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Globalizing Foreign and Second Language Instruction

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As foreign and second language educators, a key part of our job is to help students communicate in the target language through the skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. However, in many traditions a broader role is conceived for educators. Additionally and perhaps most importantly, language educators are charged with preparing students for citizenship in the community, the nation, and the world.

The American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) in conjunction with the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) have called for global perspectives in foreign and second language education, defining global perspectives as developing the "knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to live effectively in a world possessing limited natural resources and characterized by ethnic diversity, cultural pluralism, and increasing interdependence" (NCSS, 1982: 1-2).

The last few years have seen concentrated efforts by professionals to build connections between the teaching of foreign languages and the social studies. The global education movement has particular relevance for both fields since the study of cultures plays a major role in both disciplines.

Culture Teaching in F/SL Education

Over the last two decades, foreign and second language education and cultural studies have enlarged their scope. Originally FL/ESL teachers taught only about the specific cultural area of their language specialty. In later years, teachers were encouraged to include any other areas where the target language was spoken. More recently, with the advent of global education, language teachers are being asked to teach culture by comparing the cultures of two or more different countries to provide students with more of a global perspective.

The concept of culture, with regard to FL/ESL education, has broadened. The term "culture" has two widely accepted principal definitions: it can be defined as the contributions of high civilization, such as literature, art, music, sculpture and philosophy—usually referred to as "culture with a capital C." These factors combined with the history, geography, and the economic development of the country form the sociological approach to culture. Culture may also be used to signify the lifestyles

and behavioral patterns of the people. This phase of culture is referred to as "culture with a small c" or the anthropological approach to culture. This anthropological approach to culture comprises the country's religion, daily life, customs, standard of living, and social traits. The former deals with the past, while the latter focuses on everyday life or the present.

In the past, the first category, that of the sociological approach to culture, largely provided the material for the study of the culture of a foreign people. The students were taught facts about the geography and history of the target country and an attempt was made to acquaint them with the country's major contributions to the world of art, literature, and music. Daily life and customs of the people were not completely ignored but particular emphasis was not placed on this important facet of culture.

However, with the introduction of several new methods of foreign language and ESL instruction, the attitude towards the teaching of culture has changed drastically. Emphasis is now placed on the way of life of the people rather than on their historical achievements. The anthropological point of view or the "deep culture" as Brooks (1968) calls it is now readily accepted. According to Bragaw, Loew, and Wooster (1981), this "small c" culture approach is compatible with education for a global perspective in that it emphasizes the universality of cultural institutions across national boundaries, language groups, and socio-economic ranges.

Globalizing FL/ESL Instruction

As a result of an increased emphasis on "small c" culture teaching, educators are moving away from the factual information about the target country to a more comprehensive view of the country and its people (Bragaw et al., 1981; Strasheim, 1981). According to Strasheim (1981), the first step toward globalizing any discipline has to be learning to perceive global education as a construct into which all disciplines fall. She stresses that global education is an all-inclusive organizing principle, not an add-on innovation for Monday morning.

Bragaw, Loew, and Wooster (1983) offer three change strategies to help teachers and schools foster a global perspective in their teaching: global or self-management skills, cultural universals, and global concepts.

Global skills refer to the development of skills that encourage greater tolerance for and understanding of the similarities and differences existing among people. These skills help analyze the ways in which an individual thinks, feels and acts in relation to others, Bragaw et al (1983) suggest that these skills act as organizers for lessons in language classes. They also contend that although students can communicate with people from another culture, they cannot relate effectively unless they possess these

skills. The self-management skills which can act as goals to globalize a language classroom are: 1) decreasing egocentric perceptions; 2) decreasing ethnocentric perceptions; 3) decreasing stereotypic perceptions; 4) increasing the ability to empathize; 5) developing constructive attitudes toward diversity; 6) developing constructive attitudes toward change; 7) developing constructive attitudes toward ambiguity and, 8) developing constructive attitudes toward conflict.

The second change strategy is that of planning around cultural universals. These universals are those themes or concepts that are cross-cultural in nature or shared to some degree by every culture or society. The form of each theme may differ greatly within or between cultures but its universality remains the same across cultures.

Cleaveland, Craven and Danfelser (1979:8) list the universals of culture as follows: 1) material culture (food, clothing, shelter, transportation and personal possessions); 2) the arts, play and recreation (forms and types of art, play and recreation and standards of taste and beauty); 3) language and nonverbal communication; 4) social organization (societies, families, and kinship systems); 5) social control (systems and governmental institutions, rewards and punishments); 6) conflict and warfare; 7) economic organization (systems of trade and exchange, producing and manufacturing, property, labor, and standard of living; 8) education; and 9) world view (belief system and religion).

These themes point out that whatever way people may behave, their lives are unique only in the form, not in the basic structure of their experience. To infuse a global perspective, language teachers may organize cultural units around the topics listed above.

The third change strategy is that of planning a class around global concepts. Bragaw, Loew, and Wooster (1983) define global concepts as being large, all encompassing ideas applicable across cultures and across time. A list of such concepts would include freedom, interdependence, education and justice, among others. The authors suggest that language lessons can build on or incorporate an aspect of one or more of these global concepts.

Conclusion

Moving toward a global perspective in FL/ESL education will require changes in thinking and in practice for many language educators. With the change strategies mentioned in this article one has a framework on which to build. These strategies suggest how a global dimension might be infused into a foreign or second language classroom, but experts in the field stress that no one technique as described here is satisfactory in itself when it comes to teaching culture with a global perspective.

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Conference Announcement

OPIE Summer TEFL Institute (OSTI). July 18-August 20, 1994. OSTI is a 5-week, summer teacher training institute focusing on skills needed for the teaching of English overseas in a non-English speaking environment. OSTI brings international experts in TEFL and teacher training together with students in an enriching educational and cultural program. The program includes classes in methodology, applied linguistics, use of technology, curriculum development, and practice teaching. Additional enrichment activities and field trips are also scheduled. For applications, materials and brochure contact: Director, OSTI '94, 201 Gordy Hall, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio USA 45701. Fax (614) 593-4577.

Idioms in Context: The Real McCoy

Vicki L. Holmes & Margaret R. Moulton,
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Vicki: I'm fit to be tied. Our students just aren't getting the hang of using idiomatic English.

Cookie: Well, let's brainstorm and see if we can come up with a game plan.

Vicki: Okay. I've got a flash. Let me bounce this idea off you. Doesn't it stand to reason that if we show 'em something real, they'll catch on better?

Cookie: Hey, I think you've got something. Let's flesh it out a little more and then give it a shot in the classroom.

While this dialogue may seem somewhat contrived, its frequent use of idioms is typically American. Second-language students would have difficulty following such a conversation without some understanding of idiomatic English. In fact, successful communication in American English often depends on an understanding of idiomatic expressions.

The idiomatic expressions most often included in ESL textbooks run the gamut from metaphorical phrases (spill the beans) to phrasal verbs (to bring up). Whatever the form and function of the idiom, however, it must be learned, for each idiomatic expression has a special meaning which cannot be understood by looking at its individual words (Long & Summers, 1989).

Idioms are often taught through textbooks, which typically introduce the idioms at the beginning of a chapter and follow up with a dialogue (Goldman, 1981). Students are expected to memorize the meanings of idioms and then complete cloze exercises (Zucaro, 1992). Sometimes idioms are even taught according to distinguishing grammatical features (Feare, 1980). While these bookbound approaches are useful ways to introduce idioms to students, they don't always foster internalization or provide an authentic context for usage. In attempting to supplement textbooks, we've developed an approach which seems to help students bridge the gap from passive understanding to active usage of idiomatic vocabulary.

We begin our lesson by exposing students to media and materials in which idioms are used as an authentic means of communication. Newspaper articles, video news clips, radio announcements, print and television ads, and scenes from motion pictures all demonstrate natural use of idioms in context. After reading or viewing one of these

in a whole-group exercise, students then divide into small groups to figure out the meanings of idioms we have drawn attention to. This inductive process may be time-consuming, but it reinforces not only the practice of deriving meaning from context but also cooperative learning. Small groups share their definitions with the whole class so that we can make sure they're on the right track.

Once all the idioms seem to be understood, we pair up the students. Then we provide a stimulus in the form of a stick drawing, photo, or cartoon with dialogue balloons (see Figure 1). The students select five or six idioms from the source material and create their own dialogues.

ACME INSURANCE
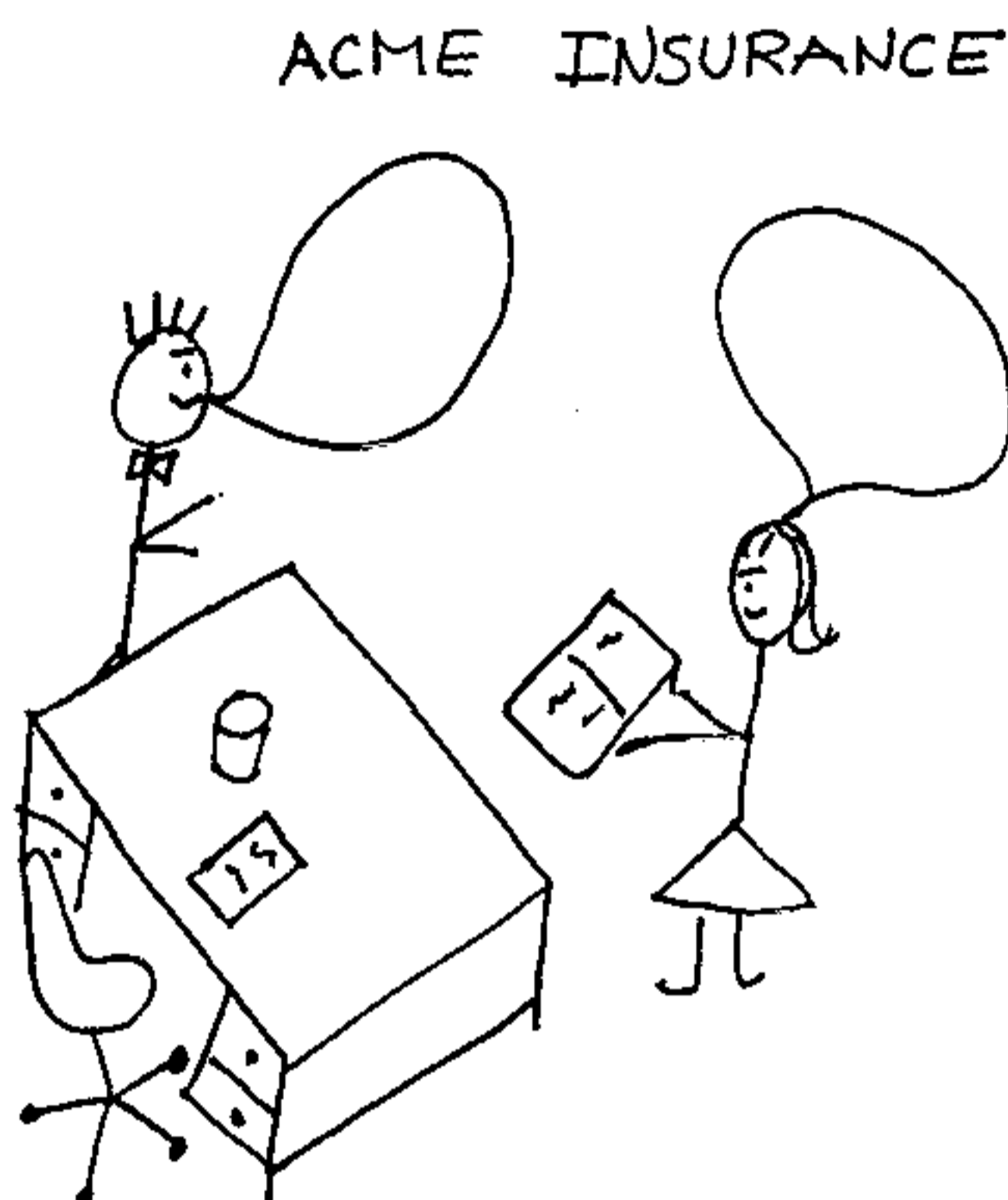
Figure 1.   Simple cartoon stimulus

They're invited to try out their dialogues on a native speaker as well as rehearse them aloud. At the next class meeting, the teams present their dialogues, sometimes even using props to liven up their productions. It never fails to amaze us how creative and humorous students can be when given the opportunity. Their joyous discoveries about the English language create a lively atmosphere in which learning idioms turns out to be fun.

A recent lesson used the ABC news show *Nightline* as the source for idioms related to business. A student from Togo, paired with one from Nicaragua, presented an interpretation of a rather heated dialogue between an employee and her supervisor:

Setting: Sanoussi and Martha are in the office having a conversation.

Sanoussi: Martha, I've noticed that your paperwork hasn't been meeting the deadlines. I think you should take advantage of your spare time and put in long hours.

Martha: Listen, I have to juggle a career and a family!

Sanoussi: I have gone out on a limb for you, but that just doesn't cut it!

Martha: It's not as bad as you're making it seem. You just like to boss people around!

Sanoussi: The bottom line is you're lazy!

Martha: I'm not going to respond to that. Some things are better left unsaid.

A follow-up option on computers can take us back to the textbook model for teaching idioms: a dialogue, definitions, and cloze exercises. But our textbook is unique; it's written by students. Their short dialogues are entered into *Idioms in English* (Moulton, 1992), which turns original student work into interactive cloze exercises (see Figures 2,3,4,5).

A Workplace Argument
Sanoussi and Martha are in the office having a conversation.

Sanoussi: Martha, I've noticed that your paperwork hasn't been meeting the deadlines. I think you should take advantage of your spare time and put in long hours.

Martha: Listen, I have to juggle a career and a family!

Sanoussi: I have gone out on a limb for you, but that just doesn't cut it!

Martha: It's not as bad as you're making it seem. You just like to boss people around!

Sanoussi: The bottom line is you're lazy!

Martha: I'm not going to respond to that. Some things are better left unsaid.

F1 [STORY]   F2 [WORDS]   F3 [EXERCISE]   F4 [MENU]   F5 [QUIT]

Figure 2. Simulated computer screen: dialogue

A Workplace Argument

1. meet a deadline
2. take advantage of
3. put in long hours
4. juggle
5. go out on a limb
6. cut it
7. boss people around
8. the bottom line

F1 [STORY]   F2 [WORDS]   F3 [EXERCISE]   F4 [MENU]   F5 [QUIT]
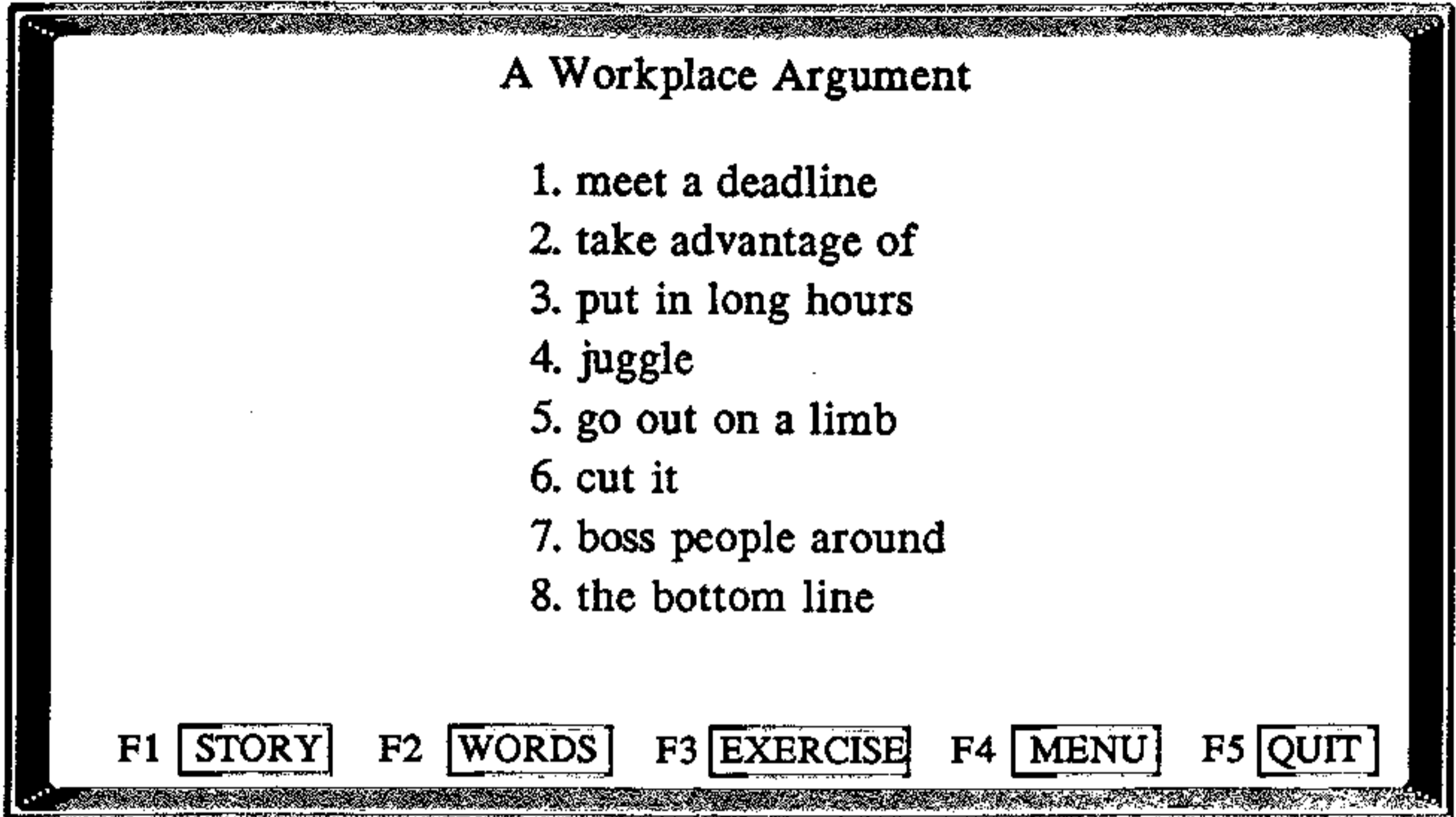
Figure 3.   Simulted computer screen: Idiom Menu

A Workplace Argument

DEFINITION
juggle: balance one thing against another similar to a circus
        juggler who keeps objects suspended

EXAMPLE
Martha has to juggle her schedule to have time to do
everything.

F1 [STORY]   F2 [WORDS]   F3 [EXERCISE]   F4 [MENU]   F5 [QUIT]
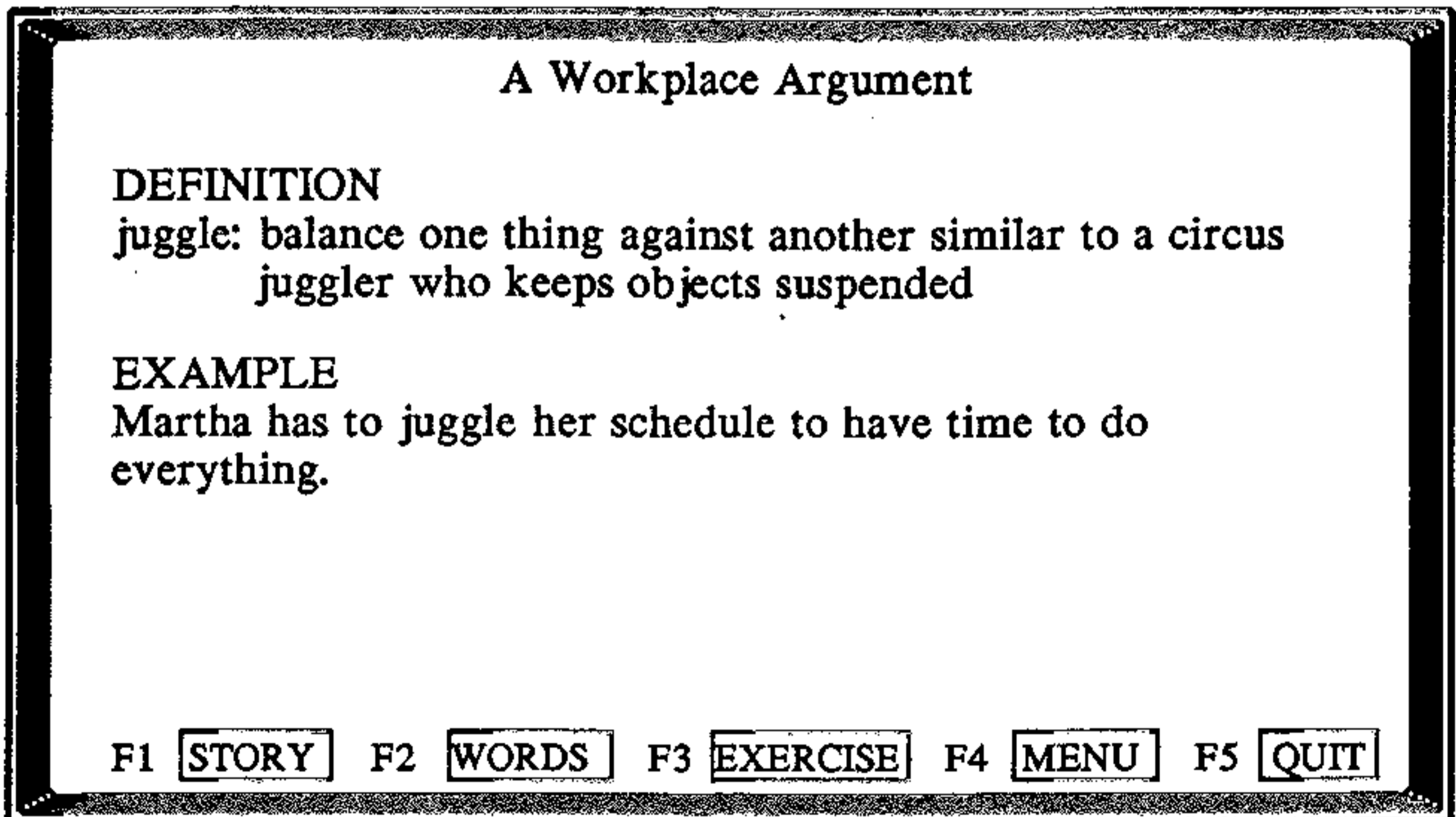
Figure 4.   Simulated computer screen: Definition

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                A Workplace Argument              │
│                                                  │
│     Martha has so many things to do that she has to │
│     _____ her career and family.                 │
│                                                  │
│               1. put in long hours on            │
│               2. juggle                          │
│               3. cut out                         │
│               4. take advantage of               │
│                                                  │
│                    _____                        │
│                                                  │
│   F1 [STORY]  F2 [WORDS]  F3 [EXERCISE]  F4 [MENU]  F5 [QUIT] │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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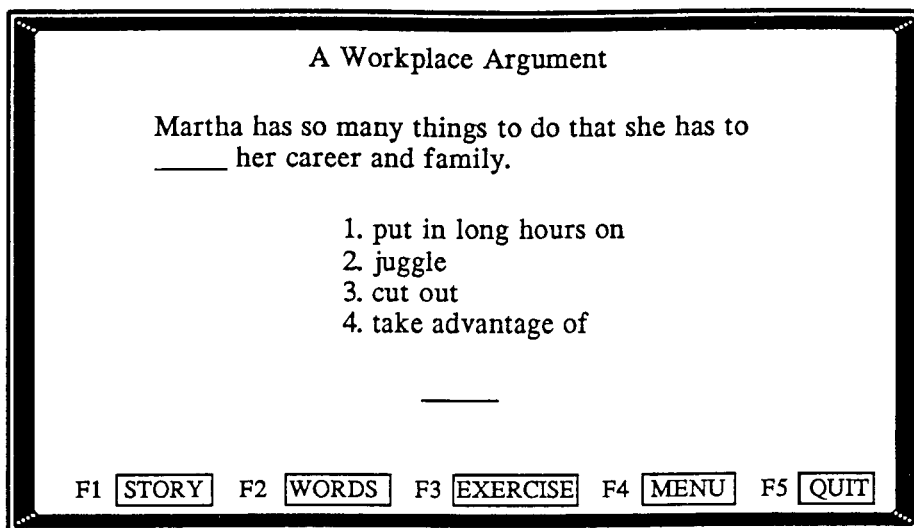
Figure 5. Simulated Computer Screen: Cloze exercise

This activity, using idioms in context, is an integrated skills approach to learning. Students read or listen to source materials. They intuit meanings and discuss and negotiate interpretations. They write dialogues and present them orally. And if computers are available, they can even gain some technological skills. With this approach, our students not only begin to "get the hang of" idioms but also "get a kick" out of doing so.

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Solving Mathematical Word Problems with LEP Students

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Language minority students, particularly at the pre-university level, are often placed in mainstream classes with neither the language proficiency nor the academic skills necessary for functioning successfully. Due to the lack of adequate programs, these students seem destined for academic failure. Their inability to understand English limits their participation in academic activities and inhibits their success in school. Once placed in a class in which they cannot learn the material, they fall farther and farther behind as the years progress.

In order to avoid this inadequacy, schools are now adopting sheltered English programs, in which Limited English Proficient (LEP) students receive the same content as in the mainstream classes, but with additional emphasis on language development as well as language modification by the teacher. In this way, LEP students are able to advance their academic skills at the same rate as their English proficient peers. When the student achieves adequate language skills to be mainstreamed, her cognitive abilities will be sufficiently developed, that is, at a level which enables her to function successfully in the mainstream classroom.

At the early stages of language development, students can be placed in mainstream classes which are linguistically less-demanding such as art, music, or P.E. At later stages they are placed in more challenging classes such as science and math. Generally, however, math is thought of as one of the easier subjects for students from other countries, since it is often the case that they have studied more advanced mathematics in their home countries than what is expected of them in American schools at their particular levels. An added help is that a considerable amount of math requires limited, albeit specialized, language. However, mathematics is not limited to arithmetic. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) states that math also involves problem solving and interpersonal communication, making reasoning skills crucial (cited in Secada and Carey 1990:10). The NCTM has outlined certain goals for all students of mathematics:

1. that they learn to value mathematics
2. that they become confident in their ability to do mathematics
3. that they become mathematical problem solvers
4. that they learn to communicate mathematically
5. that they learn to reason mathematically. (cited in Secada and Carey, 1990:9)

Perhaps the area which proves most difficult for LEP math students is word problems, sometimes called story problems. In word problems, language plays a primary role. Students must have a very good understanding of the language of the problem in order to integrate their conceptual knowledge with their cognitive skills. Unfortunately, the language of word problems is often much too difficult for LEP students, rendering them unable to solve the problem even though they may have the mathematical knowledge to do so.

> Mathematical problems cannot be solved without some concept of the basic facts, competence in computation, understanding of operations, or the ability to sequence facts in logical order. (Ferguson and Fairburn 1985:504)

If even one of these skills is lacking, students will not be successful in their attempts to solve word problems. When this happens, the students are effectively prevented from furthering their logic and reasoning skills. For LEP students, whose symbolic language for thinking may be restricted, particularly when they are trying to "think in English," this inability to understand and synthesize the information leads to a decrease in the development of abstract reasoning and the thought processes necessary for problem solving (Tinajero and Dunlap, 1985).

Even when students have fairly high reading skills, they may have difficulties with word problems because of the differences between general prose and math problems. Vos (1979) has researched the language of mathematics extensively and found the following differences:

1. Word problems are more compact and conceptually denser than ordinary prose.
2. The writing style found in word problems is usually different from that used in other types of prose.
3. Word problems often lack the relatively rich context clues typical of other prose.
4. Words with familiar meanings often have different meanings in word problems.
5. Passages in prose usually possess continuity of subject and idea from sentence to sentence and paragraph to paragraph, but there is often little continuity among math word problems in any given set.
6. Reading patterns effective for ordinary prose are usually not as effective for word problems in math. (cited in Ferguson and Fairburn 1985: 505)

The fourth aspect can create considerable difficulty for students unfamiliar with the differences between general and technical vocabularies. The general vocabulary, that is used in everyday conversation on common topics, is usually the one which most students are familiar with. The technical vocabulary is more specific to

mathematics. It is this vocabulary that sometimes requires explicit instruction because many words occur in both the general and the technical vocabularies with different meaning in each.

These multiple meanings cause children difficulties in reading mathematical material. Because of its more common usage, the general meaning will flash into the child's mind before the technical meaning. Thus the child must overcome the interference caused by the general meaning. (Dunlap and McKnight, 1978: 187)

For example, the words "base", "point", "right", "set", and "imaginary" have meanings in the technical sense which are not immediately recognizable as related to the meanings in the common usage. Of course, this problem may be experienced by students regardless of their language background, but for LEP students it may be an additional burden.

From this, it is apparent that word problems require a translation from"natural" into mathematical language. Added to this is a second translation required from the technical to the symbolic language of numbers. Dunlap and McKnight (1978) identify this three level translation as one of the major problems for not just LEP students, but all students of math.

Vocabulary is not the only linguistic element which presents problems for LEP students. Mathematical syntax is equally challenging, with its abundance of comparative structures, numbers used as nouns, prepositions, passive voice, and lack of one-to-one correspondence between mathematical symbols and the words they represent (Dale and Cuevas, 1987). Dale and Cuevas also document that students tend to duplicate the surface syntax of the problem statements in their numerical restatements. For example, students often incorrectly translated the sentence 'The number a is five less than the number b" as, $a = 5 - b$, when the correct translation should be: $a = b - 5$ (1987: 16). Misinterpreting the syntax of the word problem will present major difficulties for the LEP student. It is vital that their reading processes lead to correct interpretations.

Dunlap and McKnight break down the process of reading word problems into eight steps:

1. perceive written words;

2. decode these words using context, phonic, or structural analysis skills;

3. integrate the general (everyday) definitions of each decoded word to arrive at a general message being conveyed in the word problem through semantic and syntactic elements;

4. translate this general message into the technical (mathematical) message being conveyed;

5. encode the technical message into symbolic vocabulary and sentences;

6. perform mathematical calculation on these symbols;

7. decode mathematical calculations and translate to technical vocabulary;

8. encode the technical meaning in terms of response to the technical message, i.e., translate to general vocabulary. (1978: 185)

Clearly, the reading process is not only linguistically complex but also cognitively demanding, and a linguistic problem at any step may produce an incorrect result.

From a slightly different perspective, Reutzel (1983) outlines three major blocks to successfully reading word problems, which he labels "textbase unfamiliarity," "understanding and experience," and "process."

Textbase unfamiliarity refers to the organizational style of word problems as compared with the narratives which the child is accustomed to reading. In his analysis, Reutzel claims that the usual organization in a narrative story or paragraph begins with a general topic and fills out with details, forming a triangle resting on its base. On the other hand, word problems begin with the broad base of details and important facts, narrowing to the thesis or topic sentence, thus creating a triangle balancing on its point. Because the organizational structure does not conform to the child's expectations, there is an added dimension of difficulty.

Understanding and experience is generally lacking in children's reading of word problems. The problems commonly refer to aspects and elements of life completely outside the child's realm of experience. Without an understanding of the context, the problem is even more difficult, if not impossible. For instance, some problems discuss financial investments and interest rates in an effort to give the students practice working with percentages. However, for many if not most children, dividends and interest rates are completely unfamiliar concepts.

Process, in Reutzel's terms, refers to the lack of schema taught for solving word problems. In other words, the child has no heuristic devices to synthesize the given information with cognitive structures. This lack prevents effective integration, sequencing of data, and discrimination of relevant from non-relevant facts, all of which are crucial for successful problem solving.

Many of the difficulties in attempting to solve word problems are certainly encountered by all students regardless of their language background. However, when considering that LEP students have not only the developmental skills to master but also the additional burden of linguistic difficulties, it might seem almost an

insurmountable task to teach LEP students the requisite skills. However, there are some very promising solutions.

Perhaps the ideal solution would be to teach students how to solve word problems in their native languages. This would develop the L1 to a high level of abstraction. Cummins' (1981) model of Common Underlying Proficiency posits that the skills would then transfer to the L2. Tinajero and Dunlap strongly support bilingual education so that the L1 may be used as a "vehicle for developing a conceptual base for solving story problems in both [the native language] and English" (1985: 321).

Unfortunately, for many programs, bilingual instruction for all language minorities is simply not feasible. Therefore, it is necessary to look deeper for solutions that will work in all situations.

In this case, perhaps the most important aspect of mathematics teaching is to build upon the students' previous knowledge. Most students have had experience with mathematics in their native countries. Therefore, it is unnecessary to teach as if the students do not have basic mathematical skills (unless assessment proves this to be true). Of course, skills assessment needs to be done for all students at all levels to ensure accurate placement. Once this is accomplished, the teacher can begin at the appropriate level of instruction.

Building on previous knowledge involves not only knowing the level of the student's output, but also familiarity with how mathematical reasoning is processed. The focus of solving word problems in particular should be on the process of coming to an answer, rather than merely acknowledgement of the correctness of the response. This can be accomplished by direct question; for example, "How did you solve that?" Since word problems can often be solved in more than one way, asking several students how they came up with their solution will likely bring different responses. This will enable other learners to expand their skills. By accepting and understanding different processes, the students' breadth of cognitive flexibility will be increased.

Emphasizing the process over the product has other benefits as well. One of the primary advantages is that it can prevent students from using faulty logic and reasoning in the early stages, thus preventing some possible problems from emerging at more advanced levels.

An added benefit of process-orientation is that it allows for and encourages greater language flexibility. Rather than merely stating their answers, students are required to verbalize their thought processes. This can be a highly effective language teaching tool because their thoughts will be focused on the content of the message rather than the structure.

Of course, the orientation of the class depends upon whether the content or the language is to be the focus, since different emphases require different perspectives and types of activities. If the goal is primarily to develop mathematical concepts, there might be a strong orientation toward problem solving and skills. Language is then viewed as a tool for understanding mathematics. If, on the other hand, the focus is on building language, math will be viewed as merely a vehicle to facilitate language acquisition.

Ideally, the focus of the class would be on both mathematical skills and language development, and the syllabus and lessons would be designed to promote both at the same time. One solution might be to first focus on developing concepts using similar language structures, and then expanding the language with similar problems. This way both math and language skills are integrated.

In working on word problems with LEP students, there are a number of strategies which might prove beneficial toward both types of skills. Certain language modifications can make the mathematical concepts more accessible. For example, simplifying the syntax of the word problems could be done in the same way that the teacher simplifies her own speech. Shorter sentences, reduced complexity, fewer modifiers and conjunctions will assist the student.

Another strategy is to explicitly teach vocabulary and background information which is often assumed to be known in word problems. Discussing special meanings of words will be helpful for the LEP student. For example, "product" commonly means the result of some process, while in the technical vocabulary it refers specifically to the end result of multiplication. Explicit instruction and modeling of specialized meanings will develop the cognitive and linguistic background necessary for learning new mathematical concepts.

Maintaining a basic set of vocabulary would greatly simplify the language. Students are often presented with a wide range of synonyms which are unnecessary when focusing on mathematical concepts. For example, using "minu,s" "less," and "take away" to signify subtraction will present problems for the student who may not immediately recognize these terms as representing the same concept.

Language modification should include simplifying the syntax and vocabulary as necessary to make the word problem comprehensible, but not "substitut[ing] easier words for the technical vocabulary that students must learn in order to acquire the mathematical concepts being presented" (Dunlap and Tinajero, 1985: 164). Doing so only prevents the student from further cognitive development. While it may seem helpful at the moment, it will only prove to be a hinderance at higher levels.

However, once the students are comfortable with the set of terms used, their vocabularies can be expanded, again through explicit instruction. One idea would be

to hang a poster on the classroom wall identifying words that commonly signal certain functions. For example, Reutzel (1983) identifies the following words as pointing to specific operations:

ADDITION	MULTIPLICATION	SUBTRACTION	DIVISION
plus	product	left	into
add	times	take away	separate
sum	by	minus	part
total		difference	
more		less	
increase		decrease	

However, complete reliance on key words to signal specific operations is not advisable. Key words often work only at basic levels. This would eventually prevent students from growing and advancing their skills. "[The] use of key words short-circuits children's natural tendency of trying to figure out problem situations and it communicates that mathematics is little more than a bunch of unrelated rules that are applied in a mindless manner" (Secada and Carey, 1990: 11). Clearly, key words must be used with caution, if at all.

Even if key words always worked, there are other skills which need to be learned. An important skill is discriminating between relevant and irrelevant information. Word problems often include bits of information which have no effect on the outcome of the problem. Dale and Cuevas explain an activity designed specifically for this purpose, involving several word problems written on cards; some have too much information, some too little, and some just enough. If the problem has enough information, the students solve it; if there is too much, they cross it out; if there is too little, they add enough to make sense and then solve it (1987).

Of course, before reaching this level, the student must be able to identify the question being asked. This is sometimes as complex as working out the solution, since questions can be asked at the beginning, middle, or end of the problem. They can be written in the form of an interrogative, a command, or even a declarative. Since identifying the question is of primary importance, this should be emphasized as a beginning step toward the solution.

Another important strategy for solving word problems is to create an image from the given information. This helps the student conceptualize the data and understand what is being asked. It is often easier to identify the operation for the solution when an image of some sort is actually drawn on the board or paper. Selecting the right process is difficult even if all words, situations, and questions are understood (Kresse, 1984). Thus, the teacher should emphasize the importance of mental imagery by

illustrating problems with pictures, charts, and diagrams, and encouraging the students to do the same.

Along with illustrations, manipulatives and other realia are extremely helpful in learning to solve mathematical problems. Such objects can help bring abstract concepts to a concrete level with which students are more familiar. Of course, the focus needs to be on clarifying scenarios rather than on how to use the manipulatives, as can be the case when dealing with sophisticated devices. For example, for most students, using an abacus would necessitate more instruction for its use than is merited by its value in solving problems.

Another method to make word problems more concrete to the student is to make them highly context bound, using situations and experiences which come from the students' lives. Threadgill-Sowder *et al* (1984) emphasize the importance of a sound context, especially for students with lower reading skills. A particularly effective means of ensuring this is to have students create their own word problems. These are likely to be based on personal experiences and problems. Not only would these problems be more meaningful and understandable for the student, but they would be relevant in a way that would increase the student's motivation, which would in turn increase and accelerate her skills and abilities.

In the beginning stages, the teacher would need to extensively model word problem writing. This could involve a language experience approach in which class members contribute to the scenario and the teacher writes it on the board. After exposure to word problem creation, students could work in small groups to begin to produce their own problems. On this topic, Ferguson and Fairburn claim:

> Story problem solving is encouraged by story problem writing, and this is especially true when the problem situation arises from an activity which personally involves the student. Students can be expected to have greater success at interpreting a story problem if they have had experience writing a similar problem. (1985:506)

Working on writing in small groups would have the added advantage of providing students with more language learning opportunities. Small groups such as are used in cooperative learning techniques seem to help the students improve their abilities, in both the language and content areas. Cooperative groups generally provide a secure environment in which students feel freer to express themselves and share ideas and opinions. Using cooperative groups would also be beneficial in attempting to solve word problems, since each student would be able to support and contribute to the group's understanding of and solution to the problem.

Writing word problems provides an excellent opportunity for both mathematical and language development, as well as instilling an appreciation of cultural diversity.

With students of different backgrounds contributing to the creation of word problems, there is likely to be a vast display of multicultural perspectives, showing that mathematics does not have to be impersonal and sterile. Rather, it can be a tremendous, vital source of learning.

With an estimated 4.5 million Limited English Proficient students in the United States, there is clearly a great need for programming designed for the language minority students which will allow them to advance their cognitive abilities at a rate equal to that of their English proficient peers. This can be accomplished by modifying existing curricula and adapting successful techniques. The teaching and learning of mathematics can be facilitated by certain strategies such that solving word problems, once the bane of LEP students, can become a rich and rewarding experience.

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About the Author

Jana Harper holds an M.A. in TESL from the University of California at Long Beach, and currently directs the English Language Institute program at Liahona High School in the South Pacific Kingdom of Tonga.

Conference Announcements

RELC Regional Seminar. Singapore, 18-20 April, 1994. The topic of the Seminar is "Reading and Writing Research: Implications for Language Education." The annual RELC Regional Seminar is now recognized as one of the most important regional conferences for scholars and senior personnel in language education and language planning. Attendance is expected to be over 600. All communications regarding the Seminar should be addressed to: The Director, Attention: Seminar Secretariat, SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 1025. Tel, (65) 7379044; Fax (65) 7342753. E-mail: GBORELC @NUSVM.

Association for Language Awareness International Conference. April 11-14, 1994. International language Centre, College of St. Mark and St. John, Plymouth, United Kingdom. For more information contact: Rod Bolitho and Tony Wright, INTEC, College of St. Mark and St. John, Derriford Rd., Plymouth PL6 8BH United Kingdom. Tel. 0752-777188 ext. 3176; Fax 0752-761102.

The 4th South Pacific Conference on Reading. Suva Fiji, 8-11 January, 1995. The conference will be held on the campus of the University of the South Pacific. The theme for the conference is "Multiculturalism in Reading." Abstracts of no more than 200 words should be received by 31 January, 1994. For more information write to: The Convenor, 4th South Pacific Conference on Reading, Institute of Education, The University of the South Pacific, P.O. Box 1168, Suva, FIJI. Tel. (679) 313900; Fax (679) 302409. E-mail: MUGLER - F@USP.AC.Fj

University Lectures?   We're Ready!

Maureen Snow,
Brigham Young University—Hawaii

An ESL listening textbook preparing students for academic work typically consists of a pre-listening section introducing a topic and new vocabulary, a taped lecture, exercises to help students listen for main ideas and supporting details, recognize transitional words and phrases, and take notes in outline form, and some type of comprehension check. While the format and exercises of these texts are helpful, teachers and students have become increasingly discontented with the use of tapes and the sometimes unrealistic listening situations presented. Students are rarely expected to listen to and understand taped materials outside an ESL classroom, or be in listening situations where there is no communication between the speaker and listener. Even in formal academic lectures students have the benefit of visual clues and the opportunity to ask questions and get feedback, an element often not accounted for in listening text materials. Baxter (1981) observes that most ESL material is based on native-speaker models, and therefore listening comprehension and related skills are developed from situations that offer little variation. Students may have an unrealistic view of what is involved in listening based on these materials as in the case of recorded dialogues in which the speakers have no difficulty understanding each other.

The Lecture Series

Because the need for more realistic listening situations was perceived by the English Language Institute (ELI) at BYU-Hawaii, a lecture series was initiated and has been evolving for the past five years. Students from four different levels (intermediate to advanced) who are enrolled in listening courses meet together once a week. When the lecture series first began, lectures were mostly given by ELI faculty and tended to be extremely well-organized. Students listened, carefully jotted down the main points and supporting details, copied new vocabulary words from the board, and raised their hands to ask the teachers to repeat information. In order to teach note-taking skills and outlining, teachers would sometimes stop during the lecture and show an overhead transparency of a sample outline and notes, and allow students to compare it to their own, or give the students an outline to follow while listening. The lectures were 20-30 minutes long. During the last ten minutes of the class, students were given a quiz and could use their notes to answer the questions.

Occasionally a teacher would invite a guest lecturer to speak to the students on such topics as the American musical, cowboys, the medicinal value of Hawaiian plants, physical fitness, campus elections, and so on. Students were asked to take notes, and the guest lecturer gave a quiz at the end to test listening comprehension.

This version of the lecture series definitely had some strengths. Students were exposed to a variety of native and non-native English accents, new idioms and vocabulary, various organizational patterns and styles, and a broad selection of topics. Teachers and students both had a break from the regular routine of daily classes, and enjoyed meeting together as a group. However, even though students were receiving the benefit of live lectures as opposed to taped lectures, they were still being primarily exposed to formal classroom English carefully modelled by a teacher. Likewise, the lectures given by guests offered variety, but were often more entertaining than academic, and didn't require much note-taking.

As the English Language Institute (ELI) began to implement adjunct courses (see Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989, for a discussion) in which students were enrolled in a language class and a content class, teachers began to realize that although students in the adjunct class had fulfilled their ELI listening course requirements, they were not prepared for the lectures in their non-ELI or content classes. Students frequently complained that they couldn't understand their content teachers because they talked too fast or the lectures were unorganized. They were able to comprehend the well-organized, carefully articulated lectures of their ELI teachers in class and in the lecture series, and the taped lectures in the language lab, but were often disconcerted when they experienced their first "real" university lecture. Varied organization patterns and lecturing styles, the use of rapid speech, unfamiliar idioms, vocabulary, asides, and gestures were disorienting and confusing for students in spite of their previous preparation. Gone were the words written on the board, the repeated information, the explanations of vocabulary and idioms, the confidence and time to ask questions, and the measured speech of their ELI instructors.

Modifications

In order to better prepare students for future university classes, a change in the lecture series was introduced. In recent years, each ELI instructor who has taught a listening class has been assigned two departments on campus from which to select lecturers. Professors currently teaching required university (general education) classes which ELI students will soon enroll in are approached by the ELI teacher who explains the objectives of the lecture series, and invites the professor to participate. The professor is asked to lecture on the same material he has prepared for his general education class. This saves him preparation time and makes the lecture realistic. The lecture lasts for 50 minutes which gives the students a sustained listening experience and the opportunity to take notes. A different professor lectures each week on topics such as biology, math, literature, American history, music, politics, and business.

In addition, professors are encouraged to provide a reading for students to prepare before coming to class. This can be part of a chapter, a short story, a magazine article—whatever the professor has asked his own students to read in preparation for the class period. If a reading is provided, the ELI teachers preview it with students before the lecture, help them with vocabulary, check reading comprehension, and ask questions to get the students thinking about the subject. Student questions regarding subject matter are referred to the lecturer. The reading provides students with background information in preparation for the lecture, and gives them an idea of what will be expected of them in various courses.

During the lecture the students take notes. The next day in class all the listening students take a quiz, which is made up after the lecture by the teacher in charge and the lecturer. Students can use their notes to answer the questions since they are being tested on what they understood from the lecture and how well they took notes, not on the material itself. At the end of the semester, a final test is given on all the lectures. This motivates students to attend the lectures, to take notes that they can read and understand several weeks later, and to revise their notes if necessary, in other words, to do what will be expected of them in other university classes.

In addition to testing, a variety of teaching activities are used by teachers as a follow-up to the lecture. To introduce methods of note-taking some teachers put their notes on an overhead transparency, pointing out abbreviations, main ideas, and details. Students can then compare their notes and see what they missed. Students also have the opportunity to ask questions about the lecture and discuss difficulties, and the teacher can highlight vocabulary, gestures, asides, or other pertinent details about the lecture. Lectures are videotaped and filed in the Language Center where students can review them, and teachers can check them out. A library of these tapes and accompanying materials is being built up, and is available for follow-up discussion, assignments, and individual work.

Evaluation

One of the advantages of the present lecture series is that students are introduced to a variety of academic subjects which they will be required to take at some point in their university career. In addition, the listening situations are more like those they will encounter in their non-ELI classes. An added benefit of the lecture series has been to introduce students to the teachers of their future university courses, and to introduce non-ELI teachers to their future students, which has helped increase their understanding of international students. Through the lecture series the university community at large has become involved. Other professors on campus are now more aware of the ELI program and the needs and challenges of international students.

Problems encountered with the lecture series have been few. Professors have been willing to participate, and some have even asked what they could do differently next time. Because the students all speak English as a second language, however, a few professors have simplified the content and language as they have become aware of the students' responses even though they have been asked to teach the same way they would their own classes. Even so, students generally are being exposed to more realistic university lectures and the content and vocabulary they will encounter.

Student feedback regarding the lectures has been positive. Questionnaires administered to students during two different semesters identified that students felt their note-taking, vocabulary, and listening comprehension had improved as a result of the lecture series. Following are student responses when asked if the lecture series had been helpful in improving their listening skills, and if they liked having general education professors give the lectures:

> "The lecture series help me by giving me more ideas of how to take notes and also how to listen carefully. It also helps me to know new words which added to my vocabulary. My listening skills is improving more and more now."

> "Lecture series were very useful for me. I don't feel worry about lecture in General Education any more. I think I learned skills of note taking."

> "I have learned a lot. Like how to abbreviate the words. How to take notes faster and listen very carefully."

> "Yes, because it will be a beneficial to me as they lecture in any of those G.E. classes so when I get to my G.E. classes I already got familiar with them."

> "I like it because those are really good chances to contact the real lectures which we must take someday."

> "Yes, because that can be so helpful for our future academic life. We should have some lectures from the biology professor or American Heritage, Anthropology another thing. Vocabulary which they use in the lectures are we really need to learn."

The goal of the lecture series is to better prepare students for what they will encounter in other university classes, and to introduce students to the content of general education classes and future teachers. The opinion of teachers and students is that the lecture series is accomplishing these objectives.

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About the Author

Maureen Snow is the writing coordinator and curriculum committee chair for the English Language Institute at BYU—Hawaii, and the former director of the English Language Institute at the Church College of Western Samoa in Pesega, W. Samoa.

Conference Announcements

The Eighth Summer Workshop for the Development of Intercultural Coursework at Colleges and Universities. July 13-22, 1994. East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii.   Participants will examine texts, discuss issues with authors of texts now in use, and become familiar with exercises and simulations which can be used to introduce important concepts to students. Housing is available on the East-West Center Campus. For more information write to: Dr. Richard Brislin, East-West Center, Program on Education and Training, Honolulu, HI 96848. Tel. (808) 944-7644; Fax (808) 944-7070.

1994 Internationalization Forum of the East-West Center. August 3-12th in Honolulu, Hawaii. The primary focus of the Forum is to provide practical cross-cultural experiences for women and men with professional interests in government, education, business and voluntary organizations. Forum leaders will engage participants through lectures, discussions, and simulations, with the primary objective to discuss issues concerning cultural differences and how they pertain to the workplace. For more information contact: Program Officer, Program on Education and Training, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, HI 96848 USA. Tel. (808) 944-7549; Fax (808) 944-7070.

8th Annual International Conference on Pragmatics and Language Learning. March 31-April 2, 1994, at the University of Illinois, Urbana. For more information, contact: Lawrence Bouton, Department of English as an International Language, 3070 FLB, University of Illinois, 707 South Mathews St., Urbana, Illinois USA 61801. E-mail larbour@vmd.cso.uiuc.edu. Fax (217) 244-3050.

Teaching Pronunciation: Going Beyond Mechanical Exercises

Nobuo Tsuda,
ECC Foreign Language Institute, Japan

In the last few years more and more ESL/EFL professionals have shown interest n teaching pronunciation, both segmental (vowels and consonants) and supra-egmental (linking, elision, reduction, etc.). However, the approaches employed tend ɔ remain old-fashioned and mechanical. Indeed, in many classrooms students merely dentify and repeat these sounds in isolation. They aren't given the opportunity to ctually practice these features in real or meaningful conversations. As a result, tudents often find pronunciation exercises monotonous and boring. They also tend to forget" what they have practiced when it comes to using it in actual conversations.

By following traditional mechanical pronunciation practice with exercises based ın the communicative approach, classroom practice can be made more interesting, neaningful, and useful. Student-centered exercises can be created which allow tudents to use target pronunciation items in context for communicative purposes. ιuch exercises not only provide appropriate real-life application practice of the target egmental or suprasegmental, but also require students to understand and be understood ·y their partners, thus increasing their interest in pronunciation. Examples of such xercises include giving opinions, responding to pictures, choosing answers, and ıformation gap activities.

Giving Opinions

When teaching elision of /t/ such as "bes⫽restaurant" "wors⫽day" "mos⫽famous," tc., you could provide a list of statements for the students to complete as in the xample shown below:

1. wors⫽day of the week

2. bes⫽place for a vacation

3. funnies⫽student in the class

4. bes⫽ramen

A: I think Monday is the wors⫽day of the week.

B: Yeah. Monday is the wors⫽day of the week. or

   Really? I think Wednesday is the wors⫽day of the week.

The first student completes the statement (e.g. "I think Monday is the wors⫽day f the week) and his/her partner either agrees (e.g. "Yeah. Monday is the wors⫽day of

week.") or disagrees (e.g. "Really? I think Wednesday is the worst day of the week."). Then students continue practicing elision of /t/ by using additional cues provided by the teacher.

Responding to Pictures

Photographs or pictures of famous people can be used when teaching weakening (e.g., personal pronouns) such as "his" /is/, "him" /im/, etc. One might provide question cues and a picture as follows:

1. Do you know him?

2. What's his name?

3. Where does he live?

4. Have you ever seen him on TV?

5. Do you know his wife's name?

6. Do you like him?

Example dialogue:

A: Do you know him?

B: Yeah, I know him.

A: What's his name?

B: His name's Eddie Murphy

One student uses the questions to ask about the person pictured and the other student answers in full sentences. After they have finished all the questions, they change roles and ask about a different person.

Choosing Answers

Illustrations are also useful when teaching minimal pairs, such as /i/ and /I/. Provide questions that contain the target sounds and answers accompanied by pictures as in the examples below:

1. What do you think of my sheep / ship?

It's cute.   or   It's big.
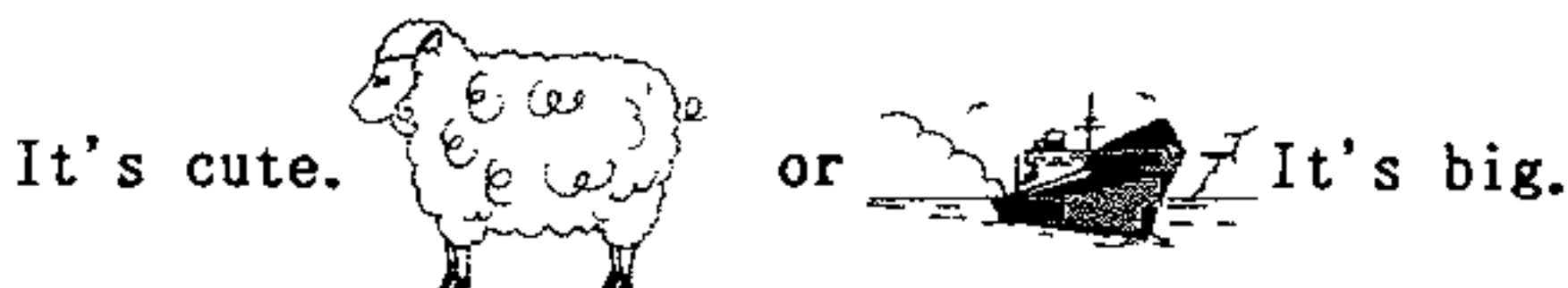
2. Do you like Jean / gin?

No, I don't like her. or Yeah, I like it.

Students work in pairs with one student asking a question with either an /i/ or /I/ sound (e.g. "What do you think of my sheep?") and the other student answering appropriately (e.g. 'it's cute"). Having answer cues with pictures adds more meaning to the exercises and increases student interest.

Information Gap Activities

Another way to teach minimal pairs, for example /l/ and /r/, is to give two different sets of information to students as follows:

Shopping List
Vegetables
☑ ca<u>rr</u>ots
☐ b<u>r</u>occo<u>l</u>i
☐ <u>l</u>ettuce
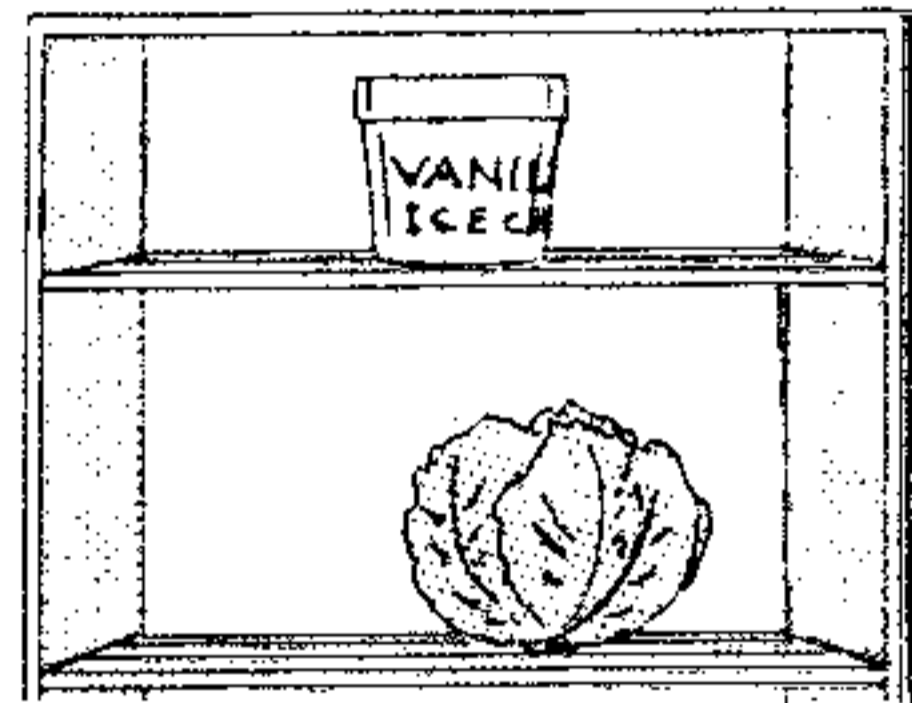
A: Do we need any carrots?

B: Yeah, we need some carrots. or No, we have enough _____.

One student sees a shopping list with different food items which contain /l/ and /r/ sounds (e.g. carrots, oranges, apples, milk, etc.). The other student sees a picture of a refrigerator with some food items such as lettuce, milk, apples, etc., inside. The student with the shopping list asks a question like: "Do we need any carrots?" The other student looks at the refrigerator and answers according to what he/she sees. The student with the shopping list checks off the items needed. This type of exercise works with virtually any segmental.

These example exercises have been designed for introductory-level students in Japan. They could, of course, be adapted to your own students' levels and needs. Through my experience I have found that student-centered communicative exercises offer a very effective way to teach pronunciation.

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About the Author

Nobuo Tsuda received his M.A. TESOL from Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah. He has produced pronunciation materials for ECC Foreign Language Institute in Japan, where he is currently employed.

Call for Manuscripts

Teacher research will be the subject of a special themed issue of the *TESOL Journal*, a magazine of teaching suggestions and classroom research published by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). This special issue will be published in Autumn, 1994.

Teachers' roles and professional areas in which they are expected to be authorities continue to grow. However, teachers are learning that they can explore and enhance their own practice by using simple research tools. Guest editors Jill Burton and Barbara Agor invite manuscripts that address such topics as:
1. teachers as researchers (e.g., case studies on teaching and learning; personal reports, experiences, and views)
2. the role of research in the classroom
3. research tools and processes for teachers (e.g., classroom observations, team and co-teaching)
4. classroom discourse (e.g., learner feedback; instructional language, etc)
5. reflections on teaching practice (e.g., learning about one's own teaching, learning from learners, mentoring)
6. what teachers want to know about teaching (e.g., finding a topic to research; developing personal theories by exploring practices)

Manuscripts should be sent to Elliot L. Judd; Dept. of English (M/C 162) University of Illinois at Chicago; 601 S. Morgan; Chicago, IL 60607 USA. Contributors must submit three copies of each manuscript with all references to author identity deleted. Deadline for this issue is February 15, 1994.

Writing by Example: The Prose Models Approach Revisited

J. Perry Christensen,
Brigham Young University—Hawaii

I had a very difficult time writing my master's thesis. While teaching ESL on a little isolated Polynesian island, I received approval for my paper's topic. I was also directed that the paper should have five chapters: an introductory chapter; a literature review chapter; a methodology chapter; an analysis chapter; and a findings, conclusions, and recommendations chapter. Furthermore, each chapter was to have specific subheadings. For example the introductory chapter was to give background information, importance of the study, assumptions, limitations and delimitations, just to name a few. I thought that this would be easy to write since the skeleton was already provided. However, since I had neither seen nor written anything similar or on such a grand scale, I found it to be a tremendous task. The information and what I wanted to say were easy enough to find, yet organizing it into the proper expected manner was very difficult. It was not until I had reviewed several other master theses that I was able to catch the vision of what was expected of me.

On a much simpler level, oftentimes ESL students are told to write an essay. The essay should contain an introduction, body, and conclusion. I find that everyone of my students can repeat verbatim these three words. They can even describe in detail what accompanies each part of a good essay, yet when putting the pen to the paper, all the knowledge upstairs does not flow down the arm and through the fingertips.

Model writings have been used over the years to teach students how to write. Eschholz (1980) points out that models are often too long or too far beyond the ability of the student reading them to successfully imitate. Therefore, the use of models becomes a reading exercise rather than a writing practice. Eschholz further points out that "critics of the models approach are suspicious of imitation and see it as stultifying and inhibiting writers rather than empowering them or liberating them" (1980:24). He goes on to say, "Students must be permitted to discover their own writing problems" (1980:35). However, I find this to be the point at which students can often become frustrated. They have seen and know what is expected, but they still don't have the skills to develop a similar masterpiece without a guiding hand.

Watson-Reekie (1982) has a somewhat different view of the use of models. She writes, "If students can treat the model as a resource rather than an ideal, if they can explore it with each other as well as with the teacher, if they can comfortably compare their own products at various stages of composition with that of the

professional, then the alien product is truly involving them in original process." I believe that using a suitable model at the students' ability level can greatly enhance the speed at which learning the process of academic essay writing is obtained and perfected.

A parallel can be drawn to building a house. Each of us knows that it takes a plan to build a house. Furthermore, we know it takes hammers, nails, and wood. Yet given a plan, tools and materials, few of us could really build a fine home.

Now, on the other hand, if a skilled carpenter were building a home across the street with the same design as the one we wanted to build, we could cross the street at night and see how he put things together and copy them in building our own home. We could notice how the foundation was laid, followed by the walls and roof. Other important observations such as putting in the electrical wiring and plumbing before finishing the floor or sheet-rocking the walls would save us from completing our walls only to discover that we had to take them apart again to run pipes and wires.

It is through a step-by-step process that we learn to imitate the master builder. Of course, when the homes are completed, it will be obvious which was built by the professional and which by the amateur. However, with practice and time, building skills are refined and the amateur no longer has to copy each move of the master builder. The student approaches a level of creativity and distinction from all others, while holding to the basics of good home building.

This may be what many of our students need, an example to look at and follow step-by-step. One semester I did just that. My department publishes a collection of student essays written over the past semester. I simply used these essays as prime examples of what their teachers were looking for in a good essay. Since other ESL students had written them, I knew that these examples would not be beyond the reach of my students to mimic and improve upon.

On some of the days when writing was taught, we would read and analyze an essay from the collection. We would discuss such things as wthat made for a good introduction or a poor one. We would point out writing styles such as how the author used personal experiences or examples to build the body. We finished by looking for cue words that connected thoughts or directed our attention to a conclusion. For homework, the students mimicked the essay, keeping the same general topic and form but writing in their own words. Later the students were asked to write on similar topics without being tied to the model.

I could easily check to see if the assignment had been completed by scanning the essay, reading only the topic sentence and enough of the paragraph to see if the student had indeed followed the organized plan. I could stop there or go back and also check for grammar mistakes.

As a result of having my students pattern themselves after other students' essays, I found that they could more readily see and perform what was expected of them. I found great improvement in content and organization in both patterned and freely-written essays. Sentences and paragraphs seemed to flow more smoothly.

The process continues. Though my students can successfully compose an original simple essay, they still need guidance as their writing progresses into longer and more complicated works. I contend that this will best be accomplished by choosing, and appropriately using, models that will match their needs—of both process and product. It has worked for both me and my students.

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About the Author

J. Perry Christensen has been teaching in the ELI program at Brigham Young University—Hawaii for the past several years. He also spent one year directing a pre-university ESL program in the Kingdom of Tonga.

Interested in Humor?

Two new publications are available on the subject. *Humor Scholarship: A Research Bibliography* (1993) by Don L.F. Nilsen (ed.) is published by Greenwood Publishing Group Inc. Also available from the same publisher and editor is a one-page bibliography on "Humor Scholarship on Foreign Languages, Cultures, TESL, Bilingualism, and Translation," (revised June, 1993) which has 40+ citations. To order, write: Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc., 88 Post Road West, P.O. Box 5007, Westport, CT 06881-5007. Tel. (203) 226-3571; Fax (203) 222-1502.

A PERSPECTIVE ON PUNCTUATION
Owen G. Mordaunt,
University of Nebraska at Omaha

Since punctuation is an integral part of writing and according to Marland "arguably the most important technical aspect, and one that has been a least successful part of formal education" (1977: 203), the teacher of English as a second language or as a foreign language has the responsibility of endeavoring to make punctuation as pragmatic as possible in language instruction. In his argument that traditional grammar instruction "has been ineffective in improving students' writing or speaking competence," Andrews states that "other language conventions [among them, punctuation] have been included in school curricula in a similarly ill-begotten manner. Within the optional varieties of punctuation, for example, one choice will be selected as the *correct or preferred* choice" (1993:86-87).

What does the language teacher, therefore, do about punctuation? I support Marland's contention that "our theory of punctuations has to be much better, so what instruction we do judge fit to give is not only accurate, but also useful because it refers to fundamentals and can thus be applied to other occasions" (p.203). Marland mentions five fallacies from which punctuation teaching has suffered:

1 ."Since the teaching of grammar is out, punctuation should not be taught";
2 "Punctuation is all a matter of personal taste, and so cannot be taught";
3. "Concentration on mechanical aspects of language inhibits creativity, and therefore punctuation should not be taught";
4. "For the less able it should be 'first things first,' and any consideration of punctuation is an excessive burden for such pupils"; and
5. "Punctuation is unnecessary in any case." (pp. 203-205)

The fact that one may have a choice as to the correct or preferred punctuation use and also the fact that we have our beliefs that there is a "discrete and fixed code of 'right' pronunciations, labels for things and ideas, sentence patterns, and punctuation conventions" (Andrews p. 128), does not mean that the teaching of punctuation is irrelevant, unnecessary, or will necessarily be botched up.

K-12 ESL instructors need to consult with the English language arts departments as to punctuation priorities so that both ESL and regular English teachers (as well as teachers in other subject areas) are working from the same principles. In this way there will be uniformity of use. It is essential, of course, that the general framework be from the standpoint of fundamental principles. Many ESL/EFL textbooks on the market have useful information on punctuation that a teacher can adapt to his or her instruction. College level textbooks on writing generally follow the same punctuation conventions in terms of usage, and this information could be helpful to

ESL instructors at the adult/college level. (See, for example, *Grammar Troublespots* by Raimes, and *Refining Composition Skills* by Smalley and Hanks).

Marland (p. 205-6) suggests that a theory of punctuation should be sufficient to incorporate the "complexities of real language, but simple enough for use in all subject classes." He recommends that punctuation be analyzed in terms of "function, not sign" and explains:

> The common analysis by sign (e.g. "a capital letter is used to start sentences and for the names of persons or places") confuses quite separate functions. The fullstop [period] ending a sentence is quite different from the one showing an abbreviation. Instead of the uses of the semi-colon, we might, for example, show seven ways of marking off a sense group, or the three ways of inserting interruptions (commas, dashes, brackets), or three ways of indicating a word or phrase has been borrowed for a special use. In this analysis the emphasis would be on the way we must group words to make sense. Ungrouped words are mere puzzles, and wrongly grouped words are nonsense.

For example, the sense groupings mentioned are indicated by: the comma, the semicolon, the bracket, the fullstop [period] with space and upper case letter, the paragraph indentation (or extra horizontal space), the space or signs for section divisions, and, the chapter ending space.

It is quite obvious that these signs are a hierarchy of meaningful "groupings from the phrase to the chapter." Here the space is considered a sign, for it is used to indicate meaning to the reader. Paragraphs used to be marked by a sign in the margin but indentation is now employed instead. The period as "the major, sense group marker . . . is always followed either by an upper-case letter or by space to the end of the line (to show the end of the paragraph)." Marland proposes that the merger of the period and upper-case letter be taught from the first, and explained as a duo separating sense groups.

In our college ESL classes, we handle punctuation at the beginning of the semester in terms of its function in a sentence. Students are given examples of different types of sentences—simple, compound, complex, etc.—with the relevant punctuation. Students practice punctuating further examples on their own. They are then required to compose their own sentences and punctuate accordingly. It is pointed out to students that writers use a variety of sentences in their writing, and students are encouraged to do likewise in their written composition assignments. With practice and concentration, students become adept at applying sentence variety to their essays. I can see the applicability of this approach at the intermediate/advanced levels of ESL. Meanwhile, students are improving their skill at punctuating sentences.

Since much practice is required for students to achieve mastery in punctuation, throughout the semester spot reviews of punctuation are done to help students apply

what they have learned. It does not require too much time and effort on the part of the teacher and students to, for example, demonstrate how different punctuation can be applied in correcting the following compound sentence (comma splice):

(1) **She likes cats a lot, she does not like dogs.**

One can punctuate the sentence by using a semicolon; a comma with a correlative conjunction, a conjunctive adverb; and a period:

(2) **She likes cats a lot; she does not like dogs.**

(3) **She likes cats a lot, but she does not like dogs.**

(4) **She likes cats a lot; however, she does not like dogs.**

(5) **She likes cats a lot. She does not like dogs.**

Students may be asked how item (5) is different from sentences (1) to (4). It is composed of simple sentences of course; the rest are compound constructions. Complex sentences are used to demonstrate when a comma is used and when not.

Punctuation is a significant technical side of writing, and students, particularly intermediate and advanced students, need to know the reasons why it is necessary to adhere to writing conventions for any language they are learning. Proper punctuation does help eliminate those communication problems whose source is improper punctuation. The available research indicates that punctuation is used by the best students who have been taught it (Heath, 1962). To return to Andrews' concerns about "discrete and fixed codes" of rightness (p. 128), it is true that different experienced writers seem to have more liberty with punctuation use, but since they are skilled at what they do, they know when to break rules. Unskilled writers need to be equipped first, and then as they become more experienced, they too can break rules they know can be broken.

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About the Author

Owen G. Mordaunt is an Associate Professor at the University of Nebraska at Omaha, where he teaches courses in linguistics, ESL, ESL methods, and short fiction. His previous experience includes teacher training and university teaching in Swaziland, where he also worked for the Ministry of Education as Senior Inspector of English.

The ESL Locator
Review by Ethel A. Ward

THE ESL LOCATOR. Salvatore J. Parlato. Rochester, New York: Booklink, 1993. 88 pp. $11.50.

The ESL Locator is a comprehensive directory of educational agencies and institutions, resource organizations and commercial publishers that are involved with some aspect of ESL and Bilingual Education. This second edition features an expansion that includes additional entries particularly dealing with media and technology, and an updated listing of state Adult Education offices and federally-funded Desegregation Assistance Centers. It is a convenient reference for a variety of readers, among them: the educational administrator interested in additional resources (funding and/or materials) for school/university; the graduate student who may need financial assistance or sources of information for research and eventually, for a teaching job in ESL/Bilingual Education; the classroom teacher who has non-English speaking students and is interested in ESL and multicultural education materials; and the foreign student in the United States.

This directory is organized into seven major sections with a total of 26 sub-categories. Complete addresses and some telephone numbers are included for each listing. It was interesting to note the inclusion of the Federal Immigration and Naturalization Service offices from national to regional and district offices, geared obviously to the needs of institutions with foreign students, or the foreign students themselves. The listing of embassies is useful for states/cities with no respective consulate in their locale—another unusual inclusion in this directory.

The lists, as can be expected for such a wide target readership possible, are not exhaustive and in a few instances, may contain items not seemingly directly related to ESL/Bilingual Education. The majority of the organizations and agencies seemed to include those from the East Coast (understandably, since the author is more likely to be familiar with those). Short annotations for the more significant entries would probably help to clarify inclusion of certain items (e.g. TIE in periodicals; the whole section on general or multicultural education). For the foreign student, in addition to the list of graduate-level TESL programs, a list of English Language Institutes or some equivalent program for non-native speakers of English in higher education, and a list of Department of Education districts with a large ESL-Bilingual Education program (not Federally funded like Title VII projects), might also have been useful.

The provision of a space for notes at the end of each section is a good feature for the *Locator* user who can add to the wealth of information already catalogued for his/her use. It is also an acknowledgement that no directory can be complete at the

time of publication, but *The ESL Locator* makes an outstanding effort to provide information in as comprehensive and organized a fashion as can possibly be done.

About the Reviewer

Ethel A. Ward recently retired from the Hawaii State Department of Education as the Educational Specialist administering the Program for SLEP (Students of Limited English Proficiency), the D.O.E.'s ESL/Bilingual Education program funded by the state. She holds an M.Ed. degree from the University of Illinois, and an M.A. in TESL from the University of Hawaii. She is also active in the Filipino community in Hawaii.

Conference Announcements

Second International Conference on English for Professional Communication. March 28-30, 1994. The conference is sponsored by the Department of English at City Polytechnic of Hong Kong. Key note speakers will include Richard Schmidt, Suzanne Romaine, Christopher Candlin, Graeme Kennedy, Ron Scollon and Vijay Bhatia. For more information, contact: Department of English, City Polytechnic of Hong Kong, 83 Tat Chee Avenue, Kowloon, Hong Kong. Fax (852) 788-8894.

TESOL Summer Institute 1994. There will be two three-week sessions: June 20-July 8, and July 19-August 5. There will be fifteen courses in each session for both experienced professionals and newcomers to the field. For more information write to: Department of English, 316 Ross Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa 50011 USA. Tel. (515) 294-7819; Fax (515) 294-6814. E-mail: dandoug@iastate.edu.

Computer Assisted Learning and Instructional Consortium (CALICO) Conference. March 14-18, 1994 at Northern Arizona University in Flagstaff. The theme for the conference is "Human Factors." For more information contact : Eleanor Johnson, CALICO, Box 90267, 014 Language Building, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina 27708-0267. Tel. (919) 681-6455; Fax (919) 681-6485. E-mail internet CALICO@DUKEMvs.ac.duke.edu.

International Association for World Englishes (IAWE) 1st International Conference. March 31-April 2, 1994 at Urbana, Illinois. For information, contact: Eyamba Bokamba, DEIL, 3070 Foreign Languages Building, 707 S. Mathews Avenue, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801 USA. Fax (217) 244-3050.

Reading on Your Own: An Extensive Reading Course
Review by Karen L. Johnson,
Brigham Young University, Utah

READING ON YOUR OWN: AN EXTENSIVE READING COURSE. Mary Ellen Barrett and Maryanne Kearny Datesman. Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle, 1992. pp. 160. $14.00.

The idea for this book was developed following a plenary session given by Stephen Krashen at the 1984 TESOL Convention in New York. Krashen noted that successful students read for pleasure. The authors wanted to develop a text that would successfully incorporate this idea into a structured English as a Second Language (ESL) reading course. Ultimately, the authors wanted to teach students to be competent, independent readers.

This text is designed for high-intermediate/advanced reading students who will most likely pursue an academic career in an English speaking environment. The book is divided into three main sections:

Part A: The Extensive Reading Course

Part B: Activities to Help You Improve Your Coursework

Part C: Advanced Activities for Improving Reading, Speaking, and Writing

Part A introduces the text to the students and outlines the requirements for the course. In this section, students are not only taught reading strategies but also how to have effective group discussions, to increase their vocabulary, to summarize, to write reading reports and how to select and locate appropriate readings. Students are to be evaluated through a series of written, oral and group reports. The text stresses that students, especially initially, should not be graded by writing skill but by participation and a demonstration of comprehending what they have read.

One of the strengths of this section is teaching the students how to find and select reading materials. A lesson on learning to use the library is incorporated. This is extremely useful especially for those students who will enroll in university courses. A large part of academic course work is centered around library research. However, this text lists only a few of the many resources offered by most libraries. It would be important for the teacher to be familiar with the resources of local libraries in order to help the students thoroughly utilize the library.

While writing skills are not emphasized, the students are expected to write several reports on what they have read. Although this text briefly discusses paraphrasing, a supplemental lesson on plagiarism should be included for those students planning to

study in the United States in order to learn what is considered acceptable paraphrasing.

Part B contains practice exercises to build upon the concepts taught in Part A. Once the students clearly understand what is expected, they work on fulfilling the requirements through independent reading. This section contains only general guidelines allowing for increased reader input. The exercises may have to be modified to be more task specific for lower level students. Normally, only one practice exercise is given for each skill taught. The teacher would have to closely monitor the students to seeif additional skill work is needed.

Part C has three supplemental activities: evaluating text, debating an issue, and synthesizing information. These activities can be implemented into the course if time permits or if attention to specific areas is needed. These activities are excellent for increasing analytical skills. It is hoped that teachers would be encouraged to include these activities into the body of the course. Lesson 1: "Evaluating What You Read" is an invaluable lesson for ESL students or for any student. Learning to distinguish fact versus opinion, the author's intent, and word connotation are vital skills when evaluating or comprehending any text.

This text does well to combine all the modal skills. But the teacher, like the student, must turn to supplementary resources in order to tailor the course to the students needs. There are no supplementary materials to accompany the text. A brief outline on how to implement the text is given in the preface of the book.

Suggestions for record keeping are also included in the text. As in any reading-directed course, the teacher would be responsible for a large amount of record keeping, especially in this course where three reading reports are to be completed each week. A sample method is given for keeping track of the students' progress, but no mention is given of possibly having the students keep their own log to help eliminate the volume of record keeping.

The teacher would need to be prepared for a high level of teacher feedback on the students' reports and discussions. Needs of the students would have to be dealt with individually as well as collectively. This would be time-consuming for the teacher but necessary in order to effectively evaluate the progress of the students.

This book is excellent in encouraging students to read on their own and in teaching them skills on how to be independent readers. But the students as well as the teacher must be prepared for a lot of work if this course is to be effective.

About the Reviewer

Karen is completing her Master's degree in TESOL at BYU in Provo, Utah and is teaching in the English Language Center there.

Talking Together

Review by Alan D. Lytle,
English Language Institute
University of Southern Mississippi

TALKING TOGETHER. Marc Helgesen, Amy Parker, and Kevin McClure. Hong Kong: Lingual House Hong Kong, 1993. Textbook $9.95; Cassette $37.95.

Talking Together is a beginning-level laboratory text/workbook aimed at the student who has had "little experience with the spoken language." (*Talking Together*, p. 6) Although *Talking Together* is for the beginning level, it is not aimed at a specific age group. ESL/EFL students from upper elementary to post-university could benefit from the content. This book is also not background bound. The 15 units are universal with room for discussion if the teacher or students so desire. Topics range from personal information and dates to frequency and processes—all of the classics with special practice on beginning-level verb forms thrown in. After Units 5, 10, and 15 there is a short review of the previous units in each section. The back of the book contains a section for the teacher. This part has general suggestions about how to use the various units, tape scripts, and expansion suggestions for the teacher to use with each unit. Concerning methodology, *Talking Together* bills itself as having one that is unique and two-step:

> The first part of each lesson provides pronunciation, selective listening, and dictation exercises which build up the students' vocabulary and grammar. The second part of each lesson offers a graded series of short pair work exercises which the students carry out together, using the language that has been practiced. (back cover)

The pair work and group work exercises allow for a springboard for expansion. This gives the teacher room to work with specific grammar, pronunciation, and other problems as they arise and as the class progresses. The flexibility is also good in that it allows the book to be used in an 8-week intensive English program or expanded to be used in a semester English program. Other than the book, the only purchase for the institution is the cassette.

My overall impression of *Talking Together* is one of approval. The activity questions are asked using a variety of forms: multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank, etc. The teacher suggestions at the back of the book are also valuable, especially for the teacher who is just beginning or who has never taught a beginning-level laboratory class. This section offers ideas on how to expand upon the activities allowing for teacher and student flexibility. The idea I like most, though, is the "HINT" section within each unit. These "HINTS" are given throughout each unit and offer small

suggestions for the students to use in their questions to the teacher or in their conversations; thus, the name. Hints are given for prepositions, question structures, verb endings, etc. These are also short enough and repetitive enough so as not to confuse the students.

Talking Together does have a few "glitches," though, that teachers should be aware of. The "Pair Practice" section may be a bit confusing at first for the students. It is set up with one student as "A" and the other as 'B." The tasks for "A" and "B" are on different pages -- "A" asking the questions, 'B" answering, and *vice versa.* I do like this concept, however, and the students will too, once they catch on. This section is a great place to supplement by creating completely student-produced conversations. Secondly, some of the directions seem a bit vague, assuming that the student will "know what to do." However, this can be quickly remedied by preparation on the part of the teacher. Lastly, the general "look" of the units is more difficult than the material actually is—a little cluttered.

All things considered, I recommend *Talking Together.* It's a classic approach to beginning-level listening/speaking with a little "newness" added. Both teachers and students will enjoy the flexibility and stability because the topics are easily adjusted to our changing global societies.

About the Reviewer

Alan D. Lytle is Admissions Coordinator and an Instructor at the English Language Institute, University of Southern Mississippi. He has been teaching ESL since 1989.

New Journal

The Journal of the Imagination in Language Learning made its debut recently. The journal will appear annually for now and is edited by Clyde Coreil and Mihri Napoliello of Jersey City State College. The theme of the journal is the same as the theme for the annual "Conference on the Role of the Imagination in Second Language Acquisition," which has been held at the Jersey City State College for the past four years. In the first issue were articles by Earl Stevick, James Asher, Carolyn Graham and others (13 in all), with titles such as, "Humor in the Classroom," "Dance Movement in Language Instruction," "Making Lessons from the Sunday Comics," and "Drawing in the Teaching of English."

Copies of the journal can be ordered for US$5. For further information, contact Clyde Coreil, *Journal of the Imagination,* 347 Crossnickle Hall, Jersey City State College, Jersey City, NJ 07305 USA.

Notes to Contributors

The *TESL Reporter* is a semiannual publication of the Language, Literature, and Communictions 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 twelve 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.*

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