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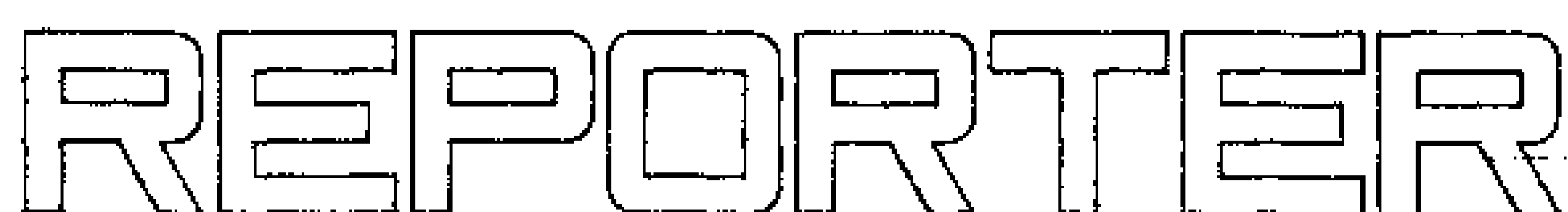

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TESL Reporter Celebrates Fifteenth Anniversary

With this issue, the *TESL Reporter* begins its fifteenth year of publication. Since 1967, when the first fledgling issue was distributed to a few hundred Pacific educators, the *TESL Reporter* has grown in both number of subscribers and sphere of influence. Today it is distributed to nearly 3,000 TESL/TEFL educators in over sixty countries around the world. Funding from the Division of Communications and Language Arts at Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus continues to make it possible to publish the *Reporter* at no charge to subscribers–as a public service to the TESL/TEFL profession.

New Publication Schedule Announced

With this issue also, the *TESL Reporter* begins publication and distribution on a new schedule. Henceforth, the *Reporter* will be published on a calendar year basis, with the first issue appearing in January. In addition, the "Spring," "Summer," "Fall," and "Winter" designations for each issue will be dropped. The purpose of these changes is to reduce confusion in the minds of the *Reporter's* subscribers worldwide. They reflect the fact that in many countries the school year does not start in September and that in at least half the world summer is not in June. The *TESL Reporter* will still be published four times per year–in January, April, July, and October.

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Uses of Picture Stories in ESL Instruction

by Ronald F. Holt

Picture-story materials represent an extremely flexible resource for the ESL teacher. They can profitably be used for developing a whole range of language skills with students at very different levels of proficiency (from minimal to advanced) and of different ages (from children to adults).

Like visual aids generally, picture-stories possess the advantage of "immediate communication"; that is, verbal language is not necessary for the comprehension of the message. At the same time, when we wish to verbalize this message we have a clear, unambiguous reference for our efforts. Further, when a story contains wit of some sort it possesses a powerful motivating force, so that when we invite even the more reluctant speakers amongst our students to verbalize a picture sequence there is some 'point' to the exercise. An example of such a story is given in Figure 1.

It is, of course, quite difficult to come up with witty stories, especially when the contents have to be reduced to a few unambiguous frames. However, quite prosaic stories can still be demanding and enjoyable.

Generally speaking, stories can be classified as either 'implicit' or 'explicit' depending on the amount of inference needed on the part of the individual viewer to arrive at a coherent story or chain of events. The first story (Figure 2) below, for example, is relatively explicit or literal in the sense that the simple details of each picture add up fairly clearly to an easily discernible, connected sequence of events. On the other hand, in the second story (Figure 3) below, the viewer has to do a good deal more 'connecting' between each individual picture-frame; it is more implicit or inferential. It has been found that this latter type of picture-story contains a certain communication-motivation which would appear to be

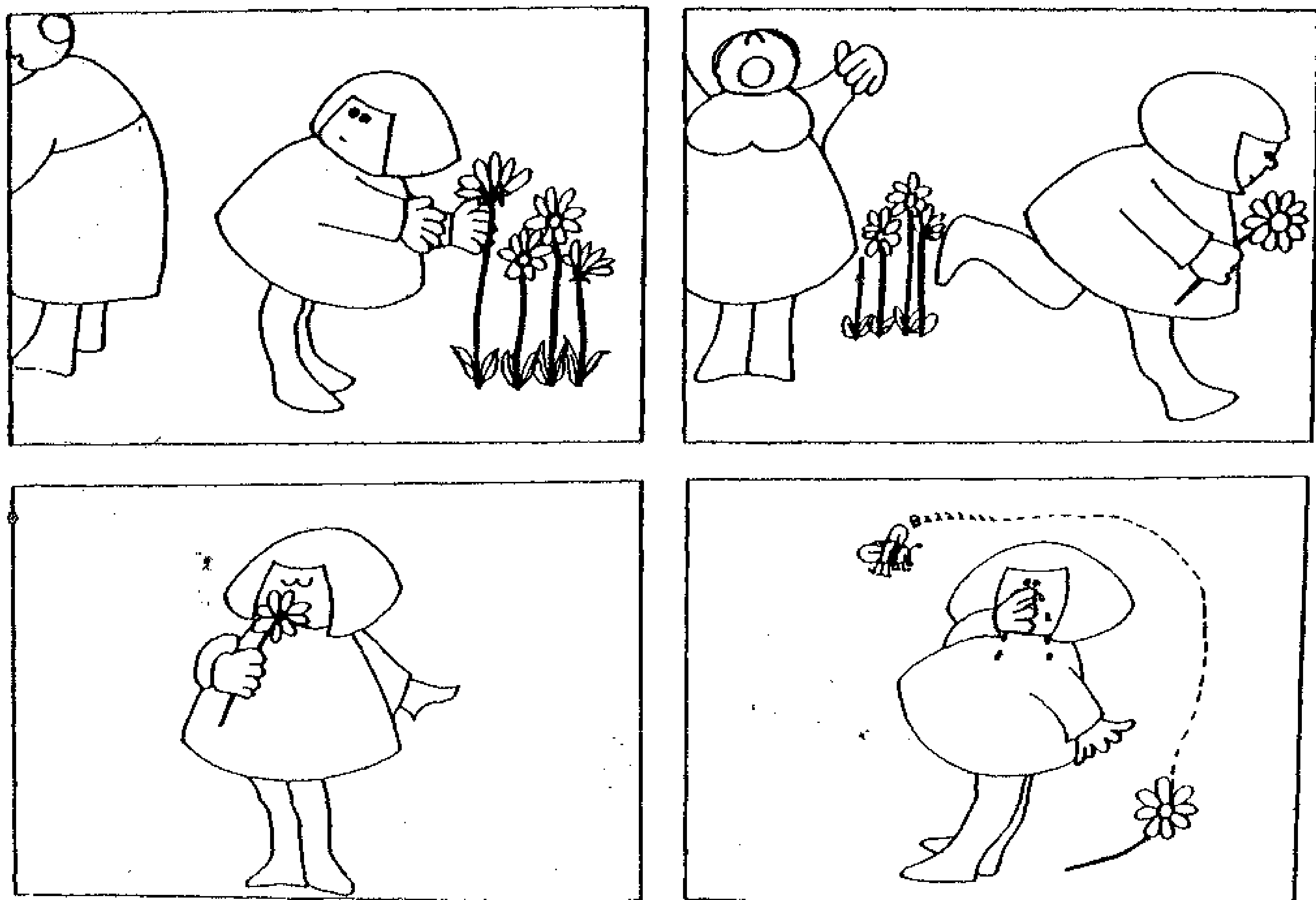


FIGURE 1

FIGURE 2

connected, again, with the afore-mentioned wit-factor.

It has also been found from experience that the style of illustration for picture-stories generally is important. As drawings they need to be relatively simple and uncluttered so that the student has more freedom to 'fill in/out' any of the details incidental to the simple story itself. That is, too much detail can inhibit both the student's attempt to summarize an action or a situation and to extrapolate from the simple to the more complex and personally relevant.

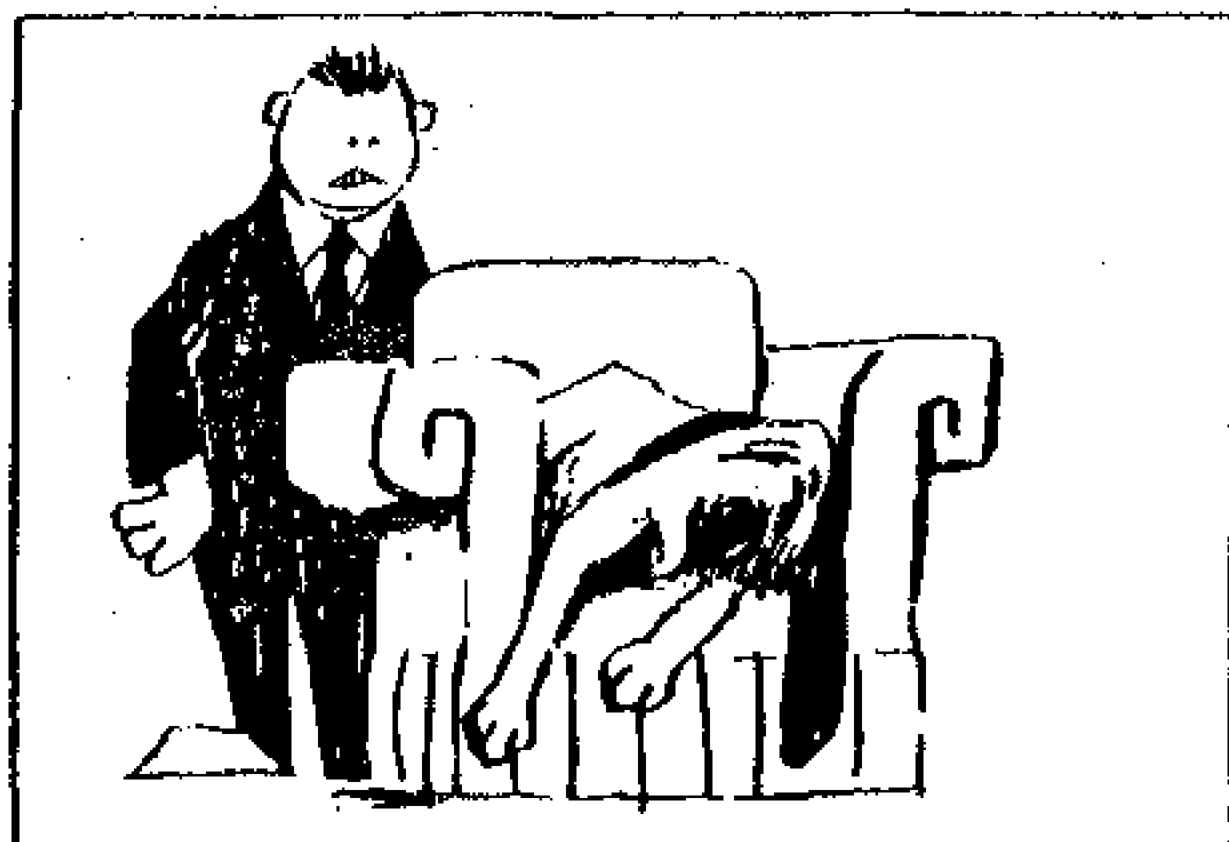
The main use of picture stories is thought to be for speaking. In addition, however, such a resource is useful for activities in the other three primary language skills: listening, reading, and writing. It is understood that this separation of language into four skills is for conceptual convenience only; in reality they are highly interrelated. Thus, although suggestions are made below for using picture-stories in terms of separate language skills, it should be clear that lots of speech activity is integral to, and should always precede, the literacy activities; likewise, within literacy, reading activities can proceed from writing and vice versa.

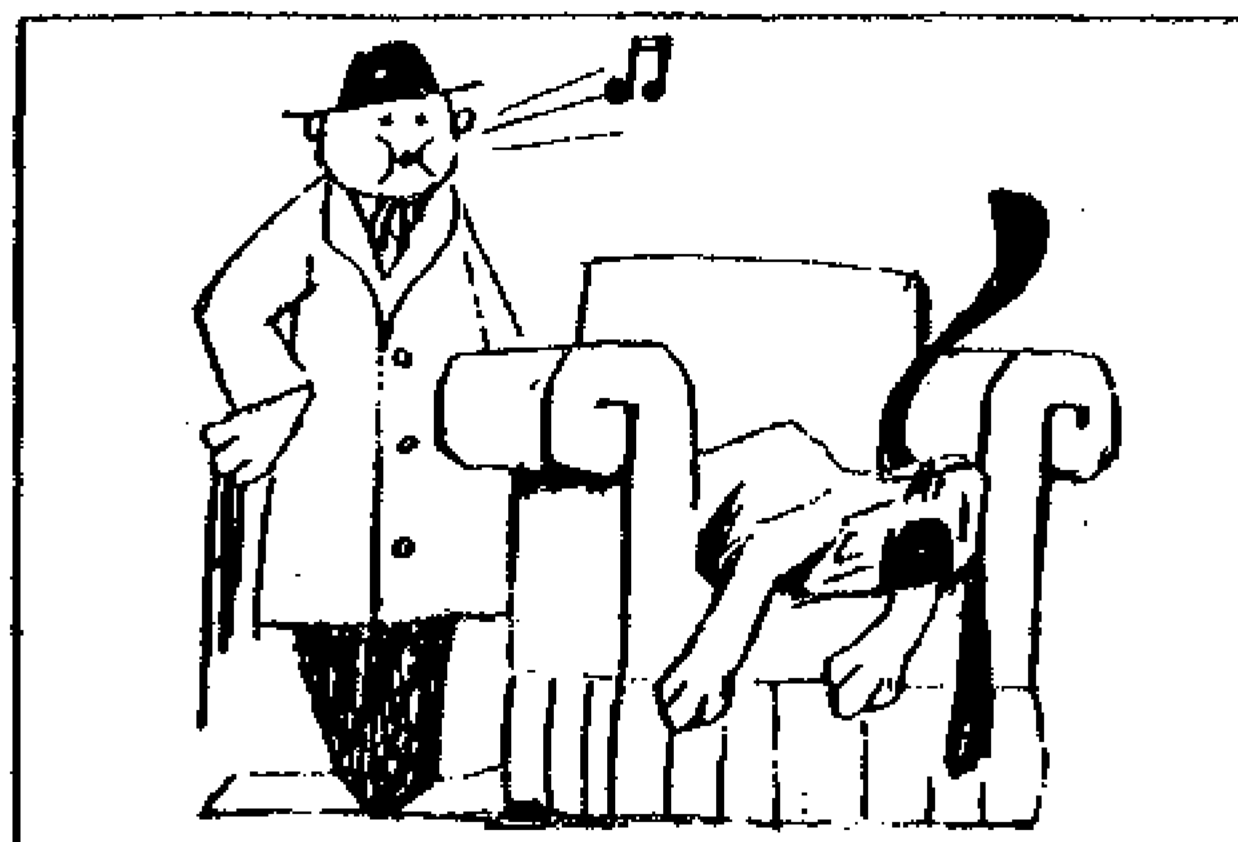
In other words, it is not proposed that picture stories be used necessarily for only one sort of language skill; a particular picture story could equally well be used for a series of activities, culminating in writing.

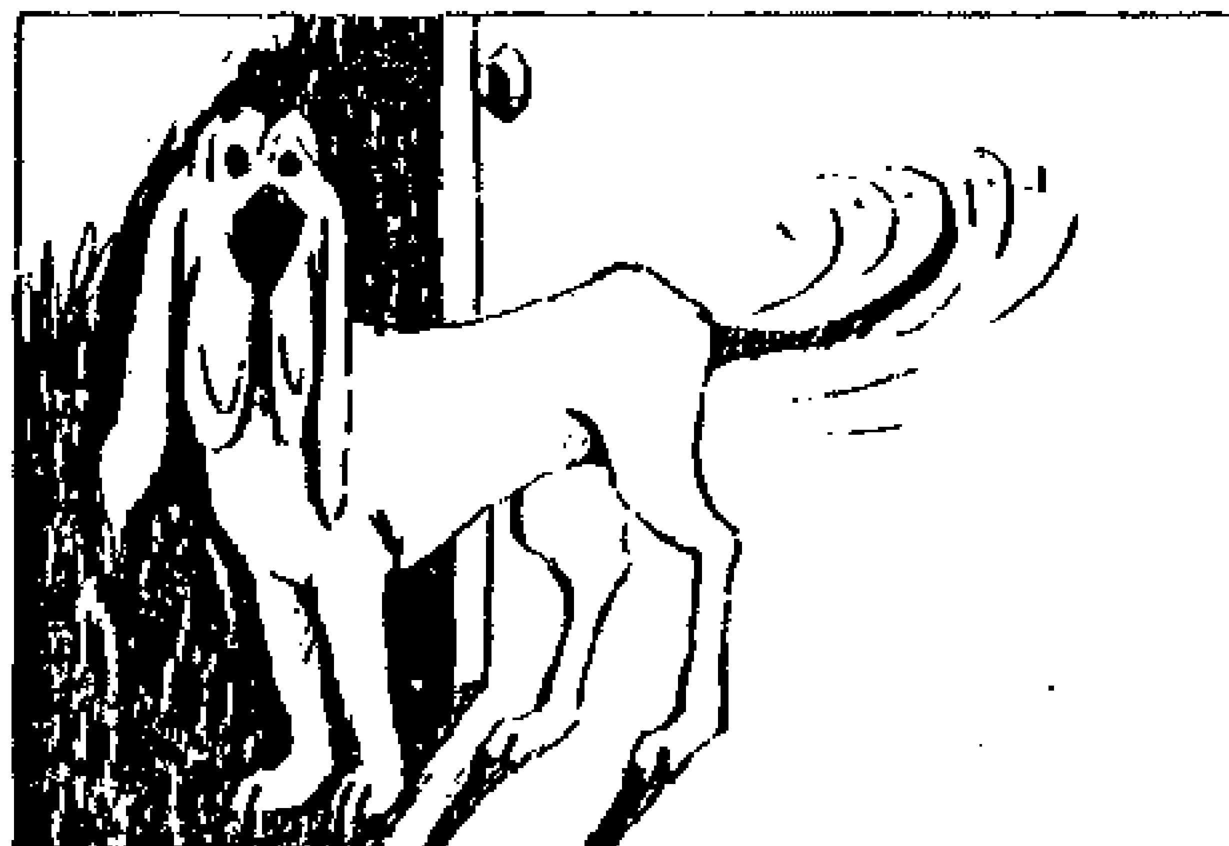
The aim of the various activities suggested below is to contribute over time to the student's development as an efficient communicator in both speech and print. It goes without saying that the following suggestions are proposed as only one, effective way of pursuing this aim—along with many other possible approaches.

Speaking

1. At the simplest level, a picture story can be used, one frame at a time, to extend the student's vocabulary. Systematically, one might concentrate on nouns and related adjectives first, then on verbs and related adverbs, finally on complete sentences which might involve a particular structure. For







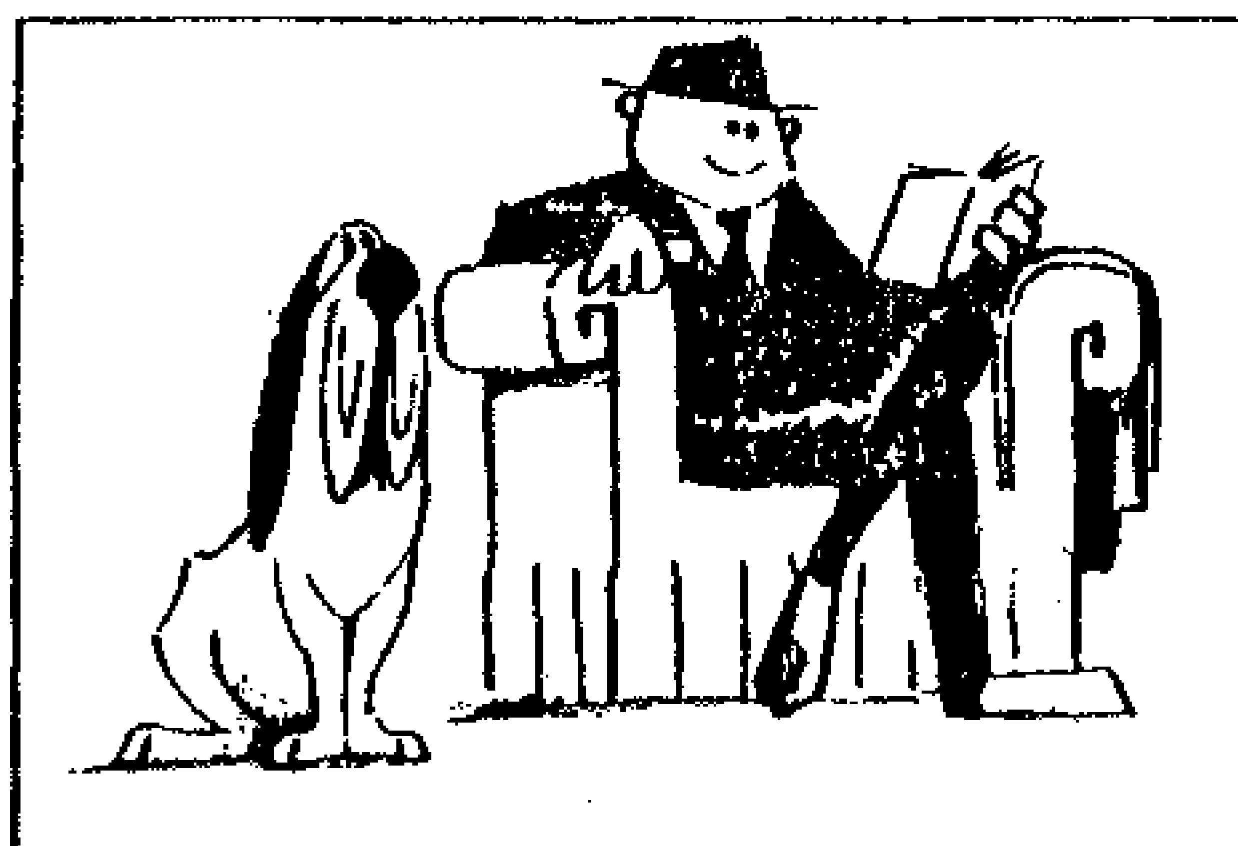


FIGURE 3

example, in the picture story shown in Figure 4 this could be achieved at the minimal level, with reference to the first frame or picture, by teacher–prompts like the following:

- –What's this? (pointing to bike, shirt, shorts, boy, etc.)
- –What's the boy doing? (with his legs, arms, eyes)
- –How old is the boy?
- –Describe him! (his clothing, hair, expression, etc.)

At a more extended level, the following sort of prompts could be used:

- –What do we call these things on a bike (pointing to handle-bars) that we hold on to?
- –What do we call the light on a bike? What's it used for? Why do we need one?
- –What are these things (pointing to pedals)? What do we do with them? Why are they important/needed for riding a bike? etc.

2. After this general process, at the level appropriate to a particular class, has been applied to each frame in the picture sequence, the teacher refers again to each picture in turn and requests details and formulations of a more general nature, such as (referring again to picture 1 in Figure 4):

- –What can you see in this picture?
- –What is he doing?
- –Why is he doing that?
- –What might he be thinking?
- –How can he do that? (how is it possible to ride a bike without holding onto the handle-bars?) etc.

This sort of procedure would be pursued for each picture in turn again, so that each frame is thoroughly understood and described.

3. The next step would be to attempt to elicit individuals' connected accounts of the whole sequence of frames. In this, the use of connecting expressions (such as: 'then', 'later on', 'but', 'because', etc.) will be called for to give both fluency and focus to the event as a whole. If students revert to stereotyped simple sequence patterns, more or less describing one picture at a time as an isolated event, then the teacher will need to supply and provoke such "continuity" expressions.

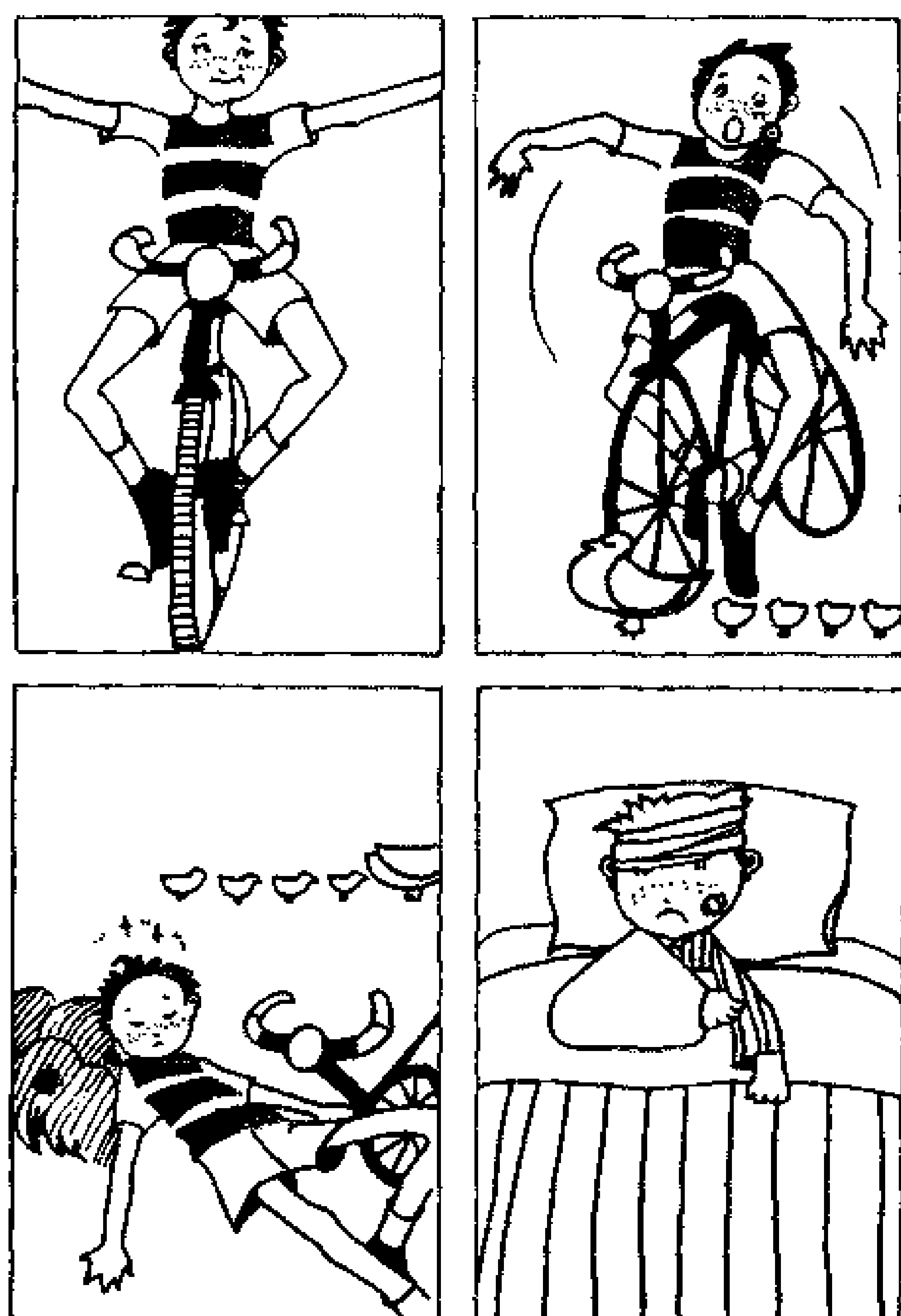


FIGURE 4

Students will vary, of course, in the degrees of detail, fluency, expressiveness, etc. with which they render the whole story, so that it is important to encourage many reformulations by different individuals. This will ensure their hearing of fuller, more interesting, and/or more grammatical accounts.

4. Variations on this simple procedure might be:

   A. The whole story is retold (or told without any preparation) by a series of students; each is allowed to say only one sentence ('one thing') about the story.

      This may be a 'circular' process in that the group selected is small, say three to four, so that each person has several turns as the sequence goes around the group a number of times.

      Alternatively, it may be an open-ended process in that each speaker is succeeded by someone who has not spoken before – so that a large proportion of the whole class is involved by the end of the story.

   B. The story is retold by each student saying only one sentence (as in A above) but this time one of the following rules is added:

      1. each speaker must try to say as little as possible that contributes to the story development;

      2. each speaker tries to say a sentence which is as long as possible–either by virtue of the number of descriptive words used or the number of details incorporated.
         (To ensure that the whole story is not exhausted in this manner by a single speaker the sub-rule can be added that a speaker may not describe/discuss more than one picture from the series.)

      3. each speaker tries to re-tell the whole story as briefly as possible and without leaving any significant details out.

   C. Each student is asked to suggest an apt name or title for the story. The class can discuss which suggestions are more fitting and why.

   D. Students are invited to vary the story by:
      1. suggesting a different ending;
      2. suggesting an event, connected with the story but occurring much later on (i.e., projecting into an imagined future).

   E. Students are invited to reflect on and speak about associations from their own or others' experiences (including fictional characters/events). Such associations may involve parallel or similar sorts of happenings or quite distant, more personal connections. In general, the sort of invitation intended is:

"Does this story make you think of something that happened to you or someone you know?" etc.

These simple steps parallel to a large extent what Garvie (1976: 5F) has called the basic steps in concept development generally:

1. Identification—simple labelling or naming of things
2. Qualification—describing things, expressing their qualities and attributes
3. Relation—comparing and associating different things.
4. Classification—grouping, categorizing things
5. Manipulation—using all of the four processes above to produce more and more elaborate ideas, such as: cause and effect, possibility, preference, remembrance, association, etc..

Listening

Obviously, the activities suggested above for speaking involve a good deal of listening. There are, however, possible uses of the picture stories which involve a more pointed focus on listening—which, in short, place more emphasis on comprehending the spoken word alone.

1. At the simplest level, the teacher tells the 'story' of a picture series in his/her own words. The students are then shown one of the pictures which is out of sequence (that is, it is not the first picture). They are shown another picture (again out of sequence) until one has all pictures in the series in a row—visible to the students but out-of-sequence. One person can be invited to place them in their correct order, or as a whole-class activity, the pictures can be numbered (e.g., 1, 2, 3, 4) and each student required to write the correct order (which, for example, might be 2, 1, 4, 3).
2. A listening-talking activity is easy to set up by pairing off the class and providing one from each pair with a picture series (small format cards). The one with the cards has to tell the story to the other 'listener' who is not allowed to see the cards which are being described. At the conclusion of the story, the speaker thoroughly mixes the cards so that they are out of sequence and hands them to the listener who must place them in correct sequence. (The students may then change roles and the picture series may be rotated from pair to pair, etc.)

Reading

For young, pre-literate ESL pupils it has been found that picture stories can be used successfully for beginning reading instruction via the language experience approach. That is, the picture story forms the basis of a common experience or is an experience-surrogate for the children.

Steps in this process would be:

A. a lot of talk about the story (along the lines advocated in the sections on speaking and listening)
B. the production of a text (i.e. a story version) which might consist of an individual child's or a whole group's shared account
C. the writing of this text onto word cards—by teacher and/or pupils
D. the proper sequencing of these word cards in sentence-makers
E. individual and/or group practice in reading the text
F. possible further variation of the text and re-reading.

Writing

At the more advanced level it has also been found that picture stories can provide useful, enjoyable practice in writing.

Steps in the process would be:

A. thorough oral entrenchment of the story—and with young pupils, even some previous reading activities of the type advocated in the above section on reading
B. the writing of more difficult words (from the points of view of spelling, grammar, or vocabulary/reading) on either the blackboard or word cards—so that each writer has ready reference to more difficult terms he/she may wish to use
C. the students are then encouraged to write and to vary any details or the ending of the story (along the lines suggested above in variations D and E

in step four in the above section on speaking)

D. the students should be encouraged to read their particular versions aloud.

E. final editing for publication/display.

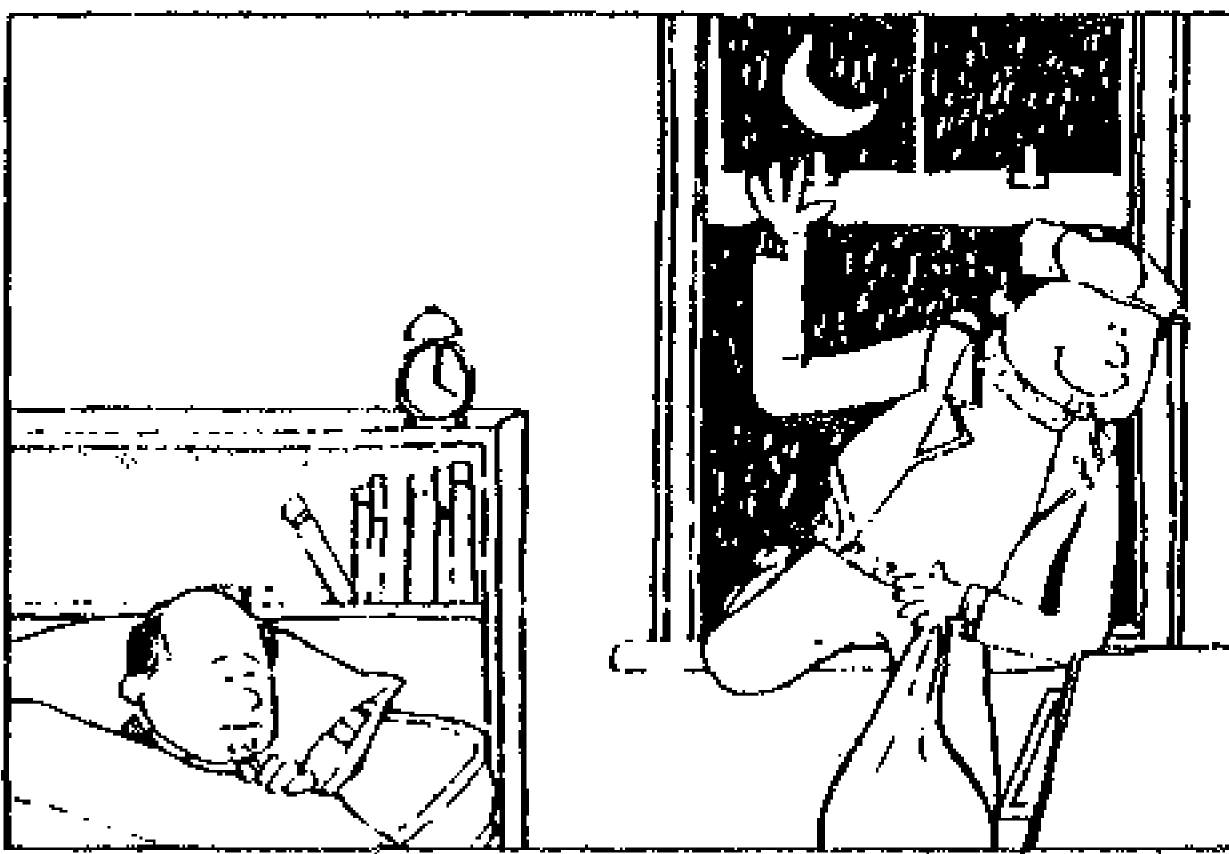
In general, length should not be treated as important and 'understandability' should have a higher value placed on it than grammatical accuracy. That is, phases (C) and (E) should not be confused. The former is concerned with expressing, an inventive process which needs to be as untrammelled as possible. Phase (E) is primarily concerned with the text's surface characteristics (which phase (D) can also aid if a spirit of helpful criticism can be encouraged) and needs to occur as a separate, final stage. The confusion of phases (C) and (E) is termed 'hypercorrection' and it will deter students from productive 'risk taking', and inculcate the unfortunate view of writing as mere 'error avoidance'.

Ronald F. Holt is head of the Department of English and Modern Languages at Mitchell College of Advanced Education in Bathurst, New South Wales, Australia.

The main advantage of this suggested process is that students of differing ability/motivation can be stretched to their particular limits. At the very minimal level they can at least construct a written text which relies heavily on key words provided at the more creative level (which hopefully would more frequently be the case) they can be much more personal and free-ranging, and explore all kinds of ideas which may be only marginally associated with the initial picture-story stimulus.

Conclusion

Such picture story materials represent a valuable resource for practising a number of purposeful oral, reading, and writing activities. They also afford the opportunity to practise a number of language functions: interpreting (reporting on fictive and personal events and experiences), reasoning or explaining, projecting (predicting, imagining, and empathising through encouraged identification with picture characters



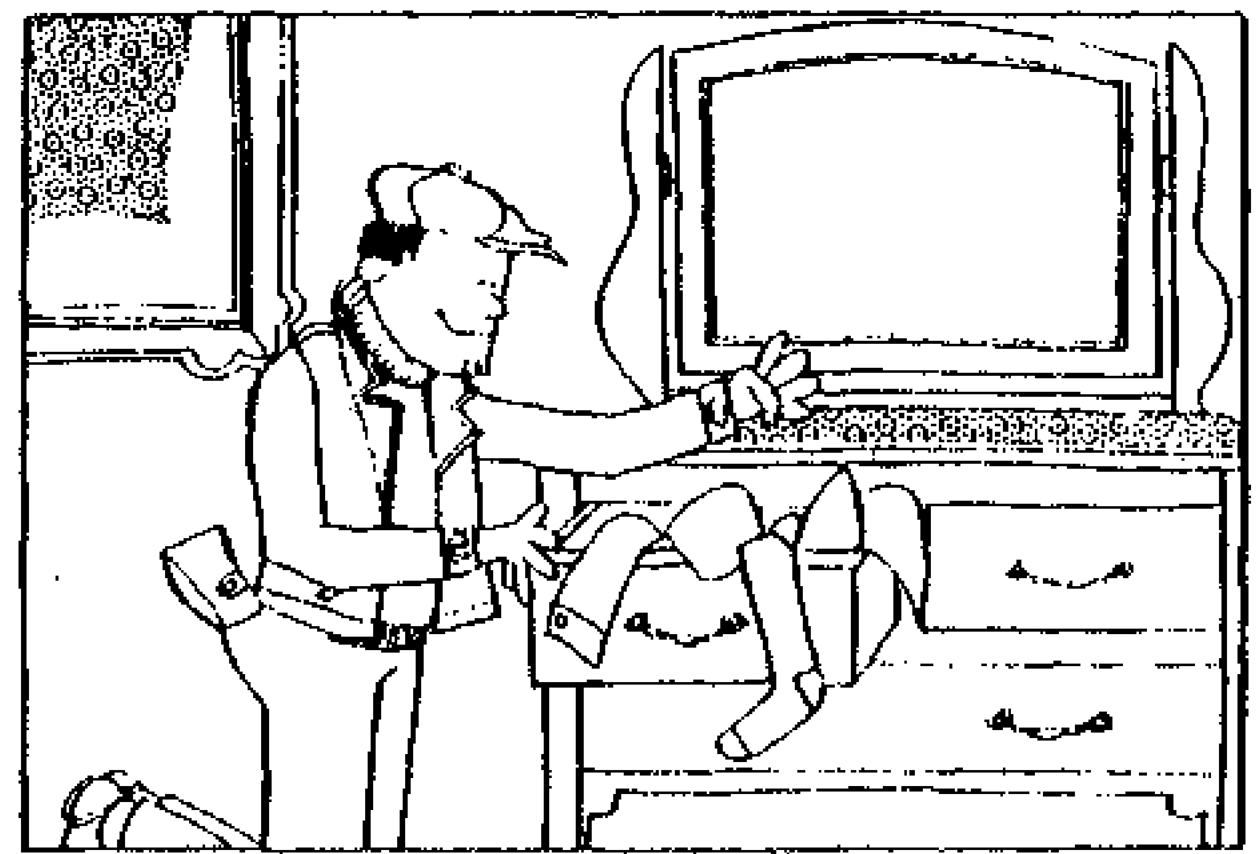


FIGURE 5

and events) and relating (or making personal connections) (see also Tough 1977, Ch. 5).

The suggestions above are, of course, only the broadest of guidelines. The most effective use of such materials, as in all teaching, would depend chiefly on the teacher's ability to encourage students' spontaneous responses and, in turn, to respond spontaneously to those responses, and so on. The best picture story is that which facilitates such responding.

Note: The author has developed a set of 23 such picture stories (five of which have been reproduced above) for ESL instruction with varying age groups. They are available in large format (each frame in A4 size, 8½" x 11") and small format (each story on one A4 sheet) from:

Dr. R. F. Holt
Dept. of English & Modern Languages
Mitchell College of Advanced Education
Bathurst NSW 2795
Australia

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Book Review

Word Games in English

by Mark James

WORD GAMES IN ENGLISH. Dwight Spenser. New York: Regents, 1976. pp. 232. $3.95.

Word Games in English by Dwight Spenser is just one of the many "game" books which have recently besieged the ESL and foreign language teaching market in an effort to satisfy the growing demand for new and creative materials for the language classroom.

This current trend concerns me somewhat. Educators from the humanist school of thought have long sought to make the learning process more fun, individualistic, creative, and more student-oriented. However, it appears that this new "genre" of publications will only serve to fuel the fires of those critics who blame the current failures in the U.S. public school systems on the humanistic approach.

In his introduction, Spenser indicates that this book, "offers students an opportunity to add hundreds of useful and interesting words to their English vocabularies. . ." and "although a large vocabulary and prior knowledge of the words are helpful, they are not required." Somehow, the latter sentence comes considerably nearer the truth. It seems to me that it is quite impossible to hunt for hidden or scrambled words which one does not already know. It would be like hunting for an animal which you had never seen before.

Spenser claims, however, that most of the answers can be gotten from a good dictionary. But how can this possibly help—unless the student is randomly selecting sequences of letters and checking the dictionary for their possible existence? In any case, the activity is neither a learning one, nor a time-efficient one.

It is possible that one day research will prove that anagrams and scrambled words may be valid instruments as placement tests of students' reading and vocabulary levels, but I doubt that it will ever be shown that these kinds of games result in any measurable amount of learning.

For the teacher who finds himself with five minutes left at the end of class, the text could be made considerably more useful if the numerous "inside word" sections were cut out, and the remainder published in spirit master form, thus eliminating the need for the huge answer section also.

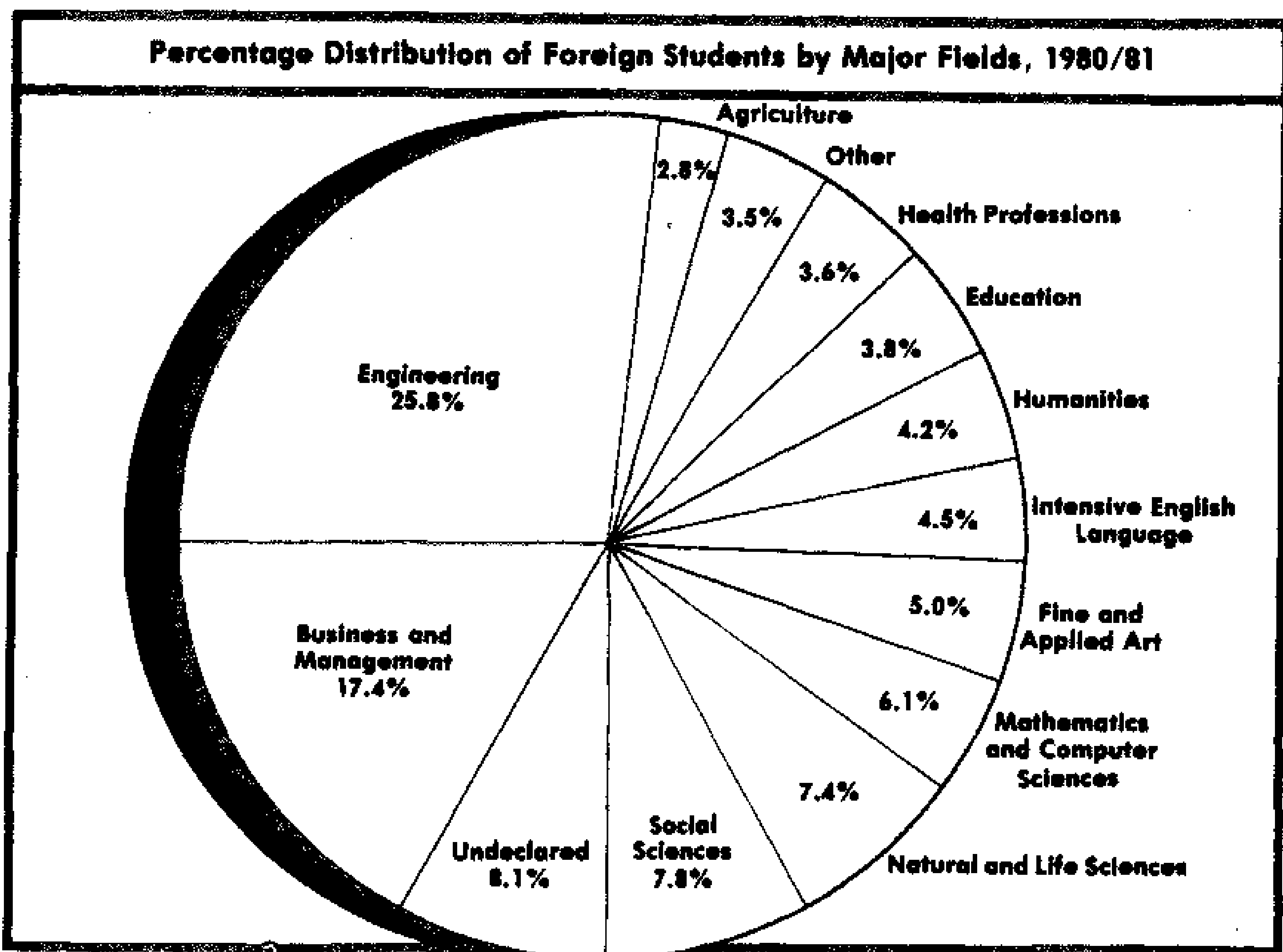
IIE Survey Reports on Foreign Students

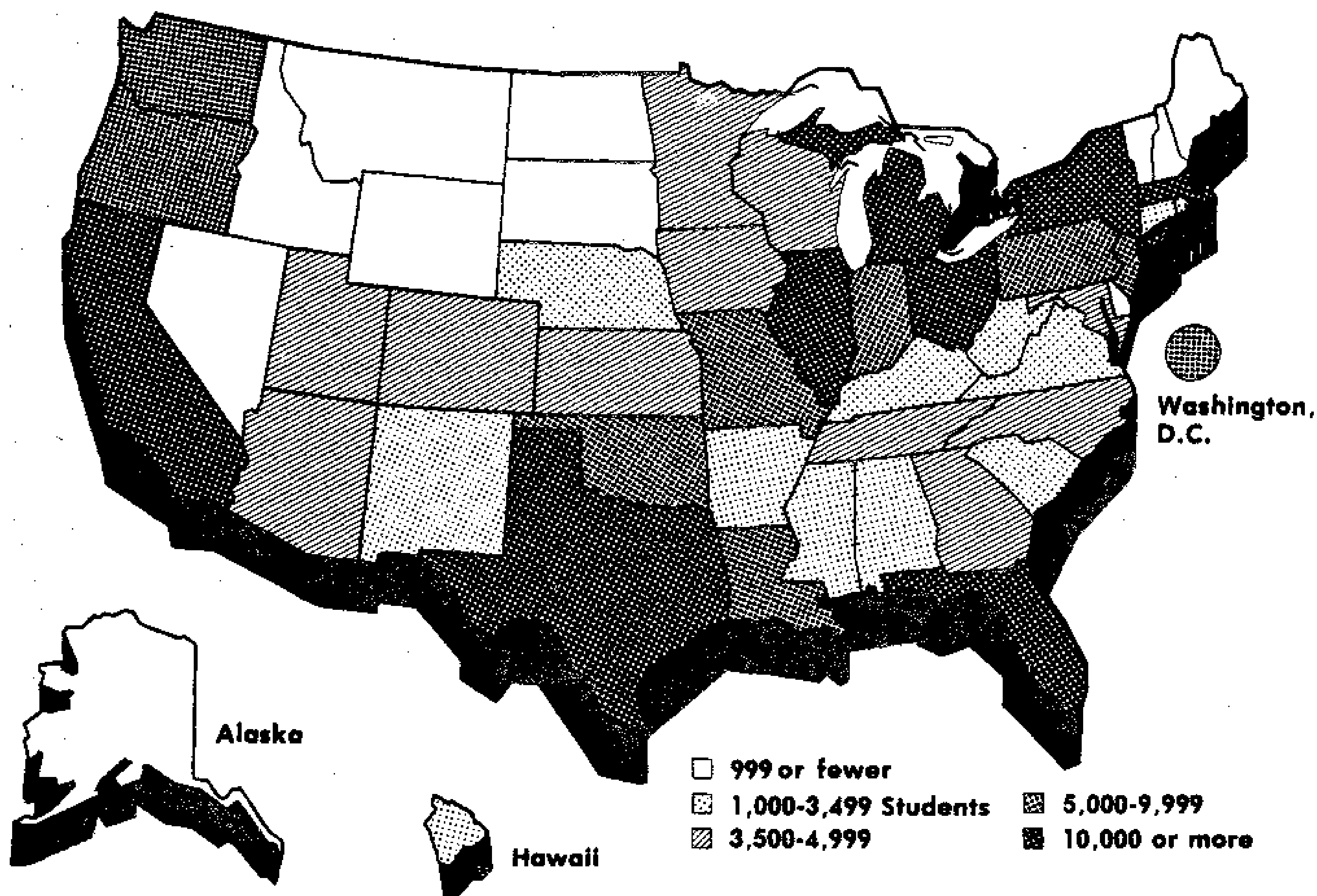
The annual Census of Foreign Students conducted by the Institute of International Education recorded 311,882 foreign students on U.S. campuses in 1980-81—a 9 percent increase over the previous year and the largest total ever. Although Iran topped the list of countries of origin, with U.S. colleges and universities reporting 47,550 Iranian students enrolled, their number decreased from the previous year's 51,870 by 7 percent. The Census data will be published by IIE, the largest U.S. educational exchange agency, as *Open Doors 1980-81.*

Lack of U.S. financial support for international exchange continued to be evident, reported Wallace Edgerton, President of the Institute of International Education, in releasing the census data. Only 17 percent of foreign students had a U.S. source as their prime source of funds. Of these, 9 percent had their U.S. academic institution as their primary resource, while only 2 percent cited the U.S. Government as their primary resource. The remaining 83 percent of foreign students received their primary funding from home country sources. As recently as 1976-77, U.S. sources were the primary support of 28 percent of foreign students.

To carry out the survey, IIE polled 3,205 academic institutions, of which 3,030 (95%) responded; 2,734 reported foreign students who came from 184 countries and territories. Thirty percent origninated from South and East Asia, and 27 percent from the Middle East, while Latin America was home for 16 percent, Africa 12 percent, Europe 8 percent, with North America and Oceania accounting for the remainder.

Iran was followed by Taiwan (19,460 students), Nigeria, Canada, Japan, Venezuela, Saudi Arabia, Hong Kong, India and Lebanon as nations with the greatest numbers of foreign students in the U.S. The presence of four OPEC nations among the top ten countries of origin indicates the high priority the oil-rich nations place on education.





As recently as 1968-69, OPEC states accounted for 101,625 students–33 percent of all foreign students.

Engineering, business and management were the most popular fields, followed by social and natural sciences, mathematics and computer sciences, the arts, the humanities, education, health and agriculture. Engineering and business subjects have steadily increased in popularity relative to the sciences and humanities.

California had the most foreign students, with over 52,000, trailed by New York (26,059), Texas, Florida, Massachusetts, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the District of Columbia. New York, which led the nation in number of foreign students when the survey began 26 years ago, has been superseded by California. Over the past quarter-century, the Northeast and Midwest have declined substantially as the regions with the most foreign students, while the Sunbelt states have shown large increases.

Miami-Dade Community College had the largest international student population (4,520), followed by the University of Southern California, Columbia University, Los Angeles City College, Texas Southern University, the Universities of Wisconsin at Madison, Michigan at Ann Arbor, Northeastern University, Boston University, and the University of California at Los Angeles.

IIE also surveyed foreign students enrolled in intensive English language programs. Many international students begin their U.S. academic careers with English language training; 22,897 were reported as doing so in 1980-81.

The IIE Census of Foreign Students was conducted with the guidance of the Interassociational Committee on Data Collection–composed of representatives of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, the Institute of International Education, and the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs–with financial support from the U.S. International Communication Agency.

Copies of *Open Doors 1980-81* are available from the Office of Communications, IIE, 809 U.N. Plaza, New York City 10017 for $20.00 postpaid.

Micro-ESL: Vocabulary, Grammar . . . AND Communication

by Joan E. Friedenberg and Curtis H. Bradley

If one were to glance through the tables of contents of the numerous ESL textbooks on the market today, one would see a fascinating variety of approaches to the teaching of English. For example, a few chapters of one book might look like this:

1. The Verb *be*
2. The Simple Present
3. The Present Continuous

Another text might contain:

1. Making Requests
2. Expressing Disagreement
3. Giving Advice

And still another could contain:

1. At the Airport
2. At a Restaurant
3. At the Employment Office

Discussions of the merits of the **structural** (first example), **functional/notional** (second example), and **situational** (third example) approaches to the teaching of ESL continue while teachers search in earnest for "the ideal" approach to use with their students and the most effective learning activities to implement that approach.

Until recently, the structural approach has been the most widely used in the United States. This approach focuses on the forms of the language to be mastered - - its grammatical and lexical units, and the rules for combining these units appropriately. Its basic premise is that forms should be practiced and "learned" before the learner attempts to use them for real communication. Both theoreticians and practitioners have argued, however, that the structural approach places too much focus on language and too little on using the language . . . for communication. Wilkins (1976:10) notes, for example, that

> Once the grammatical and lexical meaning of a sentence have been described, application of the potential communicative aspects of the utterances are often ignored in favor of further grammar and structure.

Hatch (1978:404) also summarizes this concern and suggests an alternative view:

> In second language learning the basic assumption has been . . . that one first learns how to manipulate structures, that one gradually builds up a repertoire of structures and then, somehow, learns how to put the structures to use in discourse. We would like to consider the possibility that just the reverse happens. One learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction, syntactic structures are developed.

Although structural approaches are still very much in practice today, both functional/notional and situational approaches are also gaining recognition in our ESL classrooms. In an attempt to respond to the problems raised with the structural approach, emphasizes content rather than form. McKay (1980:179) describes its primary aim as ensuring that students, " . . . know how to express different types of meanings (e.g. disagreements, compliments, disbelief, etc.)." Although this approach was intended to develop communicative competence, Widdowson (1978) notes that it still presents language as a collection of units, notional rather than syntactic.

In another attempt to provide ESL students with an approach which would enable them to learn to communicate, the situational approach was introduced. This approach emphasizes the social function of language and presents language to students in terms of social situations (e.g. ordering food in a restaurant, making airline reservations, etc.). Harlow, Smith, and Garfinkel (1980) argue, however, that this approach is too limiting in that students cannot apply what they learn in one situation to other situations.

It seems clear that experts can find fault with virtually any approach to the teaching of a second language. We would like to suggest that perhaps the learning activities adopted by an instructor will contribute more to student success than will a particular syllabus or approach.

Developing Effective Learning Activities

By considering the emphases of the three approaches described above, we can safely conclude that language classes should contain the following three components: 1) vocabulary practice, 2) grammatical structure practice, and 3) culturally appropriate social verbal behavior (communication) practice.

Although numerous learning activities have been developed to provide ESL students with opportunities to practice vocabulary and grammatical structure, we have not yet developed effective techniques to provide students with opportunities to practice communicating.

Farid (1976:300) provides five criteria that can be used both to develop and to evaluate communication learning activities.

a) The topic is interesting.
b) The topic does not lie outside their (the learners') semantic skills.
c) The students engaged in the dialogue participate more or less equally.
d) The participating students experience a feeling of success, regardless of the correctness of their English.
e) The non-participating students are motivated to listen to content rather than to form.

ESL learning activities should include the essential three practice components and meet Farid's criteria. A somewhat modified microcounseling approach is one such activity which is readily available to the ESL teacher.

Microcounseling

Microcounseling is a form of microtraining. The generic term, microtraining, refers to a general training format which is characterized by the development of specific, concrete skills through observation, practice, and feedback in a psychologically safe learning environment. Positive supervision is also an essential component of microtraining. Microtraining exists in a number of forms such as microteaching (Allen 1967), which is used to help pre- and in-service teachers-in-training develop specific teaching skills. Microsupervision (Chase, Coty, and Cotrel 1971) uses the microtraining format to teach supervisory conference skills. Microcoordination (Harrington 1970) uses the microtraining format to teach job placement skills to cooperative vocational education coordinators. Of interest to the ESL teacher is microcounseling (Ivey, et al., 1968), which extends the microtraining format to the development of a large variety of effective interpersonal skills.

Microcounseling evolved from attempts to de-mystify the counselor education process. Counselor educators had for years been attempting to teach counselor trainees essential but elusive concepts such as "warmth" and "empathy." Success was limited because although everyone "knew" what was meant by these terms, it was difficult to define them operationally. That is, it was easy to identify a counselor who was being warm and empathetic, but difficult to identify exactly why. It was therefore exceedingly difficult to help trainees learn and use these elusive concepts. Ivey and his colleagues (1968) applied a component-skills approach to the interviewing process. This behavioral analysis of one of the important aspects of counseling resulted in the identification and definition in performance terms of a number of discrete behaviors which are component skills of effective interpersonal communication. From this initial research, a conceptual framework and technology

Joan Friedenberg is associate director of the Bilingual Vocational Instructor Training Program at Florida International University, Miami. She received her Ph.D. in Educational Psychology with a specialization in language acquisition from the University of Illinois. Her previous publications have focused on innovative methods of teaching second languages.

evolved that has enabled Ivey and others to extend microcounseling far beyond counselor education and to behaviorally define other useful interpersonal skills.

Other applications of microcounseling include using it to improve the interpersonal skills of psychiatric nursing personnel (Hearn 1976), medical students (Authier and Gustafson 1974), and as media therapy with hospitalized psychiatric patients (Ivey 1973). Aldridge and Ivey (1975) demonstrated that junior high school students could be taught specific microcounseling skills as easily as adults. Bradley (1977) used microcounseling training as a direct, systematic interpersonal skills development program for inner-city youth. A variety of other applications can be found in Ivey and Authier (1978).

Curtis H. Bradley received his Ed. D. in Vocational Education from Temple University. He has authored numerous publications focusing on humanistic concerns in education. He is currently Director of the Bilingual Vocational Instructor Training Program at Florida International University in Miami.

Although originally designed for trainers to work on a one-to-one basis with trainees, this method proved to be impractical for those with large numbers of students. Consequently, a second approach was developed which treats students/trainees on a group-wide basis.

The Group Microcounseling Format

There are five parts to a group microcounseling exercise. The topic for the following exercise is "The Job Interview".

1. **Introduction by the teacher.** The students are informed that they are working on how to participate in a job interview. An important part of a successful interview is listening to the interviewer and conveying to the interviewer that you are listening. Students are told that only that aspect of interpersonal communication should be considered, and not to worry about other dimensions for the time being. Their only goal then is to convey to someone that they are listening.

2. **Training.** The teacher asks for volunteers to role-play an employment interview. The job applicant is to "ham it up" and do everything **wrong** in terms of listening. By requiring the student to act as inappropriately as possible, she/he is placed in a no-lose situation. That is, if the student conveys very well that she/he is not listening the student will be successful in terms of the exercise. If, on the other hand, the student does not convey this well, it will only show that the student is too good a listener. In addition, a good deal of humor is injected into the exercise by having students first act inappropriately. The interviewer is to "play it straight" and be as business-like as possible. The class is divided into groups of six each. They observe the role-played interation (3 to 5 minutes is suitable for making the point), and then make lists of what the job applicant "did wrong." They then discuss and share their lists with the entire class.

3. **Reinforcement.** A mini-lecture by the teacher follows, which emphasizes the key points of listening as demonstrated and discussed in the role-playing session above (e.g. eye contact, relaxed posture, and verbal following–no topic jump). The microcounseling manual, *Attending Behavior,* is sometimes used to supplement the lecture.

4. **Develop the model.** Another role-play is held in which the job applicant does a more effective job (acts correctly). The other students observe and note the differences between the two sessions.

5. **Practice.** Students then practice this exercise in pairs within their groups so that the concept of attending behavior (listening) is experientially learned. Sometimes students practice in triads with the third person acting as observer/evaluator.

The Skills of Microcounseling

Numerous skills have been identified and field-tested within the microcounseling framework. These skills have been organized into a number of broad categories or clusters. First are the beginning skills of effective interpersonal communication: attending behavior, open questions, and minimal encouragement to talk. These skills help the learner to convey interest as well as to get the other person to talk and express

him- or herself more fully. They enable the learner to avoid disastrous early attempts at interpersonal communication. Although basic, these skills are essential for every person who wants to communicate with others. Indeed, experienced professionals, including teachers, also benefit from and welcome systematic microcounseling training in these basic skills.

Another cluster consists of selective listening skills, including reflection of feeling, paraphrasing, and summarization. These skills enable the learner to communicate understanding of affect as well as content of the other person's words. They also assure that both parties have the same understanding of what is being said. The need for these skills in numerous situations is obvious.

Some of the advanced skills include giving directions, expression of content, expression of feeling, self disclosure, interpretation, and direct mutual communication. Each of these microcounseling skills is described in a brief manual (Ivey and Authier 1978). These manuals are invaluable tools for the teacher who wants to describe microcounseling skills operationally to students.

The ESL teacher may not consider every microcounseling skill appropriate to the needs of ESL students. That is as it should be. Microcounseling is an open system. One ESL teacher might consider attending behavior as a critical need for all ESL students and incorporate attending behavior into the curriculum via microcounseling. Another teacher might determine to include selective listening skills as well as attending behavior. Each teacher could also elect to modify the existing microcounseling manuals to identify her/his own style. Each would have an individualized, yet systematic approach to teaching the concrete behavior that she/he has identified as essential. The ESL teacher is encouraged to select those skills considered to be most important in a particular setting, or even develop definitions of new skills. Regardless of the specific skills considered most appropriate for effective functioning, the systematic technology of microcounseling may be utilized efficiently.

Micro-ESL

Because ESL students often lack the lexical, syntactic, and sociolinguistic skills necessary to carry out adequate conversations in English, the microcounseling approach will be modified to include three preliminary language and culture components. There are, then, eight parts to a group "micro-ESL" exercise. The topic will again be "The Job Interview," and the interpersonal skill to be emphasized will again be attending behavior.

1. **Vocabulary practice.** The teacher analyzes the situation to be practiced (a job interview) and identifies the vocabulary and idioms necessary to carry out an adequate conversation. These are presented to the students.
Examples: Application, interview, employer, employee, personnel, qualifications, hired, fired, laid off, resume, references, position, opening, salary, over-time, union dues, a-month, an-hour, wage, to earn, to make, sick-leave, to bring home, after taxes, etc.

2. **Grammatical structure practice.** The teacher again analyzes the situation to be practiced and identifies the major grammatical structures necessary to comprehend and converse in a job interview situation. For example, an employer would commonly ask questions like:
"Have you ever been a cook before?"
"Where else have you been a cook?"
"How long have you been a cook?"
The teacher then knows that the students should have good aural comprehension of yes/no and WH-questions in the present perfect. For other examples, the employee would probably respond with,
"Yes, I have." or, "No, I haven't."
"I've cooked in several restaurants," or, "I was a cook at Golden Arches for two years."
"I've been a cook for two years," or,
"I was a cook in Cuba for two years."

Again, the teacher knows that it would be important for students to be able to orally produce the present perfect (affirmative and negative) and the simple past. Other structures the teacher may wish to review are simple future (e.g. "Will I work weekends?" "You'll be bringing home about $480 a-

month.") The number of structures to be covered within one lesson depends upon how advanced the students are, and on whether the grammatical structures being presented are new to them or a review.

3. **Culture training.** The teacher identifies the appropriate behavior in a job interview situation. It is important not to overwhelm the students with information, since they already have linguistic skills to worry about. Since it has been deemed important in our culture to demonstrate attending behavior during a job interview, the students are explicitly told how to show to an employer that they are listening. The teacher may find it useful to contrast any behavioral differences between the U.S. and the student's home culture. The teacher may also wish to use the students' native language here since the focus now is on cultural information and not language.

Example:

Appropriate Attending Behavior

a. Sitting with relaxed but attentive posture
b. Head facing interviewer
c. Looking at employer's eyes occasionally
d. Sticking to the topic, recognizing cues to respond

Inappropriate Attending Behavior

a. Slouching, bending over or sitting too rigidly
b. Head down, away, or toward ceiling
c. Never/always looking in employer's eyes
d. Topic jumping, interrupting

4. **Introduction.** The teacher explains to the students that they are going to practice participating in a job interview, and that it is important for them to convey to the interviewer that they are listening. This introduction may be carried out in English or in the students' home language. The teacher may wish to quickly review some of the characteristics of appropriate attending behavior.

5. **Training.** The teacher selects volunteers to role-play an employment interview. The student playing the part of the applicant is told to play his/her role as inappropriately as possible. The class is divided into small groups. After observing the role-playing session for three to five minutes each group is to come up with a list of everything the job applicant "did wrong." The students should be encouraged to listen for content and previously identified kinesic behavior, not grammatical perfection.

6. **Reinforcement.** The teacher presents a brief review of the key points of listening as demonstrated and discussed in the role-playing session above (e.g., eye contact, posture, and verbal following). Although use of English should be strongly encouraged, the teacher may wish to use the students' native language on occasion to make a point clear.

7. **Developing the model.** Another role-play is held in which the job applicant performs correctly. The other students observe and note the differences between the two sessions. Although this microcounseling exercise is intended to be carried out orally, if the teacher wanted to add a reading component, language-experience approach could be based on the dialogue used in the second role-play session.

8. **Practice.** Students are told to practice this exercise in pairs within their groups so that the concept of attending behavior is experientially learned. Students may practice in threesomes, with the third party acting as observer/evaluator. Perhaps the third person would be someone who lacked the linguistic skills or confidence to participate in the beginning.

Conclusion

Microcounseling is an approach to developing interpersonal communication skills which is used in many fields. By adapting the microcounseling format to include vocabulary, structure, and culture components, we too can use this approach to help our ESL students communicate effectively. "Micro-ESL" is a systematic means by which to develop communicative competence. It is humanistic, does not require literacy, and it not only teaches language but also teaches about culture, basic survival, and vocational skills. The role-playing dialogues are interesting and will not lie outside the students' semantic skills. Students will participate equally and will experience success regard-

less of their degree of grammatical correctness. Micro-ESL can go hand-in-hand with any approach--be it structural, functional/notional, or situational, and it is an effective and enjoyable way to learn English as a second language.

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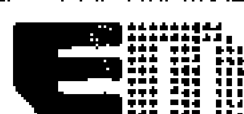

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Conference Announcements

The Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Regional Language Centre in Singapore announces its seventeenth regional seminar April 19-23, 1982. The theme of the seminar is "Interlanguage Transfer Processes in Language Learning and Communication in Multilingual Societies." Contact: Chairman, Seminar Planning Committee, SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, RELC Building, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 1025, Republic of Singapore.

The 1982 TESOL Summer Institute will be held on the campus of Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois (located on Lake Michigan, just north of Chicago). Participants may attend the six-week session June 28-August 6, or either of two three-week sessions June 28-July 16, July 19-August 6. Contact: Elliot Judd, Director, 1982 TESOL Summer Institute, Northwestern University, 2003 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Illinois 60201.

The eighth annual symposium of the Deseret Language and Linguistics Society will be held on March 25-26, 1982 at Brigham Young University. Keynote speakers will be Joseph Greenberg "Two Approaches to Language Universals" and Wallace Lambert "Languages as a Factor in Intergroup Relations." Contact: C. Ray Graham, Department of Linguistics, 140 FB, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah 84602.

The fourth Los Angeles Second Language Research Forum will be held at UCLA on April 28, 29, and 30, 1982 (enroute to TESOL '82 in Hawaii). Pre-registration will be accepted until March 1, 1982. Registration will continue. Contact: Thom Hudson, Co-chairman, or Jan Luhbin, Co-chairman, LA SLRF, English Dept (TESL), UCLA, Los Angeles, California 90024.

SPEAQ (Société pour la promotion de l'enseignement de l'anglais, langue seconde, au Québec) will hold its tenth annual convention at the Quebec Hilton on June 2-5, 1982. Contact: SPEAQ '82, David Sanders, 2121 St. Mathieu, Suite 1903, Montreal, Quebec H3H 2J3 Canada.

The sixteenth annual convention of the Association of British Columbia Teachers of English as an Additional Language (TEAL) will be held in Vancouver, B.C. on April 1, 2, and 3, 1982. With the theme "Ethnic Relations and Second Language Teaching," this convention will be of interest to ESL teachers at all levels as well as to those working with ethnic or community service organizations. Contact: TEAL '82 Registrar, 3254 West 10th Avenue, Vancouver, British Columbia.

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