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ABSTRACT

This study of the foreign language requirements of U.S. corporations doing business abroad examines characteristics of corporate language training programs and policies with regard both to U.S. national employees going outside the United States to work and to non-U.S. national employees, generally working in their own countries. The role of translation and interpreting in the corporate environment both within the United States and abroad was also studied. Of particular interest were the extent to which language requirements and language training are included in corporate planning and the extent to which occupationally-oriented special purpose language training is included in the language training provided to corporate employees. Data were collected by means of a detailed questionnaire sent to the U.S. headquarters of 267 American companies reported to be doing business abroad. Questionnaires were returned by 184 companies. Among the findings are the following: (1) the greatest amount of international business in which U.S. corporations are involved is currently being done in Western Europe, followed by Central and South America, Canada, the Middle East, and the Far East; (2) Spanish is the language most studied by U.S. nationals going abroad and also the language most involved in translation and interpreting; (3) U.S. corporations doing business abroad rely primarily on English as the business language and the means of communication; and (4) language training is provided to a majority of U.S. national employees going overseas and outranks technical, cultural, and managerial training in type of training provided. A sample questionnaire is included. (SW)

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEEDS OF U.S. CORPORATIONS DOING BUSINESS ABROAD

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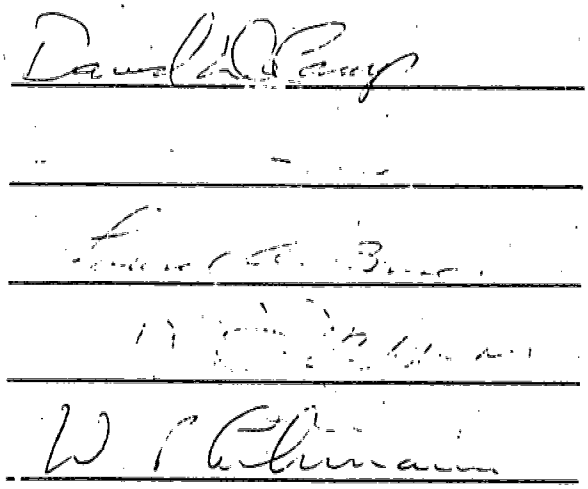

To

My Family

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEEDS OF U.S. CORPORATIONS DOING BUSINESS ABROAD

by

MARIANNE ELIZABETH PLZAK INMAN, B.A., A.M.

DISSERTATION

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEEDS

OF U.S. CORPORATIONS DOING BUSINESS ABROAD

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This study has examined the position of language and language training in the international corporate environment, focusing on three aspects of corporate language policies, programs, and perceived requirements:

(1) foreign languages for U.S. nationals sent abroad;

(2) translation and interpreting; and

(3) foreign languages (often English) for non-U.S. nationals.

Of particular interest were details of the training process and the extent to which Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) research and training are included in corporate-sponsored programs.

Data were collected by means of a detailed twelve-page questionnaire sent to the U.S. headquarters of 267 American companies reported to be doing business abroad. Twenty-eight different categories of company were represented in the sample. Questionnaires were returned by 184 companies, or 68.9 percent

of those contacted.

Major findings of the study were the following:

(1) The greatest amount of international business in which U.S. corporations are involved is currently being done in Western Europe, followed by Central and South America, Canada, the Middle East, and the Far East.

(2) Spanish is the language most studied by U.S. nationals going abroad and also the language most involved in translation and interpreting.

(3) U.S. corporations doing business abroad rely primarily on English as the business language and the means of communication.

(4) Language training is provided to a majority of U.S. national employees going overseas and outranks technical, cultural, and managerial training in type of training provided.

(5) LSP training is only rarely included in U.S. national employees' pre-assignment language instruction.

(6) Translation and interpreting requirements are generally handled by corporate employees whose jobs are in a non-language area.

(7) English is generally the language in which technical training is given to non-U.S. national employees overseas.

(8) A far greater commitment exists to language training for non-U.S. national employees than to U.S. national employees.

(9) Language training for non-U.S. national employees is overwhelmingly done in English and is apt to include an LSP (i.e., a job-oriented) component.

(10) For most companies doing international business, language training has played no role in the planning of their overseas operations.

A foreign language proficiency, therefore, for U.S. nationals and non-U.S. nationals alike, is strictly ancillary to an employee's main job and essentially serves only to enhance his other skills and capabilities. As a result, foreign language educators at all levels have begun to advocate and introduce non-traditional, interdisciplinary courses and curricula.

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

In this study the position of language and language training in the international corporate environment is examined, and some suggestions for improvements in corporate staffing, planning, and operations are proposed. The study attempts to depict a complete and thorough view of language activities in the business world. Some data gathered have updated or confirmed those gathered in several earlier studies; while other data, notably those concerning language and technical training for non-U.S. national employees, have not, so far as is known, been collected in other research.

BACKGROUND

American business firms are in general only marginally concerned with foreign language matters, even if a significant amount of their business is international in scope. They tend to rely almost exclusively on English for all communication (Wilkins and Arnett, 1976; Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby, 1974:73; Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth, 1975; Gouvernayre and Lauvergeon, 1974:2; and Schwartz, Wilkins, and Bovée, 1932), and

they make extensive use of foreign national agents or employees who control both local languages and English. Some companies have also indicated that they automatically expect English to be used as the common language when dealing with people whose native language is other than English (Arnold, Morgenroth, and Morgenroth, 1975:29). Domestically most language requirements (predominantly translating and interpreting) are handled by employees whose main job is in a non-language area; when requirements exceed in-house capabilities, ad hoc solutions are sought: work is contracted out or training is provided, again usually by contract, to meet immediate needs.

Foreign language capabilities among employees are not generally highly regarded nor particularly sought after (Korda, 1975; Kolde, 1974). Foreign language proficiency has virtually no effect on salary increases (Wilkins and Arnett, 1976); in one study only 10 percent of the respondents indicated that preference and higher pay are given to applicants with foreign language skills (Alexander, 1975:36). One respondent actually noted that "having skills in a foreign language is considered 'an accomplishment.'" In another survey of selected businesses in the Washington, D. C., area, 72 percent of the respondents indicated that their customers use foreign languages, while only 35 percent felt that applicants with foreign language skills are preferable (Coley and Franke, 1974). Over half the respondents in Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth's study (1975) indicated that they would require no

use of modern foreign languages over the next four years, even though nearly 85 percent of the firms surveyed engage in business abroad. In a study of firms in Illinois (Arnold, Morgenroth, and Morgenroth, 1975:29), 46 percent of the firms that conduct business abroad and/or deal with non-English-speaking people domestically do not employ people who use foreign language skills in the performance of their business responsibilities.

Despite this apparent lack of interest in foreign language proficiency, considerable corporate resources are devoted to language training. The importance of adequate pre-assignment training for individuals going overseas to work has long been recognized by businesspeople and foreign language professionals alike (Ivancevich, 1969; Cleveland, Mangone, and Adams, 1960; Abramson, 1974; Adams, 1968; and Ackermann, 1974). Language training is often provided as a benefit to international employees, although the unsystematic manner in which it is planned and performed tends to belie companies' claimed concern for it. International management textbooks and guides (Robinson, 1973; Kolde, 1974; Phatak, 1974; McGregor, 1967; and Chorafas, 1969, for example), emphasizing the importance of effective communication skills among managers, point out the need for a common language and for cultural empathy in an international environment.

Nationals of countries other than the United States, in contrast, appear to undergo far more rigorous and thorough preparation for assignments of an international nature, including those

in their own countries. Foreign languages are studied seriously throughout the educational process so that true bi- or multilingualism becomes a reality. In Japan, for example, some companies provide a period of intensive "remedial" English training along with in-depth cultural training for individuals doing international business.[1] Others contract with private institutions, often located in the United States, to offer this training. Clearly a radically different philosophy pervades the entire society--from its educational system to its business institutions.

U.S. corporations, too, are committed to both language and technical training--for non-U.S. nationals--on a large scale around the world. The presence of American products, trainers, advisers, and employers--both military and civilian--throughout the world has led to a significant effort in English teaching and technical training. The magnitude of this language training effort cannot be ignored. The language component of these training programs is conducted either by the corporation itself or, more frequently, under contract with a language training organization. These programs range from being highly successful to dismal failures, depending on the degree of enlightenment and the amount of planning undertaken by program sponsors.

The role of language and communication in international business cannot be overlooked, for in most cases at least one individual in every communicative interchange is operating in a language which is not native for him. The implications of this

situation on the operating and planning policies of the international corporation are profound, even though the language issue *per se* is all too often ignored.

THE STUDY

Purposes

This research is a descriptive study of the foreign language requirements, policies, and training programs of a number of U.S. corporations involved in international business. The purpose of the study was essentially fourfold:

(1) to collect baseline data on the current corporate language planning and training situation, updating some of the findings of several earlier studies;

(2) to provide information about program characteristics, considerations, and resources to those corporate managers contacted through the content and structure of the questions posed;

(3) to infer corporate philosophies concerning language and cultural training from details of training programs and stated policies; and

(4) to disseminate the results of the research through the summary report sent to those firms and individuals requesting it.

The research has focused on three aspects of corporate language policies, programs, and perceived requirements:

(1) foreign languages for U.S. nationals sent abroad;

(2) translation and interpreting; and

(3) foreign languages (often English) for non-U.S. nationals.[2]

Of particular interest were details of the training process and the extent to which Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) research and training are included in corporate-sponsored programs. The role of language and language training in the corporate planning process has also been examined. Implications of the findings for the increasingly common combination of, broadly speaking, "career education" and foreign language study have also been discussed. Although no evaluation of individual programs has been attempted, strengths (and weaknesses) of the composite of programs have been delineated and analyzed. Major findings of the study have been disseminated to respondents through the summary report mailed to those requesting it.

The study is of value to both the business community and the foreign language education profession in that it provides an exchange and dissemination of information and offers insight to high school, college, and university foreign language departments into real-world conditions and requirements. Study findings should enable foreign language educators and trainers to design or modify course content and curricula so that they might reflect employment realities that graduates will have to face. Several recommendations for the corporations themselves are also proposed.

Methodology

The research for the study was conducted in the fall of 1977 by means of a detailed twelve-page questionnaire mailed to the Personnel Officer (or to that individual by name, where it was known) of the U.S. headquarters of 267 American companies reported to be doing business abroad. Twenty-eight different categories of company were represented in the sample. Questionnaires were returned by 184 companies, or 68.9 percent of those originally contacted. A pilot study of 26 companies, or 10 percent of the total sample, was conducted in order to judge response rate and reaction to the questionnaire. Nineteen questionnaires, or 73 percent of those mailed, were returned in the pilot study. Only minor revisions were made in the questionnaire before beginning the main study, and all other procedures and respondent communications remained the same.

Scope and Delimitations

The study was limited to a sample of U.S.-based corporations actually operating overseas. While a survey of non-U.S. companies operating internationally would be of great interest and value so as to compare policies, philosophies, and practices, it should be the subject of a separate subsequent study so as to be able to investigate each domain (i.e., U.S.-based and non-U.S. based companies) in adequate detail.

ASSUMPTIONS

Theoretical Assumptions

Three main assumptions concerning the actual topic of the study were implicit in the research and the design of the questionnaire. The validity of each, however, was not known at the outset and had to be inferred from actual responses. The three assumptions were:

(1) that language matters and language training are legitimate concerns of U.S. corporations doing business abroad;

(2) that corporations recognize the problem areas in conducting language training programs and consider participation in the study and receiving a report of results highly beneficial to the attainment of their goals; and

(3) that Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) training figures prominently in corporate overseas language programs and is a major concern of program planners and designers.

Methodological Assumptions

The study was based on several additional assumptions implicit in the methodology employed to collect the data. Two of these assumptions were:

(1) that the questionnaire would be an adequate means by which to gather data for the study; and

(2) that the response rate on this questionnaire would be adequate to provide meaningful and significant information

and to draw valid conclusions.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

LSP: Language(s) for Special Purposes, including English for Special Purposes (ESP), often further refined to EAP (English for Academic Purposes), EOP (English for Occupational Purposes), or EST (English for Science and Technology). These are all subdivisions of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL). EFL generally refers to courses and programs outside an English-speaking country, while ESL is generally taught to non-native speakers of English within an English-speaking milieu. The term LSP refers to the teaching or learning of language for a specialized goal. Courses designed for this purpose have limited objectives and often feature limited skills, and are presented in combination with or as preparation to vocational, professional, or academic needs and/or training. Objectives for LSP courses are frequently stated in terms of performance competencies rather than in terms of specific linguistic items to be mastered.

NOTES

[1]Mr. Robert Butler, English teacher employed by the Hitachi Company in Japan; private conversation, June 21, 1978.

[2]The terms "U.S. national" and "non-U.S. national" refer throughout the dissertation to "native speaker of English" and "native speaker of a language other than English" respectively, even though that is not, of course, always the case.

Chapter 2

A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

In order to provide as complete a background as possible for the study undertaken as part of this dissertation, one must review several major areas in which foreign languages and the business community are related. These include corporate training efforts in language and cultural areas for U.S. national employees in the international environment, corporate translation and interpreting requirements, and corporate efforts in providing technical and language training to non-U.S. national employees. Integrally related to these topics and having significant impact on the education and training of both technically- and business-oriented individuals and foreign language students is the fact that, in the business world, foreign language capabilities are strictly ancillary skills. Foreign language majors without additional, "primary," skills, therefore, are rarely employable in non-teaching, non-academic professions. This situation has led to modifications and additions to traditional foreign language (and, to some extent, business) courses and curricula at all levels, resulting in the combination of foreign language training and career education and in the development of courses in languages for special purposes.

Five major topics are reviewed in this chapter:

(1) Language and Cultural Training for Americans Working Abroad;

(2) Translation and Interpreting;

(3) Foreign Languages as Ancillary Skills;

(4) Foreign Languages and Career Education; and

(5) Languages for Special Purposes.

LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL TRAINING FOR AMERICANS WORKING ABROAD

Much has been written in international management publications and journals in the last two decades concerning the importance of training, particularly in language, culture, and background of the country (or countries) of residence, for American managers embarking on overseas assignments. Ivancevich (1969) found that both international personnel managers and the expatriates themselves rated language training as the highest priority for an overseas assignment. Still, over 73 percent of the respondents in that study indicated that the time span between selection for overseas assignment and actual departure is three months or less. Clearly no great amount of training can be accomplished in this time period, especially considering the many other demands an individual has on his time--both business and personal--in the short time before relocating. In view of Dickerman's recommendation ("Allow Two Years . . .," 1966) of at least a two-year lead time

for foreign businessmen coming to the United States, three months seems hardly adequate.

The Carnegie study in 1957 indicated that "it is apparent that many personnel officers [of U.S. corporations] are not convinced of the need for overseas training at all" (Cleveland, Mangone, and Adams, 1960:281); what training was provided was generally Berlitz-type language instruction or an orientation to company policies and procedures (pp. 282-3). Seventeen years later, another survey indicated that,

> while 77 percent of these firms [i.e., those that regularly assign employees to overseas positions] provide some kind of special training or education for U.S. citizens who are to be stationed overseas, few provide more than some rudimentary opportunities to learn a little of the language and the culture of the nation being visited (Abramson, 1974:25).

This 77 percent further breaks down into 40 percent which "regularly provide special training or education of some kind, while another 37 percent provide training 'sometimes'" (Abramson, 1974:25).

Adams (1968), in a study of American business executives in Latin America, found that 18 percent of the total "top personnel" surveyed had received no training or preparation for their foreign assignments, 16 percent had received technical training, 34 percent language training only, and 23 percent language training along with some type of social and cultural training. Adams notes that "the length and quality of this training varies considerably, but generally it lacks thoroughness and is of too short duration to be effective" (p. 196). Moreover, "most of the firms which

encourage this language preparation permit the individual man to choose his own language course. The six-week Berlitz program is most popular" (p. 196).

Howard (1974), in his study of compensation given overseas personnel, reports that "a majority of the responding multinational companies had a language allowance for overseas personnel"; and only 8 percent of the companies surveyed in the Languages for the World of Work (LWOW) study did not give a language training allowance (Wilkins and Arnett, 1976:5-32). "Conspicuously absent," however, . . . "is any allowance for intercultural communications training" (p. 5-32). Wilkins and Arnett (1976) observe that "in light of the many references to the desirability of complete communication capability, this seems to indicate a significant discrepancy between what is considered necessary and what is actually provided" (p. 5-32). The amount or quality of language training, too, in the form of the "crash" course or "total immersion" program, is hardly apt to promote the "complete communication capability" mentioned above.

Corporate foreign language training is, in fact, generally contracted with a commercial language training firm since the demand within the company is insufficient to warrant such a training staff in-house. Among those firms specializing in language and to some extent cultural training are the Business Council for International Understanding Institute of American University, the American Graduate School of International Management (formerly the

Thunderbird school) in Phoenix, Berlitz, and Inlingua (Wines, 1973). Two others are the Institute fo. Modern Languages (formerly owned by American Express and now devoted exclusively to the teaching of English) and the Sullivan Language Schools (Marottoli, 1973).

The Abramson survey, too, found that language instruction was given the most emphasis of all pre-assignment training components, generally reaching 100 to 120 hours of instruction (Abramson, 1974:26). While in terms of numbers this may sound impressive, in terms of actual contact hours it is approximately equivalent to one year of college foreign language study; anyone who has ever undergone such an experience should immediately realize the futility of attempting much beyond a fairly simple conversation with such limited preparation.

By contrast, the Defense Language Institute and the Foreign Service Institute, charged with providing language training to most American military and diplomatic personnel, hold the majority of their courses for 4 to 6 hours a day, 5 days a week, and from 24 to 47 weeks in duration. Even the shortest of these courses features approximately 500 contact hours. A set of guidelines for the selection of English language training suggest a minimum of 840 hours (20 hours a week for 42 weeks) to prepare individuals to receive university or occupational instruction in English.[1] Indeed, according to Carroll (1967), most college graduates with a major in a foreign language score approximately an S-2 rating on the FSI scale, although a 3 rating is required for "Minimum

Professional Proficiency" (Weinstein, 1975).[2] One hundred hours, therefore, cannot be expected to qualify an individual for even a 1 (survival) level. Arnett (1975b:21) comments that "there is a certain amount of naïveté among some of the company respondents who demonstrate belief in the instant two-week crash course that all language professionals know is a fraudulent concept." Instead of planning ahead for language needs, companies all too often resort to the commercial school "quick fix" or instruct their employees to "pick it up" in the new assignment.

The Languages for the World of Work (LWOW) study concluded that government language training is far superior to that provided to private sector employees:

> The attitudes of representatives of the companies in our sample toward language training lacks the unanimity found among government officials, in terms of criticality of need. . . . Business firms rarely classify and rate language skills as part of their overall personnel assessment as does the government (Arnett, 1975b:22).

Wilkins and Arnett (1976) point out the seeming irony that, despite the fact that many companies expressed a desire to improve language training and also emphasized the need for economy and efficiency in the training process, "no evidence was found that any companies even approach the sophistication in proficiency rating, training, and relevancy of approach that is evident in most cases in the U.S. government foreign language training programs" (pp. 4-3f). A strong point of government training programs is their highly organized, systematized mode of operation rather

than any intrinsically superior methods of training. As one official of the Defense Language Institute remarked, "We at least have a system, and a system can carry a great number of weaknesses which might utterly destroy another type of program."[3] Not being subject to the constraints of time and money that dominate the business world is also a distinct advantage. One disadvantage of highly institutionalized programs, however, is that they tend to be resistant (or at least slow) to change, and often persist in using outmoded or inappropriate methods, materials, and techniques; nonetheless, government language training programs appear overall to turn out a reasonable product.

American companies are not unique in their language training policies. Fitzjohn (1974:21), writing of English firms, notes that companies often feel that a 20- or 30-hour language course will make the students "fluent" and will give them a "thorough knowledge of business and commercial usage." He continues, "When we try to point out that this aim is too ambitious, we get the reply, 'but I thought you had one of these language labs.'" Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby (1974), in their survey of English firms, found that less than half provided either in-house or commercially contracted foreign language training for their employees.

The importance of cultural factors in an overseas training program cannot be overemphasized, either. All too often the businessperson overseas assumes that the entire world operates according to the values and principles of his own culture; anyone

who has lived or traveled overseas can recount innumerable examples of this type of individual. Ricks, Fu and Arpan (1974) cite a number of serious business "blunders" which could and should have been avoided with better planning and cultural sensitivity, empathy, and astuteness. Over and over, misunderstandings and misinterpretations of the language and culture of others are followed to their disastrous conclusions. They state quite frankly that "unicultural managements making all the decisions . . . in different environments seems a high-risk strategy" (p. 77). Unfortunately the examples in the Ricks et al. collection were all drawn from European, Latin American, or Asian environments--omitting the Middle East. Had that area been included, the book might well have run into volumes.

A 1972 report (Commerce Today, Feb. 21, 1972, cited by Ackermann, 1974:29) indicates that "a third of North American executives working abroad return home before completing their assignments" and that "four out of five foreign representatives in Japan don't complete their missions" (Adams and Kobayashi, 1969, cited by Ackermann, 1974:29). Reschke (1977) reported that Coca-Cola Japan no longer will hire any American for a management position. Attendance at a cross-cultural training institute, on the other hand, is claimed to reduce the overseas failure rate to ten to fifteen percent (Lloyd, 1972).

Ackermann (1974:31) recognizes the importance of study in the host country language but hastens to add that "learning language

without its accompanying cultural baggage is risky . . . ." A recent attempt to offer some insight into cross-cultural matters is the article "Japanese Managers Tell How Their System Works" (1977). In the preface the editors explained that "Fortune invited them as individuals, as businessmen who could speak English and who had been abroad enough to be able to see the Japanese business system in perspective" (p. 127). It is frankly difficult to imagine a group of American executives invited by a Japanese publication to discuss "how their system works" in Japanese! Several years ago a manuscript analyzing and comparing Western versus Middle Eastern management models and styles (Inman and LoBello, 1975) was submitted to the Harvard Business Review for consideration; it was, however, rejected for including too much "sociological analysis" and for not offering the kind of "useful information" which their readers demand! The concepts contained in this manuscript, when discussed with one of the Harvard Business School professors on loan to the Iran Center for Management Studies in Tehran, were found to be of only minor interest to those busy instilling the case study method of management training in their students.

A few companies, such as 3M in Minnesota (Piper, n.d. and Rolland, 1974) and Polaroid in Massachusetts, have attempted to meet their language and cultural training needs by instituting in-house programs.[4] Unfortunately these types of programs are not widely publicized in academic circles, and details as to

employee participation and overall effectiveness are virtually unavailable. Sometimes these programs have come about almost by accident (McKay, 1977), while in other cases programs have been initiated and then canceled due to insufficient attendance and lack of interest. Wilkins and Arnett (1976:5-70) give the example of the engineering company which decided to provide Arabic training for engineers and their families going to Saudi Arabia; within several weeks the program was discontinued because of lack of interest. Attendance is frequently optional, indicating that such training really does not figure significantly in the corporation's priorities. A variety of techniques for imparting cultural training is, of course, available to the course designer; simulation and role playing appear to be among the more promising. Wines (1973) reports the use of trained actors as "adversaries" in negotiations training at the Business Council for International Understanding, and Long (1976) stresses the need to place adult language learners in problem-solving situations where the bridging of an "information gap" will require the communicative use of the target language.

Even the U.S. Department of Commerce, one of whose tasks is to promote American business abroad, concerns itself only minimally with the question of language in international marketing. Its pamphlet "How to Get the Most From Overseas Exhibitions" (one of several pamphlets and brochures comprising the Department's "Exporter's Kit") recommends that the seller "leap the language

barrier":

> Project literature, catalogs, and promotional material are most effective in the local language. If full translation is not possible or too expensive, translate a short synopsis describing your company and its products, especially those on display. If you already have a representative, this is an area he is best qualified to handle.[5]

Several pages further on, the same pamphlet emphasizes that registration cards for visitors to an exhibit booth be in the local language. The Department's "A Basic Guide to Exporting" suggests, in Section III, "Communicating Overseas," that one should "answer overseas inquiries promptly and in the language of the letter of inquiry, when requested" (p. 8). The "Checklist for Telephones" in the same section recommends that "annoying expressions" be avoided. "Remember, your party may not be familiar with our slang or expressions" (p. 9).

Wilkins and Arnett (1976:4-56) report that representatives of the Bureau of International Commerce "feel that ability in a foreign language represents a major asset for companies wishing to deal in international trade," although English is generally felt to be the lingua franca of business. "Country marketing managers," assisted by "country marketing specialists" operate in 80 to 90 countries; "the Office [of International Marketing] is beginning to insist that all Latin American specialists and all European specialists (excluding Scandinavia) have language proficiency" (p. 4-57). Except for the positions requiring a language proficiency, the Department's philosophy, while not overtly stated,

appears not surprisingly to be quite in accord with that of individual companies: language skills or competencies are bought as the need arises and otherwise are not a major corporate concern.

These almost universal policies in the business world are undoubtedly dictated by the need for expediency and cost-effectiveness. The desire to "get the job done" in the shortest time and at the least cost leads to the hiring of those with ready skills, such as the translator, the interpreter, or the foreign employee or agent who speaks English:

> . . . business and industry as a whole are not as acutely aware of the need for intensive training; nor do they devote their resources or similar attention to this problem. They rely instead on the hiring of foreign nationals who speak English, or simply declare that English is the lingua franca of the business world (Arnett, 1976:15).

The Training survey cited above also produced the following comment: "We send our people overseas to do a job. We are concerned only that they have the technical skill, because the people they will be working with overseas all speak English" (Abramson, 1974:25).

Wilkins and Arnett (1976:1-7f) found that, in most instances, employees must have excellent technical training and proven success in domestic operations before management will consider sending them abroad. They cite two studies (Business International Corporation, 1970; and Gonzalez and Negandhi, 1967) which place foreign language skills well below attributes such as technical ability or knowledge of job, leadership ability, past

performance, experience, and adaptability of family (Wilkins and Arnett, 1976:5--8-10). A militating factor here is the high cost of relocating an employee and family overseas. Language ability is rarely a consideration for selection, although "in most companies it is regarded as an extremely significant factor in adaptation . . ." (p. 1-8). Colquitt et al. (1974) also report the use of language as a criterion for overseas employment selection as falling far below technical or professional ability and the ability to adapt to a new environment. Yet respondents considered language fluency an "important" (second on a five-point scale) hiring criterion for their international operations divisions. One respondent commented, "No chance of a language major going overseas in first 5 or 10 years. Therefore language facility is meaningless if not used immediately" (Colquitt et al., 1974:22). Schwartz, Wilkins, and Bovée (1932:556f), nearly fifty years ago, cite the personnel director of a large international firm:

> "A belief that mastery of a foreign language is the first thing looked for in a man being considered for service abroad is perhaps the commonest error made by those seeking to enter American business in foreign fields . . . . . The language qualification is the least of those required in a foreign-service recruit."

Robinson (1973:263) cites a study by Hays (1970) in which U.S. expatriate managers ranked language ability a poor fourth (and last) choice as a determiner of overseas success. In the first three positions were technical ability, "relation" abilities (getting along with people), and an adaptive and supportive family. While

not denying the importance of professional competence, Kolde (1974:158) cautions against relying too heavily on technical skills. He comments that ". . . dissatisfaction with an expatriate's performance seldom comes from lack of technical expertise. The major source of failure is intercultural contrasts and attendant interpersonal skills."

Wilkins and Arnett (1976) point out that there are psychological tests available to determine ethnocentricity and attitudes toward other cultures and people. They conclude, however, that "obviously, they are not being used in selecting overseas personnel" (p. 5-31). Robinson (1973) reports that such testing has not proven very helpful, even though limited data indicate that high ethnocentrism appears to be associated with overseas job failure. Language aptitude tests, too, can help predict success in foreign language study ("Notes for . . .," 1971). Since neither language ability (either present or potential, presumably) nor cultural empathy is virtually ever used as a criterion for selection for overseas employment, however, reliance on these types of assessments seems unlikely to develop.

Supporting companies' tendency to rely on foreign nationals to solve language and cultural problems, Colquitt et al. (1974) found that nearly 98 percent of their respondents would prefer to hire foreign nationals with an MBA degree from a U.S. university for their foreign operations. Wilkins and Arnett (1976) point out that many American companies conduct their international

business through a local agent, thereby hoping to circumvent cross-cultural problems. Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby (1974) found that over 80 percent of their responding firms used agents for at least some of their sales to non-English-speaking countries. In other cases, a respondent commented, "Most of our American technicians, we find, are not capable of adding language skills at the present time, so we have to send them out [to the overseas location] and then use local interpreters" (Arnett, 1976:16).

Robinson (1973:255) reports that the reasons often cited for operating overseas with fewer and fewer U.S. nationals and more and more local nationals are lower cost and more intimate "environmental" knowledge. Of course it is true that foreign nationals in overseas operations are not always employed only to solve the language problem, but rather to comply with legal or contractual stipulations imposed by the host government (Wilkins and Arnett, 1976:5-21; Robinson, 1973:256). Wilkins and Arnett (1976) cite the example of a Danish firm, the East Asiatic Company, which in Nigeria employs approximately 2500 Nigerians and only forty to fifty Danes (Oates, 1973:21). Still the board chairman "admits that having a nucleus of Danes the company can rely on in the top posts 'means we can sleep soundly at night here in Denmark.'" Nonetheless it is a company noted for its rigid training and selection procedures with emphasis on quality proficiency in languages. As its management aptly points out,

"an employee speaking a foreigner's language poorly may insult or alienate him rather than use the native language as an advantage, particularly where the native is more proficient in the language of the company's officers" (p. 5-22).

Although the position of English as the most widely spoken language in the world (if one includes both its native and non-native speakers) and its intimate link with science and technology, big business, and economic power cannot be denied, a monolithic insistence on its exclusive use in international trade and business seems ignorant and imperialistic. As Crispin (1974:50) points out,

> Even though English is the international business language, those businessmen for whom it is not their native tongue seem to put an extra effort and enthusiasm into conducting or concluding business where the conversation is in their native language . . . .

One can but speculate as to the extent to which a company's business could be improved or its image (as well as that of the United States itself) enhanced if local languages were used and appreciated more by Americans overseas, particularly now that the United States has sizable and significant competition on the international scene. Crispin (1974) gives an enthusiastic testimonial in this regard, as do a number of Wilkins and Arnett's respondents:

> . . . our own study evoked commentaries, case studies, and data from a number of what might be considered highly enlightened officials who reported unusual success in profits, in public relations, and in total operations which they

> attributed to their attention to language and cultural training (Arnett, 1976:16).

Yet despite this enthusiasm, Arnett reports that "the surprisingly large number of non-responses, partial responses, or responses denying need for language demonstrates the apathy" reflected by another respondent, employed in the translation section of his firm:

> " . . . I am afraid, though, that many of the business people who reply will reflect the general apathy toward language studies. Overseas jobs in industry are seldom filled by people who are fluent in the overseas language or interested in foreign cultures" (Arnett, 1976:16).

Arnett (1976:15) also notes that

> There is considerable evidence in the literature and in the studies that have been performed by international business experts that this attitude [insisting on English as the operating language] is detrimental to the overall operating potential of American businesses abroad and for firms in the U.S. doing foreign business.

A survey of Indiana firms revealed that only "half of them [the respondents] are aware of potential improvements [of their business] through more extensive use of foreign languages" (Gouvernayre and Lauvergeon, 1974). The authors further point out that "the low demand for Arabic is one example of the linguistic barriers on the trade opportunity" and that "the lack of people fluent in Arabic prevents complete market penetration." Winter (1968:18) recounts that a native of a Middle Eastern country expressed amazement that Americans would attempt to enter into the affairs of that complex region without a knowledge

of Arabic. Admitting that it is one of the most difficult languages to learn (for native speakers of English, presumably!), he added that "the Russians who are here speak Arabic fluently."

This insistence on letting the other party bridge the language gap can be summed up by what Galbraith (1978:89) terms "our congenital inadequacy in languages." Since non-English speakers have no greater inherent aptitude for languages than English speakers do, the problem is clearly one of attitude and motivation. Schumann (1976) discusses social and psychological distance, including temporary nature of the assignment, as factors which are detrimental to second language acquisition. Aitken (1973:17) adds that, when the assignment is regarded as temporary, "there becomes little point in learning the language, so one seeks helpers who know it--and becomes dependent on them." Kolde (1974:150) states that ". . . lack of linguistic facility remains a critical blindspot in American managerial preparedness for effective multinational communications . . . . Other people's knowledge of English is not a substitute for our own linguistic ability." Phatak (1974) and Kolde (1974) speak of three levels of corporate awareness of linguistic and cultural sensitivity in international business: ethnocentrism (linguistic and cultural chauvinism), polycentrism, and geocentrism ("cosmopolitan corporate structure"). Kolde (1974:147-48) elaborates on corporate ethnocentrism in the following lengthy passage:

Nothing can be communicated [within the particular company] that is not in English. This subjects all transboundary communication of the firm to the tyranny of ignorance. It isolates the headquarters executives from the realities of affiliate companies, and retards the development of company-oriented constructive attitudes and personal loyalties among the indigenous personnel. Most companies exhibit agitated sensitivity on the language problem, but we found none [emphasis in original] that has taken decisive action to correct the deficiency in their managerial cadre.

A few companies are actually trying to correct the situation by subsidizing language study for executives. The typical arrangement covers the tuition and fees of an approved language program, and may also permit some company time to be used for attending the course. Both the coverage and intensity are left to the individual, and there is no concrete incentive for anyone to participate in the program. As a result, the more ambitious executives find more promising alternatives for their self-improvement endeavors.

Executives who do invest enough time in language study to become proficient find themselves rewarded with reassignment to the outposts, mostly in sales or procurement, where direct communication with local nationals is a critical necessity. Too often these are dead-end jobs from which there is no access for further advancement. Thus what appears initially as a promotion may in a longer perspective turn out to have been tantamount to reclassification from a regular executive career path to that of a technician or limited-function specialist. All in all, progress through these programs remains invisible to this observer.

A somewhat larger minority of U.S. companies seeks to remedy the language problem by employing multilingual foreign nationals to serve in crucial buffer positions between the parent company and the affiliates. This is self-deception. The multilingual foreigners are rarely endowed with any real executive authority, but serve more or less as errand boys for the headquarters people. Their contribution is limited mostly to routine communication problems. There is reason to suspect that at times they may even serve as amplifiers of the ethnocentric influences of the headquarters executives upon whom they so completely depend.

The large majority of U.S.-based multinational firms seems to believe that the problem will resolve itself. Their management, taking its cues from the traditional business school curriculum, refrains from any move to face the problem.

Finally, there is an indeterminable number of companies where the managerial cadre puts a negative value on language knowledge. Acquisition of language facility thus becomes an impediment for an executive's international career. This kind

> of cultural perversion seems to derive from the chauvinistic fear that language knowledge renders one susceptible to unwanted and potentially dangerous foreign influences, which may induce the executive to "go native," that is, to lose his usefulness completely to the company. Viewed through an ethnocentric tunnel, it is better to remove such potential subversives from the seats of corporate power.

Korda (1975:162f), discussing the negative feelings in the corporate world about foreign languages and those who know or use them, admits that he once learned to hide his knowledge of foreign languages, since every time he was called upon to use them he would be subjected to ridicule. He said he would be introduced as "a guy who speaks a lot of languages," with the implication that a knowledge of languages was "proof positive of my powerlessness, one of those effete educational accomplishments that either meant I was a refugee or a failed professor." Kertesz (1974:86) feels that scientists, especially engineers, consider "foreign languages just a hurdle devised by teachers to make school more difficult and boring." Indeed, unfortunate experiences with high school or college foreign language courses are frequently cited as a source of the indifference to or negative feelings about language training (cf. Troike, 1976).

Summary

The overall picture of American corporate employees' foreign language ability overseas is not always encouraging, and it seems unlikely to change as long as companies feel that their penetration of foreign markets and their profits from overseas operations are adequate. No amount of exhortation as to the benefits, tangible or

intangible, of adequate language and cross-cultural training is apt to cause companies to alter their course of action as long as there is sufficient demand for U.S. firms' goods and services. Faced with serious competition, however, companies may be forced to change, as exemplified by the case of this American executive in Europe:

> After living seven years in a French-speaking community, he was unable to say or understand "bonjour," and his superior and indifferent attitude antagonized the distributors. The initial successes can be traced to the strength of the product itself and the lack of competition. Once competition appeared, immediately the U.S. manufacturer suffered; even though the new competitive product was not superior, the obliging and positive business attitude of the competitor literally won over the distributors and swept the market (Vogel, 1968:59, cited in Ricks et al., 1974:59).

An alternate remedy may, however, be emerging, thanks to the development of non-traditional foreign language curricula and their inclusion into interdisciplinary programs (see full discussion below). This change in focus meshes directly with the business perspective of a foreign language skill as a tool to be used in addition to the "hard" skills of the business or technical world. By preparing prospective managers to be proficient in a language (or languages) other than their own and attuned to differences in cultures and traditional business practices besides, foreign language departments can provide a real service to the business and international communities. Generally speaking, corporations view the language preparation of their employees presently provided by American schools and colleges as poor in terms of meeting the requirements of the business world, and they would welcome a shift

in emphasis from a predominantly literary orientation to one more immediately applicable to students' professions and careers. The appearance in increasing numbers of the dually trained business-person may lead to a far more positive American presence overseas and to a significant modification of the lip service which most firms appear to be paying to the need for language and cultural training.

TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING

The importance of English in technical literature gives the English-speaking scientist a feeling of superiority and even false security (Kertesz, 1974). Although one half of the literature of many technical fields is published in English, the other half, obviously, appears in other languages (Chan, 1976; Kertesz, 1974). Chan and Kertesz, moreover, predict that English-speaking scientists will probably read very little of the non-English material.

The area of translating and interpreting in the corporate environment, therefore, is one that deserves greater attention than it currently is accorded. Kertesz (1974:97), discussing language training--particularly translation skills--for American scientists, suggests that

> . . . a scientist or engineer with practical research or plant experience who exhibits linguistic ability and interest would probably be a safer choice for a technical translator than a graduate of humanistic courses with diplomas attesting to his mastery of several languages.

He feels that it is frankly simpler "to give an engineer a language

than a linguist engineering competence" (p. 84), which is precisely the position of the U.S. government in maintaining its several large language training institutions (Weinstein, 1975). Again, because of sporadic need, Kertesz (1974:93) feels that one full-time technical translator in a large laboratory is sufficient, "supplemented by those [skills] of other employees whose linguistic experience is utilized in order to minimize the cost." He also advocates use of a reliable professional translation service for problems which cannot readily be handled in-house. Gingold (1966) suggests solving the translation problem by a staff translator, a translator hired on a per diem basis, or a translation bureau or free-lance individual.

Translation is a significant undertaking in many highly scientific or research-oriented firms. One private firm in New York in 1973 had revenues of nearly $10 million ("The Corporate Word . . .," 1974). The staff, numbering over two hundred, must of course be equipped with a professional specialty--law, accounting, or chemistry, for example--in addition to language skills. Brawley (1969) also points out that the technical translator in industry must be a fully trained scientist or technician who has a thorough knowledge of the source language but who should always translate into his native language.

Even though translation skills are perhaps the most eminently hirable among required foreign language capabilities, being almost quantifiable, as it were (or at least more tangible in that specific

tasks can be defined--see Tinsley, 1973), translation requirements still appear for the most part to be handled on virtually an ad hoc basis. According to several surveys of language requirements of American business and service organizations (Arnold, Morgenroth, and Morgenroth, 1975; Hecker, 1973; Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth, 1975; Terras, 1975; and Alexander, 1975), translation of foreign language texts or documents appears to be one of the main foreign language-oriented requirements of these firms.

The studies show that when company employees (who are generally employed in a non-language area) themselves are not able to handle the translation, firms look to outside translation agencies, instructors at nearby schools and colleges, other firms such as banks, residents of the local community, or simply "friends" (Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth, 1975; Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby, 1974; Arnold, Morgenroth, and Morgenroth, 1975; Alexander, 1975; and Gouvernayre and Lauvergeon, 1974). Very few retain full-time translators (Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth, 1975:3). Only one of the above surveys attempted to assess the competence of translators or the quality of the translation: "Only one positive response was given to the question, 'Do you rely on the American Translators Association Certificate as a measure of competence?'" (Alexander, 1975:36). All too often an ability to translate effectively is equated with a knowledge of a foreign language, when actually translation requires a number of highly specialized skills (Tinsley, 1973). Alexander (1975:35) notes a decided

disadvantage to relying on outside translators:

> . . . those arrangements with persons who treat translation for business as a secondary matter would not generally give the immediacy of response or the desired business insights that employees of the firm itself would be able to give as a matter of course.

Beeth (1973:84) points out that a cultural translator is needed--one who knows more than the languages in question. Kolde (1974:150) observes that the tendency to use literal translation has been a basic weakness in international managerial communication. He feels that its probable cause is the traditional methods of language instruction, together with the relative unsophistication of American executives in language matters. The emphasis, therefore, is on language as a vehicle for transmitting accurate information rather than as an art of literary expression. Indeed, Ricks, Fu, and Arpan (1974) cite innumerable examples of marketing disasters when translations have been too literal and have been done without regard for social, psychological, and cultural appropriateness. Many American products have been failures abroad because of the assumption that the American cultural set prevails world-wide. Product names have frequently had to be changed in various places around the world because of phonological or semantic anomalies or proximity to taboo terms in certain languages.

Beeth (1973:92f) also recommends that one "get the best interpreter available." "In important negotiations you should hire the interpreter [if one is needed], rather than let the other party do it." He stresses the need for developing a spirit of

cooperation and loyalty in international dealings which he says is not always attainable if the other party is in control.

A problem, however, exists with regard to the translation of scientific or technical material. Often new vocabulary must be created or, more commonly, borrowed from the language in which it originated. Then, too, whether the vocabulary exists or not, simply keeping up with the volumes of materials steadily produced is a virtual impossibility. Textbooks and manuals are often outdated or obsolete by the time they are translated. For this reason, then, a world language (now generally English) is frequently established as a more or less official second language in countries whose own national language (or languages) is (are) used but sparingly outside their own citizenry (UNESCO, 1953; Bull, 1964). Higher education is often presented through this second language (since to maintain an educational support system of libraries, textbooks, and reference works in the vernacular is also unrealistic), and foreign contractors or employers often conduct occupational training through that language. Extensive language training programs are also necessary in such cases. Further, where individuals of a number of different language backgrounds must communicate, a "language of wider communication" (but not always necessarily English) is almost a necessity. As an American contractor working in Saudi Arabia recently commented:

> "Communicating is one of our biggest problems--Saudis talking to Americans who are talking to Koreans who work alongside Filipinos and Malaysians on a job designed by Germans with British surveyors. Some of these people don't even like each other. It's a nightmare" (Azzi, 1978:111).

In another case, a technical training program conducted by a company in Japan for individuals from many different countries conducts this training in English.[6] This argument in no way advocates the exclusive use of English just because it is the most widely spoken language in the world today, nor is it an excuse for U.S. nationals to function totally monolingually while overseas. Rather it would seem to strengthen the case for special purpose language training as a skill to enhance an individual's other capabilities without necessarily implying the need to substitute one language for another.

Stebinger (1975), while a strong advocate of the use of foreign languages among Americans overseas and himself involved with the Master's Program in International Business Studies at the University of South Carolina which features an overseas practicum, nonetheless recognizes the difficulty of becoming truly fluent in another language: "True bilingualism is, in my view, needed before you can handle, in a language not your own, the daily chores of top management . . . use your own language or a very, very good interpreter" (p. 6). He feels that for "supervisory and advisory work . . . the use of a foreign language is more necessary and more practical" (p. 7).

Robinson (1973:266f) also points out the difficulty of an adult's becoming bilingual and feels that "pride should not stand in the way of employing a good interpreter." He goes on to say that many expatriate managers have been eminently successful by combining the use of competent interpreters with coincidental study of the

language to the point of being able to keep the interpreter "on his toes." The pitfall here, unfortunately, is

> the temptation to associate unduly with those speaking one's own language. In many non-Western countries, the U.S. businessman is surrounded by English-speaking "carpetbaggers," many of whom may not be ethnically or culturally part of the major community. He should be wary of becoming too closely involved" (Robinson, 1973:267).

Likewise, a top-ranking officer of the U.S. Information Agency (now reorganized as part of the International Communication Agency) in Iran commented to this author that despite a six-month course in Persian at the Foreign Service Institute before moving to Tehran, for official and politically sensitive functions he was still obliged to rely on an interpreter since the conversational language he had been taught would hardly be appropriate for communicating with others at his social and professional level.[7]

Clearly these examples have much to say about the amount and types of language training which institutions provide, as well as the attitudes, motivations, and perceptions of learners; the need for professionally-oriented language training seems quite obvious.

Aitken (1973:127) wisely warns that

> the manager who knows little of the local language and makes little effort to overcome the handicap puts himself under artificial restraints. He must reach his work force through local bilingual spokesmen and hope that they are translating his thoughts accurately and without subjective coloration.

He concludes that "such a manager abdicates one of the tools and prerogatives of management: effective communication" and that

this type of manager "is merely sheltering under a managerial weakness of arrogance."

Summary

Translating and interpreting skills appear in many cases in the corporate environment to be ancillary skills--individuals whose job is in a non-language area or who at least possess a combination of language and technical skills are those called upon to serve as translators and interpreters. Rigorous standards are not, however, always applied to translation work, the assumption presumably being that anyone who "knows" the target language can perform an acceptable translation job.

Although interpreters can be used effectively in international operations and negotiations, exclusive reliance on them is not recommended. The astute businessperson should be sensitive to the importance of empathetic communication and do his utmost to project an appropriate image overseas.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AS ANCILLARY SKILLS

The overwhelming theme running through all the studies of foreign languages and business is that, in the business world, a foreign language capability is strictly an ancillary skill and that there really is not a demand for foreign language majors unless individuals also possess another "primary" skill to serve as their main job (Wilkins and Arnett, 1976; Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby,

1974; Merklein, 1975; Hecker, 1973; Honig and Brod, 1974; Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth, 1975; Alexander, 1975; Terras, 1975; and Schwartz, Wilkins, and Bovée, 1932). Wilkins and Arnett (1976), authors of the Languages for the World of Work study, found that business administration/management and marketing/sales were rated by responding businesses as those college majors which could best be combined with language skills. In the University of York study in England,

> the general picture that emerged from the graduates' survey was of foreign language graduates playing only a modest role as foreign language users in industry . . . . Foreign languages, for all except translators and interpreters, were ancillary to the employees' main job and occupied comparatively little of their working week (Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby, 1974:48).

"Foreign languages were a useful, but not essential, ancillary skill . . ." (p. 65). Respondents indicated a definite lack of career opportunity, other than teaching, open to foreign language majors.

Merklein (1975:28), discussing the Colquitt et al. (1974) study and another which surveyed foreign languages graduates (Merklein and Frenk, 1974), observes that " . . . there is a great demand for linguistic skills, especially if coupled with a solid business foundation." Further on in this same article, when describing the International MBA at the University of Dallas, Merklein (1975:31) explains that "our policy is to attract students . . . who already possess fluency in a commercial language." He continues,

It seemed obvious at the outset that the B.A. holder in foreign

> languages would be our prime candidate. However, it soon became apparent that most foreign language majors with a B.A. degree are not fluent enough to use their foreign language as a working tool (Merklein, 1975:31; cf. Weinstein, 1975 and Carroll, 1967).

To rectify this situation, foreign study arrangements have been established whereby courses, not in the foreign language, but in the actual content area (but of course taught through the target language) are offered. Saville-Troike (1974:6f), although writing of ESL training for adults, agrees: "Students with limited competence in English need . . . instruction in English which is directly related to and integrated with English content instruction." She further stresses "the need to teach a second language not by traditional foreign language methods, but by using it to teach something else." McDonald and Sager (1975:19) likewise feel that "advanced language learning is inseparable from subject study in the foreign language; the teaching of specific disciplines in the foreign language is the cornerstone of all advanced language work."

An informal letter survey of a sample of American businesses, industries, and service organizations, sponsored in 1972 by the Modern Language Association, confirmed the use of foreign languages in business only as an ancillary skill: "The most frequently checked alternative . . . was one indicating that the respondent's organization 'makes occasional use of the foreign language skills of regular staff members who were not hired for this purpose alone'" (Hecker, 1973:3). A businessman speaking to the Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association annual conference pointed out

that "to do one's job effectively in English and in another language and culture makes one many times more valuable to a corporation." He further stressed the need for teachers to inform their students of the opportunities which exist for the business and language trained individual ("Increasing Need . . .," 1978).

Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth (1975:4), reporting on a study of South Carolina industries as well as of secondary schools and junior and senior colleges in that state, found that "only one of the businesses gives preference in hiring to those . . . with a modern foreign language skill," although "most businesses would like to employ engineering graduates with modern foreign language skills." Other degree areas mentioned for graduates with foreign language skills included management, marketing, and accounting. In a similar study undertaken in Illinois (Arnold, Morgenroth, and Morgenroth, 1975:29), the most frequent means by which firms meet the need for foreign language skills is "occasional use of foreign language skills of staff members who have other normal duties." Only 9 percent of the firms employ people who use foreign language skills, however. The most frequently checked source of employees' foreign language skills was "speaking a foreign language at home," not really surprising in view of the multiple ethnicities represented in the Chicago area and the likelihood of Chicago-based firms dominating the sample.

Terras' (1975:27) nationwide survey of 100 business establishments and government agencies of the need for employees bilingual

in German and English showed that "the survey makes it obvious that a German major without the acquisition of additional skills has little occupational usefulness outside of teaching." Business, engineering, and economics were the three fields most preferred in combination with German language skills. In the words of one of the respondents: "Language is by itself insufficient . . . . A language adds to, rather than substitutes for, a primary skill in the business world."

Summary

All these findings lead inescapably to the conclusion that language is "a skill which, when combined with other skills, dramatically increases a person's desirability in the job market" (Walser, 1973:12, cited by Alexander, 1975:36). Eddy (1975:43), too, reviewing several of the aforementioned studies, concludes that "one has to know a foreign language in addition to having some subject area expertise." Indeed, "Subject area expertise is more important to the employer than foreign language knowledge."

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND CAREER EDUCATION

The implications of the business community's message to the foreign language education profession are increasingly being translated into specialized, non-traditional and interdisciplinary course offerings. This shift has been spurred, perhaps, less by the desire to accommodate business and industrial concerns than by the absolute

necessity of self-preservation in the face of declining enrollments brought about not only by the elimination of foreign language requirements in many colleges and universities, but also by the complaint that traditional foreign language courses are not relevant to the life goals of students.[8]

The inadequacy of, or at least a dissatisfaction with, the foreign language training provided by schools and universities is frequently expressed by both foreign language graduates and employers. Arnett, discussing the LWOW study in which both the U.S. federal government and private business firms were surveyed to determine the types of jobs for which language skills are required and also to investigate the type of training which each sector makes available to its employees, reports that

> a major finding of the study was that, on the whole, the government is far more efficient in the training of its personnel in foreign languages than are commercial language schools, public schools, junior and senior colleges, and universities . Government training is also generally more efficient than the in-house training conducted by business and industry (Arnett, 1976:15).

He goes on to comment that

> . . . according to an official GAO [General Accounting Office] report in 1971, the federal government spent more than $60 million on language training. Ironically, most of the personnel who were trained had had previous language training experience in the public schools or universities, yet this training was insufficient to prepare them to perform their tasks. It was not only insufficient but, for the most part, the prior training had been directed toward social intercourse or literature and did not help individuals obtain the technical vocabulary and dependent language skills that would permit more immediate and effective performance of the government job (Arnett, 1976:15, but cf. comment from Foreign Service Institute graduate above, fn. 7).

Further,

> It was . . . reported by the Foreign Service Institute . . . that many college graduates with majors in languages do not meet even the minimal rating level for proficiency in the language in which they have majored. This means, of course, that much of the $60 million spent in 1971, and additional amounts spent since, have been expended on what might be termed "remedial" rather than initial training (Arnett, 1976:15).

In the private sector, over 6,000 business firms were surveyed in the LWOW study, although the response rate was only approximately 23 percent. "As in the case of government, business and industry are more than a little dissatisfied with the products of our schools and universities and the language training afforded the students" (Arnett, 1976:15). Freudenstein (n.d.) in Germany also feels that industrial foreign language training is far superior to that provided by the schools.

The study conducted by Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby (1974) in England revealed that, among the foreign language graduates surveyed, dissatisfaction with the language training they had received in school was expressed. Respondents felt a need for greater emphasis on the spoken language, in particular. This emphasis on oral/aural skills correlates closely with a survey conducted in 1972 by the London Chamber of Commerce of the use made of foreign languages by various types of staff--exclusive of language specialists--in business firms (Lee, 1977/78). Respondents indicated that listening and speaking were the two skills required most frequently in their work, followed by reading and then writing.

Respondents to the study by Colquitt et al. (1974) also felt

that foreign language departments give "poor preparation" (fourth on a five-point scale) to their students; Merklein and Frenk (1974), however, found that 44 percent of undergraduate students in four southern states felt that their foreign language studies offered "good or very good" preparation for a professional career outside of teaching. Senior college respondents in South Carolina generally believe that the emphasis in their language courses "is balanced between developing a working competency and developing literary appreciation" (Morgenroth, Parks, and Morgenroth, 1975:12). The college departments themselves, however, "indicated that they would place greater emphasis upon commercial usage, if the business community wants them to do so." While such a response could easily be merely an artifact of the questionnaire, the attitude seems promising.

Alexander (1975:36), in his study of Kansas manufacturing firms, also found that respondents felt that "foreign language learning should be practical (less academic), relevant, and thorough." He goes on to cite Walser (1973:14): "Evidence . . . is pointing to the . . . reality that language training must become more occupationally based, integrated fully with the emerging con- of career education."

The implications of such findings for foreign language curricula in schools and institutions of higher learning seem obvious, and indeed there has been an encouraging trend in recent years to combine career or professional education with foreign language

skills, with a view both to international employment and to domestic employment (such as within the United States) where a number of residents are handicapped by limited majority language skills.

Walser, one of the foremost proponents of the career education/foreign language concept, has discussed the need for curriculum modifications on several occasions (e.g., Walser, 1973, 1974, 1978). Keesee (1973), Steiner (1974), Holschuh (1975), Johnson (1973), and Lippmann (1974) have all argued for and given compelling examples of the need for foreign language skills as ancillary skills. Jackson (1971), Potter (1971), Rassias (1972), Bomse (1973), and De Camp (1973) likewise have stressed the need for change in foreign language courses and departments. Harrison (1973) and Arnold (1973) have emphasized the importance of adequate career counseling for foreign language students. Hayden (1975), reporting on the International Education Project's Task Force on Language, lists a number of their recommendations to improve specialist language training. Of prime concern was not only measurement of proficiency, but also specification of competencies. Spiegelberg (1976) has argued for making foreign language courses more "meaningful, useful, interesting, and valuable."

Brod (1974) feels that the collective efforts of the foreign language teaching profession should be channeled into the dimensions of information, public awareness, and curriculum (p. 17). He feels that foreign language departments are well able to compete with commercial language schools, which have recently been enjoying

unprecedented popularity (cf. Marottoli, 1973; Wines, 1973; and Wilkins, 1976). He adds that he feels that, for a foreign language department, "there is no inherent conflict between its traditional role as inheritor of a humanistic discipline and its eventual new role in the service of a career-oriented market" (p. 17), a view echoed and amply substantiated by McKay (1977).

Brod further argues that foreign language departments, through traditional and non-traditional courses alike, are far better equipped than commercial schools to teach culture, the need for which, he claims, the international business community is quite aware. Often, however, there appears to be a great distance between "awareness" and actual practice. Potter (1977) and Fiske (1977) have, through newspaper coverage, brought the situation to the attention of a wider and more general audience, and Wilkins et al. (1977) have provided a bibliographical overview of the situation from the perspective of the LWOW study. An international banking officer in Chicago has spoken out recently about the lack of language and cultural training of American businessmen ("Increasing Need . . .," 1978). Twarog (1977) points out the need to make the general public more aware of the role of foreign languages in business and society. Rivers (1973), although not describing career-oriented language courses per se, nonetheless argues for meeting students' expressed needs in the foreign language curriculum through both skill specialization (i.e., not necessarily requiring students to master all four skills) and content modification.

Walser (1973) too, on the basis of an HEW feasibility study, concludes that "the goal of a bilingual/bicultural component in a career education program should be to develop foreign language capacity plus a saleable skill." One of the outcomes of the LWOW study was the development of "a model curriculum demonstration unit for each situation, integrating language study with cultural awareness and career objectives" (Arnett, 1976:16).

The Modern Language Association (MLA), the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages (ADFL), and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) are all taking an active interest in this matter and frequently publish articles pertaining to the topic. The MLA, in fact, conducted in 1974-75 (under contract with the U.S. Office of Education) a survey of career-related, community-related, interdisciplinary, and non-traditional foreign language offerings in two- and four-year colleges and universities in the United States (Buck, 1975).[9] Over sixty such courses were identified. Several of those programs have been described in Foreign Language Annals ("Descriptions of . . .," 1977), although more detailed versions of three of these programs had appeared earlier (Gaeng, 1974; Trendota, 1974; and Tamarkin, 1972). Resources in Education (RIE) is also an excellent source of information about specific programs and curricula. Newspaper classified sections, too, have yielded some interesting data as to the marketability of the "language-plus . . ."-trained person (Emmans, Hawkins, and Westoby, 1974; Wilkins and Arnett, 1976;

Savell, 1978; Petrello and Petrello, 1973; and Kirylak, 1973). Dill, Ladd, and Wollett (1975) present an extensive list of course goals, in particular values clarification, but also provide suggested learning activities, a bibliography, and a list of resources for teaching or employment information.

A number of descriptions of interdisciplinary programs which feature foreign languages as an ancillary skill have appeared recently. Merklein (1974) and Merklein and Cooley (1974) discuss several programs which combine a foreign language with international business, focusing on their own at the University of Dallas. Primeau (1975) identifies thirteen MBA programs which require one or more languages. Fryer (1975) and Joiner (1975) discuss the M.S. in International Business offered at the University of South Carolina since 1974 which features some study in a foreign country. Lesley (1975) looks at the other side of the coin at an interdisciplinary program for foreign university graduates entering the MBA program at the University of Southern California.

Roessler (1974) discusses the business courses in German offered by the American Graduate School of International Management (formerly the Thunderbird school), and points out the critical need for (and general lack of) good materials for these courses. Slessarev (1974) reviews the International Business option at the University of Cincinnati, which also includes language and cultural studies and a period of study abroad. Frautschi (1978), commenting that "vocational pragmatism has seemingly infected the liberal

arts" (p. 31), describes a recently instituted French/business undergraduate major at Pennsylvania State University. Middlebury College has organized a program of "extended majors" which combines study in a "substantive field" with the study of foreign languages. Many of the major field courses are taught in a foreign language rather than in English (Scully, 1977). Halvorson, Moniz and Nathan (1978) discuss the Multinational Corporate Studies (MCS) Program at a college in New Jersey. This program includes both a domestic and a foreign internship. Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University offers a course in intensive German for architects (Ferrari, 1973).

Kowalski (1974) has designed a course in Russian in response to the ever-increasing business and trade agreements between the United States and the U.S.S.R. Commenting on the lack of materials for the course, she observes that "the Soviets print much more pertinent material for the training of their specialists than has come out of our publishing houses" (p. 43). Davies (1977) discusses the increasing demand for specialized language courses in Sweden, and in another article (Davies, 1975) describes a degree program in International Economics at several universities in Sweden. Coveney (1975) outlines the several "language-plus" engineering programs at the University of Bath in England.

Champagne (1978:81) presents a syllabus for a "multidisciplinary language course in which students investigate problems in their interest area using a foreign language as the tool." A number of community colleges have instituted courses such as

"Spanish for Law Enforcement Officers" or "French Commercial Correspondence"; the efforts of one such college in this regard are outlined by Pilkenton (1975). The development of a program entitled "Applied Spanish for the Social Services" at Howard University in Washington, D. C., is summarized by Donahue (1976). A common theme in all these discussions, notably, is a lack of appropriate materials and of qualified instructors. While disturbing to present programs and program directors, this deficiency is almost heartening to present and future foreign language graduates! Although they do not describe specific programs, Gould (1973) and Karr (1973) present journalism and librarianship, respectively, as additional areas which can profitably be combined with language study.

The intent of these specialized courses is not simply to train students at the graduate, undergraduate, or continuing education level, but also to serve the business world itself, both in providing translation and/or interpreting services and in offering language and cultural training to corporate employees (Anderson, 1977; Elton, 1974). No doubt a fairly aggressive advertising and public relations campaign will need to be undertaken in this regard, though, to alter the great reliance businesses have traditionally placed on commercial language schools for such training. McKay (1977:145) feels that "the impetus for change will not come from business, or even government, but only from the foreign language profession itself," and of course not all of the foreign language profession is itself convinced of the need for change. Clearly not

all courses should reflect a specialized purpose since, as Anderson (1974:22) points out, "we . . . . run the risk of becoming a service discipline with little identity of our own." Schneider (1976:21) adds that "we must pass on to students the aesthetic and humanistic values inherent in the learning of any foreign language"; and, certainly, courses in literature or general purpose language must not be eliminated, since they too meet some students' needs exactly.

At the high school level, too, career education concepts can be blended with the foreign language curriculum. Beusch and DeLorenzo (1977) give examples of some of the activities taking place in the state of Maryland in this regard. Bigelow and Morrison (1975) also present ideas for coordinating the two areas. Lewis (1978) offers suggestions for accommodating teachers who may not feel comfortable with the idea of teaching an interdisciplinary course. Teachers at every level owe it to their students to prepare them for realistic expectations of the working world and to present the broadest possible range of options.

Summary

The combination of career education and foreign language training is of great value to both the business community and to the foreign language education profession. It fills an urgent need in both disciplines and may even lead to a far more enlightened American business presence around the world. Corporations may eventually acquire a cadre of employees far more sophisticated

linguistically and more aware interculturally than heretofore thought possible, and in doing so dramatically improve both their business and their public image.

LANGUAGES FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES (LSP)

A natural outgrowth of the combination of foreign languages and career education/occupational training has been the development of courses in Languages for Special Purposes (LSP). These courses are now being taught at many universities around the world as well as (and perhaps in particular) in training programs of all types. Probably the most popular variant of the LSP course is the English for Special--or Specific--Purposes (ESP) course, and within that domain English for Science and Technology (EST). This should not be surprising, given the preeminent position of the English-speaking world in science and technology. This in no way, of course, implies any intrinsic superiority of the English language or of its speakers over any other language or group in the world, but the dominance of English and English speakers in the scientific, technological, and business world cannot be denied. To keep pace with the rapid scientific and technological advances and, to be sure, with the ethnocentrism of many British and American companies, many employees of foreign companies--or local national employees of American companies--have learned (and/or been taught) English in varying skills, functional areas, and proficiency levels to equip them to perform their jobs.

Another important type of ESP program is the one geared to English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Designed both for foreign students coming to universities in which instruction is in English and as "service" courses in universities abroad, much has been written concerning the analysis of that segment of language and those specific skills with which the student will have to deal and about the most efficient means of teaching that language and those skills.

Two of the biggest problems in LSP training are adequate teaching staff and materials (Strevens, 1977). Since the great majority of LSP teachers are what Strevens terms "Arts-trained," they often fear displaying ignorance or making a mistake in front of their scientifically superior students. The English teacher does not, however, generally need any particular expertise in science or technology to teach EST (Drobnic, 1977). Todd-Trimble and Trimble (1977), moreover, point out that the Arts-trained teacher's literary studies have in fact developed skills in analysis--particularly at the discourse rather than the sentence level--which ordinarily are highly transferable to the EST field. Kapitanoff (1962:41 cited by McKay, 1977:44) denies the need for the teacher of technical Russian, for example, to actually be a scientist, although she stresses that a "broad, highly accurate and contemporary knowledge of basic sciences . . . is highly desirable." Schmitz (1970) feels that the English teacher equipped with some knowledge of technical subjects is superior to the technical specialist who would try to teach English. Ewer and Latorre

(1967) recommend the close collaboration of those in the specific disciplines with language course developers, and Coveney (1974) has provided a teacher's supplement to the student textbook as a teaching aid. Teacher training and retraining programs, too, are increasingly including components on LSP training.

Although the most obvious characteristic of language used in a highly specialized context is its vocabulary (Fries, 1945), the most highly technical vocabulary of a specialty field is generally left to the study of the specialized discipline itself, either academic or vocational. Then, too, ordinarily the technical lexicon does not present undue linguistic difficulty (Macmillan, 1971), since each term has a precise referent and generally a one-to-one correspondence with the term in the student's native language, if the term even exists there. Furthermore, purely technical terminology comprises the smallest component of lexical items in a scientific text (Collins, 1977).

Supporting this finding are the results of a lexical study conducted at Tehran University several years ago (Cowan, 1974; Inman, 1978). In an analysis of over 100,000 running words (comprising 4,178 individual lexical items) of scientific and technical prose, technical vocabulary constituted an average of 21 percent of the total sample, although the frequency of occurrence of technical vocabulary throughout the sample increased as the frequency of occurrence of individual lexical items decreased. Technical vocabulary includes words which are characteristic of a

particular discipline and which do not occur frequently--or at all--in the general language. Among the 1,079 lexical items occurring with greatest frequency, only 7 percent were technical words, whereas in the 1,080 least frequently occurring items (one occurrence each, actually), 37.5 percent were technical.

That stratum of vocabulary included in the LSP course, therefore, is the one generally referred to as subtechnical vocabulary (Cowan, 1974), academic vocabulary (Martin, 1976), or Fundamental Technical English (Salager, 1977).[10] This type of vocabulary occurs with high frequency across disciplines and overlaps with the "common core" of a language, although with a higher frequency than that found in the common core (cf. Cowan's [1974] comparison of frequencies in a specialized sample versus that in the Brown corpus [Kučera and Francis, 1967]). This lexicon is further characterized by multiple meanings, some of which become specialized in the context of the specialized prose. In the study at Tehran University mentioned above, subtechnical vocabulary accounted for approximately 70 percent of the total sample, and it occurred at approximately the same frequency throughout the sample (Inman, 1978). There seems to be no doubt, then, as to the need to focus on this type of vocabulary in LSP courses which will prepare students to receive additional education or training.

Communication among developers and practitioners has been a problem, too, resulting in a great duplication of effort and activities around the world. The appearance in 1977 of the English

for Science and Technology Newsletter, sponsored by the AID/NAFSA Liaison Committee, should contribute significantly to the information exchange, particularly concerning details of specific programs, so desperately needed in the field.[11] Also useful is the LSP Newsletter published by the Copenhagen School of Economics.[12]

LSP occupies an important role in corporate overseas training programs. While training of U.S.-national employees for work overseas does not appear to be a significant and substantive effort of U.S. multinational corporations, training of non-U.S. national employees at overseas locations is often a major aspect of international business ventures. In fact,

> This involvement [in international education] occurs sometimes at the behest of the host nations--which frequently request training programs for their own nationals as a quid pro quo for permission to operate in their territories--and, equally frequently, because the companies themselves find they get good returns on their investments in advanced training (Fulbright, 1977:139).

While this training is essentially technical in nature, language training is almost always involved as well; and it is, in fact, crucial to the timely accomplishment of corporate goals. Indeed, some business operations have not been successful or have been severely held back precisely because of a failure to consider adequately the language component of training during the planning phase of the operation.

Because corporate language policy is so important to the success of a company's overseas operations, it should figure significantly in the planning and implementation phases of those

operations. Frequently, however, the issues of language use and language training are among the last matters considered, even though subsequent training and standard business operations are predicated upon all employees' or trainees' ability to understand and communicate with one another. Early on, therefore, a thorough analysis of language and language training requirements must be made to avoid being forced hastily to append an inadequate period of language training to the firm's other training programs.

Both the technical and linguistic needs of the students or trainees must be accommodated in the development of employee training programs (Richterich, 1973; Moulin, 1975; Savard, 1977; and Mareschal, 1977, for example). Logistical factors and policy and procedural matters of the training effort must be weighed. The language in which to conduct training is central to planning the overseas effort, since all other considerations hinge on that one decision. Often program planners assume that "everyone must learn English," when in fact that may not be warranted at all. An analysis of the register of language appropriate for each type of job or task along with a functional job analysis or task analysis and an assessment of requisite proficiency level must be accomplished at the earliest stage of planning in order to predict the type and amount of training required and the language or languages of instruction.[13]

Other factors which must be considered include the mesh of language and technical training (i.e., whether they should be simultaneous, sequential, or overlapping), the extent to which LSP

will figure in the program, availability of instructors and teaching materials, location of training, and whether to undertake it as an in-house or a contracted effort. Actual course content and scheduling are also essential planning considerations for effective training, as training and job performance objectives must be coordinated with student/trainee entry levels and anticipated progress. Evaluation measures for student training and on-the-job performance must be proposed. Each potential training configuration must then be assessed for overall feasibility, efficiency, acceptability, propriety, cost-effectiveness, and intangible benefits such as the advantages to the host country of developing a work force skilled in a second language or proficient in certain other types of skills.

Even if training is contracted rather than conducted as an in-house effort, program managers must be aware of and have an appreciation of these types of considerations so that there may be effective and informed evaluation of proposals and monitoring of contractor performance. The comment about a language training contract that "the contract is . . . vague on language, and we have suffered as a result" is surely not unique.[14] Contract administrators, in fact, referring to this same program, freely admitted that the vagueness and generality of the language training sections of the contract were necessary because, "Frankly, no one knows anything about it." Clearly much time, effort, and money could have been better directed had improved and more enlightened planning

been done.

These program planning factors have been discussed by a number of training program designers and language professionals. Trim (1976) surveys program considerations specific to adult learners, including methods and the specification of course objectives. Mackay (1975) addresses the sociolinguistic, linguistic, psychological, and pedagogic factors which must be taken into consideration in planning and designing any LSP program. Bachman and Strick (1978) have applied certain principles of econometrics to their program requirements, leading to the quantifiability of needs and resources. In the guidelines for the selection of English language training (see fn. 1, above), considerations for establishing English language training programs are systematically discussed. Others who have offered detailed descriptions of LSP program development include Jones and Roe (1975), Jung (1978), Frederickson (1978), and Litwack (1978).

James (1974:88) advocates criterion-referenced language training and evaluation and proposes that "in effect there are only two relevant levels--adequate and inadequate." Beyond that, he feels that "insistence on levels of proficiency in such circumstances may be simply a side-effect of a desire for 'bilingualism' or 'near native' proficiency--goals as unnecessary as they are, for most students, unattainable." Wilkins and Arnett (1976:6-21), too, acknowledge that "proficiency should be equivalent to competency in performing a set of tasks in the target language."

In earlier days of LSP training, lexicon and syntax received the primary focus in analyzing the type of language to be taught (Cowan, 1974; White, 1974b; Chiu, 1972; Puangmali, 1976; and Lyne, 1975). Passages of specialized text were analyzed for frequency and range of occurrence and materials were developed which incorporated the most frequently occurring items (Cowan et al., 1974; Inman et al., 1974; Barnard, 1971; Ewer and Latorre, 1967; Ewer and Hughes-Davies, 1971, 1972; and Praninskas, 1972). More recently, however, analysis at the discourse level has been viewed with increasing importance and included in materials preparation in addition to individual high frequency items (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Widdowson, 1978).

Emphasis on the communicative function of language has led, too, to the development of a number of types of syllabus beyond the grammatical or structural or linguistic syllabus which for so long dictated what would be taught in foreign language courses (Shaw, 1977; Alexander, 1976). The situational syllabus was favored by some since it placed language in context instead of in isolation, but it has been criticized as not readily promoting transferability from one situation to another (Wilkins, 1972). The notional-functional syllabus (Johnson, 1977; Morrow, 1977) was felt to promote greater communicative competence, although Widdowson (1978) criticizes it by noting that it is still a list of forms, omitting discourse analysis. Still it appears a step in the right direction. Examples of courses which have been developed as a direct result of this

work are described by Johnson and Morrow (1977) at the University of Reading; and Candlin, Leather, and Bruton (1976) at the University of Lancaster, both in England. Indeed the doctor-patient relationship and ability to communicate, discussed by Candlin et al. is so important that, as Shuy (1974) has pointed out, the linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of the situation should not be considered as topics for EFL classes only.

Currie (1975), looking at recent syllabus developments, feels that EFL teaching in Europe is more closely linked to the communication approach, with a rejection of the linguistic selection of teaching items, than it is in the United States. Recent work in the Council of Europe has led to the development of the notional syllabus and the definition of a "threshold level" below which the learner cannot function successfully in the language (van Ek, 1975). The threshold level was originally developed for English, although Peck (1976) indicates that work is also proceeding on threshold levels for French ('le niveau-seuil'), Spanish, and German. The situational syllabus and the notional-functional syllabus, taking into account as they do actual language use (with attendant sociolinguistic and psychological considerations) may all be considered part of the broad specification of the "communicative syllabus" (Candlin, 1976; Stratton, 1977). Crucial to the development of this type of syllabus, clearly, is the analysis and specification of language use situations (Freihoff and Takala, 1974).

Numerous examples of specific programs in vocationally- or

occupationally-oriented LSP training could be cited. One such example is the three-week course for airline ticket personnel described by Coutts (1974). Rocklyn (1967) has experimented with self-instructional programs in Russian and Mandarin Chinese to train combat soldiers to elicit certain information from captured enemy troops. Perry (1976) has proposed a "systems approach" to second language learning for Canadian armed forces personnel which appears not unlike those programs developed by the Defense Language Institute and the Foreign Service Institute in the United States. Johnson (1971) discusses Aramco's efforts in teaching English in Saudi Arabia, commenting that the company's philosophy is that training must go beyond simply giving an employee the skills required on his specific job; it must attempt to impart new ways of thinking and reasoning and thus "develop the man to his maximum potential" (p. 57). Plastre (1977) presents a planning model for introducing "functional bilingualism" into Canadian business. Greco (1977) discusses the various language courses offered to certain employees of the European Common Market. Bianchi (1973) outlines the selection of linguistic material for a business ESP course in Germany. Friday and McLeod (1978) and Frederickson (1978) have described in detail the Telemedia program for employees of Bell Helicopter International in Iran.

Another important aspect of ESP has appeared in vocational training programs in the United States. Jacobson and Ball (1978) present guidelines for determining training objectives based on the

survival and life coping skills delineated by Northcutt (1976) in programs for those of limited English-speaking ability in the United States. Grognet, Robson, and Crandall (1978) and Wang, Savage, How, and Young (1978) have also discussed and demonstrated elements of adult vocational English training. This type of training is increasingly being offered by vocational/technical schools, government-sponsored job improvement programs (under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, or CETA), and community colleges; many banks, corporations, and service companies are offering this type of training to their employees as well.

Summary

Special purpose language training is a major component of foreign and second language teaching today. The work that is currently being done in this area around the world is sure to have an ever-increasing effect on foreign language curricula at all levels; and, as basic principles of course and program design are expanded and refined, and as communication among researchers and practitioners improves, increasingly sophisticated, efficient, and motivating courses should emerge.

The overall picture, then, of foreign languages and business, career education and foreign languages, and languages for special purposes training points to a necessarily increased pragmatism in foreign language education and concomitant increasing effectiveness of training thanks to heightened motivation and

desire to learn when the training is perceived to offer tangible results and real-world benefits. Foreign language training around the world today, while admittedly of a different orientation than has been felt to be traditional, is nevertheless alive and well and sure, from all indications, of an exciting future.

NOTES

[1]These guidelines were published following a conference held at the Center for Applied Linguistics on February 24 and 25, 1978, which assembled a number of professional specialists in English language teaching program design (see "Conference Will Discuss TESOL Program Standards," The Linguistic Reporter, Vol. 20, no. 4, January, 1978).

[2]FSI (Foreign Service Institute) language rating scales range from 0 to 5, 0 indicating no proficiency at all and 5 indicating native or near native proficiency. "S" and "R" prefixes indicate a speaking or reading capability.

[3]Personal communication, November 24, 1976.

[4]Cathy Almquist, Polaroid Language Coordinator, personal communication, April 6, 1978.

[5]The "Exporter's Kit" is available from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Domestic and International Business Administration, Washington, D. C. 20230.

[6]Mr. Robert Butler, speaking of the Hitachi Company; private conversation, June 21, 1978.

[7]Personal communication, Tehran, Iran, May, 1978.

[8]A recent study conducted by the Modern Language Association indicates that the nearly decade-long decline in foreign language enrollments is leveling off and that enrollments in languages such as Spanish, Arabic, and Greek are on the increase (Scully, 1978).

[9]The study was a corollary to MLA's 1972 survey. See Hecker (1973).

[10]Subtechnical vocabulary has been defined by Cowan (1974:391) as "context-independent words which occur with high frequency across disciplines." Examples of subtechnical words are 'system,' 'function,' 'process,' 'result,' etc. Martin and Salager, although employing different terminology, are referring to this same segment of the language.

[11]Karl Drobnic, editor. c/o English Language Institute, AdSA100, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon 97331.

[12]UNESCO ALSED-LSP Network and Newsletter, Fagsprogligt Center, Copenhagen School of Economics, Fabrikvej 7, DK-2000,

Copenhagen, Denmark.

[13]Register analysis is the analysis of variations of language according to use. These variations are determined by (1) function or purpose (e.g., description, narration, reporting of results); (2) mode (spoken or written language); (3) style (degree of formality); and (4) "province," or specialty according to subject matter (e.g., medicine, technology, etc.) (White, 1974a, 1974b). Probably the most common means of performing an analysis of register is by conducting frequency counts (both lexical and syntactic) of authentic sample texts.

Functional job analysis is the analysis of specific vocational tasks, particularly with regard to language, as to competencies and abilities which the performer must control. The level of control is also specified here, since absolute mastery of certain language skills in particular situations may not be necessary (Fine and Wiley, 1971; Fine, 1973; García-Zamor and Krowitz, 1974).

[14]Representative of the Office of the Project Manager, Iranian Aircraft Program, Aviation Systems Command, St. Louis, Missouri; personal communication, December 1, 1976.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

OVERVIEW

The research in this study is descriptive; i.e., it has sought to collect baseline data regarding corporate foreign language policies and training programs and, in some cases, to offer analytical or evaluative observations. Any manipulation of data beyond a description of the current situation must be left to future studies. Data for the study were collected by means of a questionnaire sent to the U.S. headquarters of 267 American firms reported to be doing business abroad.

SELECTION OF RESPONDENTS

Many U.S. corporations are involved, in one way or another, in international business. The Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries (Angel, 1975) lists over 4,500 companies, and the U.S. Department of Commerce reports more than 30,000 U.S. corporation affiliates abroad (1974, cited by Reschke, 1977). The type and degree of involvement of these companies abroad obviously varies a great deal, from a franchise to a subsidiary to a joint venture to a full-scale manufacturing or service enterprise. Likewise, these companies' concern for and interest and involvement in language matters varies greatly as well. In order to increase the

likelihood of obtaining usable responses, therefore, the study was limited to those companies, based on size and type of operation, likely to have an established language policy and ongoing training programs.

Initial plans for the study called for a sample of approximately 250 companies to be selected at random from a list of approximately 500 companies likely to be involved in language training. This sample of 250 companies was felt to be one which could be accommodated with the resources (both physical and financial) and time available. Actual sample size, however, was 267, obtained as detailed below.

Potential companies were selected from the Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries (Angel, 1975), Fortune 500 listings ("The Fortune . . .," 1977), Standard and Poor's Register of Corporations (1977), and the Overseas Employment Guides (Schultz, 1977). Additional firms were added on the basis of personal knowledge and acquaintances, as well as references from the Center for Applied Linguistics and the U.S. Department of Commerce.[1] This master list of approximately 500 firms was then stratified according to type of operation as indicated in each source list or directory; 28 categories of company were thus identified. Because these categories ranged in size from 2 to 37 companies, the final sample would have been biased in favor of the more numerous categories if half of each category had been randomly selected. In order to equalize representation,

therefore, a maximum of eleven companies per category was contacted. In those categories having eleven or fewer companies, all were included in the final sample. In those categories having more than eleven companies, eleven were selected at random. A total of 267 companies was thus selected to receive the questionnaire. The distribution of these companies across categories is shown in Table 1.

THE DATA GATHERING PACKAGE

Rationale and Contents

Data were gathered by means of a questionnaire mailed to the Personnal Officer at the U.S. headquarters of each selected corporation, or to that officer by name when it could be ascertained. As a professor of international business indicated, "If a company is inclined to respond at all, that person will see that the questionnaire is routed to the appropriate individual."[2] Also included in the package were two cover letters (Appendix A and B), a stamped, self-addressed envelope for returning the questionnaire.

Both cover letters were duplicated onto letterhead stationery from The University of Texas at Austin Foreign Language Education Center.[3] One letter was signed (each one personally) by this author; and the other, a letter of endorsement and request for cooperation, was signed jointly and personally by Dr. John G. Bordie, Director of the Foreign Language Education Center and by Dr. David DeCamp, Supervising Professor. Each letter stated specifically the

Table 1

Number of Companies Contacted Per Category

Category of Company	Number
Architecture, Engineering	11
Automotive	11
Aviation	11
Building Materials	11
Chemical	11
Communications	9
Computing	11
Financial	11
Foods, Agriculture	11
Glass, Abrasives	9
Heavy Construction	11
Heavy Machinery	11
Hotels, Restaurants	11
Machinery, Devices	11
Management Consultants, Attorneys, Accountants	11
Mining	11
Oil	11
Oil Service	11
Operations	11
Paper, Packaging	10
Pharmaceutical	11
Retail	3
Rubber	5
Scientific, Precision Instruments	11
Steel	6
Transportation	10
Transportation - Airlines	4
Transportation - Auto Rentals	2

purposes and potential advantages (to both the business world and the academic community) of the study and did not entreat respondents to "help a struggling graduate student," a poor ploy in the opinion of many research guides. Confidentiality of responses was assured, even though research indicates that it is not a significant factor in increasing response rate (Isaac and Michael, 1971:93). Although respondent identity was indicated in all but seven cases, anonymity of respondents has been strictly respected. An executive summary of the study was also promised to those indicating a desire to receive it. Each letter, moreover, was further personalized by individually typing the date, the inside address, and the salutation. Address labels were also typed, and commemorative stamps were used in order to add a personalized touch and to avoid giving an impression of a mass-produced commercial mailing (several respondents, in fact, expressed appreciation for having been selected!).

The questionnaire itself, discussed in detail below as to design and content, was typed and duplicated on both sides of 8½" x 11" pastel green bond paper so as to stand out from the predominantly white papers with which a respondent is apt to be inundated. While neat, well spaced, and orderly in appearance, it was still obviously an individual student's effort, implying a need for cooperation and assistance and sincerity of purpose. (A study of corporations done by the Marketing Services Division of Dun and Bradstreet, interestingly, yielded only an 8 percent response rate ["Vocational Education . . .," 1976].) A non-holiday

and non-vacation time frame for all mailings was chosen so as further to maximize response rate (Rummel, 1958).

The Pilot Study

A preliminary version of the questionnaire (Appendix B) was sent to 10 percent, or 26, of the companies in the total sample. One company was selected at random from each category after all three transportation sub-categories had been combined.

The first mailing was September 19, 1977, with a follow-up mailing three weeks later on October 11. Although two weeks is usually the recommended time between initial and follow-up mailings, a longer lag time was allowed to compensate for postal delays and internal routing (or perhaps rerouting).

The follow-up package was essentially the same as that sent in the original mailing except for a different text for the two cover letters (Appendix C). Both were again personalized with individually typed date, inside address, and salutation and with original signatures. Attached to the questionnaire in the follow-up mailing was an individually typed note (Appendix D) again stressing the importance of the study but offering several reasons for non-response to be checked. In this way information was obtained about non-respondents as well. Where the identity of an initial respondent could readily be determined, follow-up mailings were of course not sent. Twenty-one follow-up packages were mailed.

Nineteen of the 26 pilot questionnaires, or 73 percent, were returned. Only minor revisions appeared necessary and are pointed

out below in the full discussion of the design and development of the questionnaire.

The Main Study

The revised questionnaire (Appendix E) was prepared in the same way and in the same format as that described above. The cover letters were identical and were personalized in the same manner. The first mailing was November 4, 1977, with a follow-up mailing on December 1. This schedule also avoided major holiday vacation periods (Thanksgiving is not generally a significant disruption in a work schedule). Since the last pilot questionnaire was returned forty-four days after the initial mailing, the seven and one half weeks before the Christmas and New Year's holidays allowed for the main study were felt to be adequate. A total of 241 revised questionnaires was mailed initially and 158 were sent in the follow-up mailing. Because there were only minor revisions between the pilot and main questionnaires, responses from the pilot study have been included in the total sample size.

An individually typed note was again attached to all follow-up questionnaires, with only one change: the third choice, "not enough time," was changed to "questionnaire is too long" (Appendix F). While it was hoped that a too-long questionnaire would be inferred from a statement of insufficient time, not a single respondent checked it in the pilot study. It thus seemed preferable to state the intent of the item directly.

DESIGN OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire designed for this study had as objectives not only the collecting of information but also the imparting of information, or at least the transmitting of an awareness, through the structure, content and ordering of the questions. In order to encompass the three areas of (1) Foreign Languages for U.S. National Employees, (2) Foreign Languages for Non-U.S. National Employees, and (3) Translation and Interpreting, the questionnaire was necessarily fairly lengthy (indeed it ran to twelve pages). Although admittedly this length was a liability, to have shortened it would have rendered it virtually useless. In order to give a less lengthy and bulky appearance (and to save on postage costs), however, both sides of the page were used and numbering within each section started from "1". Questions were well spaced on a page so as to avoid a crowded, cluttered appearance. While some space undoubtedly could have been saved by arranging response choices horizontally, they were in every case presented vertically for consistency and ease in reading.

Questions were written with corporate viewpoints and objectives in mind and avoided as much as possible strictly linguistic references and terminology. The assumption implicit in the questionnaire, namely that language training in the international business environment is important, may not, however, always have accorded with those corporate viewpoints and objectives!

Questions were mostly of the selection rather than the supply

type, although in many cases the last choice listed was "other," allowing a respondent to supply an answer if none of the choices was appropriate. Many questions, too, were condensed to a tabular arrangement to save space. The advantage of the selection type of question is that responses are much easier to tabulate, even though occasionally bias may be introduced by overly structuring the respondent's thinking. Still, including a supply option with the other choices reduces that potential bias significantly.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections: a preliminary, general section requesting information about the nature and size of the respondent's business in general and about the nature and extent of the respondent's international business involvement, and three dealing with each of the major content areas. The questions in the preliminary section were useful not only for some possible cross-tabulations with subsequent responses, but they also served to put the respondent in a favorable frame of mind since these questions were nonthreatening, straightforward, and eminently answerable by anyone on the corporate staff. They offered the additional advantage of having nothing whatever to do with the substantive content of the questionnaire, in the event that the respondent regarded language matters negatively or would need significant input from other sources in order to respond appropriately. If initial questions pose no difficulty, the respondent is more inclined to proceed than if he encounters a stumbling block with the first item.

Part II, Foreign Language Training for U.S. Nationals Sent

Abroad, attempted initially to determine the importance of employees' language proficiency to corporate policy (Questions 1 to 4). Proceeding from the general to the specific, a number of detailed questions (5 through 11) were asked to elaborate on language training which the firm has indicated is necessary or desirable. Question 11 attempted to determine the extent to which Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) training figures in corporate-provided language instruction. This question, while substantively identical, was reworded after the pilot study because of overwhelming "No" responses. The examples given in the pilot version were thought perhaps to be too specific and thus to have biased responses, although there was not a marked difference in the proportion of "Yes" and "No" responses in the main study. Question 10 assesses the corporate commitment to language proficiency and language training by determining the actual amount of training provided.

Question 12 seeks a ranking of those languages currently most studied by the firms' U.S. national employees, with a possible cross-tabulation with Question 13b and Question I-4. Responses to this question can also provide a possible prediction of academic course requirements. Question 14 concerns the manner in which most of the firms' international business affairs are handled; the third and fourth options were included to ascertain the extent to which companies are aware of the importance of having an interpreter, where one is required, be a member of "their" team, and not someone provided by "the other side." Question 15 sought

(and obtained) some frank answers on language problems in international business.

Part III dealt with translation and interpreting and attempted first of all to determine precise translation needs by type of material or document. Questions 2 through 4 deal with interpreters--where and for what purposes they are required (or if not required, why not). Question 5 combines translation and interpreting and ascertains how these requirements are met (i.e., by type of individual, employee, institution, or agency). Question 6 again addresses the specific languages involved in translation and interpreting. Finally, Questions 6 to 8 have to do with a corporate language services staff; i.e., employees whose main job is dealing with foreign language matters. Responses to these questions are an indication of the employability in the business world of language or "language-plus" majors in a strictly language-related capacity.

Part IV, language training for non-U.S. national corporate employees, sought to explore virtually uncharted territory. No survey of this type is known to this author. Although questions concerning language and technical/vocational training were separated, on the basis of pilot study responses, so as to allow for situations where they are treated as distinct entities, a link between the two was implied. One question, in fact (#10), sought to determine the way in which the two mesh, if at all. Once having determined whether vocational/technical training is provided as part of a company's overseas operations (Question 1), the language of instruction by type

(i.e., nationality) of instructor is determined, along with a supply question seeking the reasons for the choice. These questions were included to check on corporate awareness of planning and conscious decision-making as to languages appropriate for use in their overseas operations. Questions 3 and 4 attempt to determine the size and extent of companies' language training efforts around the world. Questions 5 and 6 look at how many (in terms of percentages) and what type of non-U.S. national employees receive both technical/vocational training and language training. Percentages rather than absolute numbers were chosen here so as to make comparisons more meaningful. Question 7, asking by whom the company's trainees are employed, ascertains the type of operating arrangement a company has with or in the host nation.

Questions 8 through 23 examine the organization of the firm's language training programs and delves into the details of them. Questions 13 and 14 address contracted language training and the extent to which specifics such as the amount and types of training were stated in the contract (cf. fn. 14, Chapter 2). Questions 15 and 16 address LSP and the extent to which any meaningful analysis of job requirements has been incorporated into the language training program. Questions 17 to 19 concern teachers, teacher training, and materials, while Questions 20 and 21 look at both pre- and post-training student evaluation. Question 22 assesses the training commitment in terms of actual amount of training provided. Question 23, dealing with teacher-student ratio

in a typical class, is also an indicati[illegible] of the scope of the training since most ad hoc solutions are handled (to [illegible]cy) on a 1:1 basis, whereas group classes are characteristic of [illegible]ly regularly scheduled programs. Question 24 deals with the issue of restricting the lexical and syntactic input to which the student is exposed, exemplified by such experiments as "Caterpillar English" and the PIMO aircraft maintenance manuals.[4] Translation presumably would also be facilitated (or eliminated, according to Caterpillar) by reliance on a limited stock of lexical and syntactic items.

Question 25 offers a fairly extensive list of choices, as well as a supply slot, of problem areas experienced with overseas language training programs. Question 26, modified on the basis of pilot study responses to include "none" as a choice, seeks to determine the role that language training plays in planning corporate overseas operations; in other words, the real significance (or lack of it) accorded to language at the highest corporate level. The final question, #27, sought to inform as much as to obtain information. Ten associations, organizations, and institutions concerned with language and language training matters were listed, and respondents were asked simply to check those with which they had been in contact. Responses here again were an indication of how knowledgeable corporations are about the matter and how much effort they expend in seeking to provide quality training or services. The questionnaire concluded with an opportunity for the respondent to indicate if he or she wished to receive an executive summary of

the results of the study and approximately a half page left blank for additional comments.

DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Responses were coded and punched by the author and then processed, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), at the Computation Center at The University of Texas at Austin. Five cards per case were required. Respondents were each assigned an identifying code which was entered on all returned questionnaires and punched cards but which is nowhere evident in the results. In some cases categories of companies are singled out, but never individual firms by name. Frequencies were run for all 273 variables defined, and cross-tabulations run for selected variables. Since the vast majority of the responses were of the selection type, coding presented no problem. Supply type responses were tabulated manually, before any coding was done; multiple identical responses were treated as additional variables and were coded and punched accordingly. Isolated or unique responses were noted and integrated manually into the findings, as were narrative comments of respondents. Findings have been presented primarily in tabular form, consistent with those tables generated by computer processing, although narrative reporting has been appropriate in many cases as well. Only minimal pre-coding editing was necessary and it mainly involved collapsing similar or overlapping supplied responses into a single selection item. Editing, data definition,

coding, punching, and programming were all done by the author with consultation and advice from the Research and Computer Room staffs of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory and the Computation Center of The University of Texas at Austin.

In a few cases fairly lengthy letters discussing their language requirements and policies were received from respondents who felt the questionnaire format was perhaps too constraining or not directly suited to their particular situation. While not suitable for coding and hence inclusion into the statistical analysis, significant comments have been incorporated into the narrative reporting of results.

METHODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS

In addition to the two methodological assumptions presented in Chapter 1, two other assumptions were implicit in the research design for this study:

(1) Stratification of the population of corporations doing business abroad according to type of operation was valid and necessary in order to obtain meaningful data on corporate overseas language training programs. Complete random selection from the total population of U.S. firms operating abroad (if that population could even be determined) might very well have resulted in a high proportion of potential respondents not involved at all with language training programs, and would have biased responses

in favor of the largest company categories. Firms involved in, for example, manufacturing, services, basic industry, construction, mining, and petroleum are far more likely to be involved in foreign language training than those engaged in marketing, retailing, banking, insurance, or simple export-import. Great care needed to be exercised in selecting potential respondents in order to reach firms to which the questionnaire was applicable.

(2) The 80 percent response rate generally desired in experimental educational research was not necessary in this descriptive study. Earlier surveys cited in Chapter 2 reported response rates ranging from just over 20 percent to over 100 percent, depending on the persistence those researchers were able to employ. Factors affecting response rate include company apathy or indifference, inapplicability of the topic to corporate operations, non-availability of requested information at corporate headquarters, unreleasability of requested information at corporate headquarters, and lack or shortage of staff to complete the questionnaire. Data as collected have been analyzed and reported as reflective of that population responding.

LIMITATIONS

Selection of respondents involved a great deal of subjectivity due to the impossibility of determining the precise size and nature of the population universe (echoed by Wilkins and Arnett,

1976:5-48). Despite extensive attempts to discover which corporations actually have language training programs, the selection of companies from which the sample population was drawn rested as much on intuition as anything else, except for a few cases known to the author. Should it be possible to establish a total population, sampling could be done more scientifically and generalizations could more safely be drawn.

The length of the questionnaire (twelve pages) was undoubtedly responsible for some failures to respond, and a few respondents indicated that they had completed only those items which did not require extensive research. Nonetheless many more relevant questions could have been included; and a significantly shorter questionnaire, while more appealing to respondents, would have severely limited the usefulness of the instrument.

The use of a mailed questionnaire, while offering the advantages of efficiency and relative economy, still allows for potential misinterpretation of questions and possible inconsistencies in responses. The ideal solution is a number of personal interviews and an in-depth case study approach--as well as unlimited time and resources.

Using respondents within the U.S. corporate headquarters of a firm has the advantage of ready accessibility and easily obtainable information such as addresses, names, and titles of principal company officers. The disadvantage, of course, is that information

about field or overseas operations is often not available at corporate headquarters. To try, however, to determine names and addresses of prospective overseas contacts would be an extremely time-consuming and possibly futile task. Again this is a limitation which can only be resolved totally with ample time, considerable staff, and, most important of all, a sizable travel budget to make possible personal visits and interviews.

NOTES

[1]Personal visits to the International Division and the Director's office of the Center for Applied Linguistics, July 12-16, 1977; personal visit with Donald Hirsh and Peter Ryan, Office of Market Planning, U.S. Department of Commerce, July 13, 1977.

[2]Consultation with Dr. Calvin P. Blair, Professor, The University of Texas at Austin Graduate School of Business, April 28, 1977.

[3]University sponsorship was considered particularly important in view of the admitted shortcomings of the MLA informal letter survey (Hecker, 1973:4):

> . . . the subject is one that deserves further investigation, preferably by means of a scientifically constructed questionnaire addressed to a carefully selected sample of respondents. It is particularly important, moreover, that the questionnaire be distributed by an investigative agency using a name and letterhead likely to be widely known in the business and non-academic professional world (e.g., an international corporation, a federal agency, a foundation, or a leading university).

[4]"Labor Letter," The Wall Street Journal, March 13, 1973, p. 1.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS

RESPONSES

In the pilot study 19 questionnaires of the 26 sent were returned, for a response rate of 73 percent. Of these 19, 14 had been filled in either partially or completely, and the other five were returned not completed.[1] Reasons for not responding by these five were indicated, however, on the note which had been attached to the follow-up questionnaire (see Appendix D). In the main study, 165 of the 241 questionnaires sent were returned, for a response rate of 68.5 percent. Of these, 115 (47.7 percent of the total sample) were filled in either partially or completely. Combining the two studies, 184 of the 267 questionnaires (68.9 percent) were returned. Of these, 129 were completed, either fully or partially, for an overall usable response rate of 48.3 percent.

All 55 returned non-responses provided reasons, as in the follow-up of the pilot study, for their declining to participate in the study. These reasons can, because of the numbers obtained, be generalized fairly safely to the other non-respondents. A few companies declined to complete the questionnaire but sent lengthy, detailed letters describing and discussing their language

policies and programs. While comments, where appropriate, have been included in the narrative report of results, no quantified data from these letters have been extrapolated, since comments generally were not consistent with the format of the questionnaire. In terms of numbers, therefore, letters were classified with the returned but noncompleted questionnaires. The distribution of responses by category of company is shown in Table 2.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

General Information

Most responding corporations had between one thousand and fifty thousand employees and reported annual revenues of between $100 million and $10 billion. Figures 1 and 2 depict company size in graphic form.

Most companies do the majority of their business domestically, i.e., within the United States: 64.3 percent of the companies indicated that over 50 percent of their business is domestic.

The greatest amount of international business for this sample of respondents is currently being done in Western Europe, followed by the Middle East, Central and South America, and Canada. Table 3 depicts the distribution of business done around the world.

Most companies (74) listed marketing as the primary nature of their international operations, followed by

Table 2

Distribution of Responses by Category of Company

	No. Completed Questionnaires Returned	No. Non-Responses Returned	Total No. Questionnaires Returned	No. Questionnaires Sent
Architecture, Engineering	3	1	4	11
Automotive	6	3	9	11
Aviation	6	1	7	11
Building Materials	3	3	6	11
Chemical	5	2	7	11
Communications	5	2	7	11
Computing	8	1	9	11
Financial	2	2	4	11
Foods, Agriculture	7	2	9	11
Glass, Abrasives	3	0	3	9
Heavy Construction	7	2	9	11
Heavy Machinery	6	2	8	11
Hotels, Restaurants	4	4	8	11
Machinery, Devices	6	3	9	11
Management Consultants, Attorneys, Accountants	5	3	8	11
Mining	5	2	7	11
Oil	6	1	7	11
Oil Service	7	2	9	11
Operations	8	2	10	11
Paper, Packaging	7	0	7	10
Pharmaceuticals	3	1	4	11
Retail	2	0	2	3
Rubber	4	0	4	5
Scientific, Precision Instruments	4	3	7	11
Steel	1	3	4	6
Transportation	2	3	5	10
Transportation - Airlines	3	1	4	4
Transportation - Auto Rentals	0	0	0	2
Unidentified	1	6	7	0
Totals	129	55	184	267

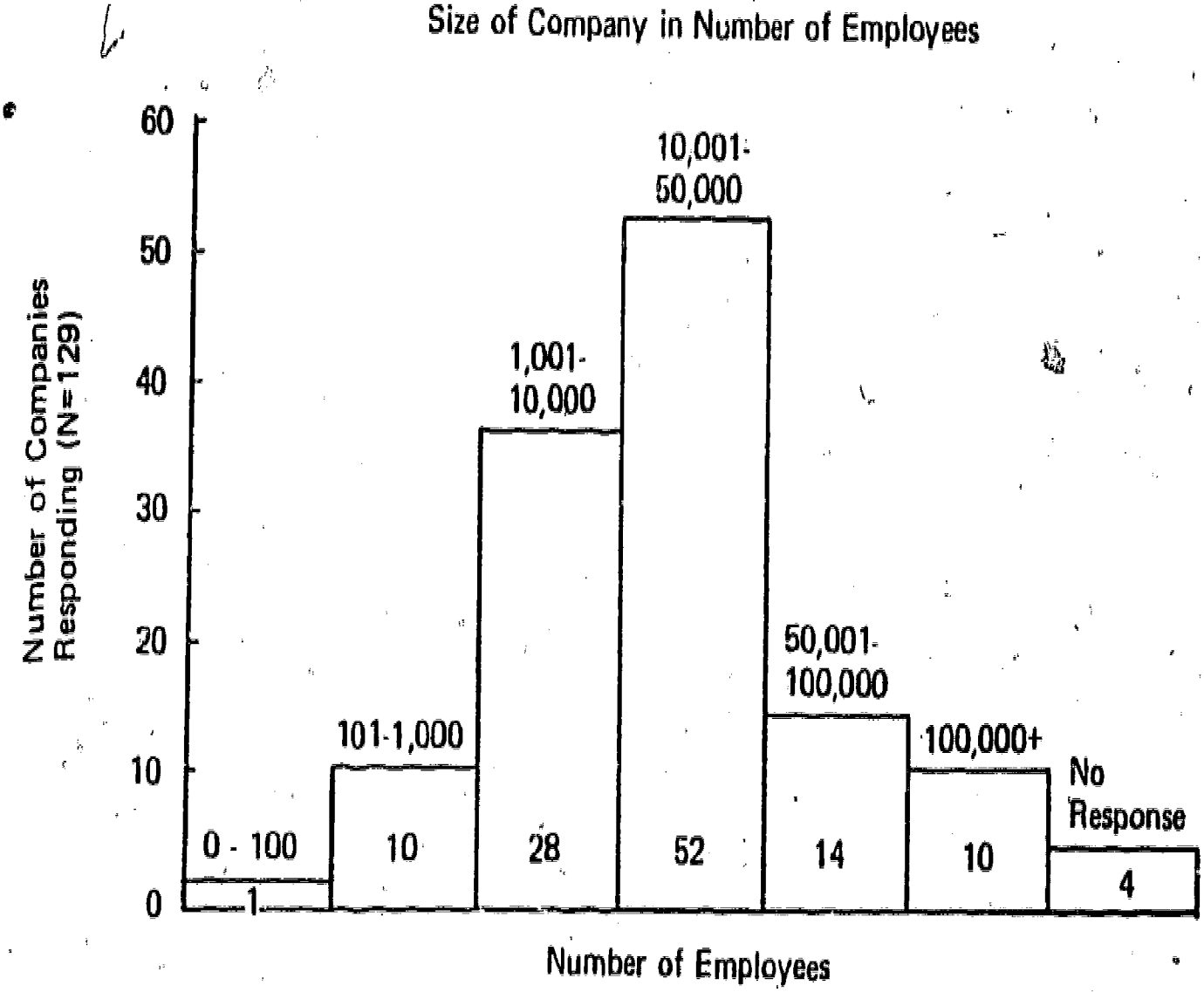

Figure 1

SIZE OF COMPANY IN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES

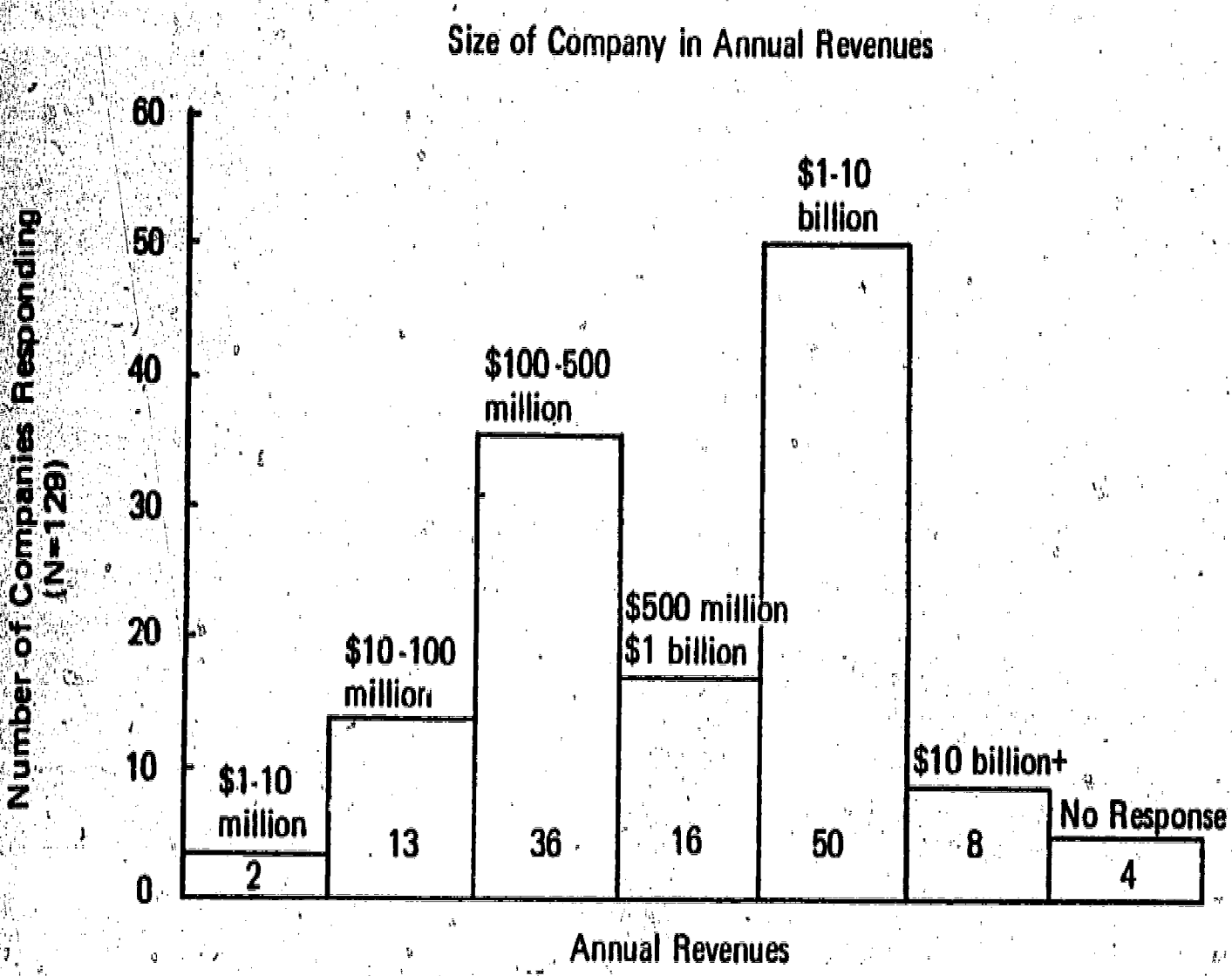

Figure 2

SIZE OF COMPANY IN ANNUAL REVENUES

manufacturing (58), service (53), extraction/processing of natural resources (23), and advising/training a foreign company or government (5).[2]

Table 3

Locations of International Business

Geographical Area	Position by Average Rank	Reported Rankings 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9[a]	0[b]
Western Europe	1	54	21	11	6	-	-	-	1	7	29
Central, South America	2	15	29	28	7	8	3	-	-	6	33
Canada	3	12	17	19	10	9	6	2	1	5	48
Middle East	4	27	13	5	14	13	10	2	3	6	36
Far East	5	7	16	19	23	9	1	3	-	6	45
Africa	6	3	6	6	13	15	16	8	1	5	58
Eastern Europe, Soviet Union	7	2	-	1	6	6	13	9	9	4	79
India	8	-	1	1	1	6	4	9	15	3	89

[a]Checked but not ranked.

[b]Left blank.

Foreign Language Training for U.S. Nationals

Language ability, as a criterion for selection of personnel for overseas assignments, is scarcely considered by companies doing business internationally. The primary criterion is technical ability,

followed by the ability to adapt to a new environment. Previous overseas experience was in third place, and language ability ranked fourth of the four criteria listed. Distribution of responses is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Criteria for Selecting U.S. Nationals for Overseas Assignments

Criterion	Reported Rankings						
	1	2	3	4	5	6[a]	0[b]
Technical ability	108	6	2	-	-	2	11
Ability to adapt to new environment	4	58	26	15	-	3	25
Previous overseas experience	2	32	39	24	1	1	30
Language ability	2	8	30	45	9	1	34
Potential[c]	3	-	1	1	-	-	125
Experience[c]	3	2	2	1	1	-	120

[a]Checked but not ranked.

[b]Left blank.

[c]Supplied responses; hence small number responding.

Of the types of training employees receive before they are sent abroad, however, language received the greatest number of responses, 71 (55 percent). Following language training were technical training, 56 (43 percent); cultural training, 49 (38

percent); and managerial training, 45 (35 percent). Twenty-one companies (16 percent) indicated that no training is provided in preparation for an overseas assignment. There did not appear to be any significant differences in these responses from one broad overseas operating functional area (i.e., marketing, manufacturing, service, extraction/processing of natural resources, or advising/training a foreign company or government) to another. Table 5 shows the comparison of total responses by percentage to each of the five categories of international operation.

Table 5

Type of Pre-Assignment Training Provided Employees Going Overseas by Type of Overseas Operation

Type of Training	Overall Percent[a]	Marketing	Manufacturing	Service	Natural Resources[b]	Advise/Train[b]
Language	55	65	71	53	39	40
Cultural	38	43	43	34	48	20
Technical	43	45	40	47	17	20
Managerial	35	35	31	38	26	0
None	16	11	7	7	30	20

[a]Multiple responses account for totals greater than 100.

[b]Percentages are affected by smaller numbers of respondents in these two categories: 23 in Natural Resources and 5 in Advising/Training a Foreign Company or Government.

Despite this apparent commitment to language training, however, only a few companies indicated that their language policies included a required foreign language proficiency. The

majority stated that it was "desirable but optional" or that there was no official policy, or simply that it was not required. Table 6 shows the distribution of responses to the language policy question. Of those few companies which required a foreign language proficiency of their employees, 39 percent felt that a "working knowledge" of the language was the degree of proficiency required, across all classifications of employees. Thirty percent required total fluency; and 31 percent, minimum ability. For key personnel, however, 44 percent stated that "total fluency" was required. In every case, speaking received priority over reading and writing as the skill to be emphasized.

Table 6

Company Language Policy

Classifications of Employees	Foreign Language Proficiency							
	Required		Not Required		Desirable but Optional		No Official Policy	
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
All employees	10	7.8	22	17.1	37	28.7	32	24.8
Key personnel (upper level management)	18	14	18	14	48	37.2	17	13.2
Middle management	13	10.1	14	10.9	48	37.2	16	12.4
Technicians[a]	4	3.1	17	13.2	37	28.7	20	15.5
Instructors[a]	9	7	11	8.5	22	17.1	20	15.5
Clerical, administrative personnel[a]	3	2.3	13	10.1	21	16.3	19	14.7

[a]A number of respondents commented that these classifications of employees are not sent overseas; hence the smaller numbers.

Details relating to a necessary or desirable foreign language proficiency were examined in Questions 5 through 11. In most cases, language proficiency is obtained by training which is provided by the company (i.e., performed at company expense), and it is almost always contracted with a commercial language teaching organization or a school or university. The school mentioned most frequently was Berlitz, although Inlingua was mentioned often as well. Only 13 respondents indicated that training was performed in-house, taught by regular language instructors who were also company employees. The training is generally performed in the United States, although some respondents commented that training might begin in the United States and be continued in the country of assignment. Another felt that attempting to sandwich language training in with all the other demands on employees' time before departure was futile, and that, in addition, overseas training was "cheaper and better" than that available in the United States. Language training generally takes place at the premises of the contractor, but sometimes, too, at the office or plant. Training generally takes place during regular working hours rather than on the employees' own time. Responses to Questions 5 through 9 are shown in Tables 7 through 11.

Responses to Question 10, concerning the average length of training, varied widely. Several respondents commented that the amount of training depends on the individual: the proficiency he is expected to attain, the language being studied, and the

amount of time left before departure. Several responded "unknown." One responded, "Whatever amount is necessary, up to 100 hours." Overall training appeared to be of about 100 hours' duration and spread over 4 to 8 weeks, although several described the approximately 200-hour, 4-week total immersion programs of the commercial schools. A number, too, indicated that training was spread over several months; and many, unfortunately, provided incomplete or inadequate information on which to base a trend. The 100 hours reported in earlier studies, however, does not appear to have been significantly modified.

Table 7

Means by Which Employees Obtain Language Proficiency

Means	Number	Percent
Company provides instruction	74	57.4
Prior school or military training	38	29.5
Previous residence abroad	37	28.7
Family associations	35	27.1
Employee required to obtain own instruction	9	7.0

Table 8

Methods by Which Companies Provide Language Training

Method	Number	Percent
Contracted with private organization	77	59.7
In-house: regular language instructor, company employee	13	10.1
Contracted with school or university	11	8.5
In-house: non-language teaching company employee	5	3.9
Private individual	4	3.1

Table 9

Location of Language Training

Location	Number	Percent
In the United States	72	55.8
In the foreign country	45	34.9
In a third country	3	2.3

Table 10

Actual Location of Instruction

Location	Number	Percent
Contractor's premises	75	58.1
Office or plant	29	22.5
Employee's home	15	11.6
University or school	9	7.0

Table 11

When Training Takes Place

Time	Number	Percent
Regular working hours	71	55.0
Employees' own time	36	27.9

Question 11, concerning LSP training, received an overwhelming negative response: 73 (56.6 percent) "no" to only 13 (10.1 percent) "yes" responses, and 43 (33.3 percent) were left blank. One respondent stated that "general language is taught, and they 'pick up' the specific." Two respondents offered "cultural training" as an example of LSP. One can only speculate as to the effects on motivation, interest, and success which LSP might have on language courses for businesspeople (cf. Strevens, 1971); this clearly is an area requiring education on industry's part.

In terms of those languages most studied by employees, Spanish was ranked as the most popular. Others ranking high on the list were French, Arabic, Portuguese, and German. Italian, Dutch, and Indonesian were each specified by several firms as "other" languages studied. A ranking of languages studied (those checked at least five times) is shown in Table 12.

Most companies felt that a foreign language proficiency for their U.S. national employees is more important in some areas of the world than others. Not surprisingly, these areas correlate quite closely with the languages currently most studied by employees but less so with the primary locations of overseas business reported in Table 3. No doubt the high ranking of Western Europe and Canada as locations of overseas business accounts in large part for this lack of correlation. The rankings of areas of the world where companies perceive a foreign language proficiency to be particularly

important are shown in Table 13.

Table 12

Languages Most Studied by U. S. Nationals Going Abroad

Language	Position by Average Rank	Reported Rankings 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9[a]
Spanish	1	36	22	4	1	1	-	-	-	18
French	2	22	18	11	2	2	-	-	-	12
Arabic	3	11	1	3	5	3	-	-	-	5
Portuguese	4	5	14	10	7	1	1	1	-	7
German	5	8	12	14	7	2	1	-	-	8
Persian	6	4	4	2	2	1	2	1	-	-
Japanese	7	2	1	3	5	4	2	1	-	3
Greek	8	-	-	2	-	3	1	1	-	-
Russian	9	-	-	3	1	2	-	-	2	1

[a]Checked but not ranked.

The majority of business dealings, however, are conducted in English. Only 17 percent of the companies responded that Americans speak foreign languages in the United States in an international situation, and only 35.7 percent do so abroad. Most companies (73.6 percent) report that their foreign contacts and representatives speak English in the United States business environment, and 79 percent report that they use English abroad. Companies report minimal use of interpreters, although the number of companies responding to these items was low. Of those responding, however, 22 reported that their company hires the interpreters both in the

United States and abroad, as opposed to 10 who reported that the foreign contact hires the interpreters in the United States, and 16 who indicated that the foreign contact does so abroad.

Table 13

Areas Where a Foreign Language Proficiency Is Perceived as Important

Geographical Area	Position by Average Rank	Reported Rankings 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9[a]
Central, South America	1	25	19	2	1	-	1	-	-	5
Middle East	2	14	2	9	4	-	-	-	-	-
Western Europe	3	13	16	7	2	-	1	2	-	2
Far East	4	5	3	3	3	3	2	1	-	2
Eastern Europe, Soviet Union	5	3	1	6	1	2	-	-	2	-
Africa	6	3	5	2	1	2	3	1	1	-
Canada	7	1	-	4	3	-	1	-	6	-
India	7	1	-	2	-	2	1	5	-	-

[a]Checked but not ranked.

A majority, 62.8 percent, felt that the international aspects of their companies' business were not hindered by language problems. Less than one-third (27.9 percent) responded that their international business did suffer from language problems; 2.3 percent felt they did not know (a supplied answer); and 7 percent did not respond. Many commented, however, that communication is not precise, that details and nuances of meaning are missed even though all parties think they understand each

other, and that their business and daily operations could be improved with greater language capabilities. Several observed that the language problem means that more time is required for negotiations and business dealings, and that efficiency suffers as a result. Others mentioned the difficulty in establishing rapport and a "limited opportunity to entertain and socialize." Several pointed out the difficulty of locating a general manager candidate with a foreign language proficiency, as well as the need for employees with "more foreign technical language capability." One respondent observed that "each year the problem is less and less, as more foreign nationals become more capable in English."

Translation and Interpreting

Companies involved in international business reported a fairly significant need for translation, the greatest need being in translating correspondence from a foreign language into English (56.6 percent). Promotional literature and advertising from English into a foreign language ranked second overall (36.4 percent), not surprising in view of the dominance of marketing in companies' reported overseas operations. Following those two categories were correspondence from English into a foreign language, brochures and technical manuals from English into a foreign language, and instructional materials from English into a foreign language, each 32.6 percent. Table 14 shows the translation requirements of the surveyed firms. Just over 11 percent reported that they had no need

for translation at all.

Table 14

Translation Requirements

From a Foreign Language into English	Percent	From English into a Foreign Language	Percent
Correspondence	56.6	Promotional literature, advertising	36.4
Financial Reports	22.5	Correspondence	32.6
Brochures, technical manuals	19.4	Brochures, technical manuals	32.6
Instructional materials	17.1	Instructional materials	32.6
Journal, professional articles	16.3	Financial reports	17.1
Promotional literature, advertising	14.7	Journal, professional articles	11.6
Contracts	9.3	Contracts	9.3

Most respondents reported that they had no need for interpreters (nearly 35 percent); 24 percent stated that interpreters were needed both overseas and in the United States; 22.5 percent, overseas only; and 7 percent, in the United States only. This lack of need was attributed by 52.7 percent of the companies to all parties' speaking English (only 17.8 percent reported that none

were needed because all spoke the foreign language). Where interpreters are needed, they are required primarily for matters involving professional and technical uses of language (43.4 percent) and for top-level negotiations (27.9 percent). Only 16.3 percent reported a need in daily operations and 11.6 percent for social and conversational needs.

Translation and interpreting needs are met, in general, by company employees whose main job is in a non-language area, illustrating the employability of the "language-plus" trained person. Table 15 shows in detail how companies handle their translation and interpreting requirements.

Table 15

Means by Which Translation and Interpreting Requirements Are Met

Translation	Percent	Interpreting	Percent
Company employees, main job non-language	40.3	Company employees, main job non-language	38.8
Commercial agency	34.1	Private professional interpreter	12.4
Company employees, main job language area	24.0	Company employees, main job language area	11.6
Private professional translator	15.5	Commercial agency	11.6
Private individual	10.9	Private individual	11.6
Provided by other party	5.4	Provided by other party	7.0
School or university	3.1	School or university	0.8

The languages most involved in translation and interpreting correspond fairly closely with the languages most studied and with the ranking of countries where companies felt a foreign language proficiency to be important. Again there was no significant correlation with those countries where most of the international business is done. Table 16 shows those languages which respondents ranked from first to fifth place, although the number of firms responding to this question was small. The majority, in fact, left it blank, with several commenting that they had insufficient information to rank, or that no statistics were kept since the matter was not of sufficient priority to their firm.

Only seventeen firms (13.2 percent) reported that they employed persons within the United States whose primary job is dealing with foreign language matters; of these, 14 were reported as foreign language experts and only 3 were reported as experts primarily in technical fields and secondarily in foreign languages. These people's proficiency was attributed mainly to their having lived abroad or to their academic training. Personal or family contacts ranked third. This should not be surprising, since an organization which wishes to hire persons skilled in foreign languages will no doubt seek language experts for those positions rather than someone who is primarily skilled in other areas. What is significant is the small number of companies reporting such employees, indicating the extremely limited market for the

foreign language major in private industry.

Table 16

Languages Involved Most in Translation and Interpreting

Translation		Interpreting	
Language[a]	Position by Average Rank[b]	Language[a]	Position by Average Rank[b]
Spanish	1	Spanish	1
French	2	Persian	2
Persian	3	Arabic	3
Arabic	4	French	3
German	5	Japanese	5
Portuguese	6	German	6
Japanese	7	Portuguese	7
Russian	8	Russian	7

[a]Languages ranked by more than five companies.

[b]Includes rankings from first to fifth place.

Language Training for Non-U.S. National Employees

Responses to this section, after the initial questions, were considerably lower than throughout the rest of the questionnaire. One may hypothesize several reasons for this decreased response:

(1) Companies are involved in this aspect of foreign languages to a lesser extent that those aspects covered in the previous sections of the questionnaire.

(2) The corporate headquarters is not as aware of company operations and policies overseas as it is domestically. Several respondents indicated that they had had "difficulty" with Part IV, or had left a good bit of it blank, because to have responded properly would have required more research than they were willing or able to undertake.

(3) Companies are involved in so many different training programs around the world that to try to mold their characteristics into a single questionnaire format was not feasible.

(4) Respondents may have tired of completing the questionnaire and may have omitted the last section, particularly if information was not immediately or readily available.

(5) Respondents may have been reluctant to report details of less than optimal or marginally successful programs.

A good bit of valuable information was collected, but overwhelming trends were not apparent. Findings have been reported

and must be interpreted with caution because of overall smaller numbers.

A majority of companies (59.7 percent) reported that they do in fact conduct vocational or technical training programs for non-U.S. national employees as part of their overseas operations. Generally speaking, at least half the responding companies in each category reported that technical or vocational training is provided to their non-U.S. national employees. Respondents in only two categories of company--Steel and Transportation--reported no such training; in three others--Automotive, Management Consulting, and Mining--less than 50 percent of the companies provide training. The locations of these programs, which respondents were asked to supply, encompassed the whole world. No one area appeared dominant. The primary language of instruction of technical/vocational training was reported to be English for two categories of instructor (U.S. nationals and third country nationals), although local nationals teaching technical/vocational subjects in the native language of the students (and their own native language, too, of course) outranked local nationals teaching in English. Table 17 shows the language of instruction according to the nationality of the instructor.

The most frequently cited reason for conducting training in English was that, since English is the corporate language, all company business is done in English. Other reasons reported were

that all technical and training materials are in English and that often equivalent technical terminology does not exist in other languages. Other justifications given were that the instructors do not know the foreign language and that instruction in English is a foreign government or contractual requirement, since a knowledge of English can serve to enhance an employee's career potential. The predominant reason given for conducting training in the students' native language was that it is, after all, the students' native language and therefore the medium through which they can most readily receive training.

Table 17

Language of Instruction of Technical/Vocational Training

Type of Instructor	Language of Instruction, Percent		
	English	Native Language of Students	Other Language
U. S. Nationals	42	5	0
Local Nationals	25	35	2
Third Country Nationals	23	9	2

Companies were almost evenly divided as to whether or not they provide language training to non-U.S. national employees or trainees: 42 percent responded affirmatively and almost 46 percent responded negatively. Of the companies reporting that they provide technical/vocational training, 57 percent also provide language training, although the language training is not necessarily a

component of the technical training phase of employee development. Four categories of company reported no language training: (1) Architecture, Engineering; (2) Mining; (3) Oil Service; and (4) Airlines. In virtually all cases, English was the language specified in which training was provided; the only exceptions were French in Belgium, Spanish in South America, and Hebrew in Israel. Table 18 shows the distribution of technical/vocational and language training provided to non-U.S. national employees by category of company.

Responses to the question concerning the number of language training programs operated around the world were too few to lead to any meaningful conclusions. A number of respondents indicated that such information was unknown. Nor can the percentage of employees within companies receiving technical/vocational training and/or language training be determined precisely. A number of respondents indicated that no record is kept of the numbers of individuals trained, and the majority of respondents checked 0 as the number of employees trained, despite earlier affirmative responses. Respondents were not, obviously, adequately informed about training program details. Responses to this question overall were spotty, with the "1 to 25 percent" increment receiving the next highest number of responses. Table 19 shows the percentages of classifications of employees receiving technical/vocational training and/or language training. Most of the personnel being trained are employees of the corporation itself, with only a few employed by

Table 18

Companies Offering Technical/Vocational Training and/or Language Training by Category of Company

Category of Company	+ Tech./Voc. Training[a]		- Tech./Voc. Training		Total No. Companies Responding
	+ Lang. Tng.	- Lang. Tng.	+ Lang. Tng.	- Lang. Tng.	
Architecture, Engineering	0	2	0	1	3
Automotive	1	1	0	4	6
Aviation	1	2	0	3	6
Building Materials	2	1	0	0	3
Chemical	1	2	1	1	5
Communications	2	1	1	1	5
Computing	4	1	0	3	8
Financial	1	0	1	0	2
Food, Agriculture	6	0	0	1	7
Glass, Abrasives	1	1	0	1	3
Heavy Construction	1	3	0	3	7
Heavy Machinery	1	3	0	2	6
Hotels, Restaurants	2	0	0	2	4
Machinery, Devices	4	0	1	1	6
Management Consultants, Attorneys, Accountants	1	0	1	3	5
Mining	0	2	0	3	5
Oil	3	1	2	0	6
Oil Service	0	3	0	4	7
Operations	4	2	0	2	8
Paper, Packaging	1	3	0	3	7
Pharmaceutical	3	0	0	0	3
Retail	1	0	0	1	2
Rubber	3	1	0	0	4
Scientific, Precision Instruments	1	1	1	1	4
Steel	0	0	1	0	1
Transportation	0	0	1	1	2
Transportation - Airlines	0	2	0	1	3
Transportation - Auto Rentals	0	0	0	0	0
Unidentified	0	1	0	0	1
Totals	44	33	10	42	129

[a]The "+" symbol indicates that a company provides training; the "-" symbol indicates that a company does not provide training.

a host nation firm or by the host government.

Table 19

Classifications of Non-U. S. National Employees Receiving Training, by Percent

Employee Classification	Technical/ Vocational Training	Language Training
Upper level management	20.2	20.2
Middle management	28.7	29.5
Technicians	35.7	14.7
Laborers	10.1	3.9
Instructors	13.2	6.2
Clerical, administrative personnel	17.8	12.4

In most cases an individual's job determines whether or not he will be selected to receive language training. In most cases, too, language training and vocational/technical training are considered as separate entities, either conducted simultaneously or sequentially, with language training preceding technical/vocational training. Training is most often conducted in the foreign country itself. Language training is generally performed under contract with a commercial language teaching organization, as it is for U.S. national employees, although respondents supplied the names of more different contractors than they did when asked about

training U.S. national employees. The second most frequent means of providing language training was to conduct it in-house using company language teaching employees as instructors.

More yes than no responses were received to the question concerning contractual specification of the amount and types of training to be provided, but those yeses constituted a response rate of only 17 percent. Twenty-one percent responded to the question as to whether more than one language training contractor had been involved in the same programs, and responses were nearly evenly divided, with slightly more affirmative than negative responses. Reasons cited ranged from maintaining a competitive spirit among contractors to having varying requirements at different times to having too many students for a single contractor to handle.

The type of language taught in these company-sponsored programs was characterized as both general and specialized by 17 percent of the respondents. "General only" was chosen by 12.4 percent, and specialized alone by 2.3 percent. Although special purpose language instruction appears to be more prevalent in these training programs than in those for Americans going overseas, improvement could be made in an awareness of the value of LSP training and then in its implementation in actual programs. This same lack of awareness is evident in determining the content of language training: ranking highest were the individual skills (i.e., reading, speaking, understanding, and writing) required by

a person's job and the level of proficiency acceptable or required (17 percent each). The professional level of a person's job ranked third (11 percent), and the functional area of a particular job ranked fourth with only 7 percent.

Language teachers, and specifically English teachers, tend to be in fact trained English teachers, not necessarily native speakers of English, with no particular technical expertise, and hired locally. The next most frequent type of instructor is a trained English teacher, a native speaker of English with no particular technical expertise, hired in the United States and sent abroad. Most companies indicated that a teacher training program is not a component of their or their contractors' langauge teaching program.

Instructional materials are most often chosen from readily available commercial materials, although also common is to have individual teachers assemble or develop materials as needed. A few companies indicated that the materials had been custom tailored for their programs by materials development experts.

Respondents were almost evenly divided as to whether students are tested to determine their entry level qualifications, with slightly more responding no than yes. The most common means of evaluating students' attained proficiency is on-the-job performance, but interviews and test scores are also used to some extent.

Hard data concerning the average length of language training are again not available. In general, though, the length of training

time indicated by respondents was considerably longer than that reported for Americans going abroad. Periods of 6, 12, and even 24 months are apparently not uncommon. Company policy appears, then, to be one essentially of lip service to a foreign language capability for American personnel going overseas but to a genuine commitment to it for local national employees.

The responses on teacher-student class ratio indicate, as expected, a formal classroom arrangement: approximately one-third of those companies responding checked 1:10 and 1:5 (each), and just under one-third checked 1:1.

Very few companies (11 percent) indicated that they had attempted to adapt the language of technical materials which non-U.S. national employees must use by limiting or simplifying the language of those materials. Of those who had tried it, most felt that it had been successful. Those who had not tried it felt that it would be too costly, that there was no company support for it, or that they were not interested in "creating the wheel twice."

Most respondents (34) completing Question 25 felt that they had experienced no significant problems with their overseas language training programs. Several (only 9) felt that there was not enough time overall, in terms of months or weeks, allocated to language training. The other choices were all ranked in various positions, but so spottily as to make conclusions impossible. Interestingly enough, 64 percent (35 percent of the total sample)

of the respondents to the question on the role which language training had played in planning their company's overseas operations checked "None," with no significant differences among overseas functional area groups. Perhaps if language training had been included in the planning stages of the overseas venture, the insufficient time allowed for training would not have been a problem.

All of the language-connected organizations or associations listed in the last question had been contacted by at least some of the respondents. Berlitz, the Thunderbird School, and Inlingua ranked highest. Table 20 shows the total number of respondents who checked each organization.

Non-Responses

The fifty-five non-responses returned were attributable primarily to the nonavilability of information at corporate headquarters, followed by the length of the questionnaire, which perhaps was a convenient excuse if a respondent simply did not feel like completing it. Ranking third was the opinion that the subject of the survey was either not important to or not applicable to the contacted company, followed by the statement that, since overseas businesses are managed by local nationals, the U.S. firm need have nothing to do with language training. Another alternative, pure conjecture yet a definite possibility, is the reluctance of a company to provide information on programs and policies which have proved to be not particularly successful in actual

practice. The various reported reasons for non-response are delineated in Table 21.

Table 20

Number of Companies Contacting Language Organizations, Associations

Association, Organization	Number of Companies
Berlitz	71
American Graduate School of International Management (Thunderbird)	19
Inlingua	18
Business Council for International Understanding	10
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)	7
Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)	6
National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA)	5
Modern Language Association (MLA)	4
American Translators' Association (ATA)	4
American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)	3
The British Council	2

Comments

A comment frequently made on returned questionnaires was that, because of the wide variations in practice across divisions or from one country to another, it was extremely difficult to respond in general terms for the company as a whole. One of the main justifications for the widespread use of English, besides the fact that it is the "company language," was the highly

dispersed nature of corporate operations: "therefore we rely heavily on the ability of our host country nationals to speak English."

Table 21

Reasons Cited for Non-Response

Reason	Percent[a]
Information not available	34.5
Questionnaire too long	25.4
Subject not important to company or not applicable	24.6
Overseas businesses owned and managed by local nationals	18.1
Policy not to respond to questionnaires	9.0
Information not releasable	7.3
Involvement abroad minimal	7.3

[a]Total is greater than 100 because of some multiple responses.

Many companies reported the almost exclusive use of local national staff in overseas locations (governed probably in large part by international agreement and host country policy rather than purely convenience in communication), thus "obviating" the need for American staff to deal in a foreign language. According to some, a hiring criterion is a proficiency in English, eliminating training as an issue. Others indicated that their local national

staff had studied in the United States or simply were "bi- or multilingual." A few mentioned that bilingual or multilingual secretaries handled non-English matters. Still others deal with manufacturers' representatives or agents rather than "employees" overseas, again "eliminating" the need for language training. One respondent stated:

> Universities have not yet received the message that companies now hire foreign (who know English) management personnel exclusively for its [sic] foreign operations. Fewer and fewer, U.S. nationals are sent abroad on a permanent basis, these days (Reason: nationalistic trends and movements).

Many comments stressed the voluntary and hence ad hoc nature of language training. Many companies replied that training depended on "each person's individual situation," and that employees (and spouses) were "encouraged" to have "some knowledge of the language and country of assignment"; most often, however, the training is left to the individual to arrange, with the company providing tuition reimbursement. The company will pay these expenses "until the desired proficiency is reached," "usually accomplished with no more than 100 hours of instruction." One company indicated that its management had discontinued the dissemination of an official policy statement on foreign language training allowances for employees on expatriate assignment. This decision was based on "an experience pattern that indicates limited benefit and usage from the allowance." A number pointed out that language training is governed by local option at various sites;

one company elaborated that "such training at present is extremely limited."

Language training was often referred to as a relocation benefit for employees being transferred abroad for a period of from 1 to 3 years, and in some cases only in excess of 2 years. Other respondents pointed to the extreme mobility of their employees, saying simply that "it is not practical to give language training to all." One company justified not testing employees for language aptitude since "the language factor is not a condition of assignment." Another commented that, ". . . generally speaking, most employees would not accept the language training or make any effort with it." Still another noted that "language instruction in U.S. prior to departure is largely waste of their time and company's money. Too many distractions . . . and not sufficient motivation." He went on to observe that "language instruction abroad is usually cheaper and better" (emphasis in original).

Several respondents observed that, ideally, "we would speak the local language." One pointed out, however, that "it is a rare occasion when professional capability, language capability, and a job assignment all come together at the same time." The overriding factor in determining overseas assignments, of course, as has been shown above, is an individual's technical competence and not language ability.

The extensive and widespread use of Berlitz as a training

institution was in several instances substantiated by the observation that it allowed consistency of method and continuity for the student. This company's marketing strategies and high product identity no doubt also exert considerable influence in its frequent selection.

Summary

Foreign language capability as a criterion for selecting individuals for overseas assignment ranked fourth of four criteria, with technical ability the overwhelming first choice. Language training, however, is the type of training most frequently provided to employees going abroad. Company policy tends, however, to regard foreign language proficiency as "desirable but optional," and to leave the training to the individual himself to arrange, although the company pays for it and permits scheduling during regular working hours. In most cases language training is contracted with a commercial language teaching organization such as Berlitz or Inlingua, and 100 hours is the amount provided in the majority of cases.

Spanish and French were the languages ranked as currently most studied by employees, although Arabic, Portuguese, German, and Persian were also popular. These languages and their rankings correlate quite closely with the languages involved most in translation and interpreting and also with those locations where companies feel a foreign language proficiency is particularly important.

The majority of business dealings, however, are conducted in English, both within the United States and overseas as well. Two-thirds of the companies reported that their international business is not hindered by language problems, although many respondents commented that additional time, misunderstandings, and lack of rapport were consequences of imperfect linguistic and cultural matches.

In the area of translation and interpreting, correspondence is the most frequently occurring requirement for translation from a foreign language into English. Promotional literature and advertising ranked highest in translating from English into a foreign language. Companies' translation and interpreting needs are handled most often by employees whose main job is in a non-language area. Only seventeen companies indicated that they employ persons within the United States whose primary job is dealing with foreign language matters.

Section IV of the questionnaire, Foreign Languages for Non-U.S. National Employees, although not completed by as many respondents as had answered the other sections, nonetheless offered some insight and pointed to trends in this training configuration. Nearly 60 percent of the companies surveyed provide occupational or technical training to their non-U.S. national employees. Most of that training is done in English, although a number of companies did report conducting it in the students' native language. Over 40 percent of the companies provide

language training, which is overwhelmingly in English. Language and technical training were generally regarded as separate phases of training, and in most cases were conducted either simultaneously or sequentially, with language training preceding technical training.

Language training is usually performed by a contracting agency or organization, and both general and special purpose aspects of the language are included in the programs, unlike the language instruction provided to U.S. national employees which was reported overwhelmingly to be "general." The language teachers tend to be specialists in language teaching and not in technical areas. The length of training, while not determinable in an absolute sense, appears to be a good bit longer than that provided to U.S. nationals going overseas. Most companies had not tried text simplification as an aid to non- or limited-English-speaking employees, and most reported that they felt they had no significant problems with language training overseas. Since the overwhelming majority of respondents, however, left that question blank, these responses must be interpreted with caution. Most responding companies, too, indicated that language training had played no role in the planning of their companies' overseas operations, although nearly half the respondents did not complete this question.

Nearly two-thirds of the respondents indicated that they wished to receive a copy of the executive summary which was offered both in the cover letter and at the end of the

questionnaire. This encouraging response could indicate a genuine interest in the subject of the survey, a curiosity to see what other companies are doing in this area, or simply a desire to receive something for their efforts! In any event, it appeared to be a favorable sign.

NOTES

[1]In most cases, all four sections of the questionnaire were completed, although individual items throughout the questionnaire were sometimes left blank.

[2]The total number of companies here is greater than 129 since there were a number of multiple responses.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY

SURVEY RESULTS

Findings

This study of the foreign language requirements of U.S. corporations doing business abroad has examined characteristics of corporate language training programs and policies with regard both to U.S. national employees going outside the United States to work and to non-U.S. national employees, generally working in their own countries. The role of translation and interpreting in the corporate environment both within the United States and abroad was also studied. Of particular interest were the extent to which language requirements and language training are included in corporate planning and the extent to which occupationally-oriented special purpose language training is included in the language training provided to corporate employees.

The data collected describe the situation as it currently exists and provide a comparison to several earlier studies of language and language training in the domestic corporate environment. These data can then be updated and expanded upon in future studies, permitting an assessment of change over time.

Major findings of the study are the following:

(1) The greatest amount of international business in which U.S. corporations are involved is currently being done in Western Europe, followed by Central and South America, Canada, the Middle East, and the Far East.

(2) Spanish is the language most studied by U.S. nationals going abroad and also the language most involved in translation and interpreting.

(3) U.S. corporations doing business abroad rely primarily on English as the business language and the means of communication.

(4) Language training is provided to a majority of U.S. national employees going overseas and outranks technical, cultural, and managerial training in type of training provided.

(5) Languages for Special Purposes (LSP) training is only rarely included in U.S. national employees' pre-assignment language instruction.

(6) Translation and interpreting requirements are generally handled by corporate employees whose jobs are in a non-language area.

(7) English is generally the language in which technical training is given to non-U.S. national employees overseas.

(8) A far greater commitment exists to language training for non-U.S. national employees than for U.S. national employees.

(9) Language training for non-U.S. national employees is overwhelmingly done in English and is apt to include an LSP (i.e.,

a job-oriented) component.

(10) For most companies doing international business, language training has played no role in the planning of their overseas operations.

Discussion

The greatest amount of international business involving U.S. corporations is currently being done in Western Europe, followed by Central and South America, Canada, the Middle East, the Far East, Africa, Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, and India. Areas of the world where companies perceive a langauge proficiency to be particularly important are, in order of priority, Central and South America, the Middle East, Western Europe, the Far East, Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union, Africa, Canada, and India.

Spanish is the language currently most studied by U.S. nationals going abroad, followed by French, Arabic, Portuguese, and German. Spanish is also the language most involved in both translation and interpreting; French, Persian, and Arabic also ranked high in both categories. There thus appears to be a fairly close correlation between those languages most studied and used and geographical areas where a language proficiency is perceived to be particularly important. Spanish is also the foreign language with the highest enrollments in American schools and universities and the native language of the largest linguistic minority in the United States, which could also account for its

popularity among businesspeople."

United States corporations doing business abroad, however, rely primarily on English as the business language and the means of communication. The American businessperson communicates for the most part in English and expects others--regardless of their national or ethnic background--to do likewise. As a result, American businesspeople being sent abroad are selected on the basis of proven technical or professional expertise, and not on the basis of foreign language capability.

Language training is provided, or at least offered, to a majority of U.S. national employees going overseas as a pre-assignment benefit. Any foreign language proficiency the employee attains, however, is typically regarded by the employing corporation as "desirable but optional," with the employee himself charged with arranging for the instruction and scheduling it (albeit on company time) among his many other responsibilities in the two or three months prior to departure. Although respondents reported that employees "receive" language training before going overseas, one wonders how many are actually able (or willing) to take maximum advantage of it since participation is voluntary. The training is usually performed under contract with a commercial language teaching organization. Although companies frequently report that each individual's situation is evaluated separately and that as much training is provided as is necessary to attain the desired proficiency, most often this training is limited to 100 to 120

hours of instruction.

LSP training is only rarely included in U.S. national employees' pre-assignment language instruction. Clearly the aim of this instruction is to provide only the most elementary survival level capability in those 100 or so hours to ease the initial shock of being transplanted to a foreign culture; all substantive matters (i.e., those relating to the job) will be handled in English.

There are enough individuals employed by U.S. corporations, however, who possess sufficient foreign language capability to handle most companies' translation and interpreting requirements. Many of these employees are native speakers of English whose academic training has equipped them with a foreign language capability. Because of the sporadic and usually short-term nature of translation and interpreting requirements, most companies are able to meet these requirements with employees whose main job is in a non-language area. Most of the translation from a foreign language into English involves correspondence, while promotional literature and advertising constitute the greatest amount of translation from English into a foreign language. There is, however, only a limited requirement for interpreters' services, since most oral communications are transacted in English. Where interpreters are needed, they are required primarily for matters involving professional and technical uses of language and for top-level negotiations, rather than for social occasions or day-to-day operations. Where in-house

capability is not adequate to meet requirements, companies generally turn to commercial agencies or private individuals outside the company. Only rarely are individuals employed by companies to deal with foreign language matters as their primary job.

U.S. corporations are committed to a far greater extent to language training for non-U.S. national employees than they are for U.S. nationals going abroad to work. Although this training is also, for the most part, performed under contract with a commercial language teaching organization, the amount of training provided is considerably more (often requiring several months and not infrequently in the vicinity of a year or more) than the 100 or so hours generally allotted to the U.S.-national businessperson. Training is generally more formal, organized into classes rather than performed on an individual basis, it often includes a special purpose component, and it is generally integrated with technical or occupational training. Language training is overwhelmingly in English, and is overwhelmingly job-oriented. A broader spectrum of employees receives language training overseas than in the United States, too: in general U.S. nationals sent abroad are limited to middle and upper level management, while in the host country itself, technicians, laborers, and clerical and administrative personnel are also candidates for training.

English is generally the language in which technical training is given to non-U.S. national employees overseas, and nearly 60 percent of responding companies do conduct technical or

occupational training. Over half the companies which provide technical training also provide English language training. Because English is the language of the parent corporation, because company correspondence, materials, manuals, publications, documentation, and training appear originally in English, and because in some fields (aviation, for example) English is the international language of communication, training individuals to handle job-related materials and communication directly in the source language is definitely more efficient and cost-effective than attempting to translate massive amounts of printed matter or to train sufficient numbers of host country nationals and/or U.S. nationals to provide technical training in the host country language. Not only is the translation/training effort itself a monumental and almost impossible task, but in addition it often requires the creation or borrowing of a new lexicon and totally new concepts in the trainees' native language.

Perhaps most revealing of all in this study was the number of companies (nearly two-thirds) which indicated that language training had played no role in the planning of their overseas operations. Moreover, most companies feel that their international business is not hindered by language problems, nor do they perceive any significant problems in their overseas language training programs. Some respondents did, however, acknowledge communication difficulties in international business dealings, and insufficient time allotted for language training overseas.

They also frankly recognize that "ideally" their employees and representatives abroad would speak the local language and would be culturally sophisticated in the foreign environment. Many therefore rely on local nationals who know English or on native speakers of the various languages in question already in their employ to solve their language-and culture problems. To train Americans adequately to deal in a foreign language and a foreign culture would require more time, money, and effort than most corporations or individuals are apparently willing to expend.

The corporate view of foreign language capability and training seems essentially to be that they are commodities to be purchased as needed but that otherwise they do not merit having undue time or attention spent on them. As a commodity, though, language training should be subject to the same rigorous evaluation standards and monitoring criteria as are other phases of companies' contracted or subcontracted operations. To assume that language training is only an incidental component of an overseas venture is very risky and can lead to the waste of untold amounts of time and money.

Assumptions

The validity of the five assumptions implicit in the study and in the design of the questionnaire was in effect tested and inferred from the responses to the questionnaire. Those assumptions were:

(1) That language matters and language training are legitimate concerns of U.S. corporations doing business abroad.

(2) That corporations recognize the problem areas in conducting language training programs and consider participation in the study and receiving a report of results highly beneficial to the attainment of their goals.

(3) That LSP (Languages for Special Purposes) training figures prominently in corporate overseas language programs and is a major concern of program planners and designers.

(4) That the questionnaire would be an adequate means by which to gather data for the study.

(5) That the response rate on this questionnaire would be adequate to provide meaningful and significant information and to draw valid conclusions.

Assumptions (4) and (5) proved to be valid, and assumptions (3), (2), and (1) proved to be only partially valid.

Assumptions (4) and (5) were clearly valid. Corporate cooperation was high, in terms of questionnaire response rate, completeness of responses to include comments and observations, candor of responses, and desire to receive the summary of results. The response rate on the questionnaire, 68.9 percent overall (70 percent of which were completed sufficiently to be tabulated, and the other 30 percent of which revealed reasons for companies' non-participation in the study) was indeed sufficient to provide meaningful and significant information and to draw valid conclusions.

Companies' excellent cooperation, particularly in view of the basic underlying lack of concern for foreign language proficiency and training reflected in some of the responses, may be accounted for by the following explanations, either individually or in combination:

(1) Corporations feel that their foreign language policies and training programs are sound and effective, and they are not sensitive about making them public. Most respondents made no attempt to remain anonymous, and many indicated that they would be glad to provide further information or discuss their responses in detail at any time.

(2) Companies feel an obligation to support academic research and they cooperate with requests for information whenever possible. Such cooperation is, after all, a significant and positive public relations effort.

(3) Corporations are genuinely curious about what other firms are doing in the area of language training. They may be doubtful as to the soundness of their present policies or they may be seeking information (or corroboration!) before entering new and uncharted territory. One respondent declined to complete the questionnaire, saying that since his company was just entering the international market, his responses might skew the results of the study. He did, however, request a copy of the summary, commenting that his firm knew it would soon need to become involved in language training programs, and that he wished to

proceed from as enlightened and informed a perspective as possible.

Assumption (3), that LSP training figures prominently in corporate overseas language programs and is a major concern of program planners and designers, has proved to be only partially valid in programs for non-U.S. nationals and essentially invalid in programs for U.S. nationals going abroad. Corporations, as evidenced by the low priority which language training and language matters in general receive, do not seem to be aware of the potential benefits of LSP training to the effectiveness of their programs. Appreciation for the various registers and styles of language and the possibility of training to specified proficiency levels within specific functional areas could significantly enhance corporate language training programs. The American corporate presence abroad, moreover, appears to have much higher standards for those learning English than for those U.S. nationals learning a foreign language: non-native speakers of English are expected to control a far greater range of English than native speakers of English are of a foreign language. English is somehow regarded as the "ultimate" language, representing as it does much of the scientific, technological, and economic power of the world; and its native speakers seem to expect nothing short of total fluency of its students.

Assumption (2) was, for the most part, valid; although corporations cannot be said generally to "recognize problem areas in conducting language training programs." The overwhelming

reliance on contractors to provide training as well as the lack of concern at corporate headquarters in many instances for language matters indicates a preference for simply not getting involved with the issue. That corporations "will consider participation in the study and receiving a report of results highly beneficial to the attainment of their goals" can be assumed from the interest shown in the study by the number and quality of responses.

Assumption (1) was not valid for all companies contacted, as a number of the non-respondents indicated, nor was it necessarily valid for all responding companies, as some indicated explicitly and as others expressed through the nature of their responses. Companies' exposure to the questionnaire and to the summary sent to them, however, have at least provided an awareness of these areas and a few suggestions for ways to cope with them.

SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

The solution to the language problem in the corporate world is neither simple nor readily forthcoming, yet there are some encouraging movements and trends beginning to emerge. For Americans going abroad to work, the interdisciplinary programs now being adopted in many schools, colleges, and universities in which a foreign language is combined with another field of study, often management, business, or engineering, appears most encouraging. By treating a language capability as an ancillary skill, some foreign language departments are preparing students much more

realistically for the world of work which they will encounter after graduation. This view is far from universally accepted, however, and it will have to become much more widespread than it is now in order to have significant impact.

The importance of language and cultural training to the success of international business and to effective communication in general, although cited frequently in the literature of the disciplines of both foreign languages and business, seems to surface in only a cursory fashion in the present-day U.S. multinational business environment. Moreover, since the value of this training is difficult to demonstrate empirically, companies are not likely to radically alter their present policies as long as they regard their current revenues as acceptable. Pleas to the business community from the language profession to devote more time and resources to language training are apt largely to be ignored unless companies are convinced that additional foreign language training will significantly enhance their marketing potential. Yet the emergence of dually trained businesspeople from the new non-traditional academic curricula may help to improve the image, the profits, and the effectiveness of day-to-day operations of American businesses operating abroad. Companies appear to be receptive to the idea of hiring "language-plus" trained people, since they acknowledge that they are not without communication problems in the international arena while at the same time they require technical/professional expertise as the primary criterion

for an overseas assignment. Perhaps over time the new curricular offerings will help produce a more astute, aware, and empathetic American businessperson.

This approach will not, however, apply in all cases because of the high mobility of many international businesspeople. A person may spend a year or two in a number of countries and totally disparate language areas throughout his career, making language mastery for each location an impossibility, except for the rarest individual. The addition of high level language and area specialists to the international staff would seem to be a viable alternative in cases where language, cultural, and technical expertise cannot be combined in a single individual. Such individuals should be equal in stature and responsibility to the technical specialist member of the team and not just a staff interpreter/translator. This specialist should be more than an advisor or someone to be consulted occasionally; rather he should occupy a central role in planning and then in operating the overseas venture. The additional cost of such individuals should be more than compensated by the more positive image the company presents, by additional business revenues, and by a reduction of delays, conflicts, and misguided operations. Robinson (1973) suggests teams composed of two capable executives--one American and one foreign, but the presence of an American who has made the effort to learn the foreign language and who truly understands the host culture would seem more impressive and more effective than the all too frequent

case of the American being dependent on an English-speaking host country national. An additional advantage to having an American cultural specialist is that he is truly part of the company team from the earliest stages of the venture. Inman and LoBello (1975) propose task groups composed of an organizational development specialist; a Western host country cultural specialist, fluent in the host country language; and host country counterparts to the full range of foreign advisers brought in to start up an operation.

Language and cultural training specialists can be of great value, too, in planning, designing, and implementing language training programs for local national employees in their own countries. These individuals need to be educated and experienced in language training, including LSP considerations, and must be fully capable of directing/coordinating the training programs or of monitoring and evaluating contractor performance, if training is contracted with an outside organization. The excuse given by some companies that "no one knows anything about it" (i.e., language training) is unacceptable and highly detrimental to the timely accomplishment of corporate goals and missions.[1] Some companies, perhaps learning from the experiences of others, have included developers and coordinators of fairly extensive and sophisticated language training programs in even the initial phases of their overseas operations. Others have plunged in headlong only still to be redeveloping basic programs years later. The importance of adequate and enlightened planning

cannot be stressed enough, along with a thorough assessment of employee job-related language and technical training needs. To issue the blanket edict that "all our employees must speak English" is naïve and irresponsible: specific needs can be determined and narrowed and then taught much more efficiently than by subjecting everyone to a general purpose language course which is time-consuming, often of limited interest, and usually of minimal value on the job. Because English language skills are the foundation on which subsequent training is based, their importance to the success of an overseas training commitment cannot be overemphasized.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present study has established a baseline which future studies can update and expand upon. Of great value to follow this study would be in-depth case studies of a number of individual programs, not only in the corporate sphere but among government agencies, non-profit institutions and organizations, schools and universities, and commercial language teaching organizations as well. Since overall program effectiveness cannot be assessed in detail adequately through mailed questionnaire surveys, program and language policy evaluation should be a central feature of subsequent research. Such studies would require on-site visits and extensive analysis of training

data, and would ideally encompass training programs for U.S. nationals and non-U.S. nationals, both within the United States and abroad.

Another type of study of value and of high interest would be one similar to the present one but focused on foreign-headquartered international corporations. Such a study would make possible contrasts and comparisons in philosophies, practices, and program requirements which would be enlightening indeed. The sample of companies selected for study should include a cross-section of company categories as well as headquarters locations so as to offer as complete a picture as possible. Perhaps separate studies by country of headquarters would allow for more thorough treatment.

Another study related to the matter of corporate language training but encompassing other areas of management, politics, and intercultural communications studies as well would be a study of business failures in various countries. Such businesses would, of course, be limited to those with international sponsorship or at least involvement. Research of this type would have to be done by the case study approach since unearthing details of past company policies and operations is sure to be painstaking, demanding, and time-consuming. As an example of the types of situations meriting investigation, an Iranian business consultant once observed that productivity in plants started up with the assistance of foreign (not only U.S.) advisers drops significantly as

soon as the advisers leave.[2] This situation surely is not unique to Iran and bears examination for trends in intercultural communications problems, planning shortcomings, and training inadequacies.

CONCLUSION

In this study characteristics of the language training programs and policies of U.S. corporations doing business abroad have been described. Company attitudes and philosophies concerning language and language training for different nationalities and classifications of employees have also been inferred from the reported data. Overall, a foreign language proficiency seems to be much more important for non-U.S. national employees than for U.S.-national employees.

This study is of value to language majors, language teaching professionals, and to the international business community. Employment opportunities in the business world for a person proficient in one or more foreign languages are available, in general, only if that person also possesses a capability in another field which is more directly business- or technically-oriented. Foreign language educators, knowing this to be the case and cognizant, too, of the fairly level (or only modestly increasing) need for foreign language teachers (according to enrollment statistics reported by Scully [1978]), have an obligation to point out to their students the realities of the working world and career choices and to attempt to modify course offerings

and curricula accordingly. The benefits of "language-plus" trained employees to internationally-oriented business and industry should be obvious. By accommodating itself to real-world requirements, the language teaching profession may be able to play a role in expanding corporate concern for the linguistic and cultural aspects of doing business abroad.

NOTES

[1]Comment by the contracting officer about a U.S. corporate effort in Iran; November, 1976.

[2]Private conversation; Tehran, Iran, April, 1975.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTERS ACCOMPANYING QUESTIONNAIRE, PILOT AND MAIN STUDIES

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN
FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION CENTER
AUSTIN, TEXAS 78712

Education Building 163
471-4078
Texan 821-4078

The survey of foreign language needs of U.S. corporations doing business abroad, outlined in the enclosed cover letter and questionnaire, has the full endorsement of the Foreign Language Education Center at The University of Texas at Austin. The consequences of this study will be of significance to all those involved with the training programs and various language needs of the private sector and of the academic community as well.

The researcher conducting this study, Marianne E. Inman, is a Ph.D. candidate in this department. She is a mature, responsible scholar who has lived and worked in both Europe and the Middle East. She has had extensive experience in the teaching, supervision, and materials development aspects of language training programs for government and corporate employees both in the United States and abroad.

Your contributions are vital to the success of this study, and your reply will be held in absolute confidence. Your assistance in completing and returning the enclosed questionnaire is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

David DeCamp
Supervising Professor

John G. Bordie
Director

Enclosures

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN
FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION CENTER
AUSTIN, TEXAS 78712

Education Building 562
471-4078
Texan 821-4078

My doctoral dissertation for the Foreign Language Education Center at The University of Texas at Austin will investigate the foreign language needs and training programs of a number of U.S. corporations doing business abroad. The corporations included in the study have been selected for their international reputations and for their ability to make a significant contribution to a survey of this type. Will you please take a few minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the self-addressed, postage-paid envelope.

The information obtained from the completed questionnaires will be valuable to both the business and language teaching professions. Not only will the study describe the current corporate language use and language training situation, but it will also provide an indication of the directions which academic language programs should take in order to be of maximum benefit to corporate students and employers alike.

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation. All replies will be held in strictest confidence, although I will be glad to send a summary of research results to all who wish to receive it. I look forward to receiving your completed questionnaire in the next several days.

Sincerely yours,

Marianne E. Inman
1605 Pecan Street
Georgetown, Texas 78626
(512) 863-3685

Enclosure

APPENDIX B

PILOT VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEEDS OF U.S. CORPORATIONS
DOING BUSINESS ABROAD

*****

--Please note that this questionnaire consists of four parts:

Part I	General Information
Part II	Foreign Language Training for U.S. Nationals
Part III	Translation and Interpreting
Part IV	Language Training for Non-U.S. Nationals

*****

Part I. General Information

1. Please provide the Standard Industrial Classification code which corresponds to your company's primary area of business: _____

2. What is the approximate size of your company in terms of

employees and annual revenues?

employees	annual revenues
_____ 0-100	_____ $1-10 million
_____ 101-1,000	_____ $10-100 million
_____ 1,001-10,000	_____ $100-500 million
_____ 10,001-50,000	_____ $500 million - $1 billion
_____ 50,001-100,000	_____ $1-10 billion
_____ More than 100,000	_____ More than $10 billion

3. Approximately what percentage of your company's total business is domestic, and what percentage foreign?

Domestic	_____ %
Foreign	_____ %
	100 %

4. In what areas of the world is your company now doing the greatest amount of international business? (Please rank the following areas 1 through 8, 1 being the area with the largest dollar volume and 8 being the smallest. If no significant business is being done in an area, please do not rank it.)

_____ Canada
_____ Central and South America
_____ Western Europe
_____ Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union
_____ Middle East
_____ Africa
_____ India
_____ Far East

*****

Part II. Foreign Language Training for U.S. Nationals

1. What criteria does your company use to select U.S. nationals to work abroad? (Please rank in order of importance, 1 being the most important and 5 the least important.)

_____ Language ability
_____ Technical ability
_____ Ability to adapt to new environment
_____ Previous overseas experience
_____ Other (specify) _____

2. What type(s) of training do your company's U.S. employees receive before they are sent abroad to work? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ Language
_____ Cultural
_____ Technical
_____ Managerial
_____ Other (specify) _____
_____ None

3. What is the language policy of your company for U.S. nationals sent abroad? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

	Foreign Language Proficiency			
	Required	Not Required	Desirable but Optional	No official policy
All employees				
Key personnel only (upper level management)				
Middle management only				
Technicians only				
Instructors only				
Clerical, administrative personnel only				

4. If a foreign language proficiency is required, what degree of proficiency does your company demand? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

	Level of Foreign Language Proficiency		
	Total fluency, to include technical areas	Working technical or professional knowledge	Minimum conversational ability
Key personnel			
Middle management			
Technicians			
Instructors			
Clerical, administrative personnel			

--Questions 5 through 11 deal with necessary or desirable foreign language training for U.S. nationals sent abroad. If these questions do not apply to your company, please turn directly to Question 12 on page 3.

5. If a foreign language proficiency for your company's U.S. national employees sent abroad is considered desirable or necessary, how is it obtained?

_____ Employee proficient because of family associations with the language
_____ Employee proficient because of prior school or military training
_____ Company provides instruction on company time or employee time
_____ Company requires employee to obtain necessary instruction on his own time
_____ Employee has learned language while living abroad previously

6. If your company provides the instruction, how is the training done?

_____ In-house: language instructors are hired by the company
_____ In-house: instructors are company employees whose main job is in a non-language teaching area
_____ Contracted with a university or other public educational institution (please specify by name) _____
_____ Contracted with a private, commercial language teaching organization (please specify by name) _____
_____ Other (specify) _____

7. Where is the training generally performed?

_____ In the United States
_____ In the foreign country
_____ In a third country

8. Actual instruction takes place

_____ at the office or plant
_____ at the premises of the contractor or other teacher
_____ at employees' homes
_____ at a university or public school
_____ other (specify) _____

9. When does the training take place?

_____ During regular working hours
_____ On employees' time; i.e., lunch hours, evenings, week ends

10. What is the average length of employee language training? (Please fill in the appropriate blanks with numbers.)

_____ hours per day
_____ hours per week
_____ weeks
_____ months

11. Do the U.S. national employees of your company receive any instruction in language for special purposes? (For example, Arabic for the businessman, German for the chemist, Portuguese for the electrical engineer)

_____ Yes
_____ No

12. Which languages are currently most studied by your company's U.S. national employees? (Please rank in order with 1 being the language the most studied. Leave languages not studied blank.)

_____ Arabic
_____ Chinese
_____ French
_____ German
_____ Greek
_____ Japanese
_____ Persian
_____ Portuguese
_____ Russian
_____ Spanish
_____ Other (specify) _____

13. Are there some areas of the world where your company feels that a foreign language proficiency for its U.S. national employees is more important than in other areas?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, please rank the following areas, with 1 being the most important and 8 the least important.

_____ Canada
_____ Central and South America
_____ Western Europe
_____ Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union
_____ Middle East
_____ Africa
_____ India
_____ Far East

14. How are the language aspects of most of your company's international business negotiations and dealings handled? (Check the appropriate boxes.)

In the U.S.	Abroad	
		U.S. nationals speak the foreign language
		Foreign contacts and representatives speak English
		Interpreters are hired by your company
		Interpreters are hired by the foreign contact

15. Do you feel that the international aspects of your company's business are hindered in any way by language problems?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, please describe: _____

_____

_____

(If more space is required, please continue on the last page.)

*****

Part III. Translation and Interpreting ("Translation" refers to written language; "interpreting" to spoken language.)

1. Which of the following types of documents does your company regularly (i.e., at least one requirement per month) have translated? (Please check all appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

From a Foreign Language into English	From English into a Foreign Language	
		Correspondence
		Financial reports
		Promotional literature, advertising
		Journal or professional articles
		Brochures, technical manuals
		Instructional materials
		Other (specify) _____
		Other (specify) _____
		Have no requirements for translation

2. In what business locations does your organization require the services of interpreters?

_____ Overseas
_____ In the United States
_____ Both overseas and in the United States
_____ No interpreters required

3. If no interpreters are required, is it because

_____ all parties involved speak English?
_____ all parties involved speak the foreign language?

4. For what purposes are interpreters needed? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ Social, conversational needs
_____ Professional, technical language (e.g., meetings or conferences)
_____ Top-level negotiations
_____ Daily operations

5. How does your company meet its requirements for translating and interpreting? (Please check all that apply for each category.)

Translating	Interpreting	
_____	_____	Full-time employees whose primary job is handling foreign language matters
_____	_____	Company employees whose main job is in a non-language area
_____	_____	Commercial translation/interpreting agency
_____	_____	Private professional translator/interpreter
_____	_____	Private individual who knows the languages in question
_____	_____	School or university
_____	_____	Provided by other party in the matter
_____	_____	Other (specify) _____

6. Which foreign languages are involved most in translation and interpreting for your company? (Please rank the languages involved in each category beginning with 1 as that most used. Do not rank languages which are not used.)

Translation	Interpreting	
____	____	Arabic
____	____	Chinese
____	____	French
____	____	German
____	____	Greek
____	____	Japanese
____	____	Persian
____	____	Portuguese
____	____	Russian
____	____	Spanish
____	____	Other (specify) _____

7. Does your company employ persons in the United States whose primary job is dealing with foreign language matters?

____ Yes
____ No

If Yes, are these individuals

____ experts primarily in one or more foreign languages?
____ experts primarily in technical fields and secondarily in foreign languages?

8. How have the employees in Question 7 attained their foreign language proficiency?

____ Personal or family contacts
____ Academic (i.e., school or university) training
____ Military school or institute
____ Living abroad
____ Commercial language teaching organization
____ Training provided by your company

*****

Part IV. Language Training for Non-U.S. Employees

1. Does your company include vocational or technical training programs for non-U.S. employees as part of its overseas operations?

____ Yes
____ No

If Yes, please specify the countries where this training is provided:

_____

If No, please turn to page 12.

2. In what language is technical or vocational training conducted?

_____ English
_____ Native language(s) of the students
_____ Other language (specify) _____

Why did your company choose the language it did as the language in which to conduct technical training?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

3. Is language training for non-U.S. nationals a component of any of your company's vocational or technical training programs?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, please specify in the chart below the countries and the languages which are taught.

	Languages	
Country	English	Other (specify)

4. How many language training programs for non-U.S. employees does your company operate (either in-house or by contract) around the world? _____ In how many different countries? _____

5. How many non-U.S. employees in language training programs around the world does your company currently have? How does this compare with five years ago (1972) and with projections for three years from now (1980)? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

	Current	1972	1980
1-100			
101-500			
501-1000			
1001-2000			
2001-5000			
More than 5000			

--For Questions 6 through 23: If your company operates language training programs at a number of different sites, and if these programs differ significantly from each other, it would be most helpful if you could provide information on additional sheets of paper (or provide descriptive literature) about each of them. If this is not possible, please select one language training program and describe it.

6. The information provided in the questions below applies to

_____ all programs
_____ one program (please specify by location) _____.

7. By whom are the non-U.S. personnel being trained by your company employed?

_____ By your company directly
_____ By the host government
_____ By a host nation firm
_____ Other (specify) _____

8. Is language training provided by your company to all non-U.S. employees?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If No, on what basis are individuals selected to receive training?

_____ Their particular job
_____ Language aptitude test score
_____ Previous English training
_____ Lack of previous English training
_____ Other (specify) _____

9. How does language training mesh with the technical training which your company provides?

_____ Language training is conducted prior to technical training
_____ Language training is not separate from technical training; the technical subjects are taught in the language in question
_____ Language training and technical training are conducted simultaneously, but as separate courses

10. Where is the language training performed?

_____ In the foreign country
_____ In the United States
_____ In a third country (please specify by name) _____

11. How is the training conducted?

_____ In-house by language teaching employees of your company
_____ In-house, informally by other employees whose main work is in a non-language teaching area
_____ By contract with a private, commercial language teaching organization (please specify by name) _____
_____ By a university or other school (please specify by name) _____
_____ By a military or government language school or institute
_____ Other (specify) _____

12. If the language training provided by your company is contracted with an outside organization, were the amount and types of training to be provided specified very clearly in the contract?

_____ Yes
_____ No

13. Has your company dealt with more than one language training contractor in the same program?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, why? _____

_____

14. What variety of language is taught in your company's language training programs?

_____ General only
_____ Specialized in some way
_____ Both general and specialized

15. Which of the factors below have been used by your company to determine the content of language training? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ The specific uses of language required by each person's job (e.g., reading technical manuals, answering the telephone, listening to job-related lectures, writing business reports, etc.)
_____ The level of language proficiency required (or acceptable) for each person's job (i.e., minimal through full professional proficiency)
_____ The functional area into which a particular job [illegible], electrical engineering, aviation maintenance, [illegible] etc.)
_____ The professional level of a person's job (e.g., [illegible] clerical to administrative to managerial)

16. If English language training is provided by your company for non-U.S. employees, which of the following best describes the instructors?

a. _____ Trained language teachers, native speakers of English, hired in the United States and sent abroad; have no particular technical expertise
b. _____ Trained English teachers, not necessarily native speakers of English, hired locally; no particular technical expertise
c. _____ Not necessarily trained English teachers, but native speakers of English, hired locally (e.g., dependents, students, travelers)
d. _____ Technical experts, native speakers of English, but not trained English teachers
e. _____ Technical experts, natives of the local country, proficient in English but not trained English teachers
f. _____ Other (specify) _____

17. What category of English instructors (from Question 16) would your company consider ideal? _____ (Please indicate the letter of your choice.)

18. Does your company (or its language training contractor) conduct a teacher training program?

_____ Yes
_____ No

19. How are instructional materials obtained? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ Readily available commercial materials
_____ Developed by a team of materials development experts specifically for your company's programs
_____ Put together as needed by individual teachers
_____ Translations of already developed commercial materials
_____ Other (specify) _____

20. Are students tested to determine entry level qualifications?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, what test is used? _____

21. How are students evaluated to determine their attained proficiency?

_____ On the job performance
_____ Interview
_____ Test score (give name of test) _____
_____ Other (specify) _____

22. What is the average length of time required to attain proficiency? (Please fill each blank with the appropriate number.)

_____ hours per day
_____ hours per week
_____ weeks
_____ months

23. What is the teacher-student ratio in a typical class? (Check the one nearest the average.)

_____ 1:1
_____ 1:5
_____ 1:10
_____ 1:25
_____ 1:50

24. Has your company ever attempted to adapt the language of technical materials which non-U.S. employees must use by limiting or simplifying vocabulary, sentence length, sentence type, etc.?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, has it been successful?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If No, why not? _____

25. What problem areas has your company experienced with language training programs overseas? (Check as many as apply and then rank those checked, with 1 being the most significant, and the highest number the least significant.)

Check	Rank	
____	____	No significant problems
____	____	Not enough time overall, in terms of months or weeks, for language training
____	____	Not enough time per day devoted to language training
____	____	Difficulty hiring and retaining instructors
____	____	Overall budget: not enough money
____	____	Facilities and equipment inadequate
____	____	Discipline problems among trainees
____	____	Poor student attendance
____	____	Inability to eliminate poor performing or unsuited trainees from the program
____	____	Inadequate language performance at completion of training
____	____	Selecting a suitable language training contractor
____	____	Local political situation
____	____	Other (specify) _____

26. What role did language training play in planning the overseas operations of your company?

____ Considered necessary from inception of venture; adequately planned for in terms of time and personnel required
____ Considered necessary from inception of venture; amount of training needed underestimated
____ Added when communication problems developed, after other aspects of venture in progress

27. Please indicate if your company has been in contact with any of the following associations or organizations regarding language or language training matters. (Check as many as apply.)

____ American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
____ American Graduate School of International Management (Thunderbird)
____ American Translators' Association (ATA)
____ Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language (ATESL)
____ Berlitz
____ The British Council
____ Business Council for International Understanding
____ Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)
____ Modern Language Association (MLA)
____ National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA)
____ Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

*****

Please check _____ if you wish to receive an executive summary of the results of this study and fill in the information requested below.

Name _____ Title _____

Firm _____

Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip _____

*****

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION. IF YOU WISH TO MAKE ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS REGARDING YOUR FIRM'S LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAMS OR REQUIREMENTS, PLEASE USE THE SPACE BELOW.

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTERS ACCOMPANYING PILOT AND MAIN STUDIES, FOLLOW-UP MAILINGS

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN
FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION CENTER
AUSTIN, TEXAS 78712

Education Building 362
471-4078
Texan 821-4078

Recently a questionnaire designed to survey the foreign language needs of selected U.S. corporations doing business abroad was sent to your company. Because of the importance of this study to all those involved with the training programs and language needs of both the private sector and the academic community, your response is particularly significant. Will you please take a few minutes to complete this questionnaire and return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided. A second copy of the questionnaire is enclosed for your convenience.

This study, outlined in the enclosed cover letter and questionnaire, has the full endorsement of the Foreign Language Education Center at The University of Texas at Austin. The researcher conducting the study, Marianne E. Inman, is a Ph.D. candidate in this department.

Your contributions are vital to the success of this study, and your reply will be held in absolute confidence. Your assistance in completing and returning the questionnaire is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

David DeCamp
Supervising Professor

John G. Bordie
Director

Enclosures

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN
FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION CENTER
AUSTIN, TEXAS 78712

Education Building 562
[illegible]
Telephone 471-4078

Several weeks ago a questionnaire seeking information regarding the foreign language needs and training programs of a number of U.S. corporations doing business abroad was sent to your company. Because the corporations included in this study have all been selected for their international reputations and for their ability to make a significant contribution to a survey of this type, your response is particularly important.

The information obtained from the completed questionnaires will be the basis for my doctoral dissertation for the Foreign Language Education Center at The University of Texas at Austin. This study will not only describe the current corporate language use and language training situation, but it will also provide an indication of the directions which academic language programs should take in order to be of maximum benefit to corporate students and employers alike.

A second questionnaire and stamped, self-addressed envelope are enclosed for your convenience in responding. All replies will be held in strictest confidence, although I will be glad to send a summary of research results to all who wish to receive it. I look forward to receiving your completed questionnaire in the next several days.

Sincerely yours,

Marianne E. Inman
1605 Pecan Street
Georgetown, Texas 78626
(512) 863-3685

Enclosure

APPENDIX D

NOTE ATTACHED TO QUESTIONNAIRE IN FOLLOW-UP MAILING, PILOT STUDY

10/11/77

Information about your company's language programs and policies is vital to the success of this study. If for some reason, however, you are unable to respond, would you simply check one of the choices below and return the questionnaire in the envelope provided.

Thank you.

*****

--We have not responded to the questionnaire because

_____ the information requested is not available at corporate headquarters
_____ the information requested may not be released
_____ there was no time to respond
_____ Other _____

APPENDIX E

REVISED VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE MAIN STUDY

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEEDS OF U.S. CORPORATIONS
DOING BUSINESS ABROAD

*****

--Please note that this questionnaire consists of four parts:

Part I	General Information
Part II	Foreign Language Training for U.S. Nationals
Part III	Translation and Interpreting
Part IV	Language Training for Non-U.S. Nationals

*****

Part I. General Information

1. Please indicate your company's primary area of business (or give the Standard Industrial Classification code): _____

2. What is the approximate size of your company in terms of

employees and annual revenues?

_____ 0-100	_____ $1-10 million
_____ 101-1,000	_____ $10-100 million
_____ 1,001-10,000	_____ $100-500 million
_____ 10,001-50,000	_____ $500 million - $1 billion
_____ 50,001-100,000	_____ $1-10 billion
_____ More than 100,000	_____ More than $10 billion

3. Approximately what percentage of your company's total business is domestic, and what percentage foreign?

Domestic ____ %
Foreign ____ %
100 %

4. In what areas of the world is your company now doing the greatest amount of international business? (Please rank the following areas 1 through 8, 1 being the area with the largest dollar volume and 8 being the smallest. If no significant business is being done in an area, please do not rank it.)

_____ Canada
_____ Central and South America
_____ Western Europe
_____ Eastern Europe and the Soviet
_____ Middle East
_____ Africa
_____ India
_____ Far East

5. What is the primary nature of your company's international operations?

_____ Marketing
_____ Manufacturing
_____ Service
_____ Extraction/processing of natural resources
_____ Advising/training a foreign company or government

*****

Part II. Foreign Language Training for U.S. Nationals

1. What criteria does your company use to select U.S. nationals to work abroad? (Please rank in order of importance, 1 being the most important and 5 the least important.)

_____ Language ability
_____ Technical ability
_____ Ability to adapt to new environment
_____ Previous overseas experience
_____ Other (specify) _____

2. What type(s) of training do your company's U.S. employees receive before they are sent abroad to work? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ Language
_____ Cultural
_____ Technical
_____ Managerial
_____ Other (specify) _____
_____ None

3. What is the language policy of your company for U.S. nationals sent abroad? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

	Foreign Language Proficiency			
	Required	Not Required	Desirable but Optional	No official policy
All employees				
Key personnel (upper level management)				
Middle management				
Technicians				
Instructors				
Clerical, administrative personnel				

4. If a foreign language proficiency is required, what degree of proficiency does your company demand? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below. S = Speaking; R = Reading; W = Writing)

	Total fluency, to include technical areas			Working technical or professional knowledge			Minimum ability		
	S	R	W	S	R	W	S	R	W
Key personnel									
Middle management									
Technicians									
Instructors									
Clerical, administrative personnel									

--Questions 5 through 11 deal with necessary or desirable foreign language training for U.S. nationals sent abroad. If these questions do not apply to your company, please turn directly to Question 12 on page 4.

5. If a foreign language proficiency for your company's U.S. national employees sent abroad is considered desirable or necessary, how is it obtained?

____ Employee proficient because of family associations with the language
____ Employee proficient because of prior school or military training
____ Company provides instruction on company time or employee time
____ Company requires employee to obtain necessary instruction on his own time
____ Employee has learned language while living abroad previously

6. If your company provides the instruction, how is the training done?

____ In-house: language instructors are hired by the company
____ In-house: instructors are company employees whose main job is in a non-language teaching area
____ Contracted with a university or other public educational institution (please specify by name) _____
____ Contracted with a private, commercial language teaching organization (please specify by name) _____
____ Other (specify) _____

7. Where is the training generally performed?

____ In the United States
____ In the foreign country
____ In a third country

8. Actual instruction takes place

____ at the office or plant
____ at the premises of the contractor or other teacher
____ at employees' homes
____ at a university or public school
____ other (specify) _____

9. When does the training take place?

_____ During regular working hours
_____ On employees' time; i.e., lunch hours, evenings, week ends

10. What is the average length of employee language training? (Please fill in the appropriate blanks with numbers.)

_____ hours per day
_____ hours per week
_____ weeks
_____ months

11. Is the language instruction which your company's U.S. national employees receive geared to any specific aspects of their jobs? (For example, courses designed for specific functional applications such as business management, engineering, aviation, etc.)

_____ Yes
_____ No

12. Which languages are currently most studied by your company's U.S. national employees? (Please rank in order with 1 being the language the most studied. Leave languages not studied blank.)

_____ Arabic
_____ Chinese
_____ French
_____ German
_____ Greek
_____ Japanese
_____ Persian
_____ Portuguese
_____ Russian
_____ Spanish
_____ Other (specify) _____

13. Are there some areas of the world where your company feels that a foreign language proficiency for its U.S. national employees is more important than in other areas?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, please rank the following areas, with 1 being the most important and 8 the least important.

_____ Canada
_____ Central and South America
_____ Western Europe
_____ Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union
_____ Middle East
_____ Africa
_____ India
_____ Far East

14. How are the language aspects of most of your company's international business negotiations and dealings handled? (Check the appropriate boxes.)

In the U.S.	Abroad	
		U.S. nationals speak the foreign language
		Foreign contacts and representatives speak English
		Interpreters are hired by your company
		Interpreters are hired by the foreign contact

15. Do you feel that the international aspects of your company's business are hindered in any way by language problems?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, please describe: _____

_____

_____

*****

Part III. Translation and Interpreting ("Translation" refers to written language; "interpreting" to spoken language.)

1. Which of the following types of documents does your company regularly (i.e., at least one requirement per month) have translated? (Please check all appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

From Foreign Language into English	From English into a Foreign Language	
		Correspondence
		Financial reports
		Promotional literature, advertising
		Journal or professional articles
		Brochures, technical manuals
		Instructional materials
		Other (specify) _____
		Have no requirements for translation

2. In what business locations does your organization require the services of interpreters?

_____ Overseas
_____ In the United States
_____ Both overseas and in the United States
_____ No interpreters required

3. If no interpreters are required, is it because

_____ all parties involved speak English?
_____ all parties involved speak the foreign language?

4. For what purposes are interpreters needed? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ Social, conversational needs
_____ Professional, technical language (e.g., meetings or conferences)
_____ Top-level negotiations
_____ Daily operations

5. How does your company meet its requirements for translating and interpreting? (Please check all that apply for each category.)

Translating	Interpreting	
_____	_____	Full-time employees whose primary job is handling foreign language matters
_____	_____	Company employees whose main job is in a non-language area
_____	_____	Commercial translation/interpreting agency
_____	_____	Private professional translator/interpreter
_____	_____	Private individual who knows the languages in question
_____	_____	School or university
_____	_____	Provided by other party in the matter
_____	_____	Other (specify) _____

6. Which foreign languages are involved most in translation and interpreting for your company? (Please rank the languages involved in each category beginning with 1 as that most used. Do not rank languages which are not used.)

Translation	Interpreting	
_____	_____	Arabic
_____	_____	Chinese
_____	_____	French
_____	_____	German
_____	_____	Greek
_____	_____	Japanese
_____	_____	Persian
_____	_____	Portuguese
_____	_____	Russian
_____	_____	Spanish
_____	_____	Other (specify) _____

7. Does your company employ persons <u>in the United States</u> whose primary job is dealing with foreign language matters?

_____ Yes
_____ No

<u>If Yes</u>, are these individuals

_____ experts primarily in one or more foreign languages?
_____ experts primarily in technical fields and secondarily in foreign languages?

8. How have the employees in Question 7 attained their foreign language proficiency?

_____ Personal or family contacts
_____ Academic (i.e., school or university) training
_____ Military school or institute
_____ Living abroad
_____ Commercial language teaching organization
_____ Training provided by your company

Part IV. Language Training for Non-U.S. Employees

1. Does your company include vocational or technical training programs for non-U.S. employees as part of its overseas operations?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, please specify the countries where this training is provided:

_____

2. In what language, and by what type of instructor, is technical or vocational training conducted? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

	Language of Instruction		
Type of Instructor	English	Native language(s) of students	Other language (specify)
U.S. nationals			
Local nationals			
Third country nationals			

Why did your company choose the language it did as the language in which to conduct technical training?

a. _____

b. _____

3. Does your company provide language training (either in-house or by contract) for any of its non-U.S. national employees or trainees?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, please specify in the chart below the countries and the languages which are taught.

	Languages	
Country	English	Other (specify)

4. How many language training programs for non-U.S. personnel does your company operate (either in-house or by contract) around the world? _____ In how many different countries? _____

5. What percentage of your company's non-U.S. employees (or trainees) receive technical/vocational training and/or language training? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

	Technical/ vocational training	Language training
0		
1-25%		
26-50%		
51-75%		
76-99%		
100%		

6. What types of your company's non-U.S. employees (or trainees) receive technical/vocational training and/or language training? (Please check the appropriate boxes in the chart below.)

	Technical/ vocational training	Language training
Upper level management		
Middle management		
Technicians		
Laborers		
Instructors		
Clerical, administrative personnel		

7. By whom are the non-U.S. personnel being trained by your company employed?

_____ By your company directly
_____ By the host government
_____ By a host nation firm
_____ Other (specify) _____

--Questions 8 through 23 apply to language training programs for non-U.S. nationals. If your company operates language training programs at a number of different sites, and if these programs differ significantly from each other, it would be most helpful if you could provide information on additional sheets of paper about each of them. If this is not possible, please select one language training program and describe it.

8. The information provided in the questions below applies to

_____ all programs
_____ one program (please specify by location) _____.

9. On what basis are individuals selected to receive language training?

____ Their particular job
____ Language aptitude test score
____ Previous English training
____ Lack of previous English training
____ Other (specify) _____

10. How does language training mesh with the technical training which your company provides?

____ Language training is conducted prior to technical training
____ Language training is not separate from technical training; the technical subjects are taught in the language in question
____ Language training and technical training are conducted simultaneously, but as separate courses

11. Where is the language training performed?

____ In the foreign country
____ In the United States
____ In a third country (please specify by name) _____

12. How is the training conducted?

____ In-house by language teaching employees of your company
____ In-house, informally by other employees whose main work is in a non-language teaching area
____ By contract with a private, commercial language teaching organization (please specify by name) _____
____ By a university or other school (please specify by name) _____
____ By a military or government language school or institute
____ Other (specify) _____

13. If the language training provided by your company is contracted with an outside organization, were the amount and types of training to be provided specified very clearly in the contract?

____ Yes
____ No

14. Has your company dealt with more than one language training contractor in the same program?

____ Yes
____ No

If Yes, why? _____

15. What variety of language is taught in your company's language training programs?

____ General only
____ Specialized in some way
____ Both general and specialized

16. Which of the factors below have been used by your company to determine the content of language training? (Check as many as apply.)

____ The specific uses of language required by each person's job (e.g., reading technical manuals, answering the telephone, listening to job-related lectures, writing business reports, etc.)
____ The level of language proficiency required (or acceptable) for each person's job (i.e., minimal through full professional proficiency)
____ The functional area into which a particular job falls (e.g., electrical engineering, aviation maintenance, agriculture, etc.)
____ The professional level of a person's job (e.g., from clerical to administrative to managerial)

17. If English language training is provided by your company for non-U.S. employees, which of the following best describes the instructors?

____ Trained language teachers, native speakers of English, hired in the United States and sent abroad; have no particular technical expertise
____ Trained English teachers, not necessarily native speakers of English, hired locally; no particular technical expertise
____ Not necessarily trained English teachers, but native speakers of English, hired locally (e.g., dependents, students, travelers)
____ Technical experts, native speakers of English, but not trained English teachers
____ Technical experts, natives of the local country, proficient in English but not trained English teachers
____ Other (specify) _____

18. Does your company (or its language training contractor) conduct a teacher teacher training program?

____ Yes
____ No

19. How are instructional materials obtained? (Check as many as apply.)

____ Readily available commercial materials
____ Developed by a team of materials development experts specifically for your company's programs
____ Put together as needed by individual teachers
____ Translations of already developed commercial materials
____ Other (specify) _____

20. Are students tested to determine entry level qualifications?

____ Yes
____ No

If Yes, what test is used? _____

21. How are students evaluated to determine their attained proficiency?

____ On the job performance
____ Interview
____ Test score (give name of test) _____
____ Other (specify) _____

22. What is the average length of time required to attain proficiency? (Please fill each blank with the appropriate number.)

_____ hours per day
_____ hours per week
_____ weeks
_____ months

23. What is the teacher-student ratio in a typical class? (Check the one nearest the average.)

_____ 1:1
_____ 1:5
_____ 1:10
_____ 1:25
_____ 1:50

24. Has your company ever attempted to adapt the language of technical materials which non-U.S. employees must use by limiting or simplifying vocabulary, sentence length, sentence type, etc.?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If Yes, has it been successful?

_____ Yes
_____ No

If No, why not? _____

25. What problem areas has your company experienced with language training programs overseas? (Please rank those which apply, with 1 being the most significant.)

_____ No significant problems
_____ Not enough time overall, in terms of months or weeks, for language training
_____ Not enough time per day devoted to language training
_____ Difficulty hiring and retaining instructors
_____ Overall budget: not enough money
_____ Facilities and equipment inadequate
_____ Discipline problems among trainees
_____ Poor student attendance
_____ Inability to eliminate poor performing or unsuited trainees from the program
_____ Inadequate language performance at completion of training
_____ Selecting a suitable language training contractor
_____ Local political situation
_____ Other (specify) _____

26. What role did language training play in planning the overseas operations of your company?

_____ Considered necessary from inception of venture; adequately planned for in terms of time and personnel required
_____ Considered necessary from inception of venture; amount of training needed underestimated
_____ Added when communication problems developed, after other aspects of venture in progress
_____ None

27. Please indicate if your company has been in contact with any of the following associations or organizations regarding language or language training matters. (Check as many as apply.)

_____ American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
_____ American Graduate School of International Management (Thunderbird)
_____ American Translators' Association (ATA)
_____ Berlitz
_____ The British Council
_____ Business Council for International Understanding
_____ Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)
_____ Modern Language Association (MLA)
_____ National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA)
_____ Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

***

Please check _____ if you wish to receive an executive summary of the results of this study and fill in the information requested below.

Name _____ Title _____

Firm _____

Address _____

City _____ State _____ Zip _____

*****

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION. IF YOU WISH TO MAKE ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS REGARDING YOUR FIRM'S LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAMS OR REQUIREMENTS, PLEASE USE THE SPACE BELOW.

APPENDIX F

NOTE ATTACHED TO QUESTIONNAIRE IN FOLLOW-UP MAILING MAIN STUDY

12/1/77

Information about your company's language programs and policies is vital to the success of this study. If for some reason, however, you are unable to respond, would you simply check one of the choices below and return the questionnaire in the envelope provided.

Thank you.

*****

--We have not responded to the questionnaire because

_____ the information requested is not available at corporate headquarters
_____ the information requested may not be released
_____ the questionnaire is too long
_____ Other _____

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