TESL REPORTER

TESL Reporter

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

Editor
Mark O. James

Review Editor
Ellen Bunker

Circulation Manager
Keleise Taulogo

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

Editorial Review Board

Mary Ann Boyd
Illinois State University Laboratory School

Janet C. Constantinides
University of Wyoming

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

Richard Day
University of Hawaii

Ernest Hall
University of British Columbia

T. Edward Harvey
Brigham Young University—Hawaii

Lynn E. Henrichsen
Brigham Young University, Utah

Marjorie Knowles
Mission College, California

Kouider Mokhtari
Oklahoma State University

Terry Santos
Humboldt State University

Larry E. Smith
East-West Center, Hawaii

Earl D. Wyman
Brigham Young University—Hawaii

ISSN 0886-0661

Copyright © 1992 by Brigham Young University—Hawaii

Subscriptions are available on a complimentary basis to individuals and institutions involved in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language. Requests for new subscriptions and change of address notification for continuing subscriptions should be sent to: Circulation Manager, *TESL Reporter*, BYU Box 1964, Laie, HI 96762 USA.

Global Education, Peace Education and Language Teaching

Kip A. Cates, Tottori University

As language teachers in the 1990s, we live in critical times. Our world faces serious problems of violence, ethnic conflict, social inequality and environmental destruction.

"Hardly a day goes by without an announcement of terrorist activities, the newest lake poisoned by acid rain, the latest crisis brought on by a volatile energy market, the suffering of displaced people in refugee camps, or the violent repression of people seeking their human rights" (Kniep, 1987, p. 69).

There are doubts about whether young people are being properly prepared to cope with these problems. Surveys consistently find, for example, that American youth have little knowledge of other cultures, are suspicious and ethnocentric, and have little interest in global issues (Kniep, 1985, p. 11). How then can we prepare our students to deal with the challenges facing our planet? What is our responsibility as language teachers in a world of war, prejudice, poverty and pollution? How can we respond to appeals by such international figures as Edwin Reishchauer?

"We need a profound reshaping of education . . . humanity (is facing) grave difficulties that can only be solved on a global scale. Education is not moving rapidly enough to provide the knowledge about the outside world and the attitudes toward other people that may be essential for human survival" (Reischauer, 1973, p. 4).

A growing number of language teachers concerned about these issues are turning to the fields of global education and peace education for ideas of how to promote social responsibility, peace and international understanding. In this article, I'd like to give a brief overview of these two new fields and give examples of how innovative language teachers are integrating peace and global education ideas into their classroom language teaching.

Global Education

"Global education" is an exciting new area of teaching which arose from the field of social studies. In the UK, where it is also known as "world studies", it has been defined as "education which promotes the knowledge, attitudes and skills relevant to living responsibly in a multicultural, interdependent world" (Fisher & Hicks, 1985, p. 8). An American definition states that "global education consists of efforts to bring about changes in the content, methods and social context of education in order to better prepare students for citizenship in a global age" (Kniep, 1985, p. 15). A global education approach to language teaching, therefore, aims at enabling students to effectively acquire and use a foreign language while at the same time empowering

them with the knowledge, skills and commitment required by world citizens for the solution of global problems.

The goals of a "global" approach to education are generally divided into the four domains of knowledge, skills, concern and action. One of the most comprehensive models of what these entail is given in Figure 1 (Pike & Selby, 1988, p. 69).

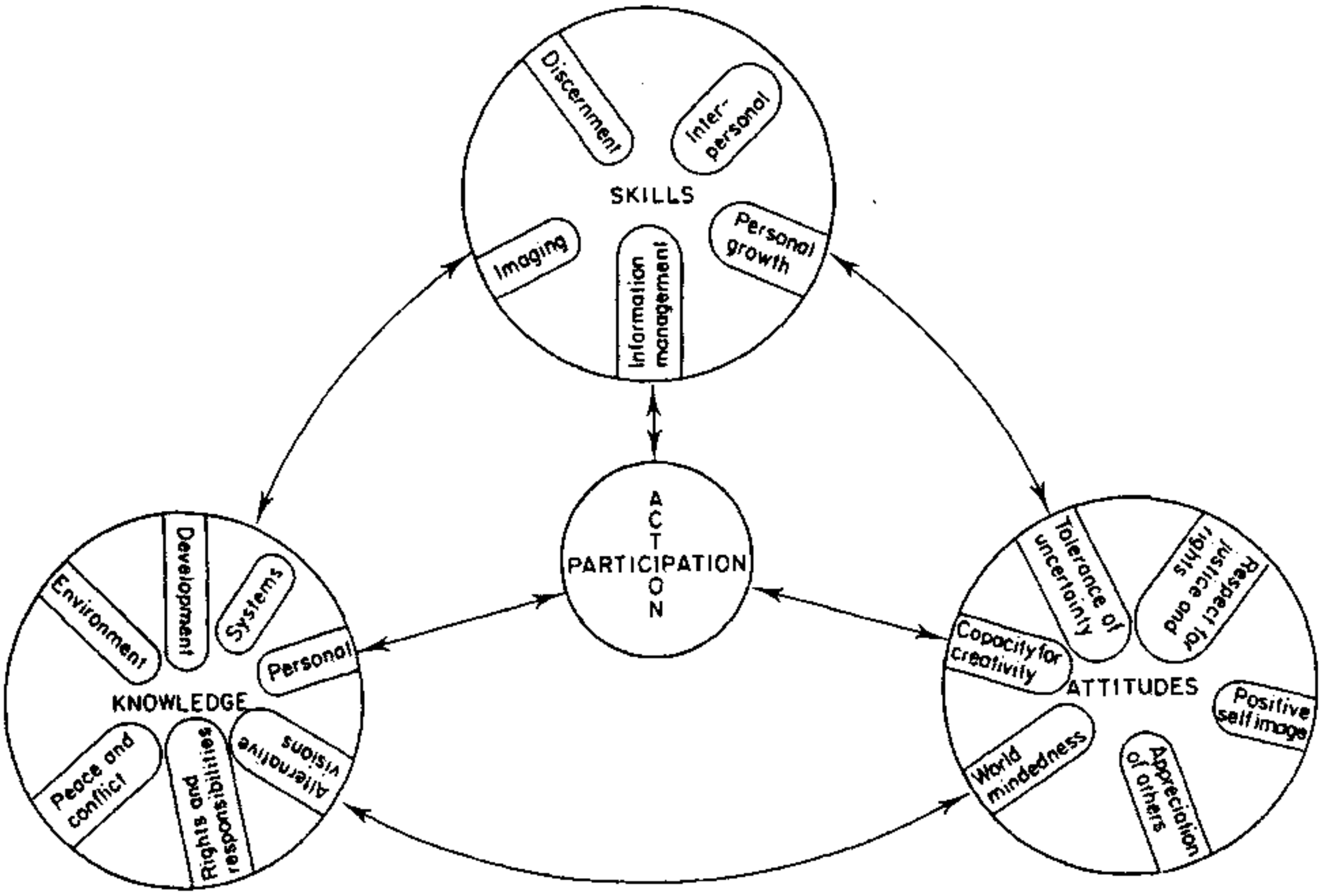

Figure 1. The Objectives of Global Education (Pike & Selby, 1988)

Knowledge about world problems is the first goal. If we want our students to really work for a better world, then they must at least know the nature of world problems, their causes and viable solutions. Acquiring skills necessary to solve world problems is the second goal. These are generally considered to include communication skills, critical and creative thinking, empathy, multiple-perspectives, co-operative problem solving, non-violent conflict resolution and informed decision-making.

Concern is the third goal. With many of the world's problems perpetuated by selfishness, cynicism, apathy and despair, it is vital to help our students (and ourselves) break through these negative attitudes to develop positive feelings of commitment and concern. Action is the final, most important goal. When we know

what the problems are and have the necessary skills and commitment to solve them, then we must take action and do what we can.

Global education comprises a number of component sub-fields, including anti-racist education, anti-sexist education and multicultural education. Global educators, however, usually designate the fields of peace education, human rights education, development education and environmental education as the four core content areas of global education.

Peace Education is an attempt to respond to an appeal enshrined in the UNESCO constitution: "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed". A narrow view of peace education limits the field to issues of war, disarmament and conflict resolution. However, when mentioning the term "peace education", most experts are referring to "comprehensive peace education" (Reardon 1988)—a broad field which covers human rights, the environment and development issues such as world poverty. Comprehensive peace education thus covers much the same territory as global education only with a slightly different focus. Many educators use the terms "peace education" and "global education" interchangeably.

Peace educators generally identify four main kinds of violence (Figure 2). The first is direct violence, involving actual physical harm done by one person or group to

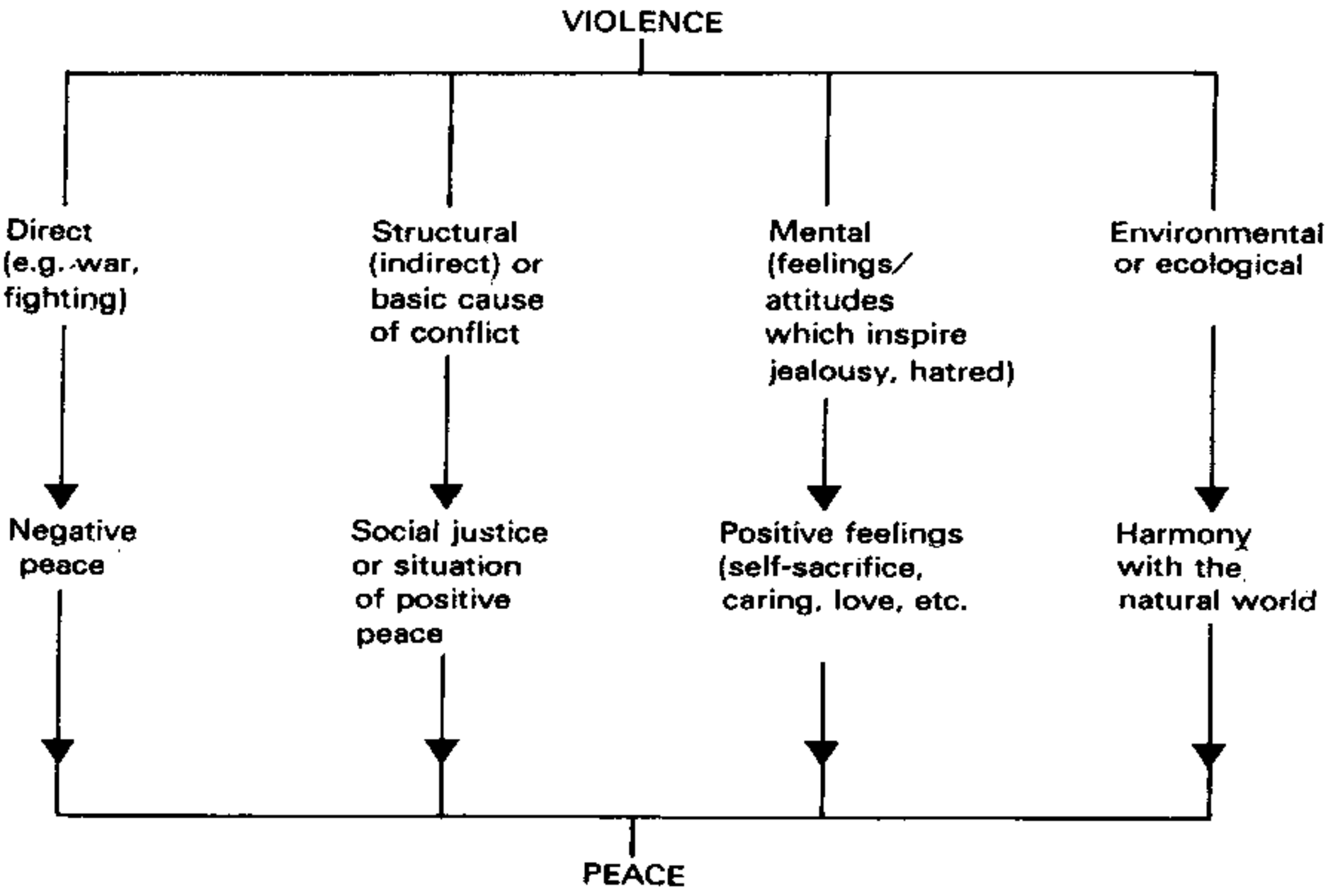

Figure 2. Four Types of Peace & Violence (Leeds, 1987)

another, which may range from fist fights to gang violence to full-scale war. The second is structural violence, a situation which, though there may be no direct violence, involves systematic oppression, exploitation, discrimination or social injustice—all of which can easily lead to actual conflict. The apartheid system in South Africa is one example; another is illustrated by Gandhi's quote "poverty is the worst kind of violence". The third kind of violence is psychological violence, referring to attitudes of prejudice, hate or jealousy, while the fourth kind is environmental violence, violence against nature through such actions as pollution or tropical forest destruction.

For each type of violence, there is a corresponding type of peace. Lack of direct violence leads to what is called "negative peace", negative because a society with no overt physical fighting may still feature oppression or injustice, prejudice or hatred. A situation of both non-violence and social justice, in contrast, is labelled positive peace. This would also include psychological peace, where people have feelings of goodwill, compassion and altruism, and environmental peace, with people living in harmony with the natural world. Peace educators also recognize different levels of peace such as inner peace, interpersonal peace, inter-group peace and international peace, each of which peace education aims to promote.

One of the most significant attempts to deal with language teaching and peace is UNESCO's "LINGUAPAX" seminar series. LINGUAPAX I, held in Kiev, USSR in 1987, brought together such groups as the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA), the International Association for the Development of Crosscultural Communication (AIMAV) and the World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV) to discuss "The Content and Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages and Literature for Peace and International Understanding". The resulting "Kiev Declaration" made four specific recommendations to foreign language teachers: 1) to be aware of their responsibility in furthering international understanding through their teaching; 2) to increase language teaching effectiveness so as to enhance mutual respect, peaceful co-existence and co-operation among nations; 3) to exploit extra-curricular activities to develop international understanding; and 4) to lay the basis for international cooperation through classroom co-operation using language teaching approaches responsive to students' interests and needs.

Global Education in the Language Classroom

Though much traditional language teaching makes vague references to peace, this has mostly remained wishful thinking. As Rivers (1968, p. 262) says: "It may be well to ask ourselves whether international understanding, let alone world peace, can be said to have been promoted by the considerable amount of foreign-language teaching in the world. Diligent learning of foreign words and phrases, laborious

copying and recitation of irregular verb paradigms, and the earnest deciphering of texts in the foreign language can hardly be considered powerful devices for the development of international understanding and good will." If language students are really to become socially responsible world citizens, then, peace education concepts and the global education goals of knowledge, skills, concern and action must appear explicitly in the curriculum.

Course design is one area where teachers can experiment with global education themes. A course I have developed for my Japanese university students, for example, is titled "Global Issues". In this course, students focus each week on a different world problem—the environment, human rights, apartheid, world hunger—and explore in English the issue, its causes and solutions through such activities as video, games, quizzes, discussions, role plays and simulations. A number of language teachers have devised courses about "cultures of the world", in which students practice English skills as well as deepen their interest and understanding of foreign countries. Global themes can even be integrated into English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses. Friel (1991, p. 24), for example, has designed a 20-hour intensive English-for-Engineering course aimed at producing socially-responsible, environmentally-aware engineers. The course concerns the building of an imaginary dam and involves students in reading pro- and anti-dam arguments, role playing loggers and environmentalists, and presenting oral and written environmental assessments of the project.

Language teachers can also integrate peace and global awareness themes into such areas as grammar. Starkey (Pike & Selby 1988, p. 239) describes how teaching the past and future tenses becomes much more meaningful when students study the historical background of world problems and do future-oriented activities concerned with solving them. Similarly, comparatives can be practiced through comparing human rights in various countries or inequalities of First World wealth and Third World poverty.

Reading, writing, listening and speaking can also be integrated with global content. One British English instructor, for example, has based an English skills lesson on the human rights organization Amnesty International (Sandilands 1989, p. 22). This begins with listening and discussion activities about Amnesty International, reading from its English newsletter, and writing English letters calling for the release of prisoners of conscience around the world. Another teacher has her students choose and make reports on "socially-conscious" organizations such as UNICEF and the Red Cross. Yet others have their students practice reading, writing and speaking by arranging for their classes to adopt Third World foster children.

Many language teachers use audio-visual resources such as songs, films and videos in their classes, yet their criteria for choosing materials rarely relate to global education objectives. This is beginning to change, however. One university EFL

teacher, for example, has built an entire college English course around the movie *Gandhi* which aims at improving students' English skills while at the same time allowing them to explore themes such as apartheid, fascism, colonialism and non-violence. Other teachers have built language teaching units around videos such as *We Are The World* (about Third World famine) and songs such as John Lennon's "Imagine" (where language students express their own ideas about what they imagine a peaceful world to be).

Methods and Materials

Peace education and global education are as much a matter of how we teach as of what we teach. Some global educators, citing Nazi war criminals (who were "just following orders"), refer to the dangers of excessive obedience to criticize traditional teaching methods which produce passive students. Others ask how respect for world peace and human rights can be achieved in language classes characterized by teacher authoritarianism, violation of learners' rights and negative competition. In contrast, global and peace educators propose new approaches to teaching methodology including cooperative learning, so that students can learn to work together, experiential learning, so students can experience other perspectives through role plays and simulations, and whole-person teaching, which deals with student attitudes and values while fostering commitment and action.

Finding good teaching materials is a major challenge for language teachers involved in peace and global education. In many traditional textbooks, world problems are conspicuous only by their absence. Even when textbooks do touch upon global issues, they often tend to treat them trivially as an overlay on the linguistic syllabus. Starkey goes further to criticize the tourist-consumer flavor of many language textbooks and concludes "foreign language textbooks are amongst the most fertile grounds for discovering bias, racism and stereotype" (Pike & Selby, 1988, p. 239).

Thankfully, more language textbooks now include occasional lessons dealing with peace-related topics, though these often require adaptation to make them more than just a language lesson. Other texts are now appearing which deal specifically with global issue themes—titles like "Heal the Earth" (Dawn Press) and "Green World" (MacMillan), for example, focus on environmental issues such as rainforests, acid rain, recycling and Earth Day. Yet other language teachers, dissatisfied with language teaching texts, are turning for ideas to books from the field of global education itself. Texts being adapted in this way include titles such as "Global Teacher, Global Learner", "World Studies 8-13", "Educating for Global Responsibility" and "Earthrights—Education As If the Planet Really Mattered" (see Recommended Reading list).

Beyond the Classroom

Extra-curricular activities offer an excellent way for language students to deal with global issues. One foreign language college, for example, holds an annual "International Awareness Seminar" featuring a Third World bazaar and English guest speakers from groups such as UNICEF. Another school involves EFL students in out-of-class volunteer activities such as litter pick-ups for Earth Day and a charity walk-a-thon where students and teachers practice the foreign language while walking 35 kilometers to raise money to help end world hunger.

Overseas school links are a further way to promote international understanding. These may range from class penpal programs to video tape exchanges to overseas school trips and homestays, all of which have the potential to dramatically break stereotypes and open students' eyes to the world. One class of British children, for example, were surprised to find their Dutch EFL penpals insulted by their "windmills/wooden shoes" stereotype of Holland while another teacher saw dramatic student progress in English proficiency and Third World understanding after a summer EFL school trip to India.

If we want our language students to acquire the knowledge, skills and commitment necessary for peace and international understanding, then language teacher training programs will have to include components on peace and global education. One example of such a program is a summer seminar for High School EFL teachers run by the Japan YMCA which attempts to improve trainees' teaching methodology and language skills through using English to explore social issues such as world hunger, environmental problems and medical ethics. Another initiative is a course entitled "Global Issues and Cooperative Learning" offered by Teachers College, Columbia University as part of its MA in TESOL program. This permits graduate students to explore fields such as peace education and environmental education, and to design model language lessons on global education themes.

An Invitation

Peace education and global issues are being increasingly addressed by the language teaching profession world-wide. This interest can be seen in language teaching journals (e.g. the recent peace education article series in the TESOL Newsletter) as well as in the rich variety of presentations at international conferences (ranging from environmental EFL workshops to human rights language learning activities, from AIDS education to creative conflict resolution, and from multicultural materials design to peace education theory and methodology).

Peace education and global education offer language teachers an exciting chance to rethink their language teaching goals, content and methods. These new fields invite us to reconsider the mission of our teaching profession and our roles as educators. They are empowering in that they show us how our language teaching can contribute

to making a better world and to promoting attitudes of social responsibility and international understanding. As Maria Montessori has said: "Establishing lasting peace is the work of education: all politics can do is keep us out of war."

Resources

Global Education Groups:

These publish teaching materials, have newsletters, and run training courses.

1. Educators for Social Responsibility, 23 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138, USA.
2. Center for Teaching International Relations, University of Denver, Denver, CO 80208, USA
3. American Forum for Global Education, 45 John Street, Suite 908, New York, NY 10038, USA

Language Teachers' Groups:

1. "Global Issues in Language Education Network" c/o Kip Cates, Tottori University, Tottori, Japan 680 (publishes a quarterly newsletter on global education and language teaching)
2. Petitioning "TESOL Peace Education Interest Section" c/o Anita Wenden, 97-37 63rd Rd. #15E Forest Hills North, New York, NY 11374 USA (plans to establish a Peace Education Interest Section within TESOL)

Recommended Reading:

Fisher S. & Hicks, D. (1985). *World Studies* 8-13. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd.

Greig, S. (1987). *Earthrights: Education As If the Planet Really Mattered*. London: WWF.

Hicks, D. (1988). *Education for Peace*. London: Routledge.

Kidron, M. & Segal, R. (1991). *New State of the World Atlas*. London: Simon & Schuster.

Kniep, W. (1987). *Next Steps in Global Education*. New York: American Forum for Global Education.

Leeds, C. (1987). *Peace and War*. Cheltenham: Stanley Thornes.

Pike, G. & Selby, D. (1988). *Global Teacher, Global Learner*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Reardon, B. (1988). *Educating for Global Responsibility*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Reardon, B. (1988). *Comprehensive Peace Education*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Shiman, D. (1988). *Teaching About Human Rights*. Denver, USA: CTIR.

References

Friel, M. (1991). Developing environmental awareness in engineering students. *Forum* XXIX, 3, 24-26.

Kniep, W. (1985). *A Critical Review of the Short History of Global Education*. New York: Global Perspectives in Education.

Reischauer, E. (1973). *Toward the 21st Century: Education for a Changing World*. New York: Knopf.

Rivers, W. (1968). *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Sandilands, B. (1989). From listening to letter-writing. *Practical English Teaching* 10, 2, 22-23.

About the Author

Kip Cates has an MA in Applied Linguistics and currently teaches English at Tottori University in Japan. He coordinates the "Global Issues in Language Education" Special Interest Group of the Japan Associaton of Language Teachers and belongs to the organization "Educators for Social Responsibility".

Conference Announcements

The 18th Annual JALT (The Japan Association of Language Teachers) Conference on Language Teaching/Learning will be held on Nover 20-23, 1992 at Showa Women's University, Setagaya-ku, Tokyo. The theme is "Teacher to Teacher." For further information, contact: JALT Central Office, Shamboru Dai 2 Kawasaki #305, 1-3-17 Kaizuka, Kawasaki-ku, Kawasaki 210 JAPAN. Fax: +81-44-245-9754.

The SEAMEO Regional Language Centre has announced the theme for this coming year's regional seminar: "Language for Specific Purposes: Problems and Prospects." The seminar will be held at the RELC Centre in Singapore on the 19-21 of April, 1993. All communications regarding the seminar should be addressed to: The Director, (Attention: Seminar Secretariat), SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 30 Orange Grove Road, SINGAPORE 1025.

Teaching Spoken English as a Process

Marguerite G. MacDonald & Chris Hall,
Wright State University

The teaching of writing in both the mainstream and ESL classroom has undergone a revolution in the last ten to fifteen years as the focus has moved from product to process. We propose that learning to speak in a second language also benefits from a process approach and that comparable techniques to those used in the writing classroom can be adapted to the speaking classroom. Just as the writing process focuses on individual conferencing and collaborative learning, with support from journals, so should the speaking process revolve around these two techniques.

The very act of writing is now seen as a method of discovering and acquiring knowledge (Emig 1971; Murray 1980) that is basically recursive in nature (Perl 1980). No longer is the writing classroom simply a place where the teacher lectures to novice writers and novice writers, in turn, assemble a product based on this information. Now young writers come to understand the on-going processes behind the product; processes that involve composing, reviewing and rewriting a text (Lindemann 1987).

In ESL writing classrooms process-oriented instruction has made remarkable inroads and has been championed by researchers and teachers such as Zamel (1976, 1982) Raimes (1985), and McKay (1984). However, while the teaching of writing to ESL students has benefitted from this revolution, the teaching of speaking to ESL students has been largely untouched by it.

The parallel between the writing and speaking process has been pointed out by Murphy (1991), among others. He notes that the complexity of speaking is similar to that of writing. He then lists activities to encourage a process approach. However, without feedback, his activities are simply products. Murphy (1991) does not explain how a process can be established in the spoken English classroom, nor does he provide the processing component of the activities he suggests.

The Role of Feedback

The essential element of many process-oriented activities is timely and comprehensible feedback as Moffett (1986) has emphasized in his research. In the speaking process, feedback is equally as important. Students should receive frequent and substantive feedback on their speaking, which can be accomplished through audio or video taping in conjunction with teacher conferencing and peer critiquing. Throughout the course, students should maintain journals.

Murray (1982) has specified at least three key qualities that are also relevant to the speaking process. Students and instructors need to have tangible, in this case audio or video, material present. Likewise, the sessions need to be frequent but short enough so that students can focus on specific problems. Finally, the scope of these problems needs to be narrow enough so that students are not overwhelmed.

One way of injecting a process component into the speaking classroom is by adapting the revising model to speech activities. Bartlett (1982) has pointed out that revision is an essential element in writing that demands an ability to re-see and reshape a text. Teaching revising becomes a key element in writing courses as Lindemann (1987) points out because inexperienced writers often lack the basic skills necessary to improve a piece of writing. In the speaking classroom the language learner also needs to develop a sense of revising to eventually improve speaking ability. That is, she needs to develop a monitoring process that helps her rehear and reshape utterances. Students receive both direct and indirect error correction, but in a way that guides them to discovering their own errors and anticipating future errors.

Just as writing research has discovered that simply marking the errors on a product does not lead to error correction and improvement in future production (Sommers 1982), commenting on speech events is not sufficient for improvement to occur. Instead, a process is necessary by which the instructor can meet with students to go over the material, with students discovering, identifying, and correcting their own errors. In speaking, this process can be achieved through the use of audio and video tapes. The instructor asks students to identify specific problems, giving more clues if students have difficulty. Instead of pointing out all problems, the instructor concentrates on only a limited number, beginning with those that most interfere with communication, that is, the global errors (Burt 1975). Later in the process, attention is given to local errors that, while not interfering with understanding, do detract from the presentation. To increase the benefits of conferencing, the instructor can meet with two students, focusing on the work of one while allowing the second to partake in the experience.

Another way that students can obtain feedback is through peer work. Much research in first language writing suggests that collaborative learning—either in large groups or small groups—is an effective writing activity in developing an inexperienced writer's ability to offer constructive criticism that can guide revisions (Williams 1989). Again, video and audio taping are used to capture the spoken English production. This material can be obtained through the taping of class discussions, short presentations, dramas, debates, or other classroom activities. If classes are too large for all students to participate, classes can be split into different groups for the critiquing sessions. By using audio recorders or single unit VCR/monitor combinations, the instructor can obtain maximum flexibility for

groups viewing the tapes. Students can be guided through the critiquing process by using checklists and questionnaires, similar to those found in the writing classroom.

Homework assignments can also incorporate feedback. Students are required to produce material outside of class and to self-critique this material, subsequently handing it in for the instructor to review later. The instructor on a separate tape comments on students' observations and makes appropriate corrections. Without the use of expensive equipment, students alternate their own tape with the taped comments of the instructor. Students can also critique each other's work outside of class using their own audio or video equipment at home, or that available in the language laboratory. The instructor can provide the same checklists or questionnaires as used in class to help guide students through the critiquing process.

The advantages of mentoring have been pointed out by Cazden (1979) based on a Vygotskian model of learning (see Vygotsky 1978). Students build on the instructor or peer input, incorporating this knowledge into their own repertoire. While the feedback is direct in the conferencing and peer critiquing, it can also be indirect. Through the use of dialog journals students do orally what has shown to be beneficial in the writing classroom. Students communicate with other students or with the instructor (See MacDonald 1989). A dialog journal with native English-speaking students provides the additional advantage of cultural and linguistic input from a native-speaking peer. These journals are not graded, except perhaps for frequency or length. Instead, they present language forms that ESL students can use as models.

There are other uses of tape to enhance the speaking process. Students can submit lists of relevant vocabulary words from their field of study with an audio tape on which the instructor records the vocabulary, providing material for students to practice. Students can also use passages recorded by the instructor or other native speakers to listen to, practice reading, and then record in their own voice. This recording in turn can be critiqued by the instructor.

In the classroom, it is also possible for the instructor to provide nonobstrusive feedback during live discussions. Basically, the instructor checks to see if other students understand the comments of a specific student. If not, that student must clarify the material, improving pronunciation or rephrasing with the help of the instructor. Students can also be trained to monitor their own comprehension and to provide appropriate feedback to their fellow students who are not comprehensible.

Conclusions

The advantage of approaching speaking tasks with the same techniques as those used in writing is that effective feedback is provided. Unlike those attempts at improving spoken English that assume students will improve without correction or

those that provide only indirect correction, the incorporation of teacher conferencing and peer critiquing, with journals and other techniques common to the writing process classroom, provides a means for students to develop self-critiquing. While speaking is not something that normally can be reviewed, revised, and restated, recording provides these options. Students are able to examine and reflect upon their own speaking and that of others. They are able to suggest alternate ways of stating the material, changes in pronunciation or vocabulary, and other modifications that will enhance comprehensibility. Experience has shown the ESL profession that practice alone does not guarantee better oral proficiency. If the product is to improve, the process must be addressed.

References

Bartlett, E. (1982). Learning to revise: Some component processes. In M. Nystand (Ed.), *What Writers Know: The Language and Structure of Written Discourse* (pp. 345-363). New York: Academic Press.

Burt, M. (1975). Error analysis in the adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 9,* 53-63.

Cazden, C. (1979). Peekaboo as an instructional model: Discourse development at home and school. (*Papers and Reports on Child Language Development. No. 17*). Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University, Department of Linguistics.

Emig J. (1971). *The Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders.* NCTE Research Report No. 13. Urbana, IL: NCTE.

Lindemann, E. (1987). *A Rhetoric for Writing Teachers.* New York: Oxford University Press.

MacDonald, M. (1989). Oral dialogue journals: Spoken language in a communicative context. *TESL Reporter, 22* , 27-31.

Murray, D. (1980). Writing as process: How writing finds its own meaning. In T. Donovan and B. McClelland (Eds.), *Eight Approaches to Teaching Composition.* Urbana, IL: NCTE.

Murray, D. (1982). Conference guidelines. In D. Murray (Ed.), *Learning by Teaching: Selected Articles on Writing and Teaching* (pp. 163-164). Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook.

McKay, S. (1984). Some limitations in teaching composition. In J. Handscombe, R. Orem, and B. Taylor (Eds.), *On TESOL '83* (pp. 187-194). Bloomington, IL: Pantograph Printing.

Moffett, J. (1986). *Teaching the Universe of Discourse*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Murphy, J. (1991). Oral communication in TESOL: Integrating speaking, listening, and pronunciation. *TESOL Quarterly 25,* 51-104.

Murray, D. (1982). Conference guidelines. In D. Murray (Ed.), *Learning by Teaching: Selected Articles on Writing and Teaching*. Upper Montclair, NJ: Boynton/Cook.

Perl, S. (1979). Understanding composing. *College Composition and Communication, 31,* 363-369.

Raimes, A. (1983). Tradition and Revolution in ESL Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 17,* 532-552.

Sommers, N.I. (1982). Responding to student writing. *College Composition and Communication. 32,* 148-156.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Hgher Psychological Processes*. Cole, M., John-Steiner, V., Scribner, S., and Louberman, E. (Eds.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Williams, J. (1989). *Preparing to Teach Writing.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Zamel, V. (1976). Teaching composition in the ESL classroom: What we can learn from research in the teaching of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 10,* 67-76.

Zamel, V. (1982). Writing: The process of discovering meaning. *TESOL Quarterly, 16,* 195-209.

About the Authors

Marguerite MacDonald teaches linguistics and directs the TESOL and ESL programs at Wright State University. She has published articles and book chapters on TESOL, language acquisition, and sociolinguistics. Chris Hall teaches linguistics, composition, and TESOL at Wright State University and coordinates the ESL writing program. He has published in a number of journals including, CAELL Journal, College Composition & Communication, TESOL Quarterly, The Journal of Intensive English Studies, *and* Language Arts.

More Conferences . . .

The 1993 Second Language Research Forum (SLRF) will be held in Pittsburgh on March 19-21. The theme for the conference is "Cognitive Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition." For information, contact: Marion Delarche and Dawn McCormick, SLRF Conference Co-Chairs, 2816 Cathedral of Learning, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA 15260.

The 27th Annual Convention and Exposition of TESOL will be held April 13-17, 1993 in Atlanta, Georgia. The theme is "Designing Our World." For further information, contact TESOL Inc., Conventions Department, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, Virginia USA 22314-2751, Fax# (703) 836-7864.

TESL Reporter 25,1 (1992) , pp. 15-18

COMMERCIAL MOVIES IN THE ESL CLASSROOM

Richard Davis, College for Foreign Language Teachers
United States Peace Corps, Poland

In ESL teaching, genius is wonderful, and hard work pays off, but there is nothing so sweet as serendipity. For instance, I have sitting on my desk at my teachers' training college a toy that can be found in any toy store in Poland, consisting of a clown head sitting on a stack of brightly colored wheels. "You look at it and see a silly toy," I tell my students, "but I see a dandy teaching aid." Whereupon I pull off the head and toss the wheels, calling out, "Catch! Throw me the red wheel!"

My favorite video tool came to me through serendipity. A few years ago, I was teaching at the Bi-National Center in San Jose, Costa Rica. We had a Friday Afternoon Movie Club for our English language students, and as head of the Audio-visual Department, it was my job to find the films. I would comb the satellite TV listings for movies to tape for later use. One day I set the VCR for a well-known classic, but when I ran the tape, I discovered that the station had substituted a film I had never heard of, *Flame of the Islands* (Republic, 1955, with Yvonne deCarlo, Howard Duff, and Zachary Scott.) Now I am not one to pass up even a bad old movie, so I took a look at it before I erased it. I noticed scenes in which characters introduced each other, asked questions, and even took a mini-tour of Nassau, the Bahamas. I decided these scenes could be useful to my Book 2 and Book 3 students. We had a couple of ESL videos, but in the movie the scenes sounded more natural. So I copied off those scenes and made transcripts so that my students could see in print what they might not recognize on the soundtrack.

The more I viewed the film, the more I began to think that all of it would make a useful ESL program. As a low-budget but well-made film, Flame has several things going for it. First, the color looks good on TV, and the simple, uncluttered locations show up well in small-screen classroom viewing. Second, the director did not get fancy, and the plot moves right ahead as the actors face the camera and speak to one another in clear diction. Third, the movie has a surprisingly literate script which generates lively discussion. On one level, the plot has surprise twists and revelations that keep the viewer guessing. On a higher level, characters are not villains or heroes but basically decent people who are tempted to make moral choices which are disastrous to people they have no wish to hurt. Even the way characters drink and smoke is a subject for discussion.

So I divided the movie into nine ten-minute segments to correspond to the units of our intermediate book, which happened to be Heinle and Heinle's *Perspectives*. I typed out a transcript on a word processor, created a glossary, and wrote exercises which reinforced the grammar points in the textbook. For instance, the first three units dealt with the three types of reported speech, and there was plenty of speech to report in the movie. And for every other point: infinitives without "to," choice of infinitive or participle after certain verbs, etc., there always seemed to be a handy example in the dialog. At first it seemed like a remarkable coincidence that the episodes of the movie fit the grammar points of the text so well. Then I realized that the film could just as readily be adapted to any intermediate textbook, because the characters speak in the recurring structures of normal speech.

My students responded positively to the project. At the start of each lesson, I would ask them to recount the plot to date, we would discuss the cultural and ethical implications that the story raised, and I would ask them to predict what was going to happen. In *Flame*, the heroine is involved with four men, so we were kept guessing which one, if any, she was going to be clutching at the fade-out. I would begin each session by screening the previous episode and then vary the procedure for viewing the new one. Sometimes I would have the class view the episode first without script to see what they could understand, sometimes we would watch it with the script, and sometimes we would read the script or act it out before we viewed it. Because I wanted to take advantage of the surprise twists of plot, I handed out only one episode at a time.

Going Commercial

I began to view what I had developed as a possible commercial joint venture with the film's owner, a text-tape package for classroom use or individual study. I even prepared readings to go with each episode telling the history of movies in general, what I knew of this movie and the actors, and the history and geography of the Bahama Islands, where the movie was made on location. Ideally the readings should use vocabulary and idioms from their respective episodes, for maximum reinforcement, but my present students are beyond the intermediate level and do not need that kind of reinforcement, so I have put off that part of it.

I worried that what I was doing is probably violating a copyright, though in fact at the first opportunity I bought a good-quality commercial cassette of the film. Because *Flame of the Islands* is something less than a film classic, it occurred to me that its value to Republic might be considerably increased if it were part of an ESL package. Even if its share of the price of the package were something more than the $19.95 most video movies retail for, the film would bring a good profit to its owner and still cost the ESL user considerably less than an equivalent film made especially

for ESL use. It has been my experience of films made for ESL use that large as it is, the ESL market is limited, and even the best ESL videos look cheap compared to theater films, and their story lines are less than riveting. Furthermore, those made for intermediate use have vocabularies more controlled than *Flame Of The Islands*.

I wrote several letters to the Republic Corporation, which made the film and still distributes the videocassette, but I never received a reply. I figure that such a project is so far from their imaginations that they would take seriously only serious negotiations with a publisher. So there the matter rests, though in the absence of complaint on the company's part, I go on using what I have worked up.

"Oldies But Goodies"

I figure that languishing in vaults somewhere, there must be thousands of old movies that could have a second life as ESL material. Old movies have the advantage of having been professionally produced, so even the cheapest of them have a more professional look than most ESL productions, and they have stories by professional storytellers. I find, however, that young people today will not sit still for even the most superior black and white productions. It has to be color films.

My students would prefer more recent action movies like Star Wars or Rambo, but these pose a significant problem. As film technology improved and directors moved out of the studio, they stopped filming in discrete scenes. The films are not only harder to teach, they are harder to hear as well. A lot of dialogue is lost in the background noise. Native speakers don't need it, and casual viewers can get what they need from the context, but intermediate ESL classes need more help.

And what made the old B movies so good in a classroom—simple sets, discrete scenes and straightforward speech into a microphone—is readily available on television. Without the commercials, situation comedies are twenty-minute programs that divide neatly into two parts at the commercial break. I have brought dozens with me to Poland to illustrate American idiom and culture. One which I find especially good is "The Cosby Show." Dr. Cosby and his writers have worked so carefully to make each episode educational that it needs virtually no preliminary exposition (as opposed to series like "Family Ties" or "Who's the Boss?," which are well written, but where the humor of the central plot gimmick is lost out of context.)

"The Cosby Show" is currently running on Polish television, so my students know and love it, and each episode not only uses a basic store of recurring vocabulary and idiom, but a story that offers plenty of discussion, not only of family relations in general, but of differences in cultures. Both my students and I enjoy watching and discussing such basic situations as taking a small child to the dentist, having a family conference, going to a senior prom, planning a wedding, having a backyard

cookout, and figuring out how to keep the romance in marriage. I would like to write to Dr. Cosby about the show's value as an ESL tool, but again I figure a publisher would be more persuasive.

I have great faith in the value of old movies and television series as ESL programs. If they were made available to ESL programs, teachers would have an enormous variety of material to choose from both for classroom and for individual use, and the owners of the movies and TV series would have an additional source of profit from their productions. If any publisher is interested in taking on such a project, I'm already halfway there with the first one.

About the Author

Richard Davis is one of the many early volunteers who responded to the increased needs of the U.S. Peace Corps for trained ESL specialists in the countries of Eastern Europe. He currently teaches at the College for Foreign Language Teachers in Opole, Poland.

New International Scholars Association

At a recent meeting to discuss linguistic, literary and pedagogical aspects of World Englishes in Honolulu, Hawaii, a new international scholarly association was launched. The organization is named **International Association for World Englishes** (IAWE). The Steering Committee for the Association was formed during the conference on "Culture and Literature: Issues of Interpretation and Comprehension" organized by the East-West Center, Honolulu (May 11-15, 1992) and consists of: James E. Alatis (Georgetown), Kimberly Brown (Portland), Wimal Dissanayake (East-West Center, Honolulu), Braj B. Kachru (Illinois), Peter Lowenberg (San Jose State), Cecil L. Nelson (Indiana State), Anne Pakir (NUS, Singapore), Larry E. Smith (East-West Center, Honolulu), S.N. Sridhar (SUNY Stonybrook) and Tamara Valentine (South Carolina, Spartanburg). The main objective of the Association, said Larry Smith, organizer of the recent Honolulu Conference, is to "establish international links among those who are involved with any aspect of World Englishes in research and/or teaching. The Association will focus on global issues relating to three major aspects of World Englishes: language, literature and methodology." IAWE replaces the International Committee on World Englishes formed in 1987 at Georgetown. The charter annual membership fee is $10.00. Requests for further information and membership applications may be addressed to: Professor Cecil L. Nelson, Dept. of English, Root Hall A-261, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, IN 47802, USA; phone: (812) 237-3164, -3167.

Collaborative Diary-Keeping: A Tool for Teacher Development

by Mark N. Brock, Bartholomew Yu, & Matilda Wong, City Polytechnic of Hong Kong

Since the late 1970's, diary studies have been gaining attention as legitimate means of investigating learning and teaching processes in second language classrooms. Benefits claimed for this approach to classroom research include:

-identifying variables that are important to individual teachers and learners;
-generating questions and hypotheses about teaching and learning processes;
-enhancing awareness about the way a teacher teaches and a student learns;
-providing teachers and learners a tool for reflection;
-providing a first-hand account of teaching and learning experiences;
-providing an on-going record of classroom events and teacher and learner reflections;
-enabling the researcher to relate classroom events and examine trends emerging from the diaries;
-promoting the development of reflective teaching (Allwright, 1983; Bailey, 1990; Brown, 1985; Nunan, 1989; and Richards, 1990).

Most published diary studies in second language classroom research (for example, Bailey, 1983; Schmidt and Frota, 1986; and Schumann and Schumann, 1977) have reported the experiences and findings of individual diarists. Some of these studies, for example Bailey's (1983), have included the input of another researcher or teacher who read and commented on the diarist's entries. We are unaware, however, of any published studies in our field in which diarists kept diaries together, reading, reflecting on, and talking about their own as well as other participant diarists' entries. This paper documents such an approach to teacher development.

Procedures of Collaborative Diary-Keeping

Each of the three ESL teachers participating in this collaborative diary-keeping project wrote three diary entries each week of a ten-week term. Two entries were made for one three-hour class which met twice weekly (two consecutive hours in one meeting and one hour in the other meeting). The third entry was made for one meeting of another class. Our entries concerned several different university-level language classes, including business, technical, and supplementary English classes. We wrote our diary entries immediately following the lessons so that we could remember classroom events and our responses in as much detail as possible. We also followed Bailey's (1990) advice that time spent writing at least equal time spent in class. Moreover, in keeping our diaries we attempted to combine the narration of

classroom events with our reflections on those events. We did not narrow our focus to one or even several issues.

To maximize the effects of interaction among the three diarists, our diary-keeping was combined with written responses to each other's diary entries and group discussions. These three steps formed a kind of triangulation which offered us more than one way of exploring issues related to our teaching. After writing each diary entry, we made copies and gave them to one another to read. We then wrote brief responses to one another's entries and gave copies of these responses to one another before our one-hour discussion time on Friday afternoons. These group discussions were audiotaped and later transcribed. At the end of the term, we analyzed the diary entries, our written responses, and the transcripts of discussions to determine how these three interacted and affected our development as teachers.

Some Effects of Collaborative Diary-Keeping

We believe our participation in this collaborative diary-keeping project contributed to our development as second language teachers in several significant ways. Primarily, collaborative diary-keeping raised our awareness of classroom processes and prompted us to consider those processes more deeply than we may otherwise have. Collaborative diary-keeping also provided encouragement and support to our professional development; it served as a source of teaching ideas and suggestions; and in some sense it gave us a way to observe one another's teaching from a "safe distance."

Awareness-Raising

As previous research has shown, writing and reflecting on diary entries can serve as a process of discovery. Diary-keeping can prompt a teacher to become more observant and alert to some of the variables affecting classroom teaching and learning processes. Through the retrospection and introspection diary-keeping requires, teachers may become aware of some of the issues, concerns, and questions attendant to their teaching which were previously unarticulated. As some researchers have suggested, for some teachers many pedagogical issues may never be carefully considered without the discipline of diary-keeping.

This sense of awareness-raising as a result of diary-keeping was evident in our collaborative diary-keeping experience. One of Matilda's diary entries illustrates this point:

> In general, I'm not at all satisfied with this class today . . . On reflection, I admit I didn't do well this afternoon; I guess I was tired as well . . . But, definitely, these students didn't show much interest in the lesson

> today. To improve this, I really must consider more seriously what to include in an afternoon class so as to enliven the lesson and stimulate students in a more effective way (January 23).

Then in the following week, she reported that she was more aware of the problem with this class following the reflection she went through in the previous week:

> It's an afternoon class again. I remember we had a fairly tired and lazy atmosphere last time. So this week I was determined to improve it . . . This week, I prepared to give students a video exercise which I hoped would stimulate their interest and keep them awake in a sleepy afternoon (January 30).

A growing self-awareness and the urge to improve seem to be a natural part of the reflection process. Indeed, as Brown observes, "it may be that the awareness would have come without the journals, but writing it down made it very evident" (1985, p. 131).

The process of observation and reflection can arouse a new awareness of one's teaching and of oneself as a teacher. In his first entry, Mark observed:

> My mirror is clouded. I hope that by reflecting further on my teaching I can polish up my mirror and see myself clearly in the light of day. I probably won't like some of what I see. But at least I can see it and with that vision have before me then some possibility of change (January 8).

And, in another entry, he reported:

> I know that I need to give more attention to my teaching. I need to consider what I do in the classroom more deeply. And, of course, through keeping this diary I'm trying to do just that. I don't know if I've found any answers. I have certainly found myself asking lots of questions, though. And maybe that in itself is a success. At least it indicates that I'm still "alive" as a teacher. I'm still considering what is going on in my classes. I'm still trying to learn and to change, to become aware (February 13).

Although diary-keeping may not yield any answers, at least at the beginning, the fact that many questions are raised as a result of the reflection diary-keeping requires is significant in itself. Thinking about and evaluating what we do in the classroom, examining whether it is effective, and considering some of the variables affecting teaching and learning processes has the potential of moving teachers beyond mechanistic, non-reflective teaching.

In addition to keeping diaries as tools for reflection, the additional experiences of reading and responding to one another's diary entries and then discussing what we had read served to enhance this awareness-raising process. Receiving responses from one another and seeing ourselves through another's perspective at times helped us discover what we might have otherwise overlooked.

Encouragement

The sharing of feelings and opinions through responding to one another's diaries and discussing classroom experiences provided us a sense of encouragement and support. The responses and comments sometimes served as possible suggestions for problems posed in diary entries. More often during our project, the responses and comments we received provided encouragement, especially in those times when we were frustrated, wondering whether we were proceeding in the best direction with our teaching. In one instance, Mark responded to Matilda's experience of feeling defensive in class:

> It seems to me that, as you point out, you are feeling defensive or at least uneasy this term. And, believe me, I understand how you feel and how that can affect you. We all experience this at times and sometimes I really don't know what answer there is to it. It must drive a lot of teachers from the profession. What do we do (January 17)?

This kind of understanding and expression of empathy provided an atmosphere in which we could share our failures and successes. Our responses and discussions were often punctuated with expressions of support, solidarity, encouragement, and praise for ways in which particular teaching situations were handled.

By reading one another's diary entries, we were able to share our teaching experiences, and we often felt that we were learning as much from one another's entries as we were from our own. Reading and responding to the entries led us back to our own teaching to consider how and why we taught as we did. In one of our weekly discussions (Week 6), we considered this result of keeping and sharing our diaries:

> **Matilda:** I also feel that our discussion is helpful. I think I get a lot from our discussion as well and from your responses.
>
> **Mark:** I get a lot too. I learn a lot from reading both of your entries. I mean, I learn; I get some ideas for my own teaching but I also learn . . . It makes me reflect back on my own experiences and maybe realize something that I haven't realized, to pick up something that I haven't picked up (February 22).

Through this diary-writing and -sharing experience, we gained new suggestions and ideas from one another and discovered new options for approaching particular teaching tasks. In response to one of Mark's diary entries, Matilda observed:

> After the two Friday discussions we had, I've thought about this point again and I've actually tried not to intervene at all in some cases this week when students are doing their group tasks (February 8).

Through the experiences we shared in this project, our perspectives were widened and we discovered new options for our teaching.

Observation

Keeping diaries, reading and responding to them, and discussing classroom experiences in some small way opened a window on our teaching, allowing us to observe one another from a "safe distance." As Fanselow (1987) suggests, observation is a way of seeing teaching differently, and reading, responding, and discussing one another's entries gave us a way to see our own teaching from a different perspective. Occasionally, a reader's observation of a seemingly insignificant event yielded deeper insights into what was actually happening in class. After reading one of Matilda's entries in week 5, Mark commented that he "was struck by the incident before class began when the student in your class asked permission to eat an orange." This seemingly minor observation was discussed in the weekly group meeting and developed into a serious consideration of the issue of student respect for teachers and the issue of "face," as well as some of the cross-cultural differences between Chinese and American classroom behavior.

In sum, the experience of collaborative diary-keeping not only challenged us to look closer at our teaching but provided support, encouragement, and solidarity. As teachers of approximately the same professional level, our relationship was not marked by the discomfort that can attend relationships of power, such as that of a supervisor and teacher or that of a master-teacher and novice-teacher. As Mark expressed during one group discussion:

> **Mark:** I think We've come at this not as experts who tell people how to teach, "I'm going to tell you how to teach and you're going to tell me how to teach," but more as people trying to learn and be supportive of each other (March 15).

Conclusion

Throughout our collaborative diary-keeping project, we have sought to see our "teacher-selves" more clearly and to understand our classroom behaviors more fully. Our hope has been, as Bailey (1983) has suggested, that diary-keeping would raise our awareness of what we do in the classroom and help us understand some of the reasons and consequences of our actions.

Through keeping diaries, making written responses to one another's entries, and discussing our experiences, we were able to focus on several issues that are important to us as teachers. Our diary-keeping project did indeed serve as a hypothesis-generating tool (Bailey, 1990), and our lists of issues, questions, and concerns generated during the project could serve as a rich agenda for our future classroom research. Collaborative diary-keeping gave us each a sense of encouragement, a forum in which to relate experiences and pose questions, and an opportunity to gain an inside perspective on other teachers' experiences.

Along with these positive reactions to collaborative diary-keeping, there were some negative sentiments as well. Our enthusiasm for the project dimmed as the term neared its end, and at times we saw the discipline as much a burden on our time as a tool for our development as teachers. It is possible that collaborative diary-keeping would be a less time-demanding and more effective tool for teacher development when the scope of issues considered is focused more narrowly. We suggest that teachers undertaking collaborative diary-keeping consider narrowing their focus to a few salient teaching issues. Such an approach would allow participants to investigate in depth two or three issues of common interest rather than attempting to explore many issues at one time.

These caveats notwithstanding, each of us believes that collaborative diary-keeping can serve as a useful tool for teacher development. This sentiment is reflected in our final entries in which we summarized our experiences. In his entry, Mark recollected, "Overall I think that our project has been worthwhile. I think that I have learnt something about myself as a teacher. I really have enjoyed our discussions and I've enjoyed hearing particularly about the teaching experiences of Bart and Matilda." Bart expressed that "through diary-keeping, we raised our consciousness of what happened during our teaching and for the first time I began to be aware of many of the interesting points during the class flow." Matilda stated that "on the whole I think diary keeping enables me to clear some of my doubts through getting responses from my partners . . . sharing diaries with the others . . . widens my vision." It is with this widened vision that possibilities for teacher development come into clearer focus.

References

Allwright, D. (1983). Classroom-centered research on language teaching and learning: A brief historical overview. *TESOL Quarterly, 17*, 191-204.

Bailey, K.M. (1990). The use of diary studies in teacher education programs. In J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 215-226). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K.M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H.W. Seliger and M.H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 67-102). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Brown, C. (1985). Two windows on the classroom world: Diary studies and participant observation differences. In P. Larsen, E. Judd, and D. Messerschmitt (Eds.), *On TESOL '84: A Brave New World for TESOL* (pp. 121-134). Wasihngton, DC: TESOL.

Fanselow, J.F. (1987). *Breaking Rules: Generating and Exploring Alternatives in Language Teaching*. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Understanding Language Classrooms: A Guide for Teacher-Initiated Action.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Richards, J.C. (1990). *The Context of Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schmidt, R.W., & Frota, S.N. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R.R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to Learn: Conversation in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 237-326). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Schumann, F.E., & Schumann, J.H. (1977). Diary of a language learner: A further analysis. In H.D.Brown, R.H. Crymes, and C.A. Yorio (Eds.), *On TESOL '77: Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language—Trends in Research and Practice* (pp. 241-249). Washington, DC: TESOL.

About the Authors

Mark N. Brock, Bartholomew Yu, and Matilda Wong are lecturers in the Department of English, City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.

TESL-L

The Electronic Discussion Forum for Teachers of English To Speakers of Other Languages

TESL-L is a 24-hour electronic communications resource for teachers and other professionals involved in the education of non-native English-speakers. This service is available free to anyone with access to the BITNET or INTERNET telecommunications systems. All you need is an e-mail account, (usually provided at no charge through your university, college, or board of education). The organizers emphasize that you do not need to be a computer whiz to be able to make full use of this facility.

The speed and power of telecommunications helps you keep in touch with the latest in the field. You can get news of conferences, jobs, books, and materials, as well as "discuss" all of these with your fellow e-mail colleagues.

If you already have an e-mail account, send an electronic message to: Anthea Tillyer (ABTHC@CUNYVM.BITNET or ABTHC@CUNYVM.CUNY. EDU.) or Susan Simon (STSCC@CUNYVM.BITNET).

If you have questions or problems, write to: Anthea Tillyer, International English Institute, Hunter College, 695 Park Ave. (10 East), New York , NY 10021.

Lexis: Academic Vocabulary Study

Review by Nicole L. Bay
Brigham Young University, Provo

LEXIS: ACADEMIC VOCABULARY STUDY. Arline Burgmeier, Gerry Eldred, and Cheryl Boyd Zimmerman. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1991, pp. 199. US$13.80.

Lexis is a language text that targets intermediate ESL audiences as well as developmental English audiences. It integrates reading, writing, listening and speaking while aiming to provide the student with an active academic vocabulary that spans the general education curriculum. The authors feel that it is important to present vocabulary within a meaningful context. They accomplish their aim by presenting eight units of differing subject matter, such as "Language Change and the Development of American English," "Personal Computers: The Early Years," and "The Fickle Forces of Nature."

Each unit consists of a section called, "Establishing a Context" that presents the unit's theme and three following sections that emphasize three different levels of study: "Understanding Words," "Putting Words into Sentences," and "Using Words in Context." These levels are designed to help the student understand new vocabulary in context.

Establishing a Context—Each unit begins with a series of questions that help the student to focus on a specific theme. For example, Unit 5, called "The Story of Motion Pictures," begins with the questions:

-What makes a motion picture great? What great motion pictures can you name?

-In what ways does a motion picture differ from or resemble a novel?

-How have motion pictures changed since they were first invented? (p. 94)

Following the pre-reading questions in each unit is a "high-interest" article of 1500 to 2000 words that presents the new vocabulary in context. The article presented in Unit 5 leads the student through the history of motion picture progress, including such aspects as the various revolutions in technology that brought the motion picture industry to where it is today. To be sure that students understand what they read, they are asked next to identify as true or false a series of sentences that are related to the article.

Understanding Words—Approximately forty words are extracted from the text and presented as vocabulary. They are divided into lists according to their part of speech. These words are chosen on the basis of their frequency of occurrence in general education courses. Following are activities designed to teach the students the meaning of the vocabulary words within the context of the article. Exercises such as

selecting a vocabulary word from the list to match the definition and context of a particular sentence help the student to focus on each word and the possible meanings it may have. Other activities help students use decoding devices to help them understand new words they encounter and encoding devices to help them create new words from the ones they have already learned. Distinguishing between the verbs "adapt" and "adopt" is one of the decoding activities in Unit 5. Inflecting verbs for person and tense is an example of one of the encoding exercises.

Putting Words into Sentences—This section focuses on sentence-level activities with ten of the words from the vocabulary list. This step is important because words must occur in the context of a sentence to take on specific meaning. Activities help students to recognize related forms of the chosen lexical items as well as provide practice in such sentence-level formations as paraphrasing and passivization.

Using Words in Context—This is the culminating section of each chapter which now requires students to use their new vocabulary words in larger, more natural discourse. They are given a variety of oral and written exercises which focus on semantic, syntactic and rhetorical devices. One activity in Unit 5 requires that the students rearrange a series of scrambled sentences so that the story of Harry Houdini is understandable, progressing from start to finish, thus helping students not only practice their understanding of vocabulary, but also to fine-tune their skills in the use of rhetorical devices.

Lexis is a highly effective text for presenting academic vocabulary in an interesting way. In addition, the activities teach important skills that not only help the student retain the vocabulary, but also provide him with the necessary tools to expand his vocabulary. The authors recommend that this be the main text of a language course; I feel that it makes a fine supplement or can be used specifically with a vocabulary building course. The teacher need not worry about gathering materials and writing quizzes because all that is needed is included in the book. And the students will enjoy the articles and activities as they expand their active vocabulary.

New Linguistic Association Formed

The Association Internationale de Psychomecanique d'Anglais de Specialite et de Didactiques des Langues (AIPASDL) was recently formed in Roubaix France, and encompasses psychomechanics, English for Specific Purposes, and foreign language teaching. Inquiries may be sent to: Jacques Coulardeau, President of AIPASDL, Residence Mermoz, Apt 109, 59100 Roubaix, France.

Teaching and Testing

Ted Plaister,
University of Hawaii at Manoa

Language teachers do a lot more testing of their students than they realize. This is especially true of beginning teachers. It is suggested here that what is needed is more teaching and less testing. Further, teachers need to be aware of when they are teaching and when they are testing.

This is not to imply that testing is of itself undesirable. Nor am I referring to regularly scheduled weekly quizzes, mid-term examinations, finals, etc. What is being discussed here is the testing that goes on during the daily lesson.

For example, if a teacher uses a drill exercise such as the following slot substitution practice, is this teaching or testing?

T: Mary had a little lamb. Goat.

Ss: Mary had a little goat. (Expected response.)

T: Sam.

Ss: Sam had a little goat.

T: Big.

Ss: Sam had a big goat.

I submit that this drill, if presented as above, is a test. It tests the students' ability to fit the cue words into the proper positions.

Instead of the above, suppose the teacher uses an approach such as this:

Class listen:

Mary had a little lamb.
Mary had a little goat.
Sam had a little goat.
Sam had a big goat. etc.

Now repeat these sentences after me:

Mary had a little lamb.
Mary had a little goat.
Sam had a little goat.
Sam had a big goat.

This is teaching. Notice that the teacher is presenting a live model for the students to hear. The students are being afforded the opportunity to hear the utterances many times. They are then given a chance to repeat the sentences in imitation of the

teacher. (It could be argued that even this is a form of testing, but for our purposes we won't consider it as such.) Finally, the test itself is taught. Then the students are tested to see if they can fit the words in the correct positions. A teaching situation has been built up to a testing one.

This teaching/testing dichotomy need not be restricted to pattern practice type exercises. The same rationale applies to pronunciation drills. Asking students during minimal pair exercise to indicate which word is being said before they have had adequate time to learn to hear the differences is surely another example of testing. Even if lists of minimal pairs are put on the chalkboard, the teacher indicates with his hand just which word it is he is saying. The students are given the opportunity of listening many, many times before being asked to discriminate one word from another in a testing situation.

How many times are students asked to listen to a particular line of a dialogue before they are called upon to repeat it? Have they heard it first so many times that it is ringing in their ears? Or has the teacher been content with a couple of modelings before starting the testing? (And isn't it a test of sorts to ask the students to repeat the line of a dialogue?)

There are too many failures in foreign language learning. Everyone has learned at least one language. Is it really so difficult to learn another? Perhaps the failures are due, in part, to too much testing and not enough teaching.

About the Author

Ted Plaister, at the time this article was published (1968), was Assistant Director of the English Language Institute at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. Plaister, who first gained local fame for his humor (which was often as dry and biting as any desert storm), later wrote Developing Listening Comprehension for ESL Students *(a.k.a.* "The Kingdom of Kochen"*), a text for which he will surely gain entry into TESOL's "Hall of Fame."*

Looking for Adventure?

Did you know that Peace Corps Volunteers teach English in over 70 countries worldwide? With recent events in Europe, the demand for English teaching volunteers has risen sharply. In addition to the personal benefits of such an experience, there are educational and financial benefits as well, such as the deferment of educational loan repayments, academic credit for your Peace Corps training, scholarships, living allowances, insurance, and a readjustment allowance of $5,400 following a two year tour. Call or write with a resume to: Peace Corps of the United States, Box 824, 1990 K St. NW, Washington, DC 20526 (202) 606-3780

TESL and Creative Drama

Richard Via,
Cultural Learning Institute, The East-West Center,
Honolulu, Hawaii

Once we earn our academic degrees and take our places in front of our own classes we all too often forget what we really are—children in adult's clothing. We have carefully concealed our innate desire to play under a thick veneer of facts, figures, rules, regulations, and teaching theories. The creative talents in each of us are carefully and neatly packed away. Luckily they are not dead, and from time to time they find their way to the surface with such thoughts, as, "What's wrong with my class today?" "Why isn't Johnny reading?"

A Pioneering Seminar

Take heart; fear not fair maiden (or brave hero); help is on the way. That teaching can be fun and an exciting experience has been demonstrated most definitely by Dr. Eloise Hayes of the University of Hawaii's College of Education in her seminar, "Creative Drama and the English Class." This seminar was part of the East-West Center's Culture Learning Institute training program for Teacher Trainers in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. Participants in the project were professional people from colleges and universities in Asia and the Pacific Islands.

The first meeting of the six-session seminar was a mixture of embarrassment, fun, annoyance, and wonder. Dr. Hayes admits she was not prepared for such a mixed group speaking a variety of languages and with widely diverse cultural backgrounds. On the first meeting she found it necessary to reject some of her initial plans and substitute others. "I was in a state of shock most of that first session. First they came early, before we had a chance to make the dingy room a bit more cheerful, with music on the record player, flowers and some wall charts. Here we were, in a state of confusion to begin with! The ladies from Thailand spoke so softly that they were almost impossible to hear. The Japanese gentlemen spoke firmly but hardly at all. The Micronesians, and indeed everyone, eyed me with considerable reserve. I collapsed into a chair giving up my original ideal of getting acquainted through action and gasped, 'Tell me about yourselves.' Before long, however, we were on our feet in drama movement."

It is difficult for all of us to step out of the protective armor of academia, and these teachers were no exception. There were grumbles about the childishness of

sitting on the floor and being a round or angular shape, or moving in slow motion; and concern for their teacher image when they were asked to be monkeys in "The Peddler and His Caps." There were also questions about the usefulness of the seminar and whether to continue with it since attendance was not compulsory. Yet, everyone returned the next week even though the time, 7-9 on Wednesday evenings, was somewhat inconvenient for the group.

Five Weeks Later . . .

Now, let's jump ahead five weeks to the final session and look at just a portion of that exciting evening. There was a circus!—and it was more than acting or playing, it was alive and real. Grown men and women replete with degrees had freed themselves to be children again. Merle Evans' Circus Band record backed up a Japanese-Korean-Micronesian herd of elephants trained by a Chinese remedial reading expert. Two lovely Thai ladies added grace, charm, and daring to the tightwire act that featured a reckless daredevil from Samoa. Two rare bald tigers went through their paces under the control of the Philippines' first female wild animal trainer, and there were clowns, and of course the audience, which each act became as it finished its performance.

"Bertha, would you read this? It's crazy, and in an educational journal, too!" If you've just made such a comment, please read on for further explanation of what took place.

Dr. Hayes had managed to crack the academic shell and release enough creativity from each individual so that he was able to recapture certain aspects of being a child again—to let his emotions and imagination soar without bounds, and then to realize that his own students could experience the same thing if given the opportunity. Help had arrived to prove that teaching could be fun and not a dull routine, and that creative activities work in any class whether it's the reading class, the history class, the geography class, or spelling.

Dr. Hayes turned this group of mature foreign teachers into an elementary school class and gave them the same activities that her ten and eleven-year-olds receive. She led them through relaxation exercises such as becoming an ice cube, a firecracker, a candle or taking giant steps about the room, and walking like a Teeny Tiny. All activities were somehow correct for each person because of their individual differences. Individuality and self-expression were fostered. On the other hand, they were taught a simple hand hula which required them to mimic the teacher. The laughter and chatter after each exercise helped transform what was a mixed group into a cohesive one, working together.

Then came the "meat" of each session in the form of a story, folk tale or poem. As a group they would play each part recalling their own past experiences and feelings: first with body talk, then with sounds and finally by adding words. The next time through, the parts were divided among the group with each choosing the part he wanted to play; then the whole story was acted out. It is of especial interest to note that Dr. Hayes always used movement and sound before spoken language because she feels that dialogue preceded by movement and sound is far more meaningful.

The last thirty or forty minutes of each two-hour session was devoted to an evaluation. The discussion produced comments such as:

"I like the absence of competition; it has really changed my views."

"Mimicking sounds seems a good way to have intonation practice."

"It's a pleasant way to learn vocabulary; sound and movement help us to understand."

"I would enjoy teaching like this."

Through their newly-won freedoms the participants were able to express themselves with facility both verbally and physically, to become real participants rather than mere observers. They lived in new situations and experienced dealing with them intuitively. They were learning through experience rather than from a textbook or a lecture.

The Circus is now in winter quarters and the performers have returned to their various countries where they have very special roles to fulfill, but in Dr. Hayes' seminar they discovered their real selves again. With this reawakening and armed with new techniques they will be able to fit that special role knowing that they are not just another copy out of the mold. Letters from the participants bear this out.

About the Author

Richard Via, highly successful as a professional stage manager on Broadway, became interested in the use of drama as a means of teaching ESL. He taught for five years in Japan, initially as a Fulbright Scholar, and, at the time of this article's publication (1972), was a fellow with the Cultural Learning Institute at The East-West Center in Honolulu, Hawaii, and on the brink of "stardom" in the field of ESL.

Beyond Communicative Competence: Teaching Culture in ESL

Harry Krasnick,
Columbia College, Vancouver, B.C.

It is paradoxical that communicative competence is sometimes treated as part of language rather than as social interaction. Strictly speaking, just as language is part of culture, so communicative competence is part of cultural competence. Even though communicative competence is often described in such purely cultural terms as sociolinguistic appropriateness (Hymes 1974) or social etiquette (Paulston & Bruder of 1976; Saville-Troike 1976), the role of culture in ESL remains largely unexplored, and certainly under-developed. A conceptual framework for incorporating culture into the ESL curriculum is offered below, along with several suggestions for modifying the curriculum to include culture.

Communicative Competence as Cultural Competence

The relationship between culture and behavior is so deep and so pervasive that in everyday life it is taken for granted that "this is the way things are." To the anthropologist, however,

> ... there can be no such thing as natural behavior. Every kind of action carries the imprint of learning, from feeding to washing, from repose to movement ... (Mauss, cited in M. Douglas 1973:93)

This applies above all to language and communication. But while language is used for communication, and in communication, it is not the case that language alone is communication. In fact, the role of language in communication is considered to be less important than the nonlinguistic competent, which includes use of space, gesture, posture, touch, facial expression, gaze, odor, bodily decoration, dress, artifacts, and consumer goods (see M. Douglas 1978: 298; Montagu & Matson 1979:xii; Widdowson 1978:73; Wolfgang 1979:171).

The complexity of everyday communication is significant:

> We alternate "channels" and mix sensory effects like expert technicians; we execute delicate bodily maneuvers and choreograph our gestures with the rhythmic grace of dancers; we change roles, put on and take off masks, and stage our continuous performances like the most gifted of actors (Montagu & Matson 1979:xi).

This, the communicative competence of the native member of a group or society, is cultural competence. Much richness is lost in taking a "contrastive Emily Post approach" (Paulston & Bruder 1979:59) to communicative competence in ESL.

Language as Social Action

Dewey saw language as "fundamentally and primarily a social instrument" (cited in Seelye 1974:13); Malinowski considered it "a mode of action, and not an instrument of reflection" (cited in Hudson 1980:109). This notion may be unfamiliar to those whose primary concern is with language in classroom settings; but in everyday life, as Schutz (1972:130) observed, communication is for some purpose. This view is shared by Stevick, who defines language as "purposeful behavior between the same people" (1976:128).

Actually, this view is anything but esoteric. People want to do things, there are established ways of doing most of them, and language plays a major part in many cases—as everyone knows. The point is that, regardless of whether we also believe that "doing things" is language's most important function, the basic truths that have shaped our thinking about communicative competence-language is used in appropriate ways, and for communication-must be supplemented. Communicative competence is "social competence" (Argyle 1979:154), or "interactional competence" (Speier 1973:59).

Language and Social Reality

Much of our reality is created through language use (see Berger & Luckmann 1966; Edie 1976). This is not part of "what everybody knows"—to the contrary, the linguistic (i.e., man-made) basis of social reality goes virtually unnoticed. "Social categories are seen as part of the outside world, along with physical surroundings, artifacts, beliefs, etc." (Gumperz 1971a:222). This relationship between language and society is not only fundamental (see Fishman 1977:57) but truly interactive:

> Language is both the principal means whereby individuals externalize themselves into the objectivations that make up society and the means whereby society talks back to these individuals shaping them to its intentions (Lemert 1979:154).

This aspect of language, too, has significant implications.

Deviance, both as studied by sociologists (see, for example, Scott & Lyman 1970) and as determined in formal proceedings, is an excellent example of the linguistic creation of reality. How does one demonstrate an attribute such as character, or a condition such as delinquency, other than with words? This most fundamental aspect of language use is seldom addressed in ESL teaching.

Language also preserves what is, as Berger and Luckmann (1966:65) note: "The edifice of legitimation is built upon language and uses language as its principal instrumentality." One example of this is the social inequality of the sexes, which is seen as perpetuated by language structure (Wilden 1980:76-78) and usage patterns (Lakoff 1978:51-64).

Since language is always about something, rather than nothing, even the language produced by the ESL teacher and incorporated in the materials creates or reinforces some social reality. That relatively little attention is paid to whose reality that is, and what its characteristics are, and what the effects are, is not the point here. What is relevant for communicative competence in ESL is that, as Brittan (1973:83) put it, "Communication is more than an exercise in information; it assumes a role which is equivalent, if not identical, to other sociological categories, such as structure and culture."

Culture in the Classroom

Culture means different things to different people. With respect to learning a second culture, the most useful approach is from the subjective viewpoint:

> . . . culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members (Goodenough, cited in Hudson 1980:83).

The structure of meaning in culture, and the ability of members to become culturally competent, is sometimes likened to that of language:

> . . . *all* the various non-verbal dimensions of culture . . . are organized in patterned sets so as to incorporate coded information in a manner analogous to the sounds and words and sentences of a natural language (Leach 1976:10, emphasis in the original).
>
> . . . culture plays a role in communication which is somewhat similar to the role of syntactic knowledge in the decoding of referential meanings (Gumperz 1971b:330, also see Cicourel 1974).

And just as the ESL teacher's speech behavior is sociolinguistically appropriate, his or her other behavior is culturally appropriate. Treating male and female students alike, asking direct questions, behaving informally in class—this is (Western) culture. In this sense, the presence of culture in every classroom is quite unavoidable.

What can, and should, be done is to recognize the inseparability of language and culture, and deal actively with culture in ESL. The basic recommendation, then, is to teach culture, rather than leave it to be acquired.

Teaching Culture in ESL

Teaching about American society is likely to be no more productive than teaching about English. Thus, if culture is what individuals know and believe, general social science description is of limited value. Another popular approach to culture is through literature, but again there is a limitation.

> The quarrel is not with the value of literature or art as a means to illustrate how the foreign people live, but rather with the restrictive inroad fiction offers as the major source of information. Since many language teachers

> feel uncomfortable dealing with concepts and data of the social sciences, they tend to rely too heavily on literature to teach culture. Consequently, the common dual descriptor "literature and culture" has itself become suspect: It too often means a little culture and a lot of literature (Seelye 1974:15).

At the same time, some books specifically designed for teaching culture exhibit what J. Douglas (1970:5) calls "the dichotomizing of the social world into morally disjunct categories—right side of the tracks versus wrong side of the tracks" (emphasis in the original):

> . . . the United States is, in fact, markedly segmented into neighborhoods, residential areas, and ghettos; right and wrong sides of town (Lanier 1978:27).
>
> "Used to be a real good, solid, middle-class neighborhood. But it's changing . . ." (Johnson 1979:3).

Fortunately, there is an excellent cross-cultural introduction to American values and beliefs, *American Cultural Patterns* (Stewart 1972), which does treat culture in subjective terms and could be used as a reference guide in the type of approach suggested here.

The basic resource, for now, must be the teacher. Though even graduate-level programs in TESL do not ordinarily include culture courses (Ochsner 1980), the teacher often is in a position to know what the student's particular social and cultural needs will be; and most ESL teachers have an adequate background in, say, American culture by virtue of being native members of the culture.

According to the conceptual framework offered above, ESL is always ESP, even if the "special purpose" is as broad as coping with a new sociocultural environment. Learning about one's world is an ongoing process, of course, for natives as well as for newcomers. This amounts to a spiral curriculum, where key items are covered more than once, at ever-higher levels of competence. Topics sometimes taught in ESL include "survival skills"; norms and values associated with higher education (EAP); informal topics such as jokes and insults; and, of course, basic aspects of linguistic communication ("communicative competence"). What is missing generally are the three basic aspects of real-life language use discussed earlier: the full range of non-verbal communication; ways of doing things with language (e.g., justifying one's behavior); and the creation of social reality (e.g., establish a good reputation in school or community). These language use topics, along with basic social and cultural data (both subjective and objective), constitute the cultural component.

All types of language-learning activities, for students at all levels of English fluency, can be oriented to culture. For more advanced students, contact activities in

the community, which form a part of some ESL curricula, offer obvious opportunities for cultural studies. What do you (have to) say when returning unsatisfactory merchandise? How do you describe your own status in the most favorable or respectable way? What does long hair on men mean?

In-class activities sometimes can be organized around statuses and roles that are socioculturally significant to the students. For instance, nouns and verbs, and direct objects can be studied together as they occur in real life—e.g., "counselor": offers advice, approves courses, maintains records; "policeman": gives directions, arrests law-breakers, directs traffic; "student": attends classes, does homework, participates socially. Such a method has three important characteristics: grammar and syntax can be treated in ordinary ways; vocabulary is a direct function of actual student need; and culture is built-in. In principle, this method can be used at all levels.

Another method of potentially broad application is where students make attributions of meaning. In one sense, this is the opposite of role-playing. In role-playing, speaker-actors start with some subjective conception or meaning which they try to act out or display appropriately, while in the attribution method of culture teaching, hearer-viewers are presented with some display or performance which they try to understand or explain. Thus, where role-playing tends to be production-oriented, the attribution method emphasizes receptive skills.

The teaching process begins with some initial cultural input from the teacher or, in written versions called culture assimilators (see, for example, Brislin 1981:101-105), the materials themselves. The students then apply the general cultural input to a number of specific situations seeking to make culturally accurate attributions as to subjective meaning. In use, this method may appear indistinguishable from ordinary elicitation of language using visual or written stimuli. The critical difference can be seen in the fact that the teacher asks, for example, not "What is the man doing?" but "Why is the man doing that?" or "What is the man thinking?" A correct response to the question represents an attribution based on the initial input, assuming that the situation or behavior portrayed is not plainly obvious to members of the student's culture. Even without culture assimilators or other formal materials, teachers can adopt the subjective approach to culture that is at the heart of this method.

Student reaction to cultural material may provide a point of departure for follow-up activities involving cross-cultural comparisons or other student-generated communication (e.g., imitating, modeling, or exaggerating). Before introducing new methods of teaching culture, it would be advisable to confront the practical aspects, e.g., establish that students do not object to learning culture; survey students' cultural backgrounds to avoid uncomfortable situations; and, of course, decide how much culture to attempt to include. It makes sense, too, to start the culture teaching

with the norms and values of the language-learning situation itself—e.g., values: punctuality, individual responsibility, equality, informality, directness; norms: arrive on time, do not give or accept (unauthorized) assistance, treat all classmates the same, address classmates by first names, express personal ideas and feelings.

The suggestions offered above are only examples of incorporating a cultural orientation. Developing a conscious awareness of one's own culture is a satisfying undertaking in its own right, and teachers who wish to help others understand their culture will surely develop many better methods and techniques. What is important at this point is to realize that the need, and the challenge, are there.

References

Argyle, Michael. 1979. New developments in the analysis of social skills. In Aaron Wolfgang (Ed.). *Nonverbal Behavior*. New York: Academic Press.

Berger, Peter L. and Thomas Luckmann. 1966. *The Social Construction of Reality*. Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Books.

Brislin, Richard W. 1981. *Cross-Cultural Encounters*. New York: Pergamon Press.

Brittan, A. 1973. *Meanings and Situations*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Cicourel, Aaron V. 1974. *Cognitive Sociology*. New York: The Free Press.

Douglas, Jack D. 1970. Deviance and respectability: the social construction of moral meanings. In Jack D. Douglas (Ed.). *Deviance and Respectability*. New York: Basic Books.

Douglas, Mary. 1973. *Natural Symbols*. New York: Vintage Books.

Douglas, Mary. 1978. Do dogs laugh? A cross-cultural approach to body symbolism. In T. Polhemus (Ed.). *Social Aspects of the Human Body*. Middlesex: Penguin Books.

Edie, James. 1976. *Speaking and Meaning*. Bloomington: Indiana U. Press.

Fishman, Joshua A. 1977. The sociology of language: yesterday, today, and tomorrow. In Roger Cole (Ed.). *Current Issues in Linguistic Theory*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Gumperz, John J. 1971a. The relation of linguistic to social categories. In Anwar S. Dil (Ed.). *Language in Social Groups: Essays by John J. Gumperz*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Gumperz, John J. 1971b. Bilingualism, bidialectalism, and classroom interaction. In Anwar S. Dil (Ed.). *Language in Social Groups: Essays by John J. Gumperz*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Hudson, R.A. 1980. *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hymes, Dell. 1974. *Foundations in Sociolinguistics*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Johnson, Jerrilou. 1979. *Living Language*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers.

Lakoff, Robin. 1975. *Language and Woman's Place.* New York: Harper & Row.
Lanier, Alison R. 1978. *Living in the U.S.A.* Chicago: Intercultural Press.
Leach, Edmund. 1976. *Culture and Communication.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Lemert, Charles C. 1979. *Sociology and the Twilight of Man: Homocentrism and Discourse in Sociological Theory.* Carbondale, Ill." Southern Illinois University Press.
Montagu, Ashley and Floyd Matson. 1979. *The Human Connection.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
Ochsner, R. 1980. A review of ESL comprehensive examinations in M.A. programs. *TESOL Newsletter, 14.*
Paulston, Christina B. and Mary N. Bruder. 1976. *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures.* Cambridge, Mass.: Winthrop Publishers.
Saville-Troike, Muriel. 1976. *Foundations For Teaching English as a Second Language.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
Schutz, Alfred. 1972. *The Phenomenology of the Social World.* London: Heinemann Educational Books.
Scott, Marvin B. and Stanford M. Lyman. 1970. Accounts, deviance, and social order. In J. D. Douglas (Ed.). *Deviance and Respectability.* NY: Basic Books.
Seelye, H. Need. 1974. *Teaching Culture.* Skokie, Ill.: National Textbooks Co.
Speier, Matthew. 1973. *How to Observe Face-to-Face Communication: a Sociological Introduction.* Pacific Palisades, Calif.: Goodyear Publishing Company.
Stevick, Earl W. 1976. *Memory, Meaning & Method.* Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers.
Stewart, Edward C. 1972. *American Cultural Patterns.* LaGrange Park, Ill.: Intercultural Network.
Widdowson, Henry G. 1978. *Teaching Language as Communication.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Wilden, Tony. 1980. *The Imaginary Canadian.* Vancouver, B.C.: Pulp Press.
Wolfgang, Aaron. 1979. The teacher and nonverbal behavior in the multicultural classroom. In Aaron Wolfgang (Ed.). *Nonverbal Behavior.* New York: Academic Press.

About the Author

Harry Krasnick, at the time this article was published (1982), was an ESL instructor at Columbia College, Vancouver, B.C. He currently is academic advisor and coordinator of cross-cultural studies in the Canada-Indonesia Predeparture Program, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. He holds a doctorate in TESL from the University of British Columbia and has taught at the University of Hawaii at Hilo, Simon Fraser University, Capilano College, and Vancouver Community College.

Long-time Editor Leaves BYU—Hawaii

Lynn E. Henrichsen, editor of the *TESL Reporter* since 1980, has recently left for the U.S. Mainland to take a position at Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah (USA). Henrichsen was particularly pleased at the invitation to teach at BYU, Provo since it allowed him to return to his roots, and allow his children to enjoy a closer relationship with grandparents and other relatives.

Henrichsen's first formal contact with the *TESL Reporter* resulted in the lead article of the Summer 1976 issue, entitled, "Is the Language Laboratory Dead." Soon thereafter, Henrichsen left American Samoa, where he was working for the Department of Education, to take a position here at BYU-Hawaii. He soon became a staff member of the *Reporter* (1977) and later Assistant Editor (1979). In 1980, Alice Pack, then editor, retired from Brigham Young University—Hawaii and Lynn was poised to assume her duties.

Over the years, Lynn worked tirelessly to publish the *Reporter* quarterly, often working many hours overtime, in what amounted to a one-man production crew. In the early years, the editor communicated with authors and reviewers, edited submissions, designed the cover shells, laid out the typeset material, pieced together the dummy copy and drove it down to the printers in Honolulu. Though the list of duties hasn't changed much today, the layout work no longer requires hot wax, scissors, exacto knives, black tape,etc. Desktop publishing has made the layout stage, at least, much easier. Along with desktop publishing, Lynn's meticulous personality resulted in a much more professional-looking publication, with higher standards of editing and physical appearance, while maintaining the ability to publish the *Reporter* free of charge to any and all who wished to subscribe.

It's a sure bet we will miss Lynn here at the *TESL Reporter* and on the campus (where he directed the undergraduate TESOL studies program for many years). However, he has graciously agreed not to sever all ties, accepting an invitation to be a member of the newly formed editorial review board. All of us here, and our subscribers as well, we're sure, wish Lynn every success in his new duties in the M.A. TESOL program at Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah.

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.*

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

New Look; New Rates!

The *TESL Reporter* underwent several changes during this past year; most noticable is our new look. We hope you like it. Less noticable are the rising costs to our relatively small institution. Consequently, the *TESL Reporter* will only be published semiannually.

To help ensure another 25 years of service to the profession, we are asking for your help: With volume 26, we will begin charging an annual subscription fee of US$6 for all subscribers in the U.S., while remaining free of charge to those in other parts of the world.

Subscription cards will be sent to all U.S. subscribers after issue 25,2.