in a foreign language. An example of this type of program is the Introduction to Money and Banking conducted entirely in French and within a culturally correct context, such as the banking business in France. These content-specific courses are usually offered at the intermediate level of language learning.

Learning biography refers to all previous learning experiences of a learner, such as family environment and early learning opportunities, which affect later learning ability. (Dannerbeck, 1987, p. 414)

Linguistic ethnocentricism refers to the belief that one's language is superior to other languages. (Morris, p. 450)

Realia refers to a variety of authentic materials from a foreign country that are often used in the foreign language classroom to help students learn the target language and culture. Examples of realia include job application forms, order forms, train schedules, tv program guides, menus, and instructions on product labels.

Target language refers to the language which is the object of study, discussion, or consideration.

Scope

The scope of this study was limited to language training programs designed to meet the needs of multinational companies. The study was also limited to programs in business, academia and government implemented between 1970 and 1990. Review of language acquisition research was limited to the same period of time.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

In order to provide a basis for the design of a model for curriculum development for language training programs, a review of the growing importance of such programs will be made and components of current successful programs in academia, business and government will be examined. Research and theory in language acquisition will also be reviewed.

Current Status of Language Training in United States Multinational Companies

Increased competition within the international marketplace has resulted in a significant decrease in American dominance. The U.S. share of world exports fell to below 12% in 1984, a decline from 15.4% in 1970 (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). It was projected that in 1990 that percentage would reach no higher than 13% ("Shifting trade", 1989). The National Foreign Trade Council has noted that 80% of American industry currently has global competitors (Copeland & Griggs).

Even if not in direct competition with foreign firms, American companies are increasingly affected by international business, economic, social and political activity. American corporations absorb foreign companies and vice versa, resulting

in large multinational conglomerates. Duane Hall, former executive director of Oklahoma State University's Center for International Trade Development, presented the following information to a group of Oklahoma business representatives:

> About one-third of all U.S. corporations are owned or based overseas...More than 6,000 U.S. firms have some overseas operations. One of every six production jobs is export related. There are five million jobs that depend on export business. (Lee, 1989, p. B5)

American companies have done most of their business with European countries. "American exports to the 12 European Community nations totaled $71.3 billion in 1988. America is also the greatest purchaser of European-made products. In 1988, Americans imported $84 billion worth of goods made in European Community nations" (Crawley, 1989, p. 1A).

Since American business is closely related to the world economy, it must have a international perspective.

> The paradigm for American executives needs to shift from a local perspective managing cultural homogeneity to a global perspective managing cultural diversity. (Foster, 1986, p. 31)

Foster adds that since language is the highest expression of a culture, language learning is considered the most natural avenue toward cultural understanding, and therefore a good starting point for such a paradigm shift.

Faced with increased international interdependence and competition, combined with decreased percentage share in world trade, American business leaders have recognized the need to restructure their approach to the world market. Studies have warned American businesses that two important areas of

concern are cultural and language barriers to conducting business. The 1979 Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies report stated that "American inadequacy in foreign language skills has become a serious and growing liability" (p. 28) and that America's survival in world competition depends on its ability to communicate with foreign countries in their language and with appropriate cultural understanding. Multinational companies are only now realizing that their employees need to be internationally and interculturally competent in order to compete successfully. Such competence, however, is almost non-existent within the American multinational workforce. In addition, with a few exceptions, "virtually no specific consideration or encouragement has been given to foreign language preparation or training in the business curriculum" of American business schools (Stone & Rubenfeld, 1989, p. 429).

With the exception of a few business schools, such as the Lauder Institute at the Wharton School of Business, the Monterey Institute of International Studies, the MIBS program at the University of South Carolina and the American Graduate School of International Management in Arizona, most U. S. business schools with international programs do not insist that their students acquire or maintain foreign language skills (Samuelson, 1990).

The converse is true in Europe where all business schools require foreign language skills of their graduates. On the average, one-third of the curriculum and one-third of the budget of most European business schools is devoted to language learning or maintenance. Students are selected for admission on the basis of their language ability in not only one, but two foreign languages. In addition, students

are required to spend time studying or working in a foreign country after their first year of business school (Crane & McKinney, 1986).

American linguistic ethnocentrism is reflected in its entire system of education, where only 6.8% of U.S. university students are studying languages used by 75% of the world's population (Simon, 1980). "The United States continues to be the only major country in the world where you can graduate from college without having at least one year of a foreign language" (Pedraza, 1989, p. G5). Since there is little emphasis on internationalizing our current overall educational system, there is little hope for producing a large corps of internationally and interculturally competent workers for the future.

European and Japanese multinational firms have long been able to recruit multi-lingual workers because there has been strong support for second language acquisition in Europe and Japan. Monahan (1989) reported that the education ministers of the European Community recently approved a five-year program for foreign language instruction with a budget of $220 million that includes "incentives for private companies to include language education as part of employee training" (pp. A29 & A32). Such incentives are usually credits on company income taxes.

Hogan and Goodson (1990) reported that while the U.S. expatriate failure rate between 1965 and 1985 fluctuated between 25% and 40%, Japanese companies were able to keep their failure rate at less than 10%. Unlike American companies, Japanese multinationals provided at least one year of predeparture training that included language and culture studies. Horton (1987) pointed out Japan's far-sighted commitment to training for global business needs in describing

the Nippon Electric Corporation's training program. As early as 1980, Nippon had developed the Institute of International Studies to train its employees in the language, customs and management styles of its foreign operations. Holden's research (1987) on international firms which had successfully overcome the language barrier and gained communication competence revealed familiar names such as Sony, Sanyo, Nissan and Mitsubishi. A translation of a Japanese book on international business (cited in Holden, 1987) stated that it was necessary, at all costs, to master the local language (Inaba, 1984).

Unlike Europe and Japan, second language learning in the United States has not been considered a necessity for conducting business abroad. The ethnocentric attitude of expecting foreigners to be able to speak English, which has existed for many years in the United States, today is causing embarrassing barriers to not only international trade, but to international relations as well. The inability to communicate in both languages requires the monolingual side to rely upon the perceptions and interpretations of the bilingual side, rather than on direct communication. This increases the risk of miscommunication and places the monolingual side at a distinct disadvantage.

More important, lack of such intercultural competence among employees has affected the bottom line of company financial statements. Harry Obst, director of the Department of State's Office of Language Services, is quoted as saying the "American ignorance of foreign languages and cultures is costing the U.S. over $50 billion a year in lost sales and opportunities" (Wolniansky, 1989, p. 54). Steeves (1984) reported that the major factor in employees' failure overseas has been the

inability to adjust to a foreign culture. Employee lack of language and culture awareness has resulted in significant costs to many companies. Those who fail in their assignments overseas have caused direct costs ranging from $50,000 to over $200,000 per employee (Hogan & Goodson, 1990, Copeland, 1985). Direct costs include those related to foreign installation expenses, moving expenses for the employee's family, premature return expenses, and moving expenses of replacement personnel. One third of employees sent abroad have returned before the completion of their assignment (Steeves, 1984). No figures were available for costs of lost business or destroyed company reputations.

Some American companies with overseas operations have tried to solve these problems by providing their employees with specialized training both in cross-cultural issues and in language. Traditionally, companies have contracted with commercial language schools (46.3%), contracted with private individuals (14.0%), approached academic establishments (7.4%), or implemented their own in-house training programs (12.3%) in their attempt to solve the problem (Inman, 1985).

Success has been minimal since few companies have made a firm commitment to such programs, and often such programs are implemented for short-range results. Inman (1978), in a study of foreign language training in U.S. multinational corporations, found that although language training was the most frequent type of pre-assignment training, there was no required standard for proficiency in the language. The lack of proper monitoring of attendance and progress, as well as scheduling and logistics were identified as problems in current

programs. In addition, attendance of participants was optional, and the amount of time devoted very limited. The average number of hours devoted to these programs was 100 in 1978 with a modest increase to 108.5 in 1983 (Inman, 1985). The result of such programs has been a "superficial, survival-level of competence among participants" (Inman, 1978, p.4).

It is interesting to compare the approach to language training taken by American multinationals to that of the Peace Corps, whose success at language training is well- known. Instead of the 100 hour average for business programs, an average of 220 hours of language instruction is provided to Peace Corps trainees. In addition, trainees receive follow-up instruction as well as an opportunity to live with a family in the target country. Trainees at the Foreign Service Institute in Arlington, Virginia receive an average of 600 hours of training within a 20-week period for western European languages (Deighton, 1971). It is clear that such a commitment to language training results in improved proficiency among trainees.

Attitude toward language learning has remained a barrier to making this necessary commitment within American multinational companies. Upper management has continued to regard only technical expertise as the most important criterion for overseas assignments. Managerial ability has been ranked second and ability to adjust to a foreign environment third, with language ability last (Inman, 1985). This prevailing attitude contrasted with the opinion of international personnel managers and expatriates, who have indicated that foreign language training should be the first priority in training (Baker, 1984, Inman, 1978). Another study showed that attitudes toward the importance of foreign language training

differed "depending on whether top management or the overseas executive is the locus of the attitude...It is considered to be more important to those in the trenches" (Baker, 1984, p. 72). Even with such expert advice, top management has not been convinced of the long-range benefits of a pro-active language training program. Efforts to train personnel in foreign languages have been mostly re-active to certain business conditions. Language ability has been treated as a commodity that can be bought when the need arises.

In spite of experienced communication and cultural problems, 60% of international companies surveyed in Inman's 1983 follow-up study still admitted that foreign language training played no role in the planning of their international operations (Inman, 1985). Inman pointed out that companies appeared to be unwilling to make a commitment to language and culture training programs unless their economic benefit, or return on investment, could be demonstrated. Progress in developing language and culture training programs within the business sector has been slowed by this prevailing attitude.

Zimpfer and Underwood (1987) reported that of the 100 largest multinational U.S. companies surveyed, only seven of 43 respondents' firms had formal programs to train employees for overseas assignments with session length ranging from one day to one week. Language difficulties and lack of contact persons were cited as being the most significant on-the-job problems for the trainees.

Seabrook and Valdes (1988) conducted a later survey that showed a further decrease in in-house language training programs. A questionnaire sent to 341 of the Fortune 500 American multinational corporations produced 89 usable

responses (24.7%). Not a single firm among the respondents managed its own in-house program. These firms used consultants or commercial language schools and many sent employees abroad for intensive training. Length of language training continued to average 100 hours.

The study pointed out the irony in the fact that foreign multinational firms provided U.S. graduates significantly more foreign-language and culture training than American multinationals. This study also noted that "there is a growing tendency to hire foreign-born top executives to work in the U.S. firms. Foreign managers, in turn, hire more foreign senior personnel, and this can lead to a morale problem within the corporation" (p. 7). The study indicated that many business observers were concerned about American business' growing reliance on foreign nationals to meet its international business needs.

It has been shown that although American multinational firms have expressed the need for language-competent personnel, most have sought only short-term solutions to meet this need. Few have been willing to commit the necessary funds and time to improve the language-related performance of their employees. The studies cited have confirmed that the basic problem has not been solved. U.S. multinationals continue to experience language and culture-related problems in doing business overseas.

Exemplary Foreign Language and Culture Training Programs

Academic Programs

To meet the changing needs of today's foreign language student, as well as those of the business community, many universities have created new courses, new degree programs, and double major programs. Languages for Special Purposes courses include a technical area plus the language, such as business plus French, and are generally offered at the intermediate level of language proficiency. Many of these programs have been developed with consideration of the needs of the international business student and community.

These developments, however, have been initiated more frequently by the foreign language departments than by business departments, and have been accompanied by a variety of problems. The most significant problem is associated with the retraining of language instructors. Most language instructors are literature specialists and must be retrained in order to teach other content areas, such as business. The general feeling has been that it is easier for a language instructor to learn business content than for a business instructor to become proficient in a language. Another problem is the lack of appropriate texts and materials for such applied language programs.

Radebaugh and Shields (1984) indicated a growing need for universities to promote interdisciplinary cooperation for the purpose of developing more effective LSP programs. The same study found that of the surveyed schools offering

international business degrees at the undergraduate, graduate and doctoral levels, only 25% required students to take foreign language courses or prove fluency. It was recommended that business schools with international programs build in foreign language expertise within the business curriculum or require foreign language proficiency for admission.

Interdisciplinary cooperation might include the foreign language department providing needed linguistic and general cultural content expertise and the business department, the technical content expertise. Both departments would need to collaborate in providing qualified staff and developing appropriate materials and teaching methods, as each discipline requires different pedagogical approaches. Doutt (1986) recommended inviting faculty from sociology, psychology and anthropology departments to contribute their expertise in such intercultural concepts as contrasts among cultures, stereotyping, and culture shock.

Grosse & Voght (1990) reported that LSP programs "have become a widespread and permanent aspect of the curriculum in US higher education....the creation of interdisciplinary programs of study combining professional education with liberal arts is one of the most important areas of educational innovation in the latter part of this century" (p. 45). The study attributed recent growth in LSP programs to international economic events and the national focus on educational reform for the purpose of internationalizing the education system.

Normand (1986) described how the University of Toledo successfully undertook a project to develop instructional materials in foreign languages for the undergraduate business curriculum. This project demanded a great deal of

interdisciplinary collaboration between the business and foreign language departments. Also cited as a successful applied language program was the program in foreign language and international trade at Eastern Michigan University. This program included traineeships and field experience at the undergraduate and graduate levels, and by 1985 had over 400 majors.

The oldest and largest international business school which has a serious commitment to language training is the American Graduate School of International Management in Glendale, Arizona. All students are required to follow a curriculum that includes language training, international cultural studies, and international business studies. Students' language needs are determined by the business functions they are expected to perform. Conversational proficiency is the major goal and only audio-lingual methods are used. Class size averages only eight students, which facilitates a high level of student participation in the target language (Ramsey, 1982).

Cited among model academic programs was the pre-professional language track at Arizona State University, the Languages for International Professions Program (LIPP). The LIPP program (Guntermann, 1984a, 1984b) stresses communicative skills needed by most professionals working in international business. Language proficiency is developed within social and work-related functions and contexts (e.g. small talk at cocktail parties; presentations at meetings, in offices, and in social situations; appointments in institutions such as ministries and embassies). Courses were designed using the functional, or task-related approach. Interviews with Americans having experience in international

business were analyzed and a list of necessary functions and cultural information was developed. These functions, or necessary professional competencies, the language, and cultural information were integrated into a one-year intensive program. Class size was limited to twenty students and classes met for two hours four times a week. Total number of instructional hours averaged 250. Two instructors per language worked as a team in designing and implementing the LIPP curriculum. Materials included a basic grammar text for reference and instructor-developed activities and modules. Methods stressed oral communication and focused on functions, such as simulated situations, role-play, and problem-solving. There was no structured approach to grammar.

In addition to the language component, the LIPP program also included an intercultural communication component which was taught by a faculty member from the Communication Department. Students were required to attend class more often than regular language students, but received double credit. Both oral and written achievement tests were given to students after each unit and an oral proficiency interview was conducted after each semester. After the first semester students were expected to meet an Intermediate-Low proficiency rating in listening and speaking. Student evaluations of this program have been excellent and the proficiency level of students has exceeded that of students in the regular language program.

Bénouis (1986) described a LSP course developed at the University of Hawaii, French for Travel Industry Majors. This course received positive evaluations from both students and industry professionals and was one of the few

elementary (first semester) level LSP courses offered by American universities at this time. Needs were determined by interviewing travel industry personnel managers. These managers were asked what typical travel industry situations students would encounter on the job. Performance objectives, course content and vocabulary were determined by these situations. Instructors were required to develop their own materials, as no published texts suitable for this program were available. Although the target language was used as much as possible, some grammar explanations were given in English. Methods included use of video-taped role-play and use of lab work for reinforcement purposes. Oral proficiency was stressed over grammar, the functional, communicative approach was used, and cultural information was integrated in the course content.

In their review of the ten-year progress of the Master in International Business Studies program at the University of South Carolina, Gillespie and Folks (1985) reported that 24 credit hours of language preparation was required. This constituted 36% of the program's credit hours, and reflected the belief that language skills were important to those students who plan to work in multinational corporations. Students were required to take intensive language instruction during the first summer of the program. They had to maintain their language skills by meeting three times a week during the academic year and were then required to take culture studies courses during the first half of the second summer, and overseas courses the second half. In addition, a six-month internship abroad was required. A questionnaire sent to 271 graduates of this program revealed that 70.1% viewed their language ability as very important in getting their jobs, and

61.1% considered it very important in performing their job responsibilities. The study stressed, however, that foreign language skills alone were not enough to obtain a job in a multinational firm. A full professional program was required to develop competitive candidates.

Setliff and Taft (1988) described a successful thirteen-week intensive language and culture program in Japanese for engineers at the Language and Culture Institute of the University of Pittsburgh. This program was requested by the Asia-Pacific Human Resources group of Westinghouse Electric Corporation as a pro-active orientation program to avoid future culture shock or cultural pitfalls. The program had its own administrative staff, consisting of a director, assistant director, and coordinator of special projects. The language instruction component was administered by the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures. The daily routine included four hours of class plus one hour of lab. Three of the four class hours were devoted to drill in Japanese conducted by native speakers. English was used for the remaining hour for explanations of language structure and cultural issues. Total target language instruction time averaged 260 hours.

The culture orientation component of the program was administered by the Language and Culture Institute. Guest lecturers from business, government and academia provided students with information on various aspects of Japanese society, value system, history, literature, and business practices. Since participants proceeded at their own pace, evaluation was a problem. Future plans for the program included pre- and post-training performance measurements in both language and cultural components. All participants rated the program highly, as

most were very motivated and made substantial progress. Setliff stressed the need for on-the-job evaluation of participants in order to improve the program.

Oklahoma State University (Deveny, 1986) offered an elementary-level foreign language training program, designed not for students, but for university personnel. This program was offered in response to the needs of university faculty members and other professionals for foreign language instruction. Students attended classes two evenings a week, for two hours, on a voluntary basis. Evaluation was conducted informally and no grades were given. Classes were divided into two groups, with one group meeting with a faculty member for one hour of formal general language instruction, and the other meeting with native speakers for conversation practice using specialized vocabulary. Groups reversed during the second hour. The students set the pace of the class, and, if needed, tutoring by native speakers was available. Oklahoma State University, like many large universities, has the advantage of a large pool of native speakers from a variety of specialized or technical fields to assist in such a language training program. Native-speaking assistants, however, do not necessarily have the pedagogical skills to accompany their technical expertise. In such cases, the instructor must closely supervise lesson plans and not permit the native speaker to have non-structured, open-ended conversations sessions.

Business Training Programs

Academic language programs, including LSP programs, are often unable to meet the immediate needs of the business community for language-competent

personnel. In addition, Cere (1986) reported that corporations found academic language and cross-cultural programs to be too theoretical and less practical than what was needed. In most cases where businesses have recruited instructors from the academic community, they have requested development of instructional materials tailored to company needs for in-house language training programs. Very large corporations such as IBM and Rockwell, when unable to provide immersion training abroad, have contracted with a local university for such business-specific, in-house training programs (Finel-Honigman, 1986).

A unique and successful in-house interdisciplinary language and culture academic program was established at the Crédit Lyonnais, New York City, in 1980. This program was instituted as a response to the need for specialized language skills among the bank's employees. The need for increased awareness of foreign business concepts and methods was also addressed. One professor assumed "the responsibilities of administering, teaching, and monitoring the program" (Finel-Honigman, p. 28). Training was provided in basic, intermediate, advanced language skills, as well as cultural information related to French banking practices. The professor was accountable to the institution and received full support of upper management. The Crédit Lyonnais language and culture training program offered five courses each semester, each meeting two hours per week during lunch with tutorials outside business hours. Such a schedule kept business interruptions to a minimum. All courses included specialized business vocabulary. Evaluation consisted of 1) a progress report for each participant sent to his superior and

included in his personnel file and 2) a semester grade based on performance and final exam or project.

Class facilities included a comfortable conference room with armchairs. Size was limited to eight participants. Courses were conducted entirely in French and focused on "understanding and conceptualization of the French language as a means for conveying specialized business and financial information" (p. 29). Participants followed a strict set of guidelines and rules and understood the seriousness of the program. Attendance, however, was a problem, as unavoidable business-related absences affected performance.

Buck and Hiple (1984) described the business language training program conducted since 1979 by American Hoechst Corporation. This program has provided on-site language and cultural training according to employee personal and professional needs. The approach was functional, stressing role-play situations, and culture was integrated with linguistic materials. Oral proficiency was stressed and interviews were conducted by native speakers to determine participants' functional use of the total language. ACTFL or ILR oral proficiency ratings were used to assess not only participants' success, but the effectiveness of the program in general.

In Europe, language training programs conducted on-site within multinational firms differed significantly from academic language education programs. A group of European foreign language trainers calling itself 'the Informal Association for the Exchange of Experiences on Foreign Language Teaching in Industrial Firms' (ERFA), has since the late 1960s exchanged

information for the improvement of language training programs. ERFA outlined the major differences between industrial and school language programs. According to ERFA, most business programs enjoyed relative financial independence and fewer restrictions than schools. Most were required to operate economically, efficiently and intensively for specific task-oriented goals. Since trainers were easily replaceable, they were very competitive and continually tried to excel at their profession. Trainees were highly motivated, since their livelihood was dependent on their performance during and after training. Programs and trainers had to be highly flexible to respond to continually and often rapidly changing company needs.

Curriculum content was not dependent on a textbook, but responded to both company and trainee needs identified and ranked in order of importance by a thorough needs analysis. Schröder (1981) listed interviews, observation and questionnaires as the most commonly used techniques for investigating company and trainee needs.

Program aims were expressed in terms of operational behavioral objectives. Trainers had long used the proficiency-oriented, or communicative, task-oriented, multi-media approach to language teaching, while academia had only recently proposed such methods. Trainers also had long used the target language as the medium of communication during training sessions. Evaluation procedures were objective, task-related, and involved continual feedback during training as well as after training. In addition, on-the-job transfer of learning was monitored, evaluated and the training program was modified if necessary. Most industrial language

training programs provided the successful trainees with a proficiency certificate assuring current and future employers of their level of proficiency (Freudenstein, Beneke and Pönisch 1981).

European in-company language training programs generally have included a very thorough needs analysis, starting with an assessment of current and future needs for foreign languages within the firm. At Ford-Werke in Germany, standardized questionnaires were given to top management and were followed by personal interviews to determine company goals. The same information-gathering techniques were used to assess departmental needs. In addition, job and task analyses were conducted to determine communication and language-related behavior needs. Employee performance deficiencies related to language skills were determined and a decision was made as to how to correct those deficiencies. This was followed by an individual needs analysis of the trainee. Information was gathered related to the trainee's past language experience, current level of skills, job functions and accompanying vocabulary requirements (Thelen and Reinhold, 1981).

The design of European language training programs generally depended on the results of such needs analyses as well as on available time and resources. At Agfa-Gevaert AG and 3M in Germany, program design varied in format from extensive to intensive to programmed self-paced. The extensive program was the most popular among employees and was composed of six-month sessions of 1 1/2 hour-classes given once or twice a week. Trainees attended half the classes during and half after working hours. The intensive program was open only to

priority trainees and ranged from one to two weeks full-time sessions to two and a half days per week. The most productive program was a combination intensive seminar and home study format with assistance for trainees available at the language learning library. In the combination program, trainees had a series of monthly two- and three-day intensive seminars (including Saturdays), followed by a closely monitored home-study period of six to eight months.

Teaching staff included at least one trainer/linguist administrator and one or more free-lance native-speaking instructors. 3M Company in Germany, having full commitment from top management, had four full-time language trainers. Materials were prepared by the full-time trainers and not by the free-lance instructors. Separate modules were prepared for specific purposes. Evaluation involved on-going program monitoring and adjustment. Minimum standards were set particularly for intensive courses due to their cost to the company (Worth and Marshall, 1981).

In a study of a successful foreign language training program set up for the British airline industry (Coutts, 1974), a description of major components of the program was provided. A complete task analysis was conducted, including topic and word frequency counts, and measurable performance objectives were developed for each job or situation. Trainee selection was rather exclusive, as those trainees who were judged non-verbal, lacking in self-confidence, hearing-impaired or speech-impaired were eliminated. Trainees were also separated by ability. An interesting combination of class and lab sessions was used during the six-hour day for intensive work. Evaluation for this program was conducted at

three levels. In addition to continuous daily informal evaluation, students were given a passive written test whenever they were ready, and later, an active oral test where student responses to the instructor were recorded and reviewed. This was followed at a later date by a situation simulation test within a group where students evaluated each other in terms of vocabulary use, structure control, appropriateness and courtesy.

Commercial Training Programs

Studies have shown that multinational corporations usually meet their language training needs by contracting with a commercial language school. This solution to the problem is to business the quickest, but whether it is the best remains unanswered, since few companies actually evaluate the effectiveness of such programs (Baker, 1984).

In a review of commercial language schools, Marottoli (1973) noted that Berlitz was one of the better known commercial language schools which offered language instruction using the direct method and dramatization. No translation of material was provided the student. Instruction was on a one-on-one basis and consisted of repetition, drill, memorization, and sentence manipulation. Although Berlitz has claimed to design individualized programs for each participant, there was little information published on Berlitz procedures for student language needs analysis or its methods of evaluation.

The Club de Libro en Espagnol has used an interesting approach called the Living Room Method in their language program. Students were guests in a

comfortable, informal, non-academic setting consisting of living room furniture. The direct method was used, no grammar explanations were given, and audio-visual aides were frequently used. Classes ranged in size from two to eight students. No information was available on needs analysis nor evaluation procedures used by this commercial school.

The American Express Language Center used a technique called the Situational Reinforcement Technique, which emphasized situation dialogues only. This technique emphasized the "total experience" (Marottoli, p. 356) where the student was exposed naturally and gradually to the whole language, including all the verb tenses, from the very beginning of instruction. Communication within a variety of situations was stressed. No drills or exercises were used and no grammar explanations were given. Like Berlitz and Club de Libro, only the target language was used during instruction. Class size ranged from two to nine students. No information was available relating to needs analysis or evaluation procedures.

Sullivan Language Schools, a subsidiary of Behavioral Research Laboratories, Inc., used an individualized, self-paced combination of teacher and programmed sessions. Unlike the other commercial schools, Sullivan used English to ensure the student knew what he was saying at all times. Sullivan claimed that many students who were unable to progress at Berlitz succeeded at Sullivan. A thorough needs and motivation assessment was conducted before training and evaluation consisted of monitoring student progress at each step. Although the method was less true-to-life than the direct method, results were excellent.

Government Programs

Government language programs reflect a commitment and seriousness to the acquisition of the target language not found in the academic or business sectors. Since all resources are devoted to the objective of developing language-proficient personnel, and since there are few other demands on participants in the program, the success rate (proficiency level) is superior to that of either the academic or business sector.

The components of government language programs differ significantly from university or business training programs. The most obvious difference is in the amount of time devoted to training. The Defense Language Institute and the Foreign Service Institute conduct most of their courses five days per week, six hours per day, with courses ranging from 24 to 47 weeks in length, depending on the difficulty of the language. Peace Corps trainees receive pre-service language and cross-cultural training five to six days a week, for a period ranging from 10 to 14 weeks (Barnes, 1985).

The average 100 hours offered by many business training programs appears insufficient when contrasted to the average 270 hours necessary for what the Council of Europe has called the threshold level of language. The threshold level is defined as the minimal level at which one is able to function in a foreign language in order to survive (Dannerbeck, 1987). A set of guidelines for the selection of English language training published after a 1978 conference of the Center for Applied Linguistics suggested 840 hours to prepare trainees to receive occupational or university training in English (Inman, 1978).

It is evident that contact hours, or training time, is an important variable in achieving levels of communication competence in a foreign language.

The Defense Language Institute, which provides foreign language instruction to military personnel, has established a variety of language programs based on the needs of the trainees. Headstart programs are survival-level language and culture courses that range from 40 to 100 hours of instruction. Gateway programs are intended to meet the basic military and social needs of military personnel serving in specific countries and range from 180 to 240 hours. The Basic program is an intensive residential program that runs six hours a day, five days a week for a specific number of weeks. Other programs include the Dialect, Refresher-Maintenance-Improvement, Professional Development Extension, Special Language, Job-Related Materials, Short (Intermediate and Advanced) Courses (DLIFLC, 1988).

The Foreign Service Institute, as part of the Department of State, has provided language training in over 40 languages to federal civilian employees since 1946. These programs range from one week to two years and are located in Washington as well as at over 200 foreign locations. Classes have no more than six students and meet for 28 to 30 instruction hours per week. On the average classes meet for 20 weeks or less for Western European languages and for 44 or more weeks for more difficult Eastern European, Oriental or Arabic languages. Less intensive classes are also available before working hours. The staff, currently numbering 415, consists of professional linguists as supervisors and native speaking instructors. Methods emphasize oral communication and reading skills.

Materials include specialized language texts and tapes and other instructor-developed materials.

The Foreign Service Institute, which had long used the S-Scale proficiency rating system to rate language proficiency levels, revised its evaluation procedures in 1983. The FSI changed 1) the evaluation criteria, 2) the performance standards and 3) the test format. Communication proficiency of trainees is now evaluated on the basis of the following criteria: discourse competence, structural precision, lexicalization, fluency, and comprehension. The degree of communicative effectiveness is now evaluated on the basis of the following revised performance standards: blocking, dysfunctional, intrusive, acceptable, successful, and superior. Test format has been changed to include a warm-up conversation, an interview, and an oral presentation (Crawford, 1983).

The Peace Corps language program consists of a needs analysis of the trainee's language needs as well as an analysis of the trainees job assignment. Program goals include general language and social competence as well as technical language skills. Work specific materials are used with grammar texts being optional. Situational and functional language activities, such as simulation and role play, are used during training, allowing maximum trainee participation. Classes are very small, usually one instructor and four trainees. Trainees have the added advantage of living in the target country, usually with a family, while learning. Evaluation of trainees includes observations by the trainers of on the job performance and trainee presentations. The FSI proficiency rating scales are used to rate trainee performance (Barnes, 1985).

Language Acquisition Research and Theory

Research and theory in language acquisition must be addressed before considering the design and implementation of a model language training program. Consideration of how people acquire a second language is necessary in order to determine what methods and materials would be the most appropriate.

The trend in foreign language instruction during the last few years has been a move away from grammar-oriented instruction to proficiency-oriented language acquisition. The teacher-centered classroom has given way to student-centered activities where there is more student-talk than teacher-talk, and where the instructor serves as a model and facilitator of learning. Emphasis has been placed on communication within real-life situations, and not only on grammar.

The proficiency-oriented classroom promotes the functional use of a language, the ability to use a language in different situations. Functional use stresses listening and speaking proficiency, again, made possible by constant use of the target language.

It has been suggested that grammar be presented in stages, with students first understanding a structure, then using it partially, and finally using it completely in a variety of contexts. Another trend has been the increased use of authentic materials in the form of realia, readings, cassettes and videotapes.

Terrell (1988), commenting on Krashen's (1981) distinction between language that is learned and language that is acquired, suggested that model language programs should incorporate both areas. Learned language involves conscious thought, whereas acquired language is used automatically. Krashen

has suggested that acquired language results only after the learner has received a significant amount of input from listening and written comprehension. Continual use of the target language in the classroom and frequent use of a variety of reading materials are important sources of this input. The great value of reading is that it provides language input or information in a low anxiety environment (Krashen, 1987).

Numerous studies have shown direct relationships between high anxiety and poor performance in the foreign language classroom (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). A model classroom would eliminate as much as possible the sources of student anxiety. Language acquisition is facilitated by an affectively positive, psychologically safe and non-threatening classroom atmosphere. Krashen (1981) related conscious language learning with aspects of aptitude (cognitive domain) and unconscious language acquisition with aspects of attitude (affective domain). If the student is free from anxiety, if he has a generally positive attitude or feeling toward the class and toward the teacher, and if he has positive self-esteem, he is more likely to be successful in his quest for language proficiency. Another important aspect of attitude is motivation. Measures of attitude and motivation have been shown to be closely related to achievement in foreign language, and have been shown to be better predictors of future success in language than aptitude and IQ measures.

Much of the research conducted on language acquisition, however, relates to how children or young adults learn. Older adults learn in different ways and have different needs. In order to develop appropriate language teaching

approaches for the business language training program, reference must also be made to research in adult education.

Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) provided a list of adult learning findings that they suggested could be used as guidelines in designing adult educational programs. Those relating directly to a language training program include the adult's readiness to learn, the adult's intrinsic motivation to learn, the adult's need for positive reinforcement, organized presentation and continual repetition of meaningful information, the adult's need for active participation, and finally, his need for a comfortable learning environment.

Francis Dannerbeck (1987) in his article describing the European perspective on adult second-language learning stressed the need to adapt instruction to the needs of adult learners. Instructors were encouraged to consider the adult's learning biography, his experiences with learning and his style of learning, in individualizing materials and methods. Questionnaires can be used to obtain such information. Adults were described as strongly motivated initially but likely to lose some of that motivation if visible evidence of learning is not demonstrated early in the program. In second-language instruction it is important to maintain that early enthusiasm by designing the program to meet the adult's needs. Since adults experience some decline in short-term memory, in learning speed, and in sound discrimination, some compensation must be made. More individual work could be arranged or more work with taped materials could be assigned. Dannerbeck suggested that instructors use a variety of instructional methods and materials, especially visuals. A theme-concentrated interactional

method often used in Europe was recommended. Emphasis, again, was on listening and speaking skills.

Summary

Interest in language and culture training programs has experienced a renaissance in the last few years, due partly to increased competition in the international marketplace and a growing need for linguistically and culturally competent personnel. A variety of programs has attempted to address this need to develop language-proficient workers. Academia has responded with the creation of new curricula, new methods and new interdisciplinary programs. Business, too, has addressed this problem by developing either in-house or contracted language training programs, often with unsatisfactory results. Government programs, however, due to a commitment of time and resources, proved to be most successful in developing functionally proficient speakers of a foreign language. Programs in each sector possessed components that appeared to be particularly effective. These components, combined with current language acquisition theory, will serve as a basis to develop a model for an effective foreign language and culture training program.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

In order to develop a model for curriculum development of effective foreign language training programs in U.S. multinational firms, a thorough review was made of current successful programs in a variety of settings. This permitted the identification of elements common to all successful programs. The review of literature provided information on case studies of successful language for special purposes programs in the academic setting. Case studies of successful language training programs in the business setting and in government were also reviewed. In addition, important information in language acquisition research and theory was provided. This information was compared, commonalities of successful programs were identified, relationships between these commonalities and current linguistic theory were established and listed to provide the foundation of a model for curriculum development for business foreign language training programs.

Descriptive research techniques were used to obtain information on various components of these programs. Case study allows for examination of all factors of successful programs, for explanation of the differences of factors, and for the identification of important factors (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Successful language training programs in the three aforementioned settings were identified and analyzed for specific elements that were common to all programs. For each program, data were collected in the areas of 1) needs assessment, 2) goals and

objectives development, 3) materials selection, 4) instructional methods selection, 5) logistics and setting, and 6) evaluation methods.

Needs assessment or analysis involves identification of training needs. Each foreign language training program was analyzed as to how it identified what was needed by both the institution/business/government and the trainee.

After needs have been identified, goals and objectives must be established. Each language program was examined to determine how it developed its goals and specific objectives and common techniques were noted. Program content was as varied as the needs of the program.

Once goals and objectives have been established, specific instructional methods and materials must be selected. The programs under review were analyzed as to how they selected texts, materials, visual aids, and how they chose specific methods of instruction. Those methods that were proven to be successful in practice were combined with current linguistic theory to determine the most appropriate approach to the design and delivery of an effective business foreign language training program.

Each program was also examined for commonalities in the physical setting and general organization of the program. Finally, how each program selected criteria for evaluation and how it conducted evaluation was reviewed.

Factors that were common to the majority of programs within each of the six areas were listed and integrated with current language acquisition theory to provide the basis for a model for curriculum development of a business foreign language training program.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The language programs reviewed in this study have been identified as examples of various successful approaches to language training. All have certain elements in common and some have unique components that account for their high level of success. These elements will be enumerated within the areas of needs analysis, preparation of training objectives, selection of materials, methods, staff, setting time frame, and evaluation to form the basis for a model for a corporate language training program.

Needs Analysis

In the area of needs analysis, the in-house training programs provided by multinational companies, particularly those in Europe, appeared to provide the most comprehensive and thorough assessment of training needs of the company, job, and trainee. These in-house training programs conducted needs analyses according to accepted business practices. Specific language-related performance deficiencies or problem areas were identified, immediate needs were listed, and specific recommendations were made regarding possible solutions. The ultimate goal was to benefit the organization.

In the reviewed academic programs, however, needs were usually identified through consultation with key people in the business community and the business

department, or by conducting a survey. These identified educational needs were often of a general nature and addressed future, or anticipated, employment needs of students. The ultimate goal was to benefit the student in the future.

Although programs such as the LIPP at Arizona State University conducted what appeared to be extensive needs surveys, the result was often a listing of general business needs perceived by a variety of professionals. Although this inventory of functions, knowledge and attitudes effectively served the purposes of the LIPP academic program, it may be too generic to be applicable to specific business situations. Questionnaires developed by those in academia, but directed to professionals in business may not provide the most appropriate information on business training needs. Academia's unfamiliarity with the corporate culture and the specific job requirements, its physical distance and the time loss in the exchange of information appeared to be potential problem areas for effective analysis of business training needs.

On-site language program coordinators and trainers who are full-time staff members, as at Crédit Lyonnais and the European companies, eliminated this lack of familiarity, time and distance problem in identifying training needs. If such staff are unavailable, a joint team of language consultants and company expatriates, managers and technical experts could conduct a thorough needs analysis before designing a training program. The most crucial information can only be obtained from those who have had experience abroad, especially those who have failed in their assignments.

Information from all sources must be compared and cross checked to determine if the perceived problems are actually the real problems causing performance deficiencies. Such a thorough needs analysis, although lengthy and costly, produces the most reliable data on which to make program design decisions. In addition, such an approach to needs analysis ultimately avoids expense wasted on training for the wrong reasons.

The success of the Crédit Lyonnais program was due to the presence of a full-time language training expert, who was part of the company team, knew the corporate climate, and who had immediate and direct access to changing information related to company, job and trainee language needs. It appears that the small investment made in hiring a language staff member for long-range planning in language training within a multinational company could produce a significant return by eliminating the costs and problems of the current hit-and-miss approach to language training. Those companies choosing to contract with a commercial language school could also benefit from having a staff member with linguistic expertise. This staff member would be responsible for providing the school with specific company and employee needs and, most importantly, for evaluating the success of the school's training program. It has been shown that although companies often turn to commercial language schools to provide needed language training, they rarely evaluate the success of those programs.

A three-level needs analysis, such as Ford-Werke conducted, would provide the important and relevant information for effective program design. The analysis conducted by staff language experts at Ford-Werke included company-wide

language needs, department and job-specific language needs, and employee language needs. Data collected were analyzed and individual performance objectives were formulated for each employee (Thelen and Reinhold, 1981).

The fourteen ERFA companies considered a fourth level of needs, the needs of trainee's family, and all made language training available to family members. Judging from the results of studies showing family adjustment problems as a major cause for expatriate failure abroad, it would seem appropriate that a needs analysis include family needs and that provisions be made to include family members in training efforts, especially in high priority cases.

In order to identify specific communication needs of a trainee a proficiency testing model similar to that developed by Biersteker (1986) could be used. This model incorporated parts of the ACTFL oral interview to generate a proficiency profile of a trainee that could be used to diagnose areas where training is needed. This model linked cultural behavior to language behavior. Included in the model was a cultural skills segment which incorporated the following areas: 1) socio/ cultural (greetings, introductions, common transactions in stores and restaurants), 2) lexical/ traditional (vocabulary, idioms, literary, historical and political allusions, jokes), 3) emotive/pragmatic (express or control feelings, send signals, set moods). The model had a language skills area which included 4) oral/aural (fluency and control of pronunciation, words, syntax and semantics of a language), 5) reading/writing. Biersteker defined these five areas as communication media and, in addition, identified four modes of communication as 1) output, 2) input, 3) interaction, 4) abstract. Interaction skills included such behaviors as turn taking,

interrupting, eye contact, and topic switching. Abstract referred to the "conscious awareness of the rules and structure of communicative behavior" (p. 12). Such a model, if used appropriately as a diagnostic tool, would pinpoint specific areas of trainee communication needs.

A needs analysis would be incomplete if it did not include important factors such as company commitment to language training, its expectations, its resources and its time requirement. Inman (1985) outlined the four areas all companies considering language training programs must consider: (1) purpose of the program, (2) type of language to be emphasized, (3) length of time required, (4) human and financial resources necessary to achieve results. Language training within the business sector is viewed as a contribution to company performance. It must respond to performance deficiencies of employees whose problems or needs are related to lack of language skills. Like other departments within a company, the language training area must be efficient in resolving the identified problems or needs within a given time and budget framework (Thelen and Reinhold, 1981). Unless the training function is considered an integral component of the company, it runs the risk of lacking the necessary resources and support to achieve its goals successfully.

Goals and Objectives

Training program goals and objectives are determined by the results of a thorough needs analysis. Each identified need requires a set of specific objectives. Those programs reviewed which had conducted complete needs

analyses were able to more clearly identify goals and objectives. In addition, most program goals were expressed in measurable performance terms.

When fourteen ERFA companies in Europe were surveyed regarding their program goals and objectives, most agreed that the general goal was language performance and behavior competence in a variety of professional and social situations. The successful Languages for International Professions program (LIPP) at Arizona State University had a similar general goal: the development of communicative proficiency within social and professional functions and contexts. The Foreign Service Institute defined its general goal as "functional effectiveness as well as linguistic correctness" (Crawford, 1983, p. 3).

ERFA objectives relevant to the four language skills of understanding, speaking, reading and writing were prioritized according to specific task requirements of the job. Marketing personnel, for example, required greater emphasis on speaking skills, secretarial staff, writing, and engineering, reading, and top management, all four skills, with emphasis on negotiating and creating a productive attitude (Beneke, 1981).

In most programs a distinction was made between general language objectives and technical language objectives, a distinction based on results of task analyses and word frequency counts. In all programs the general language was considered more important than technical. "If you unintentionally tread on someone's toe at the beginning of a business meeting by using an awkward word or phrase, it does not help you at all if you are perfect in the technical jargon" (Beneke, 1981, p.33).

Although technical language is important, it is considered easy to learn once general language is mastered. Inman's 1978 study indicating that technical language constituted only 21% of a lexical analysis confirms the secondary importance of technical language in most jobs. The importance of technical language is dependent on the amount of technical skills required in a particular job. Technical language is more important for engineers, for example, and less important the higher one's position within the company.

Some studies, however, stress the necessity of early inclusion of technical language. Dany (1985) recommended using some technical language at the elementary level as a motivating factor for trainees. Coutts (1974) rejected the idea that specialized language could not be taught before general language was mastered. Her training model for airline personnel included technical language at the very beginning stages of training.

Ultimately, the amount of technical language included in a training program will depend on the results of the complete needs analysis.

Biersteker (1986), in her language proficiency testing model for business needs, pointed out the need to evaluate cultural behavior as well as language behavior. Therefore, training objectives would include not only cultural information but also appropriate cultural behavior in all communication. Communicative competence as a general goal would include appropriate cultural behaviors as well as language behaviors.

Cere (1986) provided a list of such culture-related competencies or goals that could serve as a separate cultural component of a training program. These

goals included a professional's awareness of their own behavior and attitudes (self-awareness), understanding of similarities and differences between cultures, knowledge of the foreign culture's socio-economic, political, and historical development (cultural awareness), knowledge of the foreign professional culture (professional awareness), and development of coping strategies to assure a positive experience abroad.

Such cross-cultural training is becoming more common in the corporate world and is now offered by many academic international programs. However, in most of the language programs reviewed in this study, cultural considerations were integrated throughout the program and not treated separately.

The ERFA companies used job and employee needs analysis results to determine which employees needed intensive or extensive training. Training objectives therefore included a time frame, in addition to required skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviors.

Shallis (1979) noted that, in the final analysis, the attainment of objectives is dependent to a great extent on the efforts of the learner, his motivation, learning biography, past language experience, and personality.

In summary, language training goals and objectives would address the following areas: 1) general company and departmental language goals, 2) employee job requirements, 3) time frame (intensive or extensive), 4) level of language (beginner or advanced), 5) language skill to be emphasized (understanding, speaking, reading, writing), 6) general or technical language, 7)

attitude and cultural considerations, 8) correct and appropriate professional and social behaviors.

Materials

A common complaint among nearly all programs was that appropriate materials for business language programs were not readily available. It was predicted that more materials would be available as textbook publishers continued to respond to the growing demand.

Most of the trainers and instructors in the reviewed programs relied on a combination of language textbooks and teacher-prepared materials. Business-related materials had to be up-to-date and were often developed by the instructors. Instructors of the LIPP program wrote all their own materials. On-site trainers have the advantage of having ready access to materials, especially technical content materials, related directly to the needs of the trainee's job and company. Specific content of materials, of course, will depend on the program objectives.

Frequently mentioned content areas for general business language purposes included introductions, telephone transactions, sales and shipping, insurance, renting office or apartment, restaurant and travel transactions, bank exchanges, commercial correspondence, people management, problem solving, and general social behavior.

ERFA trainers stressed the importance of using modules for specific purposes, as they can be easily modified. In addition to textbook materials, magazines and newspapers, annual reports, technical reports, office forms, letters,

and other related documents were used. The director of the Crédit Lyonnais language program in New York also included some literature-related material for his trainees. The benefits to those who are able to read and discuss literature are great, since it contains a wealth of cultural information.

All programs made use of audio-visuals including films, videos, slides, over-heads, and some had access to computerized self-instructional programs for supplemental language work.

Since most of the trainees within company training programs are older adults, materials designed with consideration of the needs of adult learners will facilitate learning (Laird, 1985). Frequent use of visuals helps to reinforce learning. Overheads in large letters and diagrams that are easily read from all points of a training room are appreciated by many adults. In addition, enlarging all small print hand-outs or reading materials eliminates many visual perception problems. It is also helpful to ensure that audio materials are loud enough to be easily heard throughout the training room. Adults often request supplemental taped materials for additional work or practice at home. The availability of a variety of such materials not only reinforces classroom instruction, but encourages self-directed, independent learning.

Methods

Role of Instructor

Most of the programs reviewed used a combination of trained linguists and native speakers. The linguists, both native and non-native speakers, were responsible for the planning and implementation of language programs. Native speakers were used to provide cultural information and conversational practice for trainees. Deveny (1986) used native speakers recruited from the university campus to provide opportunities for students to practice specialized vocabulary in specific professions, such as computer science.

An in-company language training program would require at least one individual trained in the areas of linguistics, program development and the business operations of the company. Rippert-Davila (1985) added that the instructor must have knowledge and skills spanning three cultures, home, host country and corporate. The ERFA group recommended a full-time linguist trained in adult teaching methods and training program development and administration. Worth and Marshall (1981) noted that companies committed to long-range language instruction, such as 3M in Germany, had as many as four full-time linguists on staff.

Several reports and studies (Beneke, 1981; Nolan, Grynspan & Klein, 1984; Pönisch, 1981) recommended that the program director not be responsible for teaching in addition to administering the program. These same studies also stressed the importance of adequate time for preparation of materials by the program linguists.

Planning and preparation by the program director or instructor is an important factor in determining the success of any program. Before designing the program, the instructor must complete some detective work of his own regarding the company goals, climate, commitment to training, resources and expectations. The instructor must know how to develop and conduct a good needs analysis, and then be able to present the results to upper management for program approval. With the support of upper management, training programs are more likely to be successful, as many variables (attendance, sufficient funds and time) affect the final outcome of training.

Program directors or trainers must also be able to generate realistic goals and objectives of training based on the results of the needs analysis.

Other desired qualifications of the program instructor would be training in adult education methods as well as expertise in the foreign language and culture. It is widely accepted that the trainer/instructor should function as a facilitator in the learning process. This requires a great deal of skill in motivating learner participation. Instructors should be skilled in designing activities that encourage stress-free and safe participation such as games, role-play, simulations, interactive demonstrations, and team tasks.

Instructors would also need to be able to conduct an evaluation of the trainees, their own performance, and the program itself. These varied and numerous responsibilities would require at least one administrator and one trainer/instructor for most programs.

Approach

Nearly all of the programs reviewed conducted instruction in the target language as much as possible. However, in order to save time, some successful programs (Bénouis, 1986) used minimal amounts of English for explanations of complex structures.

All programs stressed understanding and speaking over grammar, writing and reading. Role-play based on situation dialogues, simulations, games and drills were used extensively with laboratory and computer work assigned for reinforcement and evaluation. In addition, one program (Kopp, 1988) required each student to have a tape recorder to record all classroom activities for review at home.

Although all the programs emphasized general language more than specialized, or technical, language at the elementary level, they included professional situations that would allow for the early introduction of some specialized vocabulary. In all cases, transferability of general language skills to different situations was the desired objective.

Presentation of materials in the LIPP program was spiraled so that even beginners were able to learn basic ways to communicate and function in a given professional situation with a very limited vocabulary. More advanced students, of course, were expected to use more complex expressions to function in the same situation.

This method is similar to one proposed by Dany (1985), who advocated the early introduction of business vocabulary in beginning levels of language learning

through professional case study. Cases involved a series of interdependent actions, such as initial contact, a request and reply involving particular information (product specifications, costs, transportation, payment), the transaction itself, delivery, and follow-up service. Dany used similar series of actions for other business areas such as banking, manufacturing, retail and service industries. Initial vocabulary was simple, with more complex expressions added later as variations or complications were added to the case. Dany found the early introduction of some specialized vocabulary to be a motivating factor for increased student participation.

Individualization of instruction and specialized vocabulary can also be provided through use of computer self-paced programs, through readings in the trainee's specialized field, as well as through conversations with native speakers within that field.

Potoker (1986) recommended practical experiential units of study which were not too simple or too quick. Like Dany, she stressed that transactions should be a series of steps (actions, conversations, letters) to be studied in depth and in length. Such a program would necessitate what Potoker called an "integrated partnership with business" (p.7), or a continual feed-back relationship with business. An in-house training program, of course, would be in an ideal position to implement this technique, since only staff members are truly familiar with the daily operations and corporate climate of a business.

Setting

Research in language acquisition has shown the importance of an anxiety-free and comfortable learning atmosphere. Adults enjoy comfort, camaraderie, humor and refreshments. The ideal setting for a language training program would be a home-like setting, perhaps with comfortable chairs around a large dining table, with a maximum class size of eight to ten people. All necessary technical equipment and reference materials such as the overhead projector, video recorder and player, tape player, marker board, flip chart, maps, dictionaries, and posters would be located in the training room. Snacks, coffee or soft drinks would be available at break-time.

Time

The time factor in training programs is also important in determining the success of language learning. Speaking proficiency is directly related to the amount of time a learner spends learning the language. The length of the training program, however, will be determined by the needs and available resources of the company.

The programs reviewed varied in length from one week to on-going, from intensive to extensive, to a combination of the two. The more committed programs of Europe had on-going extensive language training averaging 90 minutes per week for 30 weeks sessions, and ranging in level from beginning to advanced. These same programs had intensive sessions ranging from two-weeks full-time to

20 weeks half-time training. Such programs were designed for high priority individuals.

Worth and Marshall (1981) found the most productive time frame was a combination of intensive and extensive training for language maintenance. The combination program included seminars, home study, classroom instruction, individualized private tutoring and computer assisted instruction.

Shallis (1979) reported that a third of the institutions she studied preferred a combination of the intensive and extensive programs. The advantages of the intensive approach included better pronunciation, better group spirit and motivation, and the major advantage of the extensive program was better retention of learned materials. The disadvantages of the intensive program included higher stress among participants and too much time taken away from primary job responsibilities.

A 1982 survey (Campbell, Hallman, & Geroy, 1988) sent to international companies in Florida regarding their needs for language and cross-cultural training showed that 67% of the respondents had no preference for program length. However, the same percentage preferred evening classes and did not want intensive instruction.

Generally, the more intensive the instruction the more quickly the language is learned. Research conducted in 1977 by Dr. Marylin Gill of the Faculté des Lettres in Besançon, France, (cited in Shallis, 1979) showed that an operational level in a language takes 500 hours extensively (three years at four hours per

week), 400 hours intensively (six to seven hours per day), and 250-300 hours by immersion (50 hours per week).

Research has shown that language is a skill that requires time to develop. The amount of time is dependent on many variables such as amount of preplanning, goals and objectives of the program, proficiency level and type of language desired, method of instruction, in addition to the ability, motivation and needs of the learner. It is therefore difficult to propose an ideal time frame for language learning. Based on the reviewed programs, however, it would seem that a minimum of 250 hours of classroom instruction would be necessary in order for a learner to communicate at a basic level in a variety of social and professional situations. A Foreign Service Institute rating of S1 (elementary proficiency), which is equivalent to the Intermediate level on the ACTFL scale, on the average requires approximately 240 hours of instruction (Guntermann, 1984a). In Europe, at least 270 hours of instruction are considered necessary to reach the "threshold level," the minimum level of language competence for survival in a foreign culture (Dannerbeck, p. 418).

A program's time frame becomes irrelevant, however, if participants do not attend. Several studies (Inman, 1978, 1985; Finel-Honigman, 1986; Thelen and Reinhold, 1981) have shown that attendance has been a major and often unavoidable problem in company training programs. Thelen and Reinhold stressed the importance of fixed deadlines for training, with attendance and specific minimum exit requirements.

In Europe, employees who have participated in language training programs see the immediate benefits of their newly acquired skills, both in increased compensation and marketability. As a result, there are few attendance problems in European programs. It appears that without employee vested interest or incentives, attendance could easily become a major problem.

Evaluation

Laird (1985) explained that evaluation can involve all aspects of a training program as well as all individuals involved. Learners are evaluated to determine if they have learned what they needed to learn. Instructors are evaluated through observation and student survey results for the purpose of improvement. Program designers must continually evaluate and, if necessary, modify all aspects of a program, including needs analysis, training objectives, training methods, as well as the evaluation process itself. In summary, evaluation is conducted to assess trainee learning and performance during and after training, to improve training programs as well as to provide accountability to upper management.

Among the programs reviewed, the European programs had the most structured evaluation procedures. The ERFA training programs had both quantitative and qualitative evaluation techniques. Objective testing included written or multiple choice achievement tests covering vocabulary, grammar, cultural information, reading and listening comprehension. A more subjective approach was used to evaluate performance in role-play, use of culturally correct expressions and behavior, composition and letter writing, and performance during an interview.

The European companies were able to demand minimum exit requirements for their programs, especially for intensive training due to its high costs. Trainee testing, teacher performance checks, and assessment of on-the-job transfer of skills comprised a series of controls which allowed ERFA trainers to determine training costs per hour per course and, ultimately, to determine the value of the training effort. Such extensive evaluation procedures can only exist in large scale training programs, as found in Europe or Japan.

Buck and Hiple (1984) reported that in the United States, there is a growing trend in academia and government to use standardized, proficiency-based evaluation of foreign language skills. Evaluation that uses measurable criteria demonstrating success or lack thereof is a necessary component of any effective training program. Proficiency guidelines and ratings have been developed by government agencies as well as by the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). These guidelines and ratings can be used as evaluation tools for language training programs.

Proficiency testing differs from achievement testing in its focus on "functional use of the totality of the language compared to that of an educated native speaker" (Buck & Hiple, 1984, p. 525). The Foreign Service Institute, the CIA Language School, the Peace Corps, and the Defense Language Institute have used the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) proficiency scales since 1968. A face-to-face oral interview conducted by a native-speaker has been used to determine the point of "linguistic breakdown, the level at which the candidate can no longer maintain linguistically accurate and culturally appropriate performance" (p. 527).

If functional communication competence is the major goal of any language training program, then it would seem appropriate that a functional evaluation technique, such as the proficiency-based oral interview, be used. Both criteria and standards for performance would have to be established for the interview process. Measurement to determine if specific objectives (vocabulary, structure, cultural knowledge) have been reached can be incorporated in a variety of ways within the oral interview. In addition to an interview, communicative tasks can be assigned and evaluation made of the learner's linguistic and cultural behavior as he performs them.

The Biersteker (1986) interview format can be used to predict communicative competence in specific situations as well as to diagnose learner strengths and weaknesses. This evaluation model consisted of a cultural skills area and a language skills area, with each area integrating cultural behavior with language behavior. Trainees were evaluated within each area according to how they produce (output), receive (input), and interact. Based on the results of this testing model, specific deficiencies were noted, future training needs were identified, and prescriptive strategies were recommended for future training program development.

Crawford (1983), in describing the revised FSI testing system, stressed that all tests are inferential and that the only direct evaluation of training is on-the-job observation of performance. Academia and government programs have difficulty in evaluating on-the-job performance. The instructors are usually not the observers of the learner's subsequent job performance. However, in corporate training,

observation and evaluation of on-the-job transfer of learned knowledge or skills is an integral part of the program and is used to evaluate and improve the program itself.

A complete program evaluation would include information on its cost-effectiveness. This would require determining the difference between employee language-related performance deficiency costs and language training costs. In business, the ultimate question is whether training solved the performance problem, or reduced the cost of the problem.

In the corporate training setting, decisions need to be made relating to what will be evaluated, why, by whom, and for whom. If the training program has clearly defined, realistic, and appropriate objectives, the evaluation process will involve collection of information and measurements, analysis of this data, and ultimately, judgement on whether program objectives were met and whether the program itself was successful.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Based on the findings and discussion, a model for curriculum development of a corporate language training program emerges which has the following components and which addresses the accompanying considerations:

Needs Analysis

Company Needs: Questions to be asked by linguist/trainer and directed to upper management:

1. What are company long-range language-related goals?
2. What are immediate language-related needs or performance problems?
3. Can language training help solve these problems or should other solutions be found?
4. What is the company's commitment to training?
5. What is the time frame for training?
6. What are the resources available for training?
7. What are company expectations of the training effort?

Job or Task Needs: Questions to be asked by linguist/trainer and directed to returned expatriates, middle management and technical experts:

1. What are the specific language-related skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors necessary to perform this job?
2. What type of language (general or technical) is necessary to perform this job?
3. What language skill (speaking, reading, writing, listening comprehension) is most important?
4. What level of proficiency is required?
5. What are the most common situations (social and professional) involved in this job?
6. What are the culture-related skills, knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors necessary to perform this job?

Trainee Needs: Questions to be asked by linguist/trainer and answered by trainee:

1. What is the learner's learning biography?
2. What is the learner's past language experience?
3. What personality traits does learner have that would help or hinder language learning?
4. What is the learner's motivation to learn?
5. What physical limitations does learner have that might affect learning?

Goals and Objectives

Goals and objectives will be directly related to the results of the needs analysis. Areas to be considered by the linguist/trainer include:

1. General goal and time frame of the training program

Example: to develop communicative proficiency in the following social and professional situations within (time frame)

2. Specific objectives expressed in behavioral or performance terms

   Example: By the end of training, the participant should be able to communicate effectively in the following social and professional situations by incorporating the listed vocabulary, structures, and cultural knowledge and behavior.

   a. inventory of social situations and accompanying vocabulary, structures, and cultural information
   b. inventory of professional or job-related situations and accompanying vocabulary, language skill to be emphasized, structures, and cultural information

Materials

1. social situation modules - trainer-prepared
2. professional situation modules - trainer-prepared
3. appropriate grammar text and worksheets
4. magazines, newspapers, professional journals, office forms and letters, legal documents, annual reports
5. literature
6. films, videos, tapes, TV, slides, over-heads, computer programs

Methods

1. Instructor:
   a. expertise in linguistics and target language
   b. expertise in adult education methodologies
   c. expertise in culture of target country
   d. expertise in culture of company
2. Approach:
   a. situational and functional
   b. target language only
   c. spiraled presentation of vocabulary and structures
   d. group participation and interaction
   e. situation dialogues, role-play, simulation
   f. games, demonstrations, drills
   g. conversations with native speakers
   h. laboratory for reinforcement
   i. computerized instruction for individualization
   j. technical readings for individualization
   k. conversations with native-speaking experts in field for individualization
3. Setting:
   a. comfortable and anxiety-free
   b. class size limited to 8 - 10
   c. technical equipment in class
   d. refreshments

4. Time:
    a. combination of intensive and extensive
    b. combination of during and after work classes
    c. minimum of 250 hours of instruction
    d. attendance requirements

Evaluation

1. Trainee:
    a. oral interview to assess communicative proficiency (linguistic and cultural skills and behavior); agreed-upon criteria and standards
    b. objective testing for specific skills and knowledge
    c. observation of on-the-job performance
2. Instructor:
    a. observation of performance
    b. survey completed by trainees
3. Program:
    a. determination of whether program goals and objectives were reached
    b. determination of program cost-effectiveness

Conclusion and Recommendations

The model for curriculum development of a corporate language training program presented in this study has evolved from a review of a variety of successful language programs in academia, government and business. It is

proposed as a basic and flexible framework from which multinational companies can develop language training programs tailored to their needs. The model includes a three-level needs analysis, preparation of goals and objectives based on results of the needs analysis, materials and methods incorporating appropriate linguistic and adult education principles, and a three-level evaluation procedure.

It is recommended that this model be tested in a variety of corporate settings in order to determine its effectiveness. A significant barrier to implementation of this model, however, is the prevailing attitude of most companies that short-term language programs are sufficient to meet their needs. All major multinational companies perceive a need for employees with foreign language skills, but few are currently willing to commit time and significant resources to a long-term training effort. Although the model has great flexibility, its minimum recommended time of 250 hours of instruction for basic language acquisition would require a significant commitment from management. It will therefore be up to the needs analyst, who will hopefully be a trained linguist as well, to work with upper management to determine language-related needs and then to get a commitment of support to implement this model.

It is hoped that this model will provide a response to the growing need for language-trained personnel in multinational companies. It is hoped that the competencies developed by the proposed program will allow trainees to improve their performance and thereby contribute positively to the attainment of company goals.

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