A SHORT DISSERTATION ON TEACHING ENGLISH CONVERSATION TO JAPANESE STUDENTS

Prof. James C. Grub

Language : communication by voice in the distinctively human manner, using arbitary,
auditory symbols in conventional ways with conventional meanings.
The Random House Dictionary of the English Language — unabridged edition.

Shortly after the Second World War, the author, a chemical-mechanical engineer, had occasion to visit Japan and, by a quirk of fate, reside there for the following 19 years. During much of that time he taught English Conversation at several Universities and Commercial Enterprizes. Subsequently, after working abroad as an engineer for the next 13 years, he has returned to Japan where again, he has been working as a University Professor the past 3 years.

In 1955, during the time the author was working in Nagoya as an engineer, the late president of Nagoya Commercial University, Mr. Kurimoto, was looking for a native speaker of English to teach a course in English Conversation at that University and through the good offices of the American Cultural Center and its then director, Mr. Sherwin, who happened to be acquainted with the author, the author was recommended for the post. This position was accepted because of its challange and it was while teaching at Mei Sho Dai that, the author first started to think seriously about various methods most suitable for teaching English Conversation to Japanese students.

Teaching was not new to the author, since previously he had taught Mechanical Drawing and Descriptive Geometry at University level; however, he began to realize that teaching English Conversation was quite different, as he was not explaining a premis, theory or corollary in a language common both to himself and to his students but, attempting to teach and to explain a language, in a language that was foreign to his students. Further, there was a phychological barrier to overcome, since the culture and logic —thinking way— of the Japanese is diametrically opposite to that of the European, one language of which he was attempting to teach. This fact really is not difficult to understand because Japanese thought is based on Indian (Eastern) logic whereas European thought is based on Archimedean (Western) logic.

As an engineer, accustomed to taking the objective approach when endevoring to resolve any problem, the author decided to study thoroughly the limited material, on teaching conversation, that was available in Japan at that time in order to ascertain how it could be applied in teaching English Conversation to Japanese Students and, for one reason or another, finally came to the conclusion that none of it really was suitable; therefore, he elected to forge ahead and formulate his own material and method. Thus, THE GRUB METHOD to teach English Conversation to Japanese Students was conceived and, after much time and labor, was born.

Kanji (Chinese Characters) came to Japan via Korea around 425 AD; however, only the very learned were able to read or to write these characters. Over 300 years later, during the lat-

ter part of the Nara era (646-794 AD), since Kanji was very cumbersome to write, the educated people (noble and scholarly classes) began to experiment with a more facile method of writing these characters; thus, in 3 to 6 stages, and through 7 eras, modern Kana (Hiro gana) was evolved. During part of that time, other less important writing-forms also were employed.

Also, during the Nara era, as Buddhism began to be more popular in Japan, there was a large increase in the number of Buddhist priests. Since all of these priests were not learned and could not read the difficult Kanji in the Kyo, the teachings of Buddhism, the more learned priests began to use special characters in conjunction with this difficult Kanji in order to enable the less learned to read them. These characters or Kana (Katakana), at first, were not very popular, since they were used only by the priests and more or less kept away from the other social classes that were able to read and to write. Much later however, Katakana gradually began to be used more generally as an aid in the pronunciation of the more difficult Kanji, Kanji that the average Japanese could not read but could understand after seeing it and being able to pronounce it. Still later, Katakana was used to simulate foreign words.

By the time the author was appointed to his position at Mei Sho Dai, he already was familiar with the 111 Japanese Kana. These Kana had been arranged by the Japanese into 4 sound divisions as follows:

1) goju-on meaning 50 sounds of which actually there were only 47 sounds represented by 50 characters. This is due to the fact that 3 of the characters each are repeated once and, due to this repetition although 50 characters are written, they represent only 47 different sounds.

2) hatsu-on one sound only, represented by one character.

3) daku-on 25 sounds represented by 25 characters.

4) yo-on 38 sounds represented by 38 characters.

Further, the author learned that many foreign words had been incorporated into, and had become part of, the Japanese language; however, many of these words had been shortened and, in nearly every case, had been given their own particular Japanese meaning and almost always were pronouced incorrectly from the standpoint of the native speaker from whose language they had been adopted. This inaccuracy in pronunciation, to a great extent, was caused by using Kana-sounds while pronouncing these words, rather than the sounds of the letters of the Alphabet of the language from which they had been taken, and this is where the discrepancy in pronunciation and thence hearing occurs; for, althought Kana is quite adequate when pronouncing Kanji, it is completely inadequate when pronouncing foreign words based on the sounds of the various European alphabets.

The English Alphabet has 26 letters, 5 vowels and 21 consonants, all of which alone or in combination produce 48 to 55 sounds depending upon whether or not the sounds used in European languages other than English are included. On the other hand, although Kana has 111 sounds, only a little over one third of these sounds can be used in pronouncing English. Kana-sounds do not permit consonants appearing at the end of words to be pronounced correctly for, in order to be voiced, all consonants must be followed by a vowel. Further, the f, l, v, both th sounds, the ph sound, the ing sound, the er sound as well as the su in measure and the gi in region have no equivalent Kana-sounds and the Kana-sounds for c, q, s, x, w, and y, leave much to be desired. Is

it no wonder that the average Japanese cannot pronounce foreign words correctly?

The author found that when Japanese students heard English words, whose meanings they knew but which they always mispronounced, pronounced correctly, or with the accent of a person from another European country, the students were unable to comprehend the meanings of these words; however, if the students could see the words, they immediately knew their meanings. This idiosyncrasy, clearly demonstrated to the author that, Japanese students, trained in the use of Kana from childhood with its one character one sound system, were unable to adopt to even the slightest variations in the pronunciation of English words; thus, proving that correct pronunciation was of prime importance to Japanese students trying to become proficient in English Conversation. This point was reinforced when the author repeatedly observed that the Japanese could not understand their own language, if it were spoken to them by a foreigner who slightly mispronounced a word, even though by the context, the meaning should have been quite clear.

Further, that teaching methods in Japanese schools, which employ the use of Kana while teaching English, were quite misdirected; therefore, the first step in teaching English Conversation to Japanese students is to force the students to forget Kana as completely as if it never had existed and constantly to remind them to put Kana out of their collective minds while they are trying to learn to pronounce and to spell in a foreign language. Then the students should be taught to sound out the alphabet as a native speaker of English is so taught, from his first ex-

posure to school, or even before, and to learn to spell and to pronounce by using this sounding-out method; thus, by pronouncing correctly, hearing would improve and with it, the ability to understand correctly spoken English.

In groping for a key with which to unlock the tangle of thoughts that the author had acquired through reading the aforementioned material, he remembered his Germanic origins, his mother and "Mutter Sprache" and at last he knew that he was on the right track.

A baby first talks,[1] i. e. utters intelligible sounds while trying to imitate, first, its mother, then, its father, brothers, sisters or any of the other people with whom it may come into close contact. Gradually, as the baby begins to associate certain sounds with meaning and as sound control is acquired, the baby speaks.[2] After that, it is only a matter of time until the baby, now a child, by mimicing the sounds that it hears and relating them, by memory and through constant usage, to meaning, acquires the power of speech.[3] However, the child only will speak grammatically correctly if the person or persons it mimics speak grammatically correctly; conversely, should the person or persons it mimics speak grammatically incorrectly, the child will do likewise. Therefore, in speaking with a child, one never should use so called Baby-Talk since, the child will use it as a model when learning to speak and thus develope bad habits which, as the child grows, will be difficult to break. It is true that gesture plays an important part in the human speech system, some people only can speak with difficulty if their hands are held imobile; however, oral sound with voice inflection is of primary importance, for it

1) talk   to utter intelligible sounds, sometimes without regard to content "the child is learning to talk"
2) speak   to utter words or articulate sounds with the ordinary voice;
            to communicate, signify or disclose by any means, convey significance;
            to utter one or more words not necessarily connected
3) speech   the faculty or power of speaking, oral communication; ability to express one's thoughts and emotions by speech,
            sounds and gesture

The Random House Dictionary of the English Language—unabridged edition.

alone, can convey meaning even when the speaker is unseen.

From the above it becomes apparent that, assuming students will be able to listen to, and to converse with, people who speak grammatically correctly, the only prerequisite, to grammatically correct speech and fluent conversation in a foreign language, is the students' ability to imitate sounds accurately and, automatically, to relate those sounds to meanings.

In order to be truly fluent in a language, students should not have to think about or mentally translate what they have heard or what they intend to say before they can speak. Speech should come simultaneously with thought and since Speech-patterns are reflex-actions, formed through habit, they automatically improve with practise. The more students speak, the more they improve and the better they become at it.

This habit-forming only can be acquired through constant repetition until finally the students reflex-actions, for the above mentioned Speech-patterns, have been firmly established. Since the students are not children and already have acquired a greater degree of mental coordination than that of children, the learning process and hence habit-forming will be much more rapid than that of children; however, bad habits, formed, in Middle School and High School by Japanese students while studying English, with Japanese teachers whose pronunciation is based on Kana-sound or, with inexperienced foreign teachers who are not familiar with Japanese students, Eastern logic, and the Kana-sound system, are extreamly difficult to break. Even though correct pronunciation is essential to hearing and to understanding what has been heard, Japanese University students simply were not going to repeat words again and again in order to pronounce them correctly; therefore, their faulty pronunciation had to be changed

gradually. Further, correct pronunciation alone, would not enable the students to carry on a conversation in English. Something more was necessary in order to expose the students to the entire scope of conversation and at the same time keep their interest. This led the author to explore the ramifications of the problem and to concentrate on the meaning of conversation.[1] That in turn led the author back to speech and questions and answers which is the basis of the exchange of information. And now the author seemed to be getting somewhere. If only the the right material, for what the author had in mind, could be found, he would have the key to the problem. How it was to be used, to unlock the door, would come later.

Skits, that could be found in many of the books current at that time, such as, "After the Party", "The Car Park", "Choosing a Holiday", etc., were out, since the material was limited and thus conversation based on this material also would be limited. Free Conversation would be of little use as, from experience, the author knew, that after one or two minutes, conversation would cease because the students, lacking topics for an impersonal conversation, would turn to personal matters which soon would be exhausted. What was needed was something that, would keep the students' interest, was graded, was equal to or slightly above their speech-level, was not boring and would not be too long or too difficult so as to bog down the class.

Grammer was to be taught but kept to a minimum while the emphesis was to be devoted to hearing, pronunciation, questions and answers based on the aforementioned material, and constant repetition. Spelling, using the English alphabet-sounds, and punctuation of any written material, also was to be included.

After much searching, the author finally was able to find exactly the material for which he

1) conversation   oral exchange of sentiments, observations, ideas, opinions   Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary.

had been looking; namely, Readers Digest - Selected Reading for Students. This series of paper-backs were graded from a vocabulary of 700 words to 4000 words in steps of 700, 900, 1500, 1800, 2000, 3000 and 4000 word vocabularies. After some experimentation, the author found that 1st year students were able to use the 900 word vocabulary most expeditiously and 2nd year students could study with the 1500 or 1800 word vocabulary provided that they already had been exposed to this method of study during their Freshman year. More advanced students could use the more difficult vocabularies. However, it must be remembered that, since the 1800 word vocabulary was composed of basic root words, its complete mastery enabled the students to converse quite fluently.

In Japan, students only can succeed in life by attending and graduating from one of only a very select few better known Universities. The enrollment in one of these schools starts from kindergarten and continues on to graduation. Since there are only a comparatively few places for the vast number of would-be students, the competition for admittance becomes tremendously severe and doting mothers wage an entrance campaign for their offspring that could be admired by any Field Marshall about to engage the enemy in battle; thus, pre-occupation with exams leads Japanese students to emphasize memorization rather than analytical thinking.

The pedagogy is simple: the teacher talks, the students listen, much of the time, in the case of a foreign language, to rules of grammer or the exceptions thereof in an incorrectly pronounced monolog. In order to pass the tests, the students memorize the subject material and then, as soon as the tests have been completed, forget what they have memorized. The author, on the other hand, wanted the students to mimic what they had heard, as does a child, but not memo-

rize the text, for the thought pattern for speech has to be spontaneous and not recalled from memory.

In order to accomplish this, the author taped some of the stories in the above mentioned series on 90 minute tapes and the students were requested to buy these tapes instead of the texts. This was done to prevent the students from reading the stories and memorizing the parts which they thought could be used to answer questions that they thought would be asked in class and on the tests.

The students were to listen repeatedly to the stories on the tapes at home and then reproduce in writing what they had heard. This method of study was to be a constant test of the students' ability to hear, to spell, using alphabet-sounds, and, to punctuate correctly what they had written.

One story, depending upon its length, was to be studied over a period of from 4 to 6 lessons with an additional 1 or 2 lessons devoted to grammar points and any idioms that might be found in the text. In class, the students would be called upon to read what they had written at home and their pronunciation would be corrected while they were reading. Then, the author was to ask questions relating to the material found in each story and the students were to answer these questions; however, the questions were not only about material whose answers could be found in the text but also about material whose answers would have to be deduced from the text. This was to be done in order to develope the students analytical thinking patterns and thus expose the students to Western logic. Later, as the students became more proficient in speaking, they were to be encouraged to ask the questions and other students in turn were to supply the answers. From the above it may be understood that, by the time the students had finished a story, they would have

built up a sizable command of hearing, spelling, punctuation, grammer points, the idiom and, most of all, the ability to ask and answer questions and the confidence to handle the language that had been used in that particular story.

What had been outlined in the author's mind was sound as far as it went; however, it still didn't go far enough. The method was not complete, for the author wanted his students to be able to use the words that they had heard in questions, or a large percentage of those words, in the answers to those questions or, by using the words that they had heard in previous statements, to ask questions related to those statements; since, if this could be accomplished and the person who asked the questions or made the statements was speaking grammatically correctly, the students also would be speaking grammatically correctly. How then was this to be accomplished ?

The Japanese sentence[1] structure is very different from that of English, or for that matter many of the other European languages since thinking patterns are different. The author found that students, upon being asked questions in English, first mentally tried to translate those questions into Japanese, then thought of their answers in Japanese, then mentally tried to translate those answers back into English and finally attempted to give those translated answers orally. Because of the difference in sentence structure however, if for no other reason, these answers usually came back in very broken English. The above also holds true when students are asked to make questions based on previous statements. This thinking patten was completely counter-productive to what the author was trying to accomplish; therefore, something had to be done to change it, but what?

Finally, the author decided that he had to devise a method whereby the words used in questions would be the basis of patterns for answers to those questions and vice versa.

This entailed analyzing any questions that possibly could be asked in English and classifying them into categories, and based on this classification, devising patterns to be used as answers for those questions. With the use of those patterns, the students always would be speaking grammatically correctly even should they know absolutely nothing about English grammer. Later, after the students had mastered the art of English Conversation, they could study the intricacies of grammer and syntax should their ambitions lead them in that direction. Now that the method had become apparant, the next step was to formulate the way to impliment it.

In conversation, when we want to give information we make statements either alone or in answer to another's questions. Conversely, when we want to get information, we ask questions and expect statements in return as answers to our questions. Different languages make statements or ask questions by the use of various devices.

The Japanese make questions by adding ka, the question indicator, at the end of statements. Another method the Japanese use is to add ne at the end of statements, especially when the speaker wants the listener to agree with him as is commonly the case when Japanese speak to each other. This ne is similiar to the English isn't it so or the nicht war or n'est pas in the German or French languages respectively, where the usage is far more common than when speaking English.

In English, in a series of syntactically related

1) sentence   a grammatically self-contained speech unit consisting of a word or a syntactically related group of words
that expresses an assertion, a question, a command, a wish, or an exclamation, that in writing usually
begins with a capital letter and concludes with appropriate end punctuation, and that in speaking is
phonetically distinguished by various patterns of stress, pitch, and pauses
Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary.

words, one can find a particular word order that determines whether or not the words express an assertion or a question. The author has called the word order of an assertion, the STATEMENT FORM and the word order of a question the QUESTION FORM.

In the STATEMENT FORM, the noun or pronoun is followed by the predicate verb whereas in the the QUESTION FORM the predicate verb preceeds the noun or pronoun.

Questions almost always are Statements that have had the word order inverted although occasionally Questions are made by voice inflection alone, from the Gerund or from a Statement. Therefore, roughly speaking, every Question that can be asked in English usually contains a QUESTION FORM or an implied QUESTION FORM.

After further study, the author arbitrarily classified all questions that possibly could be asked while speaking English into 3 categories; namely, SIMPLE QUESTIONS, LEADING QUESTIONS, and COMPLEX QUESTIONS with the last named category being further broken down into 2 types, Type I and Type II . Then the author formulated sets of rules the students were to use to answer those questions.

SIMPLE QUESTIONS were named thus because they employed the QUESTION FORM alone to ask the questions.

LEADING QUESTIONS were named thus because the person who asked these questions always wanted the person who answered these questions to agree with him and, by the way that these questions were worded, led that person, to the answers.

COMPLEX QUESTIONS were named thus because they employed a more complex QUESTION FORM when compared to the QUESTION FORM of the SIMPLE QUESTION.

In conversation, in order to use the sets of rules formulated by the author, the students would have to think out every step, very slowly at first,

but as their ability to identify the categories and apply the rules immediately improved through habitual usage, they would be able to employ the words of the questions and hence those of the native speaker in their answers and, because of the method, their answers always would be grammatically correct. This method, with slight modifications, also can be used to teach European languages other than English.

THE QUESTION CATEGORIES AND PATTERNS TO ANSWER THEM

SIMPLE QUESTIONS always had the QUESTION FORM at the beginning of the series of words that asked the actual question regardless of whether or not this series was preceeded by a Phrase or a Clause.Three rules were needed to give the answers to SIMPLE QUESTIONS.

LEADING QUESTIONS always consisted of 2 parts; namely, the STATEMENT PART in which the STATEMENT FORM would be apparent, followed by the QUESTION PART which would contain the QUESTION FORM. Further, if the predicate verb in the STATEMENT PART was affirmative the verb in the QUESTION PART would be negative and vice versa. When the verb in the STATEMENT FORM of the LEADING QUESTIONS was affirmative and the students agreed with what had been said in the STATEMENT PART of the Questions, 2 rules were needed to answer those Questions; on the other hand, when the students disagreed with what had been said in the STATEMENT PART of the Questions, 2 different rules were necessary to make the answers. The above also held true when the verb in the STATEMENT FORM was negative; thus, in total, 8 rules were needed to answer LEADING QUESTIONS.

These first two categories corresponded to simple statements in Japanese to which ka or ne had been added respectively. The last category however, was just a little more difficult to resolve.

In English we have the so-called question words; namely, What, Where, When, Why, How, Who, Whom, Whose and Which. These words seem to ask questions but not necessarily. The author found that in most cases when these words were used to ask questions they preceeded the QUESTION FORM and actually it was the QUESTION FORM that asked the questions. When these words were used without the QUESTION FORM they merely introduced clauses.

All the words listed above, with the exception of What, are in reality specific expressions of What; therefore, if rules could be devised to answer the WHAT – QUESTION FORM Questions then, with slight modifications, these same rules might be adopted to answer Questions that are made with any of the other words listed above when any of these words preceeded the QUESTION FORM. There was an important exception however; thus, 2 types of COMPLEX QUESTIONS

and the rules to answer each type had to be devised.

In order to facilitate writing the rules, to be used in answering these 2 types of Questions, and later explaining them to the students, the author arbitrarily decided to call each of the words listed in the above mentioned word list the Introductory Word. This seemed to be a good name since one of these words always preceeded the QUESTION FORM in the word series forming the Questions and thus was thought to introduce it. Sometimes when several words were used with or instead of the Introductory Word they were called the Introductory Words. Further, in answering the Questions, when the Introductory Word or Introductory Words were replaced by a single word or several words, this word or these words, were called the Key Word or Key Words respectively. (See Table below)

TABLE OF WORDS USED IN COMPLEX QUESTIONS		
Introductory Words	Definition	Key Words
What	Basic to the Complex Question	no Key Word necessary
Where	In <u>What</u> place or position	in, on, at, by, under, over, in front of, behind, etc.
When	At <u>What</u> time	in, on, at, during, etc.
Why	For <u>What</u> reason	because, in order to, since, as, etc.
How	In <u>What</u> manner	by, on, with, in, etc.
Who	<u>What</u> person(s)	--------------
Whom	To <u>What</u> person(s)	by, to, for, etc.
Whose	Of <u>What</u> person(s), <u>What</u> person's	--------------
Which	<u>What</u> thing(s)	--------------

COMPLEX QUESTIONS Type I always had the QUESTION FORM immediately preceeded by the Introductory Word or Introductory Words in the series of words that asked the actual questions regardless of whether or not this series was preceeded by a Phrase or a Clause. Five

rules were needed to give the answers to COMPLEX QUESTIONS Type I .

COMPLEX QUESTIONS Type II always had the Introductory Word or Introductory Words in the series of words that asked the actual questions regardless of whether or not this

series was preceeded by a Phrase or a Clause; however, the QUESTION FORM as such was missing from these Questions even though it was implied. Two rules were needed to give the answers to COMPLEX QUESTIONS Type II.

Now the Answer-patterns were almost complete, but not quite. Still something had to be done about Phrases and Clauses that were not a part of the actual questions but that were still included in the series of words forming those questions. Thus the author arbitrarily decided to classify all Phrases and Clauses into 3 categories namely, Time, Place and Manner and the students were taught to recognize a Time Phrase or Time Clause, etc., upon hearing it in the spoken questions.[1]

At last the final hurdle had been cleared, the door had been unlocked and the method of study could be outlined as follows:

1) Have the students completely forget Kana
2) Have the students learn all the sounds made with the English alphabet
3) Have the students spell by sounding out the words
4) Have the student hear correctly by listening to the taped material
5) Teach the students Punctuation Symbols and their usage
6) Have the students write the taped material, thus employing steps 1 through 5
7) Have the students read aloud what they had written; thus correcting their hearing, pronunciation, spelling and punctuation
8) Have the students answer questions relating to the taped material
9) Have the students ask questions relating to the taped material
10) Finally have the students carry on a conversation based on questions and answers relating to the taped material

When reading about STATEMENT FORMS and QUESTION FORMS and all the many rules the author has listed in order to make statements (answer questions) in the above listed categories and in turn ask questions based on previous statements (answers), the reader will tend to think that the entire method is overly complicated and far too cumbersome to be of use. On the contrary, the Speech-patterns once memorized, which really does not take very long, will, after repeated usage, allow the students to speak quite fluently reasonably quickly for, even though the words change from situation to situation, the Speech-patterns always remain the same. Further, by using this method, it is not always necessary for the students to understand completely all the individual words in the questions, as the students are taught to mimic what they have heard and to repeat the same words in making their answers.

The author has found that average students can repeat only 4 to 5 words when first requested to repeat a series of words. With practise however, after a few months, students easily can repeat from 10 to 14 words in a series of words, this number of words being the length of most questions. After 6 months, some of the better students can repeat up to 24 words in a series if they are allowed to hear the series twice or at most three times.

It is true that this method does not completely cover every Speech-form and there are some exceptions that do not fit into the broad categories arbitrarily chosen by the author; nevertheless, these exceptions will be few and far between and once the students master the Speech-patterns outlined above, they will be speaking formally and grammatically correctly more than 99% of the time.

After the students have learned to converse formally, they may speak in a less formal fashion by using contractions and shortened Speech-patterns; however, when students first use this method they are urged to speak

1) An abridged version of the author's Method — Questions versus Statements (Answers) — may be found at the end of this article.

formally by using all or most of the words in the questions in making their answers. This is done for several reasons. Usually, the more verbosely a person speaks the more formally he speaks especially when contractions are omitted. When using the author's method, the more the students say in order to make a statement or to pose a question, the more they are forced to mimic the person who has asked the question or made the statement and the more the students must say, the more practise they will get in saying it.

Of course, the author certainly knew that he was bending the rules of English grammer with his Method, and by devising the above Question-categories and Answer-patterns for questions that fell into those categories; nevertheless, he felt quite justified for if, in so doing, he could help his students attain an orderly thinking process that would be habit-forming and thus be of immeasurable help to them in mastering English Conversation, he would have met the challenge and have been amply rewarded.

In addition to teaching at several Universities, over the years the author has conducted most successfully many courses in English Conversation in Japan at several of the largest Japanese Trading Companies and one of the largest Japanese Banks in order to prepare the employees of these institutions to be assigned overseas.

In conclusion, the author would like to make clear that his method is not infallible and that there is more than one way to teach English Conversation; nevertheless, his method is one way that is easily learned and quickly mastered because it follows natural human behavioral patterns.

Language undoubtedly is one of the most precious attributes of makind.

AN ABRIDGEMENT OF PROF. GRUB'S METHOD

QUESTIONS VERSUS STATEMENTS (ANSWERS)

In a syntactically related group of words, that expresses an assertion or a question, one can find a particular word order that determines whether or not the series of words are an assertion or a question. The author has called the word order of an assertion the STATEMENT FORM and the word order of a question the QUESTION FORM and they are listed as follows:

STATEMENT FORM (SF)
1) Noun—Verb
2) Noun—Auxiliary Verb—Verb

QUESTION FORM (QF)
1) Verb—Noun
2) Auxiliary Verb—Noun—Verb

Note : In the SF, ♯2 is used either with a Negative Verb (NV) or with an Affirmative Verb (AV) for emphasis.

All Phrases and Clauses are classified as follows:
1) Time   Time Phrase (TP) or Time Clause (TC)
2) Place   hence   Place Phrase (PP) or Place Clause (PC)
3) Manner   Manner Phrase (MP) or Manner Clause (MC)

All Questions are classified as follows:
1) SIMPLE QUESTION (SQ)
2) LEADING QUESTION (LQ)
3) COMPLEX QUESTION (CQ)
(a) Type I
(b) Type II

<u>SIMPLE QUESTION</u> (SQ)

A SQ has the QF at the beginning of a series of words that actually ask the Question. Sometimes a <u>Phrase</u> or a <u>Clause</u> may proceed the QF or may be found at the end of the series of words; however, that fact has no bearing on the definition of a SQ.

Rules to Answer a SQ:
1) Answer either with Yes or No—the word will depend upon what meaning the person who is answering the question wants to convey
2) Change the QF to the SF
3) Add the remaining words in the Question (Q) to the Answer (A)

Points to Remember:
1) An Affirmative Verb (AF) or a Negative Verb (NV) in the QF has no bearing on deciding what meaning the person who is answering the question wants to convey. In speaking English the NV is thought to be more polite for it conveys slight indecision.
2) Yes must <u>always</u> be followed with an AV. No must <u>always</u> be followed with a NV. In speaking English <u>it is impossible</u> for Yes to be followed by a NV and vice versa.
3) Should the SQ contain a <u>Phrase</u> or a <u>Clause</u> that is to be repeated in the A, it should be inserted between the Yes or No and the SF (after Rule # 1).
4) When an Affirmative Auxiliary Verb is used in the QF it may be repeated in the A in the SF for emphasis.

<u>LEADING QUESTION</u> (LQ)

A LQ always has <u>two parts,</u> a Statement Part (SP) and a Question Part (QP). The SF is included in the SP and the QF is included in the QP.

Rules to Answer a LQ:
When the person who has heard the LQ agrees with the SP—<u>most usual</u>—and

the SF has an AV (Case I)
1) Answer with Yes
2) Repeat the SP—The Auxiliary Verb may be used for emphasis

the SF has a NV (Case II)
1) Answer with No
2) Repeat the SP

When the person who has heard the LQ disagrees with the SP—<u>most unusual</u>—and

the SF has an AV (Case III)
1) Answer (when speaking formally) I am sorry, you are mistaken, (etc.)
   (when speaking informally) No,
2) Repeat the SP but change the AV to a NV

the SF has a NV (Case IV)
1) Answer (when speaking formally) I am sorry, you are mistaken, (etc.)
   (when speaking informally) Yes,
2) Repeat the SP but change the NV to an AV—The Auxiliary Verb may be used for emphasis

Points to Remember:
1) When the SP of a LQ has an AV in the SF, the QP <u>always</u> has a NV in the QF and vice versa.
2) Yes must always be followed with an AV. No must <u>always</u> be followed with a NV. There are occasions when this point becomes invalid; however, for clarity and in deference to the author, his students <u>always</u> are repuested to observe this point.
3) Should the LQ contain a <u>Phrase</u> or a <u>Clause</u> that is to be repeated in the A, in Cases I , II, III & IV, it should be inserted after Rule # 1.

A List of Introductory Words and their definitions as related to COMPLEX QUESTIONS

(IW)	Definition
What	Basic to the Complex Question
Where	In What place or position
When	At What time
Why	For What reason
How	In What manner
Who	What person (s)
Whom	To What person (s)
Whose	Of What person (s), What person's What persons'
Which	What thing (s)

A Partial List of Key Words for the related Introductory Words

Where	in, on, at, by, under, over, in front of, behind, etc.
When	in, on, at, during, while, etc.
Why	because, in order to, since, as, etc.
How	by, on, with, in, etc.
Who	....
Whom	by, to, for, etc.
Whose	....
Which	....

COMPLEX QUESTION (CQ)

Type I   In a Type I CQ the Introductory Word (IW) or Introductory Words (IWs) is/are adjacent to and preceeding the QF respectively.

Rules to Answer a CQ Type I :
1) Change the QF to the SF
2) Add the remaining words of the Q to the A
3) Put the IW or IWs at the end of the word-series
4) Substitute the KW or KWs for IW or IWs
5) Complete the Statement (Answer)

Type II   In a Type II CQ there is no QF as such; however, the QF is implied.

Rules to Answer a CQ Type II.
1) Directly substitute the A for the IW or IWs
2) Add the remaining words in the Q to the A

Points to Remember:
1) A Type I or Type II CQ never should have Yes or No in the A.
2) Rule ♯ 2 sometimes is not necessary when answering a CQ Type I .
3) Rule ♯ 4 is never used with the basic What Q when answering a CQ Type I .
4) Rules ♯s 1, 3 and 5 always are used when answering a CQ Type I .
5) Should the CQ Type I contain a Phrase or a Clause which appears at the end of the word-series, and that is to be repeated in the A, it should be placed at the beginning of the A.
6) Should the CQ Type I contain a Phrase or a Clause which appears at the beginning of the word-series, (preceeds the IW or IWs) it should be placed at the end of the A; however, it usually is omitted.

Note : It is a cardinal rule that the students do not change the verbs or verb—forms unnecessarily.