TESL REPORTER

Vol. 28(1) April 1995

ARTICLES:

Negotiated Interaction, Transfer, and the Second Language Classroom
by C. William Schweers, Jr. 1

Developing Authentic Video Materials for Improving Upper-Level Students' Listening Comprehension
by Nobuo Tsuda 15

Cooperative Learning and In-service Teacher Training: A Suggested Approach
by Ghazi M. Ghaith & Kassim A. Shaaban 25

Hermeneutics and Deconstruction at Work: Teaching English Poetry to Non-native University Students
by Wisam Mansour 32

REVIEWS:

Fictional Flights
by Lionel M. Kaufman, Jr. ....3[illegible]

Pronunciation Pairs: An Introductory Course for Students of English
by Emily T. King 39

Brigham Young University—Hawaii

TESL Reporter

A Forum for and by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

Editor
Mark O. James

Review Editor
Maureen Snow

Circulation Manager
Michelle Campbell

Editorial Staff

Priscilla F. Whittaker **Norman W. Evans**

Editorial Review Board

Mary Ann Boyd
Illinois State University Laboratory School

Lynn E. Henrichsen
Brigham Young University, Utah

Janet C. Constantinides
University of Wyoming

Marjorie Knowles
Mission College, California

Emilio Cortez
St. Joseph's University
Charles Drew Elementary School

Kouider Mokhtari
Oklahoma State University

Richard Day
University of Hawaii

Terry Santos
Humboldt State University

Ernest Hall
University of British Columbia

Larry E. Smith
East-West Center, Hawaii

T. Edward Harvey
Brigham Young University—Hawaii

Earl D. Wyman
Brigham Young University—Hawaii

ISSN 0886-0661

Copyright © 1995 by Brigham Young University—Hawaii

Subscriptions are available on a complimentary basis to individuals and institutions involved in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language outside the United States. The subscription rate within the U.S. is US$6. Requests for new subscriptions and change of address notification for continuing subscriptions should be sent to: Circulation Manager, *TESL Reporter*, BYU Box 1964, Laie, HI 96762 USA.

Negotiated Interaction, Transfer, and the Second Language Classroom

C. William Schweers, Jr.,
University of Puerto Rico at Bayamon

Ever since Krashen's first mention of the input hypothesis (1977), a great deal of theoretical and research effort has been put into clarifying and expanding this concept. One of the limitations of the hypothesis that has been identified is its assumption that comprehensible input and a favorable affective environment alone are sufficient preconditions for acquisition to take place.

Negotiated Interaction

Subsequent research (Pica, 1988, 1991) has shown that in addition to comprehensible input and a low affective filter, negotiated interaction is also a crucial element in the acquisition process. As Pica (1988) has stated, "comprehensible input is not sufficient for successful second-language acquisition, but . . . opportunities for the NNS (non-native speaker) to achieve more target-like output are also necessary" (p. 45). It is through negotiated interaction that this "more target-like output" can be achieved. The need to negotiate meaning brings into play modifications in the interlocutors' speech. Such modifications include repetition, synonymy, and paraphrase, and reductions in sentence length and syntactic complexity (Pica, 1991). Research has shown that all of these tend to facilitate comprehension, the necessary precondition for the input hypothesis to work. During the negotiation process,

> a listener signals that the meaning of the speaker's input is not clear either through requests for confirmation or clarification of the speaker's message or in response to the speaker's checks on message comprehensibility. The speaker and listener then try to modify and repair this input so that it can be understood (Pica, 1991, pp. 437-438).

This interactive procedure not only leads to increased comprehension but also to increased acquisition.

Pica (1988, 1991) and Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987) bring research evidence which demonstrates that "NS (native speaker) signals of incomprehension were successfully negotiated with NNSs, (and) played a role . . . in getting the NNSs to modify their interlanguage toward comprehensible and target-like production" (p. 68). Apparently, negotiated interaction provided the NNSs with models of what their comprehensible output could sound like. Comprehensible output, as Swain (1985)

has argued, is also necessary for second language acquisition to occur. The negotiation of meaning, being a dialogue, implies that learners are both receiving comprehensible input and producing comprehensible output in a more target-like form, thereby achieving all the preconditions for acquisition to take place. These observations provide additional support to claims by Krashen (1985) and Long (1985) that comprehensible input from the NS is the main contributor to NNS output.

An important factor in negotiated interaction is redundancy. This redundancy or repetition and restatement is perhaps the major catalyst in the interlocutors' achieving mutual comprehension. Other important factors which have been identified are linguistic modifications of content words and the timing of the delivery (Pica, 1991). It has also been recognized that negotiated interaction involves far more than what is found in usual classroom interaction, that is the exchange of general solicits and their responses. Rather negotiated interaction implies "a mutual activity geared toward signalling needs to understand unclear input, checking on input comprehension, and adjusting interaction toward mutual comprehension" (Pica, 1991, p. 447).

Transfer

The examples we will be seeing of negotiated interaction all also contain examples of first language (L1) transfer. Transfer, as defined by Faerch and Kasper (1987) is "an IL (interlanguage) plan containing an L1 subplan" (p. 115). That is to say that it is a plan for expression using interlanguage knowledge which includes an element or elements inspired by L1 knowledge. According to Ringbom (1983), transfer can take on two forms.

> One is when semantic features are taken over, i.e., the semantic range of a target language word is modified on the model of an equivalent source language word, which in some contexts can be used as an equivalent. The other is when translation equivalence is assumed between source language and target language, so that existing lexical items in the target language are combined into compounds or phrases analogical with the source language. (p. 207)

The first of these procedures is termed borrowing. It is when an L1 word is foreignized (modified according to second language [L2] phonological or morphological principles) or simply imported without modification to the IL plan. The second case, termed lexical transfer, is when L1 term or expression and its L2 translation equivalent are, often erroneously, assumed to share the same semantic range of meaning. Borrowing is usually based on cognate-pairing (Carroll, 1992), a process of correctly or incorrectly identifying L1 and L2 words of similar morphophonological shape as meaning exactly the same thing.

Lexical transfer is an important communication strategy used by L2 learners to cope when faced with ignorance of the necessary lexicon to achieve their communicative intent. Reliance on L1 knowledge can often lead to a guess which communicates, although of course not always. It is however, a useful tool which often reveals great creativity on the part of the speaker/writer. L1 transfer was the focus of the larger study from which the examples we will be seeing were taken.

Examples of Negotiated Interaction

Now let us turn to some cases of negotiated interaction. These examples involve both NS-NNS and NNS-NNS interactions. The principal subjects are all young, intermediate level and recently arrived Hispanic (Dominican or Puerto Rican) learners of English as a second language studying at language institutes in New York. Interlocutors are of the same background as the principal subjects, except for differences in first language. In the transcriptions, the letter in brackets indicates the native language of the interlocutor (S = Spanish, R = Romance, E = English, J - Japanese). The symbols like S01 represent principal subjects and S01-2 indicates an interlocutor. Words written in brackets, e.g., [arlequin], are words actually uttered in Spanish. Words written between slashes, e.g., /stIp/, are phonetic transcriptions of words which were neither English or Spanish.

The negotiated interaction of subjects and interlocutors at times led to development in the subjects' IL lexicon. At times, it did not. Often, aspects of these examples reflected L1 transfer. This section will begin with an extended example of negotiated interaction which includes excerpts from all four conversations/tasks subject S04 was engaged in. These illustrate a number of the processes which will be looked at in more detail later in this section.

1) An example of Development of a Lexical Form Through Conversational Interaction

1A) S04: Okay, in my, in my picture he's wearing a, a, I don't know . . . how to explain. /es/, no, no white shirt, he's wearing a, like a /stæn/ a **/list/** shirt.

S04-1: Shirt?

S04: Yeah, **/lis/**, **/lis/**. [R]

In his first attempt to refer to a striped shirt, S04 admitted quite frankly that he didn't know the term. His first strategy was to describe physical attributes by indicating

what it was not, i.e., it was not an all white shirt. He next attempted foreignizing. His first product, /stæn/, has no apparent explanation. His next, however, does. The item /list/ is his foreignized form for *listas* or stripes in Spanish. The L1-Romance interlocutor didn't appear to understand, and the topic was changed. At no later point in this interaction did S04 attempt to refer to stripes.

In the next conversation/task, S04 once more faced the need to communicate the concept of 'stripe'. This time he received the help of his L1-English interlocutor.

1B) S04-2: What, what kind of shirt?

S04: Ah, like a, I don't know wha . . . what to say.

S04-2: **Striped.**

S04: **Stripe.**

S04-2: Yeah. Okay.

S04: Black and white, right?

S04-2: Right. [E]

Again, S04 admitted his ignorance, but now his English-speaking partner could supply the correct item where the romance speaking interlocutor could not. S04 repeated it in its basic form and then verified ("Black and white, right?") that this new term did indeed refer to what he thought it did. Later in the same conversation/task he tried to use his newly acquired lexical item.

1C) S04: Okay, no, she's wearing, ah, ah, **/stIp/, /stIp/** . . .

S04-2: **Striped**

S04: **Striped**, eh, dress. And also she has a, a white belt. [E]

All he could recall was a reduced version of the target word which omitted the 'r' and simplified the vowel sound. The interlocutor refreshed his memory, and S04 produced an appropriate version of the target, including the past participle suffix.

In his next conversation/task, he once again had occasion to use his new term.

1D) S04: And . . . one of them is wearing a, a **striped** shoes.
You know?

S04-3: Stripe? Yes. [J]

Perhaps recalling the problems he had with the term, S04 checked to be sure his L1-Japanese interlocutor was familiar with the item and found that he was.

In the last conversation/task, the need arose again.

1E) S04: And a **stripe**, eh, shirt.

S04-4: Uhm. Yes.

S04: Right. Okay. Behind . . . him there two, two persons . . . [S]

S04 has returned to a simplified version of the item. His interlocutor's response did not suggest strong understanding of the item; it was more of a polite 'yes'. S04 quickly changed the subject. Yet, later in the conversation/task he needed the item again.

1F) S04: Ah, **stripe** shirt. You know what I mean?

S04-4: A **/stray/** . . .

S04: And also he, he has . . .

S04-4: A **/stip/**, a **/strip/**.

S04: **Stripe**. A **stripe, [arlequín]**.

S04: Ah, yes, we say . . .

S04: And also . . .

S04-4: <says a word in Catalán>

S04: <laughs> I didn't know you used this word. [S]

Since S04 had acquired the item in its basic form at least, he took on a teaching role. S04-4, an L1-Catalán/Spanish speaker, had the same problems as S04 controlling aspects of the item's pronunciation, i.e., the 'r' and the vowel sound. S04 repeated the pronunciation for him and also gave a translation, *arlequín* or harlequin. The subject was alluding to the clown's striped or diamond-figured costume or possibly to striped Neapolitan ice cream. S04-4 understood this term and gave the Catalán equivalent.

In the data from the conversation/tasks there were numerous examples of correct learning, wrong learning and even no learning. An example of each of these will be presented here.

2) An Example of Correct Learning Through Interaction

S01: The woman who's in front has a, a /bot/ in his foot, foot, a **/bot/**, ah, ah, big shoes, you know, like the, the like use the, the, you know the high shoes when you, you go to a camp in a horse . . .

S01-3: Uh huh.

S01: He has a big shoes . . .

S01-3: Oh, **boots**.

S01: **Boots**.

S01-3: **Boots**.

S01: **Boots**, she has **boots**, black **boots**. I think has a line, a black line. Is white with a black lines, the **boots**. [E]

After attempting a foreignized form of the Spanish *botas*, S01 tried a number of strategies to communicate the target concept. He went to the superordinate 'shoes'; described physical attributes, 'big' and 'high'; and finally described a context of use. It took the L1-English interlocutor a moment to understand, then he supplied the appropriate pronunciation. Almost like a classic audiolingual repetition drill, the partners repeated the form until S01 had it. He even used the form more than necessary in the final utterance presented. All this led to learning as S01 subsequently used the form correctly.

3) An Example of Incorrect Learning Through Interaction

The process of acquisition through negotiated interaction does not always lead to the learning of appropriate forms, as the continuation of S04's conversation with S04-4 illustrates:

3A) S04: Also, also he has a white hair.

S04-4: Yes. But in all the, all the head? Or just in, in the . . .

S04: All, all . . .

S04-4: Ah, my, in my picture he's **/kalb/**?

S04: Eh, I don't know what this . . .

S04-4: **/kalb/**. Yes, **[calvo]**

S04: Yeah, I don't know if he . . .

S04-4: <writing> He is **/kalb/**. Yes.

S04: This is the word?

S04-4: Yes. **/kalb/**.

S04: Okay. [S]

S04-4 foreignized *calvo* to produce /kalb/. S04 wasn't entirely convinced this could be done. Yet S04-4 insisted that it was indeed the word, and S04 appeared to finally acquiesce. Thus, a form constructed on the basis of transfer may have entered the IL lexicon of both of these L1 Spanish speakers.

Let us see another example of the same process:

3B) S01: The man who has the accident. If in his right eyes has a **band**, think is a **band**. You know?

S01-4: Which eyes is **blind**?

S01: Huh?

S01-4: Which eye is **blind**?

S01: Blind?

S01-4: Yes.

S01: What is **blind**?

S01-4: **Blind** is . . .

S01: **Blind**, oh, okay, **blind**.

S01-4: He can't see.

S01: This, uh, man has a, a **blind** in the, uh, right eyes. [J]

In this case, S01 wanted to refer to the patch on the young man's eye. He used the English word, but probably foreignized form 'band' (coming from *venda*, bandage or surgical dressing, a word which is often pronounced *vanda* in Caribbean Spanish). The L1-Japanese interlocutor understood 'blind'. S01 took this to be a correction of the form he head used for 'bandage' and subsequently used the term 'blind' as a noun in its slot. Accepting this form may also reflect transfer as the word *blindaje*, an apparent cognate, refers to armored plating, i.e., a protective covering.

4) An Example of No Learning in Spite of Interaction

S10: And, uh the man have the **/parch/** on his left eyes is smile . . .

S10-4: Well . . . uhhh. Which, which eye is..has he got the **patch** on?

S10: Right.

S10-4: Hum. In my picture he has the **patch** on the left eye.

S10: But it's right, yeah . . . his eye.

S10-1: On that eye? <gesturing>

S10: Yes.

S10-4: But not in my picture. He's got it on this eye. <gesturing>

S10: Oh, I see.

S10-4: No, in my picture he's got it on this eye. So, so that's a difference, right?

S10: Yeah.

S10-4: Okay, let's see. **Patch** <writes>. So you've got your **patch** on the left eye, right? [E]

S10 used the foreignized form /parch/ from *parcho*. His L1-English interlocutor seemed to be attempting to help him correct this as he repeated 'patch' four times. This correction was unobtrusively integrated into his comments. That is, the correct

form was clearly presented in the ensuing input S10 received. Yet a little later in the interaction, he produced:

S10: Of, of the man have the **/parch/**..? [E]

In spite of hearing and understanding the correct form in input, S10 did not modify his original choice. Perhaps practice at the moment the corrected form was presented would have drawn S10's attention to the difference between his solution and the appropriate form and, thus, input would have become intake and produced learning.

We have seen in examples 1A-1F and 2 where negotiated interaction led to learning and L2 acquisition. In examples 3A and 3B, however, the interaction led to incorrect learning. Example 4 resulted in no learning at all. Where the learning was correct the interlocutor was a NS of English. In the cases where the learning was incorrect the interlocutors had other first languages. In the example of no learning the NS of English tried to teach the correct form to the principal subject, but he did not pick up on it. These results, although based on a very small sample, put somewhat in question the value of negotiated interaction between NNSs of the same level, a common practice in ESL classrooms. Perhaps if there had been a marked difference in proficiency level between interlocutors, the more advanced NNS learner could have helped the less advanced.

Where we have seen examples of lexical transfer in these transcriptions, they have all been cases of borrowing. The creation of words like *list, bot, kalb,* and *band* in an attempt to approximate English, produced cases in which it was assumed incorrectly that a cognate-pair existed between Spanish and English. Although not part of the English lexicon, these words attest to learner creativity when trying to overcome lexical ignorance.

Negotiated Interaction and Transfer in the Second Language Classroom

Negotiated Interaction in the ESL Classroom

How can we incorporate negotiated interaction into the ESL classroom? We should begin by recalling Goldstein and Conrad's (1990) admonition that we cannot expect learners to use negotiated interaction without understanding the purposes of such an approach. In addition to the purposes of negotiated interaction, learners should understand the rules of speaking associated with the process as well as the respective roles of participants. This is to say that learners must be taught to use negotiated interaction.

One approach to the teaching of negotiated interaction would be for the teacher to model it in her everyday classroom speech. If teachers are constantly questioning meaning and seeking clarification, they will set an example which learners will follow in their approach to classroom discourse. Another approach would be to actively compare and contrast the discourse of negotiated interaction with that of usual classroom interaction. The teacher could present students either with written or taped transcripts of both kinds of discourse. Learners could discuss the two styles and establish comparisons and contrasts. Students could create rules for speaking and define the roles of participants in each mode to make the comparison more graphic (Goldstein & Conrad, 1990). It would be pointed out to learners that the negotiated interaction mode is the desired mode for this particular classroom.

As Pica, Young and Doughty (1987) have affirmed,

> it should no longer be the teacher's sole prerogative to ask questions; the scope and purpose of questions should extend beyond mere student display and teacher evaluation. All participants in classroom interaction should ask questions, and those questions should serve to clarify and confirm input, thereby making it comprehensible. (p. 754)

Any approach to second language teaching/learning which brings about change in the traditional role of teacher and student so that students take on more initiative and responsibility for learning is bound to increase classroom interaction, which in turn will increase comprehension of input and lead to more target-like speech. This naturalistic interaction should be the goal. It has been demonstrated through research, for example that input artificially modified in advance, in the form of carefully graded syllabuses and simplified readings and tape recordings is of limited value in increasing comprehension (Pica, Young & Doughty, 1987).

An exercise teachers could give their students would be to simply say difficult-to-understand utterances to different students and then give them the chance to practice questioning and investigating to discover the meaning of what they have heard. This would give students the opportunity to develop skills in uncovering the meaning of statements which contain unfamiliar lexical items.

Once students have been introduced to the nature of the discourse typical of negotiated interaction and had the chance to practice it, they can be asked to engage in spontaneous conversations in which they try to negotiate meaning. When necessary students would ask appropriate questions or request clarification of what they are hearing. Such conversations would probably be most effective between students of different proficiency levels. More advanced learners are more likely to produce speech requiring negotiation by a less advanced learner than if two students at the same level are conversing.

Finally, students could be asked to write up summaries of the conversations they have engaged in. This would be a way of demonstrating that they have indeed understood what took place in the conversation. They could explain the meanings they discovered for lexical items which they initially did not understand. Such a written record would be concrete proof that negotiation leads to the understand of meaning.

Part of participating in negotiated interaction is being a good listener. Teachers should create exercises which will enable learners to increase their ability as listeners. This could take the form of having students listen to recordings of brief conversational exchanges. The teacher could then quiz students with questions such as "What was the word used after 'finally'?" or "What was the first word in Jane's response to Tom's question?" This would develop students' acuity as listeners.

Goldstein and Conrad (1990) recommend the use of negotiated interaction in writing conferences:

> just as negotiation clarifies meanings in ordinary conversation, negotiated interaction in the (writing) conference may clarify the need for revision and the strategies to undertake the revision. Students, therefore, may understand more clearly what to revise, how to revise, and why the need to revise.

Students can analyze the discourse of conferences and come to appreciate their goals, the roles of participants and the rules of speaking they will employ when they participate in conferences.

Finally, we might point out that not all learners have the same styles of interaction. Some students are very reticent about actively engaging in classroom conversations. Pica (1991) suggests that since negotiation moves are vehicles for repetition, this repetition will be available to all classroom participants who are actively listening. Repetition generated by more verbal members of the class will facilitate comprehension for all members of the class.

The active give and take of negotiated interaction is a necessary element in any classroom. Constant questioning of meaning and requests for clarification can but lead to more target like speech and to greater quantities of comprehensible input available to class members. This in turn, if the input hypothesis is right, will lead to greater second language acquisition by all who are actively or even passively engaged in classroom interaction.

Transfer in the ESL Classroom

In the case where L1 and L2 are similar, work with cognate transfer can also be productive in the ESL classroom. Work can be done to help students recognize

cognates and also to develop the risk taking behavior of trying to create L2 words on the basis of an assumed cognate relationship. Work with cognates is, of course, most feasible when dealing with monolingual classes of English learners. However, if the teacher is working with a class in which three or four different first language groups are represented, he or she can work with cognates with each group individually. The teacher could ask colleagues who speak their students' languages for suggestions of common and/or problematic cognates which could be dealt with in class.

Cognates are not only found among closely related Western languages. Japanese, for example, uses a large number of borrowings from the English language. For instance, we have *booru* (transcribed in Romanji) for "ball," *mootaa* for "motor," and *painuppuru* for "pineapple."

As spoken cognates are often more difficult to recognize than when they are encountered in written form, the teacher could simply read sentences containing cognates to the students, repeat the cognate, and then ask students for its L1 equivalent. Students could also be given lists of the L1 versions of cognates and asked to try to create the correct L2 form.

Teachers can play a kind of game with their students. The teacher can present the class with items from a list of say 10 true cognates. He or she will then ask students to call out their approximations of the pronunciation of the English equivalent. The student who comes the closest gets a point. At the end of the game, the teacher can write the spelling of the English equivalents on the board and use these words for pronunciation practice.

Students must also develop an awareness that not all cognates are true cognates; there are also semi-cognates and false cognates. If we take the case of Spanish, we see that a word like *organización* is a direct cognate of "organization". Both words share the same semantic fields. On the other hand, while *attender* can mean "attend" as in taking care of a person or problem it does not mean "attend" in the sense of being present at an event. This is an example of a semi-cognate. An example of a false cognate would be *actual* in Spanish which means current or contemporary. "Actual" in English means real or true.

One activity which teachers could create would be to write short paragraphs in which the teacher, him or herself, commits the kinds of cognate errors frequently found in the speaking or writing of ESL students. The students' job would be, using their dictionaries, to try to identify as many of the errors as possible and to provide the correct English equivalent of the false or semi-cognates found in the paragraph.

Another useful exercise would be for the teacher to give learners parallel lists of semi-cognates in L1 and L2, exemplifying the major semantic domains the particular word covers in each language. Learners could compare these and make statements

about the range of domains covered in each language. Another exercise would be simply to give students lists of cognates and have them use their dictionaries to determine if each cognate pair represents a true, semi- or false cognate.

Learners can also be taught the equivalent affixes used in both languages. For example the English suffix *-ity* compared to the Spanish *-idad*, or the English prefix *non-* and the Spanish *no-*. Next students should be encouraged to take risks and to try to create L2 words through a process of foreignization, or adapting the L1 base word according to L2 phonological and morphological principles. They should also learn to be sensitive to feedback to determine if their guess worked or not.

Learners could be asked to keep notebooks in which they record true, semi-. and false cognates. Once students' glossaries of cognates have begun to grow, the teacher can request that students choose five true cognates, five semi-cognates, and five false cognates. Students would then use these words to compose an original story. This practice will reinforce the similarities and differences in meanings of cognates which students must master as their second language lexicon develops.

As we can see, both the use of negotiated interaction and work with cognate transfer are useful techniques in the L2 classroom. Negotiated interaction increases comprehension and leads students to more target-like production; cognate transfer provides learners with a rapid way to increase their receptive and productive vocabularies. Both definitely have their place in the ESL classroom.

References

Carrol, S.E. (1992). Cognates. *Second Language Research*, 8, 93-119.

Goldstein, L.M. & Conrad, S. M. (1990). Student input and negotiation of meaning in ESL writing conferences. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24, 443-460.

Krashen, S. (1977). The monitor model of adult second language performance. In M. Burt, H. Dulay, and M. Finocchiaro (Eds.), *Viewpoints on English as a Second Language* (pp. 152-161). New York: Regents.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. London: Longman.

Long, M. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 377-393). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Pica, T. (1988). Interlanguage adjustments as an outcome of NS-NNS negotiated interaction. *Language Learning*, 38, 45-73.

Pica, T. (1991). Classroom interaction, negotiation, and comprehension: Redefining relationships. *System* 19, 437-452.

Pica, T. Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21, 737-758.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.) *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235-256). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

About the Author

Bill Schweers has taught ESL for 27 years and has resided in Puerto Rico for the past 16 years. He holds a Ph.D. in TESOL from New York University. His research interests are language transfer and language planning. He has served as the editor and assistant editor of the Puerto Rico TESOL-Gram.

Conference Announcements

TEFLIN (Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia) Silver Anniversary Seminar. Yogyakarta, Central Java, Indonesia. August 2-5, 1995. Contact: Faculty of Letters Universitas Sanata Dharma, Teromolpos 29, Yogyakarta 55002, Indonesia. Tel: (62-274) 513-301. Fax: (62-274) 62383.

Thai TESOL 16th Annual Convention. Pattaya, Thailand. January 11-13, 1996. Theme: Voices of Practice. Contact: Thai TESOL c/o Dr. Suntana Sutadarat, Dept. of Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education, Ramkhamhaeng University, Ramkhamhaeng Rd., Bangkok 10241, Thailand. Tel: (622) 321-1559. Fax: (662) 247-7050.

LERN 1995. 4th International Literacy and Education Research Network Conference. Townsville, Australia. 29 June - 2 July 1995. Contact: LERN Conference 1995, P.O. Box 481, Haymarket, Sydney 2000, Australia.

TESL Reporter 28,1 (1995), pp. 15-23

Developing Authentic Video Materials for Improving Upper-Level Students' Listening Comprehension

Nobuo Tsuda,

ECC Foreign Language Institute, Japan

Introduction

According to one author's estimate, when it comes to communication, the average adult spends approximately nine percent of the time writing, sixteen percent reading, thirty percent speaking, and forty-five percent listening (Rivers, 1978). This estimate emphasizes the importance of listening in communication.

In spite of the importance given to listening in foreign language acquisition, many upper-level Japanese students still lack sufficient listening comprehension skills to adequately understand authentic English language materials, such as satellite and bilingual TV programs and video tapes of foreign movies. Many students report that they don't really know what the speakers are talking about or that they have no ideas what is being said.

The reason that many students don't understand authentic listening materials is because of the inter-relationship of several language components involved in listening comprehension. These include phonological (elisions, reductions and contractions, etc.), syntactic, lexical, and organizational (discourse) elements. Because these components are inter-related, a problem with one many affect students' comprehension of the overall message (Wilcox and Greathouse, 1978).

The purpose of this paper is to present a model for developing materials to use with authentic videos in EFL classes and effectively improve students' listening comprehension. This report describes the process we underwent in planning and implementing a video course to be incorporated into our institution's upper-level curriculum.

The paper also explores the results of teacher surveys (65 participants), conducted in the spring of 1993, and student surveys (379 participants), conducted in December, 1993, to aid us in our ongoing evaluation of the video course. Our work has been based on the premise that developing authentic video materials suitable to students' needs will help them to improve and build confidence in their listening comprehension.

Using Authentic Video Materials

The use of authentic materials in the classroom has been supported by many researchers. First of all, Krashen (1982) points out that authentic learning experiences provide learners an opportunity to acquire the target language. Also

Clarke states "the language of the real world is what learners need to be exposed to because that language is uncompromising towards the learner and reflects real-world goals" (Clarke, 1989, p. 73). For using videos in classrooms, Stempleski and Tomalin (1990) state that moving pictures together with sound present language more comprehensively and realistically than any other teaching medium. For listening exercises, Ur (1984) points out that using authentic videos provides useful listening practice for high-level learners.

For many years, ECC has used various commercial textbooks in upper-level classes; however, materials that adequately satisfy the needs and objectives of upper-level students have been few and far between. Given this, and the recognition of continuing deficiencies in students' comprehension of authentic listening materials, the long-held idea of incorporating authentic videos into the upper-level curriculum at ECC was finally realized in the new video course introduced in upper-level classes in the spring of 1993.

Upper-Level ECC Classes and Students

There are two upper-level courses at ECC: pre-advanced and advanced. Both pre-advanced and advanced students study for 105 minutes, twice a week, in a one year program. With the inclusion of videos in the 1993-94 curriculum, one class a week is devoted to video. The average class size is from five to ten students, and there are about eighty upper-level classes throughout ECC districts in Japan.

The students in upper levels tend to be in college or working outside the home, and most of them study English for the purposes of traveling, working or studying abroad, satisfying a work requirement, or as a hobby.

General Course Objectives

Before formulating course objectives, we consulted Richards' taxonomy of listening skills (1985) and Lund's (1990) taxonomy of "real-world listening behaviors". Then general course objectives were delineated as follows:

By participating in the video course, it was hoped that students would be able to develop and enhance the following micro-skills for listening comprehension:

-focused listening for key words and ideas
-guessing meanings of words from context
-recognizing functions of stress and intonation in language nuisances (irony, sarcasm, etc.)
-predicting and inferring causes and effects
-identifying topics and situations.

Students also would be able to practice and improve in the following speaking skills:

-increase active vocabulary, particularly with regard to idiomatic
and colloquial expressions
-use a variety of language structures appropriately and more confidently
-give detailed descriptions and supported opinions.
-analyze and discuss sophisticated or abstract topics.

Concerning the use of video tapes, ECC has a contract with NBC (National Broadcasting Corporation) in America as its video suppliers and is authorized by NBC to use their videos, photographs, and transcripts.

The process of selecting videos begins with a thorough screening of a list of thirty to forty videos provided by NBC. Those programs which appear to offer the best teaching/learning opportunities are requested for viewing. Then Japanese and native staff members, along with some additional pre-advanced/advanced level Japanese volunteers, watch the videos and consider the following points:

-Is the level of language appropriate for pre-advanced/advanced students?
-Are there any controversial/out-of-date topics?
-Would the program content be interesting or informative to
most Japanese students?
-Is everyday English used?
-Does the vocabulary load seem reasonable for students at this level?

Other aspects of the video taken into consideration include listening speed, accents of the speakers, naturalness of the dialogs/conversations, and cultural content of the program. Feedback and reviews on a variety of videos are shared among ECC's districts across Japan before final video selections are made. (Four videos were chosen for the 1993-94 curriculum.)

Materials for Teachers and Students

Teacher's Book: The Teacher's Book is an exact copy of the Student's Book and contains teaching procedures, notes, and answers for each section. It also contains a transcript of the video program. A new Teacher's Book is provided for each video program.

Class Video Tape: Only the teacher has a copy of the video tape of each program. ECC does not have the authority to sell or distribute copies of video tapes to students.

Student's Book: The Student's Book contains all of the study materials students need for class. There is a Student's Book for each video program, and each book contains about ten "cuts" (units/lessons).

Video Transcripts: Complete transcripts of each video program are included in the Teacher's Books and are also given to students at the beginning of each video

program. However, students are given the transcript as a home-study aid and are asked not to read ahead in the script to sections that have not yet been viewed/studied in class.

Audio Tapes: The audio tape is the sound track of the video and is to be used as a back-up in case there are technical difficulties with the video tape. The audio tape may also be incorporated into some classroom activities.

Detailed Description of Student's Book

Previewing

Character Descriptions: The section which is dealt with in the first cut of each video, serves as an introduction to the program through the characters, each of which is briefly highlighted to give students a basis for understanding what motivates their speech and actions in the program.

Previewing: This section works as an extension of the warm-up and prepares students for viewing the video by prompting them to think about themes or situations that will occur in the sequence. Often the focus is on evoking students' predictive skills to facilitate their listening comprehension. Previewing questions are also used to engage students in discussion relevant to the lesson's (video) sequence.

Vocabulary: this section prepares students for terms and expressions in the sequence that may be unknown or aurally unfamiliar and give students the opportunity to expand their active and passive vocabularies. As students have the task of matching terms with definitions, their internalization of the terms is enhanced. Furthermore, they may discuss and seek clarification on the terms' meaning and usage with each other and the teacher.

Viewing

General Comprehension: The questions in this section are discussion-oriented, encouraging students to summarize the main occurrences or transactions in each scene, and give students a focus for the first viewing of a sequence. Students should be able to understand the essence of what occurs in the sequence without having to be well informed on details and, therefore, they view the sequence only once in this section.

Specific Listening: Activities, using cloze exercises or guided note-taking grids, are included in some lessons to provide a listening focus and fine-tune students' listening skills.

Specific Comprehension: Questions in this section give students a listening focus for more detailed information about a sequence. Because students are asked for more specific responses (e.g. quotes from the sequence/dialog, etc.), they are shown the designated video clip two times (or more, if they're unable to respond to the

majority of questions after two viewings). Pausing the video is a useful technique for facilitating a viewing exercise or doing comprehension checks.

Silent Viewing: This activity may appear in the viewing section, as well as in the previewing section, to encourage students to hypothesize and make use of visual/paralinguistic cues (e.g. characters' posture, facial expressions, etc.).

Language Nuances & Humor: Various lines quoted from the sequence/dialog contain language nuances which may be difficult for students to comprehend without support in interpreting sarcasm, cultural references, etc. Direct excerpts are taken from the sequence for students to consider with the guidance of questions designed to facilitate students' interpretation of the nuances.

Postviewing

Activity: A variety of postviewing activities have been created/adapted in order for students to practice language used in or related to a given sequence. Activities include roleplays (e.g. of a scene from the day's sequence, with possible variations in language, situation, or cultural context, etc.) and summarization/recall activities in which students summarize a scene or sequence in pairs.

Discussion: Questions in this section reinforce students' overall comprehension of the day's sequence by focusing on conversations/events from the sequence and, in some cases, providing direct quotes. Students further develop their discussion skills by analyzing and personalizing themes from the sequence.

Pilot Testing

In developing the first set of materials, extensive classroom testing was done, which included students surveys. Results were generally positive, indicating that most students found the material useful and helpful to their listening comprehension. Many students indicated that completing the exercises in the student materials enabled them to satisfactorily understand the video sequence by the end of the lesson. Through the active listening format and the structured support of the materials and teaching procedures (taking students through various previewing, viewing, and postviewing exercises) students were able to deal with the video in depth, to the extent that they could discuss and interpret selected language nuances (with the ready assistance of the teacher). Hence, based on the lesson format, student materials, and teacher support, students felt the program content was interesting and that they had learned a lot about the target culture.

Teacher Surveys

In order to find out how teachers felt about the new video course, based on their experience teaching the first video program, *Sara* (a situation comedy), and to

examine ways to improve the student/teacher materials, a survey was administered to sixty-five teachers in the spring of 1993. The questions pertained to the teachers' lesson preparation, the execution of the lessons, and teachers' perceptions of the content of the student and support materials.

In terms of lesson preparation time, some teachers spent a lot of time in the beginning due to their unfamiliarity with the materials and equipment. But gradually preparation time was reduced to that which was standard for most other materials.

Most teachers followed lesson plan guidelines and found that the cuts were easy to teach. However, they could not cover all the sections adequately in each class. Some skipped the postviewing activity in order to get into the discussion section. Others skipped different activities to adjust for time limitations. Lack of time was evidently the biggest problem in getting through a video lesson.

From our evaluation of the video course at that time, including results of the teacher surveys, a few alterations were made in subsequent video materials. In *Hot Pursuit* (the second video program) and *Christmas Eve* (the third video program), we reduced the number of questions in the "Language Nuances" Section and in some cuts, the entire Section was omitted if there was no substantial dialog that warranted highlighting and analysis for the students. In *Christmas Eve,* the previewing questions were reduced to two to save time.

In their section-by-section assessments, teachers differed particularly in their attitudes toward the "Language Nuances and Humor" section, which was seen by some teachers to be the most valuable section and others to be the least valuable. These conflicting results call for some explanation. Those who felt it was most valuable thought that this section was crucial to students' comprehension of the program. Without this section, students would feel dissatisfied because they really want to know what deeper meanings are being expressed or why some scenes could be funny. Teachers who felt it was least valuable thought that this activity was just too difficult for students to handle. They thought that the activity needed a lot of explanation by the teacher. Those who felt it was most enjoyable thought that the students were anxious to understand the nuances and humor.

Concerning support materials, teachers gave very positive feedback, indicating they found the Teacher's Book helpful and useful. They also thought that the Student's Book was well laid out and attractive.

In conclusion, even though there were a few problems, (e.g. running out of time with exercises) and some difficult activities within the cuts, most teachers seemed positive about teaching this new video course. Since the surveys were conducted toward the beginning of the course, some teachers were unsure whether some sections were really working well or not. Therefore, investigation will likely be made to determine how well different sections of the book are working over time.

Student Surveys

In order to collect information for our continuing evaluation of the video course, a survey was administered in December, 1993 at all ECC schools in Japan offering video classes for PA (pre-advanced) and AV (advanced) students. Of 379 respondents to the survey, 240 were PA students and 139 were AV students. The questions pertained to the following: the level of difficulty of the video class, the usefulness of the English used in the video class, the level of students' listening comprehension by the end of each class, the amount of time devoted to listening exercises, how adequately exercises were covered in each class, suggestions for other types of exercises, students' preferences among various types of videos for use in class, and students' overall satisfaction with the video class.

Results and Discussion

The purpose of this survey was to gather information that would help us evaluate and improve the video course. Overall, the survey results were very positive and most students were satisfied with the video course. Although some students felt that the video course was a little too difficult, most of them understood the video by the end of each class. Most students were satisfied with the content of the video programs and felt that the English used in the video class was useful or "OK." In addition, the amount of time devoted to listening exercises seemed to be appropriate, and exercises that teachers chose to do were covered adequately.

In comparing higher and lower-level students within a class, more lower-level students thought the video course was difficult and wanted more time for listening exercises. Accommodating lower-level students would be challenging for teachers because if they spent more time on listening exercises, they would not be able to cover the other sections and some higher-level students could get bored. One way of dealing with this would be for teachers to adapt the materials to students' needs by giving more support in the exercises rather than simply showing the video as many times as students want. Another thing that teachers could do would be to focus on a specific section of the unit and attend to helping students understand that particular section well, rather than deal with every section in the unit. And, on the materials-development end, the writers should continue to assess the amount of material included in each lesson.

Concerning the choice of video programs, some students expressed an interest in using the latest popular American TV programs and movies. Unfortunately, other than watching those videos for personal viewing purposes, such as at home, we are not allowed to use them for public viewing. And it is almost impossible to get permission from suppliers to use them in classrooms. We have considered the possibility of contracting with other corporations (e.g. ABC) as future video suppliers and are continuing to investigate alternative contract options.

As for the availability of classroom videos for students' personal use, according to the contract with NBC, we are not allowed to sell video tapes to the students. However, permission was given for students to rent the videos; therefore, they can now rent any of the videos previously studied from the office of their school.

Finally, the students were interested in doing a variety of exercises for vocabulary, pronunciation, listening, and speaking in the video class. Some students expressed an interest in doing (mechanical) exercises such as memorizing useful expressions or repeating after the characters in the dialog. They were also very motivated to understand the video in much more detail and to practice some expressions used in the video in speaking exercises. Consideration has been given to student's comments/suggestions about exercises, and efforts are being made to accommodate these suggestions where practical and appropriate to the course objectives.

Overall, results of the survey reflected a generally positive perception of the video course by students. Student feedback including additional, written comments, was informative and helpful to our evaluation—certainly, it has factored into the development of subsequent video materials and will continue to do so in the future.

In conclusion, using authentic videos in upper-level classes provides students with consistently good opportunities to be exposed to natural, spoken English and to improve their listening comprehension. With the belief that teacher and student feedback play an important part in assessing any course, we continually examine ways to improve our materials and teaching techniques, in an effort to best accommodate the educational needs and objectives of our students.

***Acknowledgment**
I'd like to express my sincere gratitude to Carrie Meyer, a member of this project team, for her valuable contributions and for proofreading this paper.

References

Clarke, D. (1989). "Communicative theory and its influence on materials production." *Language Teaching*, 22, 73-86.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition.* New York: Pergamon Press.

Lund, R. (1990). "A taxonomy for teaching second language listening." *Foreign Language Annals*, 23, 105-115.

Richards, J. (1985). *The Context of Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rivers, W. and Temperley, M. (1978). *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second Language.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Stempleski S. and Tomalin, B. (1990). *Videos in Action: Recipes For Using Video in Language Teaching.* New York: Prentice-Hall.

Ur, P. (1984). *Teaching Listening Comprehension.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wilcox, P. and Greathouse, J. (1978). "New teaching method could aid listening skills." *NAFS Newsletter* (January).

About the Author

Nobuo Tsuda received his M.A. TESOL from Brigham Young University in Utah. He works on materials developed for EEC Foreign Language Institute in Japan, where he is currently employed.

Conference Announcements

NCTE (National Council of Teachers of English). New York, New York. July 7-9, 1995. Theme: "Reconstructing Language and Learning for the 21st Century." Contact: NCTE Professional Development Services, 1111 W. Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL, 61801-1096 USA. Tel: (217) 328-3870, ext 203.

Asian Reading Conference. June 22-24, 1995. Singapore. Theme: Literacy and Biliteracy in Asia: Problems and Issues for the Next Decade." Contact: 1995 ARC Programme Committee, c/o Tele-Temps Pte. Ltd., 1002 Toa Payoh Industrial Park, #06-1475, Singapore 1231, Republic of Singapore.

Conference in Reading in First, Second and Foreign Languages. Université des Sciences Sociales, Toulouse, France. Contact: Gail Taillefer, Département des Langues et Civilisations, Université des Sciences Sociales, Place Anatole-France, 31042 Toulouse, France. Fax: 33-61-22-94-08.

JALT

The Japan Association for Language Teaching

invites you to subscribe to a selection of JALT Publications called

The JALT Special Overseas Sampler

A one-year **Sampler** includes:

*one issue of *The Language Teacher*, JALT's monthly publication, filled with articles, reviews, teaching tips, job announcements, and more.

**The Language Teacher News Supplement*, published annually, containing a directory of over 300 JALT local and national officers.

*'Pre-Conference News Supplement,' a preview of the Annual JALT International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning. The 21st conference will be held November 2-5, 1995 in Nagoya, Japan. Conference information and preregistration forms are included. Over 2,000 people from Japan and abroad are expected to attend. With over 200 presentations to choose from and an extensive Educational Materials Exposition, JALT 95 will be well worth a trip to Japan.

*'Call for Papers' for the 1996 Annual JALT International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning, to be held November 1-4, 1996 in Hiroshima, Japan.

To receive the **Special Overseas Sampler** purchase an international postal money order for 1,000 yen (that 's about US$10.00) made payable to JALT. Send it, along with your name, complete mailing address, contact phone/fax numbers to:

JALT Central Office
Glorious Tokyo #301
2-32-10, Nishinippori
Arakawa-ku, Tokyo
Japan 116

tel: +81-3-3802-7121
fax: +81-3-3802-7122

JALT is a not-for-profit professional organization of nearly 4,000 members in Japan and abroad, dedicated to promoting excellence in foreign language teaching.

Cooperative Learning and In-service Teacher Training: A Suggested Approach

Ghazi M. Ghaith & Kassim A. Shaaban,
American University of Beirut, Lebanon

The approach to in-service teacher training presented here—one that we have been following in the in-service teacher training at the American University of Beirut (AUB) — provides a scheme for organizing training programs for teachers of English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL). The approach proclaims cooperative learning (CL) as an underlying philosophy and assumes that aspects of methodology are best inculcated in teachers in-training through direct experience and demonstration. It also assumes that training is a continuous process and that the workshop format addresses the immediate needs of teacher trainees and is inclusive of several other ways of teacher training such as seminars, panel discussions, and peer networking.

Theoretical and Research Underpinnings

Over the past few decades, there has been a growing interest in CL as a prosocial approach for improving academic achievement, intellectual development, and language learning. Research has shown that CL promotes higher achievement than all forms of individualistic teacher-centered learning across all age levels, subject areas, and all tasks except perhaps rote and decoding kinds of tasks (Johnson, Muryama, Johnson, Nelson & Skon, 1981; Slavin, 1983a; Smith, Johnson & Johnson, 1991). Studies also report improved social development such as liking of classmates (Slavin, 1979, 1983b), reduced social stereotyping and discrimination (Cohen, 1980), and better intellectual competence (Kagan, 1989). Likewise, studies show gains in activities related to academic performance such as increased peer tutoring (Cohen & Kulik, 1981), increased frequency of practice (Armstrong, Johnson, & Balow, 1981), and increased time on task (Slavin, 1983a).

Along similar lines, research has shown that CL fosters language development and integration of language and content through increased active communication and use of language for academic and social functions. It has also been shown that CL promotes active student participation and involvement. Studies have shown that in the traditional language classroom, where teachers do most of the talking only 20-25 percent of students actually listen to the teacher (Cohen, 1984). Furthermore, student language production in such classes tends to be sequential, one student at a time,

which results in minimal student language production. In contrast, up to 80 percent of CL class time may be rescheduled for activities that include simultaneous student talk (Olsen & Kagan, 1992). This increased communication can be important to language learners, especially limited English proficient (LEP) learners who usually receive little teacher and peer communication in the traditional classroom. Needless to say, the linguistic complexity of communication increases as the learners are engaged in stating new information, giving explanation, offering rationales, and showing integration of information (Olsen & Kagan, 1992). This increased complexity often results in higher quality discourse as students better comprehend each other as well as take opportunities to practice their paralinguistic skills—gestures, facial and shoulder expressions, and so on.

The preceding benefits of CL have promoted educators to expand its applications into the domains of pre-service and in-service teacher preparation. For example, Whitaker (1990) maintains that regular group work and cooperative activities increase the teacher trainees' "confidence needed in order not to be too dominant in their classrooms" (p. 161). These activities also increase the trainees "readiness" to listen to, learn from, and reveal themselves to others. Likewise, Shaw (1992) argues for CL as a significant component in programs concerned with pre-service preparation of language teachers. He builds his argument on the premise that demonstrating and experiencing CL enhances the effectiveness of teacher preparation, adds enjoyment to the learning experience, and improves teachers' self-esteem and preparedness to work with other teachers. In addition, he argues that CL has much wider applications than many recent foreign language (FL) methods as it can be used with larger groups of learners and is not committed to a particular view of language learning or a particular syllabus.

Practical Orientation

The approach presented here emphasizes needs analysis, hand-on application, and light didactic teaching as it attempts to move away from theory without giving it up altogether. The approach integrates both experiential practice (practicum) and awareness raising (theory) as defined by Ellis (1990). Thus the trainees experience meaningful exposures to the teaching/learning process through observing certain techniques and activities in action, following which, they may produce similar activities with the content of their curriculum and teaching context in mind. They may also keep journals of reflective writing and produce posters that demonstrate their assimilation of practiced activities and techniques.

However, this is not to say that the approach falls into a pattern in teacher training with "heavy reliance" on procedures and techniques without proper understanding of the underlying theoretical assumptions (Ramani, 1990, p. 196).

Rather in this approach the theory or principles behind the techniques are either deduced or presented to the participants after the demonstrations. In this sense, the approach is compatible with the process approaches for teacher training recommended by Cross (1993) and Woodward (1992) in that there is emphasis on needs assessment and that the ideas promoted in the workshop are about ways of "enabling, sharing, eliciting, encouraging, questioning, responding, and developing as well as about didactic transmission of action as telling, helping, and informing" (Woodward, 1992, p. 3). Nonetheless, of the three ways recommended by Woodward for structuring workshop encounters (lectures, discussion, brainstorming), this approach adopts the last two. It also stresses experiential learning where participants witness the demystification of the training process by learning about content and process simultaneously through observing trainers using the dynamics of the activities and techniques they are trying to teach.

The Approach

The approach divides in-service teacher training into five major stages: needs assessment, exposure/observation, application/coaching, evaluation, and follow-up. Of course the five stages are interrelated in the sense that the techniques and activities selected for exposure and observation are grounded in the needs determined in the first stage. Likewise, the application/coaching stage is based on the activities and techniques shown and/or demonstrated in the exposure/observation stage, and the evaluation and follow-up stages address the feasibility of these activities and techniques.

Needs assessment

The first step in planning in-service programs is defining and analyzing local needs as perceived by administrators, trainees in the field, counselors, aides, parents, and students (Winn-Bell Olsen, 1992). The techniques of interviews and questionnaires provide multiple sources of data regarding the training and language needs to be addressed in the workshop. However, despite utilizing multiple sources, needs assessment data are usually reported as group trends where there may be important individual differences that should be explored. Consequently, it advisable to follow the negotiated syllabus approach in order to determine the training needs of participants and the language needs of their students.

Exposure/Observation

Upon assessing needs, the workshop activities and techniques can be determined. Here it is important either to show the selected techniques on video or to demonstrate them. Participants may also read about and discuss the techniques under consideration. It is also equally important to focus on the activities and techniques

that are appropriate for the nature of the material and tasks to be taught. For example, while the techniques of Student Teams Achievement Division (STAD) and Teams Game Tournament (TGT) are most appropriate for teaching materials that can be divided into discrete units and well-defined objectives such as syntax and language mechanics, the Group Investigation and Co-op techniques are suitable for problem solving and curriculum design. Likewise, the Jigsaw techniques are appropriate for teaching materials in a narrative form such as sociolinguistics, theory, and research findings, where as the techniques of Think-Pair-Share, Mixer-Review and Numbered Heads are appropriate for reviewing any subject matter at all levels of instruction. (See Note 1 for further reading).

Application/Coaching

During the application/coaching stage, the trainees apply the activities and techniques they have seen in action to their own curriculum and teaching context. The principles of coaching are introduced, explained, and demonstrated to participants. The participants are then organized in coaching pairs whereby they meet and assign the task to be observed. The presenters of model lessons receive feedback from their coaching partners on selected aspects of their practice, reflect on their teaching, and plan for further activities.

First the trainees develop their own lesson plans and prepare the necessary worksheets, reading materials, quizzes, answer sheets, and instructional checklist. Then they implement their lesson plans and receive feedback according to the following steps suggested by Olsen (1993).

1.Set-up
Teacher tells observer what to watch
Observe verifies topic
Coaching is scheduled: Observation and de-briefing sessions

2.Observation
Observer is introduced to class
Observer takes notes, uses checklist, etc.
Observer thanks class then leaves

3. De-Briefing
Thanks for the chance. I appreciated / enjoyed / learned
What happened?
What did you think about it?
How did you feel?

4. Reflection and more teaching (See Note 2 for further reading).

Evaluation

Following peer coaching, the participants evaluate their workshop experience through panel discussions, poster sessions, journals of reflective writing, questionnaires and/or interviews. These forms of evaluation fall under two major types: a) a continuing and b) summative. In the first type (journals of reflective writing and interviews) students record/report their feelings and impressions as the workshop goes on. In the second type (panel discussion, poster session, and questionnaire) participants demonstrate their assimilation of the workshop activities by means of presenting their ideas or by responding to questions intended for evaluating the workshop experience. This provides further opportunities for understanding and assimilation of workshop content as well as planning for future training.

Follow-up

The final stage is a follow-up one-day session intended to evaluate the implementation of the workshop content in the participants' own instructional settings. The participants return to the trainers after having had the chance to try out the workshop for discussion of the applicability of the concepts, activities, and techniques. Together they discuss the problems, make possible modifications, reassess their needs, reflect on their experience, and plan for future training activities.

Conclusion

Teacher preparation can take a variety of shapes and forms ranging from the apprenticeship model to distance training. The approach presented here aims at linking training needs to classroom practice while providing the trainees maximum opportunities for experiencing the teaching/learning process in action as well as developing and trying out their own lesson plans in a stress-free environment. The approach, too, promotes continuous growth and reflection on practice.

Notes

For interested readers some references to the dynamics of implementing the content of the approach:

1. Think-Pair-Share, Mixer Review, Numbered Heads and other similar techniques: Kagan, S. (1989). *Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers.* San Juan Capistrano, CA: Resources for Teachers.

   STAD, TGT, Jigsaw, Co-op Co-op, Group Investigation: Slavin, R.(1990). *Cooperative Learning: Theory, Research, and Practice.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

2. Peer Coaching: Joyce & Showers (1983). *Power of Staff Development Through Research on Training*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

References

Armstrong, B., Johnson, D., & Balow, B. (1981). Effects of cooperative versus individualistic learning experiences on interpersonal attraction between learning-disabled and normal-progress elementary school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 6, 102-109.

Cohen, A. (1980). Design and redesign of the desegregated school: Problems of status, power, and conflict. In W. Stephan and J. Feagain (Eds.), *Desegregation: Past, Present, and Future*. New York: Plenum Press.

Cohen, A. (1984). Introspecting about second language learning. Paper presented at the Ninth ILASH Conference, Netenya, Israel.

Cohen, A., & Kulik, J. (1981). Synthesis of research on the effects of tutoring. *Research Information Service*, 39, 227-229.

Cross, D. (1993). EFL teacher training and classroom reality. *TESOL Matters*. (June/July).

Ellis, R. (1990). Activities and procedures for teacher training. In R. Rossner & R. Bolitho (Eds)., *Currents of Change in English Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Johnson, D., Muruyama, G., Johnson, R., Nelson, D., & Skon, L. (1981). Effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic goal structures on achievement: A meta analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 89, 47-62.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1983). *Power of Staff Development Through Research on Training*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Kagan, S. (1989). *Cooperative Learning Resources for Teachers*. San Juan Capistrano, CA: Resources for Teachers.

Olsen, R. (1993). *Staff Development*. Material presented at training workshop, Larnaca, Cyprus.

Olsen, R., & Kagan, S. (1992). About cooperative learning. In C. Kessler (Ed.), *Cooperative Language Learning A Teacher's Resourcebook*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Ramani, E. (1990). Theorizing from the classroom. In R. Rossner & R. Bolitho, (Eds)., *Currents of Change in English Language Teaching* (pp. 196-208). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Shaw, P. (1992). Cooperative learning in graduate programs for language teacher preparation. In C. Kessler (Ed)., *Cooperative Language Learning A Teacher's Resourcebook.* Englewood Cliffs NJ: Prentice Hall.

Slavin, R. (1979). Effects of biracial learning teams on cross-racial relationships. *Journal of Educational Psychology.* 72, 381-387.

Slavin, R. (1990). Cooperative Learning: *Theory, Research, and Practice.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Slavin, R. (1983a). *Cooperative Learning.* New York: Longman.

Slavin, R. (1983b). When does cooperative learning increase student achievement? *Psychological Bulletin,* 94, 3, 429-445.

Smith, K., Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. (1981). Effects of controversy on learning in cooperative groups. *Journal of Social Psychology,* 122, 199-209.

Whitaker, S. (1990). Review of Teach English: A Training Course for Teachers. *ELT Journal,* 44, 2, 160-162.

Winn-Bell Olsen J. (1992). Cooperative in-service education. In C. Kessler, (Ed)., *Cooperative Language Learning A Teacher's Resourcebook.* Englewood Cliffs NJ: Prentice Hall.

Woodward, T. (1992). *Ways of Training: Recipes For Teacher Training.* London: Longman.

About the Authors

Ghazi M. Ghaith is Assistant Professor of education at AUB. His main interests are L2 methods and L2 reading and writing.

Kassim A. Shaaban is Associate Professor of English and Director of the Center for English Language Research and Teaching of the AUB. His main interest is teacher training.

Hermeneutics and Deconstruction at Work: Teaching English Poetry to Non-native University Students

Wisam Mansour,
Applied Science University, Jordan

Introduction

My main focus in this paper is the teaching of English poetry to nonnative university students of English language and literature departments in third world countries where English is a foreign language. At the time of their enrollment these students usually lack the necessary competence in English. And unfortunately this incompetence remains their companion until the time of their graduation. Faced with this level of students, on the one hand, and the curriculum with its language and literature courses, on the other hand, teachers should exercise all their efforts to render their literature courses practically beneficial to their students in order to enhance their language competence and literary appreciation skills.

Approaches to Teaching Poetry

Many reputable educators, such as Widdowson (1975), Leech (1991), Stern (1983), among others, argue that poetry is an invaluable source for the teaching of language and culture. But the question that poses itself is how to teach poetry to students in such a manner that would improve both their literary and language competence.

Among the common approaches practiced in teaching English poetry is the factual-historical one, that is to say teaching poetry by confining it to clusters of historical eras, such as medieval poetry, Elizabethan poetry, metaphysical poetry, and so on; with the sad result that students are crammed with more information on the historical background than studying the real thing, the poem itself, as it were, and the consciousness(es) and the significations it embodies and generates. In contrast, some teachers cut the suffering short by driving one interpretation of the poem, either of their own or extracted from some book as such, and then expect students to accept these interpretations as gospel.

Fact-Acquisition Approach

Since English poetry is not studied in this part of the world for English poetry's sake, fact-acquisition in teaching poetry a well as in teaching any other genre is not preferable when it becomes the sole purpose of the course. It is evident that such an

approach in teaching poetry will not help the students in their future careers, as they will, at best, become mere containers of data.

This is not to say that the teacher and the student should completely ignore the basic background studies concerning a given era or school of thought to which a certain poet belongs, for literary interpretion and appreciation require an awareness of historical facts. But what is more essential is developing the skill in handling the literary text itself, i.e. seeing, imagining, and feeling it. The rest—facts about era or school of thought—can be extracted from within the text by bits and pieces: i.e. in a Romantic poem the teacher can point to solitude, dejection, heroism, whenever they are encountered in the text, rather than talking about them beforehand, and in a vacuum.

Some teachers have always been aware that fact acquisition in teaching literature does not help the learner become original and creative: "The erection of a historical or geographical frame of reference for literature has seriously limited the way teachers and pupils have looked at literary texts, focusing attention on things external to experience of the text itself" (Dixon 1969: 79). Though easy and tempting to nonnative students and their teachers, the danger of factual teaching is that it acts as a trap to the learner. It entraps the students outside the text and shifts their attention to things external to the poem. From my class observations, I realized that students end up memorizing what meager notes they have about a given poet or era.

Thus, students render Wordsworth, for example, into a poet of nature, solitude, and dejection, a visionary prophet, etc., without really seeing how all this is worked out in any given poem. What matters to such students (and teachers) is the who, when and where of the poet (who he, his family, and his friends were, when and where he was born and educated, when and where he traveled, who influenced his work, when and where he died, etc.) and what established critics say about his work, with the result that students come out from the course at best described in a way similar to that of Byron's *Don Juan*:

> The arts, at least all such as could be said
> To be the most remote from common use,
> In all these he was much and deeply read;
> But not a page of anything that is loose,
> Or hints continuation of the species,
> Was ever suffered, lest he should grow vicious.

(*Don Juan*. Canto 1, 40, 315-320)

Approaches in the Scale: Simplified Hermeneutics & Deconstruction at Work

For poetry classes to be more effective, teachers should encourage personal responses so the text becomes personalized rather than reductively factualized. By "personalized" I do not mean that the students should empathize with the text as such, or forget themselves in their attempt to relive the experience communicated in the poem. Rather, the students should be taught how to apply their personal experiences and background knowledge (schemata) in interpreting a text. Consequently the text might/should yield various meanings, interpretations and responses. This way of training students to bring forward their own personal visions to a poetry class (or other literature courses) will greatly aid them in becoming better learners since, through the continual process of reading and responding, they will develop self-confidence in their own responses and interpretations.

Equipped with their basic knowledge and commons sense, the students should be brought face to face with selected poems that best represent a certain movement or poet, or are suitable for a pedagogical aim. Students should then be asked to tackle the poem applying various methods and techniques: such as drawing the poem, miming it, debating it in pairs, looking for colors, images, thinking of it in terms of their own native poetry, etc. However easy it might appear to the teacher, a poem might be like a wall of rock to the students. The task of both student and teacher is to cut through this wall of rock as much as they can. Indeed, poems might be regarded as walls of rock to those students whose teachers follow a factual-historical approach, but they usually do not feel the rockiness of the rock as they do not have to cut through it. They are just passive learners watching their instructor toiling his way through while they are dozing or jotting down notes. Whereas a hermeneutical or deconstructional approach requires that the students do the mining, while the teacher does the monitoring, inspiring, and encouraging.

The teacher's contributions should be in the form of suggestions, explications, and introductions when needed, intervening when necessary to explain a related mythical tale, biblical story or reference, a historical, or cultural event that might bring the class to a better awareness of the text. Students' responses, reactions, feelings, imaginations, sense of right and wrong, moral values and judgments, even their gender and political attitude should be encouraged to emerge to the surface while reading and interpreting.

This is not an easy thing to do, nor would I claim that students would always be able to produce plausible interpretations of the given poem. But then, the question is, who is to decide what is plausible? Traditionalists would take what has been written about a certain poem by certain recognized pen(s) as *the* plausible

interpretation(s). Others, who believe that, as Derrida (1981) puts it, a text has no beginning, no end, no stable identity, etc., would reject the very idea of claiming ownership of a text.

This would naturally lead to change in the attitudes of learners to poetry. Poetry should become something to be experienced and enjoyed, and factual, cultural and historical elements are to be elicited from within rather than without the text. For example, the following first two lines from Coleridge's "Christable"

'Tis the middle of the night by the castle clock,

And owls have awakened the crowing cock;

enable the students to see the emergence of the supernatural (and/or horror, evil, darkness, fear, death, etc) in the poem through the word "owls", and therefore establish a mood; make students see time and place and therefore establish a sense of belonging or alienation; make students hear the sounds of things and creatures and therefore shift their attention to rhyme and rhythm; and so on. Not to forget that all through the process of teaching, the teacher's role should always be suggestive and, to a great extent, neutral in imparting information as to the possible meaning(s) of a poem.

Conclusion

A series of experiments with various approaches have shown me that the historical-factual approach does not really better students' comprehension and appreciation of text, nor does it enhance their language competence. Rather it devotes an authoritarian, patriarchal pattern of teaching and produces parrots skilled in the art of memorizing data to pour down on paper at a moment of assessment, to be forgotten after the exam is over. On the other hand, the hermeneutical and deconstructional approach encourages the learners to depend upon their own responses and interpretations and above all, motivates them to use their own English in contending with the text, whether during the discussion sessions or in the exam. And this is the very thing teachers should foster in their students; as this will help them become creative in both understanding and using the language. I remember a response from a student in one of my classes to William Blake's "To Spring" establishing a lesbian relationship between Spring and Britain. Whether the response is truthful to the intentions of the poet or not is something beside the point. What matters is that the student attributed a feminine gender to spring and coupled it to the feminine Britain: *"O, thou, with dewy locks,...pour thy soft kisses on her bosom."*

References

Derrida, J. (1981). *Positions*. (Alan Bass, Trans.). London: Athlone Press.

Dixon, J. (1967). *Growth through English.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Leech, G. (1991). *A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry.* London: Longman.

Stern, H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1975). *Stylistics and the Teaching of Literature.* London: Longman.

About the Author

Wisam Mansour is Assistant Professor of English Literature at the Applied Science University in Amman, Jordan. An earlier version of this paper was presented at the 27th International IATEFL Conference, University College of Swansea, Wales, April 4-7, 1993.

Conference Announcements

ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) Annual Convention. November 18-20, 1995. Anaheim, California. Contact: ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, New York, 10701-6801. Tel: (914) 963-8830. Fax: (914) 963-1275.

CULI (Chulalongkorn University Language Institute) 3rd International Conference. November 27-29, 1995. Bangkok, Thailand. Contact Chaniga Silpa-Anan, Director, CULI, Prembrachatr Bldg., Phyathai Rd., BKK 10330, Thailand. Tel: (662) 254-7670. Fax: (662) 252-5978. E-mail: Chaniga@chulkn.chula.ac.th.

APLV (Association des Professeurs de Langages Vivantes) and the West European Region of the FIPLV. August 26-September 1, 1995. Lille, France. Contact: Bernard Delahousse, 6 Allée des Violettes, F-59147, Chemy, France.

TESOL Annual Convention. March 26-30, 1996. Chicago Illinois. Contact: TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, Virginia 22314-2751. Tel: (703) 836-0774. Fax: (703) 836-7864. E-mail: conv@tesol.edu.

AILA (International Association of Applied Linguists) 11th World Congress. August 2-3, 1995. Jyvaskyla, Finland. Contact Taru-Maija Heilala, Jyvaskla Congresses, P.O. Box 35, SF-40351, Jyvaskla, Finland. E-mail: heilala@jyu.fl.

Fictional Flights

Review by Lionel M. Kaufman, Jr.,
University of Puerto Rico, Humacao

FICTIONAL FLIGHTS by Howard Sage. New York: Heinle & Heinle, 1993. Pp. xxi + 280. $15.

Fictional Flights is much more than just another ESL reader; it is a vehicle for getting adult advanced-level non-native speakers of English affectively involved and actively engaged in reading and discussing authentic short story fiction. As the title suggests, this guided reading approach, which tries to foster independence in literary analysis, is likened to an experience in learning how to fly—first the departure, then the take-off and the training flight, next mid-journey, and finally the solo flight.

With this text, Sage intends to promote the use of authentic literature for ESL learners. He believes that teachers who have been reluctant to expose their second language students to authentic, unsimplified literature and to the linguistic, structural and thematic elements of story-telling would be surprised at their students' potential for understanding and discussing literature.

A common scenario in ESL literature classes is that students passively read a story, but when the teacher tries to elicit their impressions or generate an intelligent discussion of literary analysis, they are at a loss for words. This approach would come to the teacher's aid in these situations by encouraging learners to interact on a productive level with the text. They do this in the various activities which include writing their impressions about the characters, the plot, and the writer's style; by role-playing the characters; and by rewriting the story themselves—rearranging sequences of actions, changing the point of view, and inventing new story endings. The text also explores cross-cultural differences when it asks students to discuss how story characters' would have acted differently in their cultures.

Using the book is a learning experience, as the story content moves from the simple to the complex—from simple folk tales contrasting fact and fantasy to stories with more complex plots and character development. Similarly, the author's guidance in literary analysis, provided in the early chapters titled "Departures" and "Practice Flights", is withdrawn in the later chapters, which are appropriately labeled "Solo Flights." The objective is to create autonomous learners who can eventually discard their "training wheels" and begin to analyze literature on their own. The latter weaning stage is summed up in what Sage calls *The Entrance Method*: Instead of being led step-by-step through the story, students are now asked to decide what are

the easiest and most useful ways to approach a particular story. These approaches are discussions of a story's salient characteristics such as point of view, symbolism, characterization, writing style, symbols, setting, and themes. An audiotape of selected readings may be used to develop readers' listening comprehension as well as to appreciate the influence of aural literary devices of intonation, rhythm, style, and the narrator's dialect.

Now the heavy lifting. How many of your ESL students can actually "earn their wings" using this method? I suspect that my own ESL students at the university can do a lot more than I give them credit for. Although there are some exercises and activities that would be challenging to even the most proficient learners, the book's redeeming virtue is to provide a wide variety of activities after each chapter appropriate for learners with different learning styles and potential for literary analysis. There are a few concepts that are difficult for even a first language learner to grasp that may require further explanation and illustration--such as tracing structural and mythic patterns in stories and distinguishing plots from subplots. However, most of the approaches are conceivably within the grasp of the intended readers. With each new approach, Sage lightens the load considerably by relating new concepts to students' own personal experiences; for example, he introduces the concept of *ritual* by asking students to describe their own daily routines before requiring them to locate rituals within the story text.

This book, one of the best of its kind on the market, should be used for advanced-level ESL students of at least high school age. It would seem appropriate for two kinds of learners: for those who want a fresh approach to reading while cautiously testing the waters of authentic literature appreciation, and for those already exposed to authentic short-story fiction who need to be weaned from over-dependence on teacher and text for literary analysis and to assert their independence. For the former, the learner's short-term goal may be "mid-journey" while for the latter it's the "solo flight."

About the Reviewer

Lionel M. Kaufman, Jr., Ph.D. is Associate Professor at the Humacao campus of the University of Puerto Rico where he has taught applied linguistics, EFL methodology, and EFL courses for the past 20 years. From 1990-92 he was a senior Fulbright lecturer at Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey, where he taught courses in research methods and language testing. He is currently editor of TESOLGRAM, *the newsletter of the Puerto Rico TESOL affiliate, and a member of the Puerto Rico TESOL board of directors. He holds an MA degree from the University of Puerto Rico and a Ph.D. degree from New York University.*

Pronunciation Pairs: An Introductory Course for Students of English

Review by Emily J. Kling,
Ohio University

PRONUNCIATION PAIRS: AN INTRODUCTORY COURSE FOR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH. Ann Baker and Sharon Goldstein. Cambridge University Press, 1990. Pp. 152. $11.95

Pronunciation Pairs: An Introductory Course for Students of English is a perfect supplement to a beginning level listening and speaking class. A teacher's edition, a student book, and four cassettes comprise the program by Ann Baker and Sharon Goldstein, which takes after the British book *Sheep or Ship. Pronunciation Pairs* is the American English version.

Pronunciation Pairs is a well-organized text divided into two sections: a section for vowel sounds and a section for consonants. The format of all the units is the same. This enables the students and/or teachers to follow the sequence of the units or simply to choose units on particular sounds that seem to cause difficulty.

The section on vowels begins with the high front vowels and continues through to the high back and ends with the English dipthongs. The section on consonants begins with relatively easy to pronounce stops, [p, b, t, d, k, g] and continues through to fricatives, affricates, and approximants, ending with the hard to pronounce sounds such as "th," "l," and "r." There are four review units in section A but none in section B.

The units begin with a clear, simple drawing of the mouth and tongue with arrows showing directions for moving the tongue to produce the desired sound. Following are two practice exercises that are in the book as well as on tape.

"Practice 1" contains vocabulary for the specific sound with corresponding illustrations. The student is directed to listen and repeat the sound after the speaker. "Practice 2" consists of vocabulary that will be used in the dialogue that follows. The taped dialogues found in the next exercise consist of two or three people speaking about a variety of topics such as vacations, bank robbers, love, and TV commercials to name a few. The dialogues are simple and repetitive but provide practice for the listener. Next is an exercise on intonation or stress. This is also on tape. This exercise provides the knowledge to continue to the following exercise: "Conversation."

The "Conversation" exercise commands students to work in small groups practicing the aforementioned sounds. The students practice speaking to each other

usually in the form presented in the "Dialogue" section. For example if in the "Dialogue" section the students heard people ordering in a restaurant, in the "Conversation" section, they practice ordering in a restaurant.

The final exercise is the unit is "Spelling." Here a list of words with different spellings of the same sound is presented. This helps the student recognize the same sound in many different forms. It is appropriate to end with this section because the words used in the unit are now grouped according to their various spellings. I think this is an effective way to summarize the unit.

Following unit 2 the "Practice 1" is different from that which was mentioned above. In every other unit, "Practice 1" is an exercise using minimal pairs. The sound presented in the preceding chapter is compared with the new sound using the minimal pair format. Some of the same words and pictures, introduced in the previous section, appear again. This provides for cohesiveness and allows the student to contrast the sounds easily. With this format the listener applies what she/he learned in the preceding unit to learn what is presented in the next unit.

Pronunciation Pairs is a well-planned text that presents American English sounds in a simple and logical manner. It can be used with adults or adolescents. The presentation of minimal pairs allows beginning level students to produce and compare sounds. This text can be used effectively in a listening and speaking class.

About the Reviewer

Emily J. Kling is currently working on her MA in Linguistics at Ohio University and teaches ESL part-time at Morrison Elementary School in Athens. She served as a Peace Corps Volunteer in the Dominican Republic from 1991-1993 where she taught English to students in the seventh and eighth grade.

Notes to Contributors

The ***TESL Reporter*** is a semiannual publication of the Language, Literature, and Communications Division of Brigham Young University—Hawaii, and is dedicated to the dissemination of ideas and issues of interest to teachers of English to speakers of other languages worldwide.

Manuscripts relevant to teaching English as a second/foreign language, bilingual education, intercultural education and communication, and teacher preparation in these areas are welcomed and should be submitted (in duplicate) to the editor. Manuscripts dealing with classroom aspects of teaching are especially encouraged.

Manuscripts should be typed and double spaced throughout, generally not exceeding ten to fifteen pages. Each manuscript should be accompanied by a cover sheet with the title; author's name, position, and address; and a short (less than 50 words) bio-data statement. Identifying information should not appear elsewhere in the manuscript in order to insure an impartial review. Authors are encouraged to follow APA style and review past issues of the *TESL Reporter* for matters of style. Any tables, graphs, or illustrations should be sent in camera-ready form whenever possible.

It is expected that manuscripts submitted to the *TESL Reporter* are neither previously published nor being considered for publication elsewhere. Upon publication, authors will receive six complimentary copies of the issue in which their article is published. Manuscripts are generally not returned to authors. Authors should retain a personal copy.

Reviews of recent textbooks, resource materials, tests, and non-print materials (films, tapes, or computer software) are also invited. Potential reviewers who indicate a particular area of interest to the review editor will be contacted concerning recent titles in that area. Requests for review guidelines should be addressed to the review editor. Authors of published reviews will receive two complimentary copies of the issue in which the review is published.

Advertising information is available upon request from the editor.

Abstracts of articles published in the *TESL Reporter* appear in *Language and Language Behavior Abstracts.*

The opinions and statements expressed by contributors are their own and do not necessarily reflect the views of the editors or of Brigham Young University—Hawaii.

The Thirtieth Annual Convention and Exposition
Teachers of English to Speakers of
Other Languages, Inc.

TESOL 96

Host Affiliate: Illinois TESOL-BE

March 26-30, 1996
The Chicago Hilton
Chicago, Illinois USA

World-known Speakers • Publishers and Software Exhibition

Preconference Institutes • Educational Visits • Workshops

Poster Sessions • Fun Run • Swap Shop

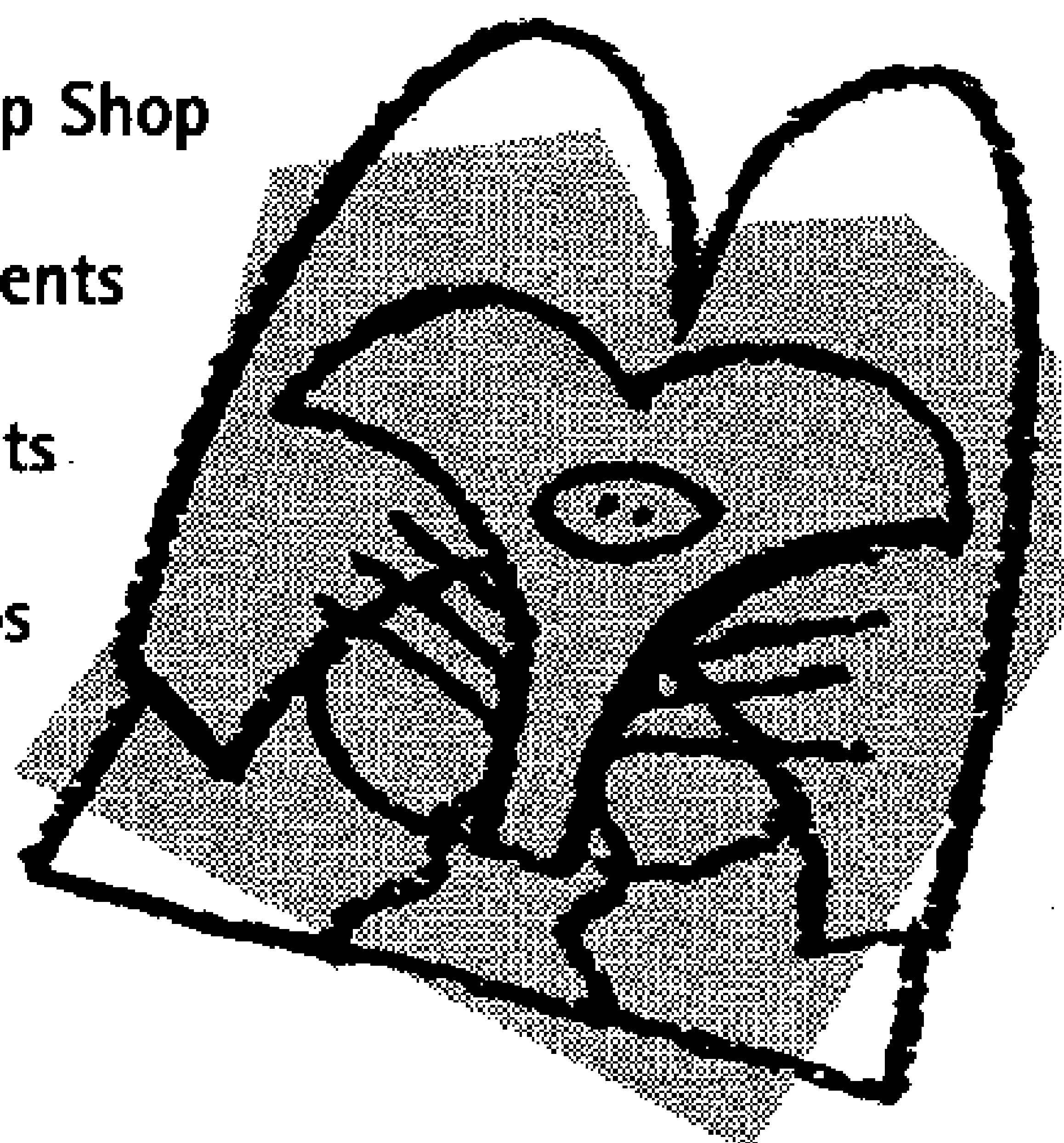
Breakfast Seminars • Affiliate Events

Colloquia • Interest Section Events

Software Fair • Discussion Groups

Employment Clearinghouse

Video Showcase • Papers



The Art of TESOL 1996

For more information please contact:
TESOL, Inc. Conventions Department
1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300
Alexandria, Virginia 22314-2751 USA
Telephone **(703) 836-0774** Fax **(703) 836-7864**
E-mail **conv@TESOL.EDU**