WHAT IS INDIVIDUALISM IN TESL?

by Larry Smith

Individualization is not new, but it is current. When I say that I am reminded of a quote from *The Four Quarters* by T.S. Eliot, ". . . And what there is to conquer . . . has already been discovered once or twice or several times . . . There is only the fight to recover what has been lost and found and lost again and again." Even though it is not new, individualization is a popular word in the vocabulary of many educators with a high degree of frequency. We have "found" it once again.

If we study the written philosophy of ed-

ucation in almost any country we find words like these, "Education from the earliest school years should be directed to the all-round development of the human personality and to the spiritual, moral, social, and economic progress of the community, as well as to the inculcation of deep respect for human rights and fundamental freedom." Individualization is said to facilitate this all-round development, but what is individualization?

Individualization means many things to many people. Practically any teacher, on some grounds, can claim to be individualizing instruction. If he has lowered the class enrollment from 60 to 30, he can work more individually with the students. If he calls his students by name instead of by number, no doubt that is more personal to each individual. If he uses programmed materials which allow students to work

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at their own pace, he can say that he is individualizing instruction. He may have conferences with individual students or he may instruct small groups in particular skills. He may allow small groups of students who

CONTENTS

share some common interest to work together, and individual students may select their own materials from the available resources, and if so, he will proclaim to the world that he has an individualized class. Does he? I suppose that depends on one's definition of individualization.

I believe that individualization, more properly called personalized learning, is an approach which offers appropriate, not necessarily different, instruction for each student. The key word is "appropriate." It does not mean that the teacher teaches each student on a one to one ratio. It doesn't mean the student always works alone or even in small groups. There are times when people like to be members of a total community. There is something, I believe, quite real in "group spirit," which is more than a sum of the individual parts. "Appropriate" instruction would also allow the student to study when he wants to as well as how he wants to and with whom (or without whom as the case may be.)

Individualization is desirable because students differ. Each person is unique and learning activities should be based on this uniqueness. The following list provides some of the ways in which students differ which are relevant to learning:

Interest	Motivation for learning
Background	Attention spans
Language proficiency	Perception
Imagination	Sensitivity
Learning styles	Curiosity
Learning rates	Anxiety

I know of no one who says that all people are the same when talking about these things, and "appropriate" instruction is vague enough to please almost anyone as long as he can decide what is meant by "appropriate." Why then don't we see individualized instruction everywhere? In ESOL classes, I think one of the principle reasons is that the theoretical framework is not clearly understood or accepted.

THEORETICAL GUIDELINES FOR INDIVIDUALIZATION IN ESOL

1. There is no one way to learn language. Any way a person learns is valid. If a student wants to memorize dialogs, let him. If he feels that studying grammar rules helps, allow that.

2. There are no "correct" or "proper" sequence for learning the so-called "four language skills." It is not necessary to follow the listening, speaking, reading, writing order or any other sequence. Of course there is a sequence for each person which will depend on his goals and objectives.

3. There is no set of language skills necessary for all people. I doubt that most people need to learn English at all. Those that do can decide for themselves what skills they are interested in. Maybe only reading will be enough or only "Taxicab" spoken English.

4. Language skills can be learned at any age. If while in school a student studies only reading but discovers later he needs a speaking knowledge, he can at that time study to develop that. Learning can take place throughout life and the sooner we destroy the idea that one must be in school to learn, the more likely we are to promote genuine education.

5. Each learner is unique and much more than a reactor. He brings many things with him to the learning environment.

6. The amount of time spent for learning should not be a very important factor. Each student has a different rate of learning and even the same student will differ on different days. Usually learning is more important than the time it takes.

7. Class size is not a principle consideration Since individualization is not one to one teaching, any "regular" class can be individualized.

How This Effects the Teacher

Under this approach the teacher takes on a new role. He is not the sole dispenser of knowledge who knows all. The student must have many sources of questions and answers. Individualization should not be equated as 1:1 instruction. The theory of individualization requires the teacher to

THE ABC PRINCIPLE AND THE SECOND-LANGUAGE LEARNER

by Emilio G. Cortez

In a current edition of the *TESL RE-PORTER*, Dr. Kenneth Croft asserted that:

A unit of study based on dictionary usage at the beginning of a reading and/or composition course is well worth the time and effort.[1]

In keeping with this position, various dictionary-related activities are here described. These activities are intended to afford the non-English speaker a familiarity and/or practice with the alphabetic principle.

To instill in the student a more focused awareness of the alphabetic principle, the teacher may select students' surnames and place them on the blackboard, first scrambled, and then in alphabetical order. Names from class lists or attendance sheets might also be used in the same fashion.

Another approach might be to pose the hypothetical case of a late registrant, "Now where shall we place Mr. A-Z on our class list?

Old telephone directories are excellent for class use. The students' curiosity might be stimulated by asking them to find the first name listed after "Alice Pack" in the telephone directory. Students' names might also be used. The same technique lends itself to dictionary entries as well, e.g., "Which word comes after *orange?*"

Locating local business addresses also offers possibilities, e.g., "Where is Rayfield's pharmacy?"

The telephone directory not only utilizes the alphabetic principle, but it contains some very practical information concerning stores, services, and various places of interest to our students. In a sense, the business section of the telephone directory reflects some aspects of our culture.

For those students who enjoy game-like activities, a dictionary race might ensue.

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The teacher calls out a word and the first student to find it raises his hand. The student then announces to the class the page on which he found the word. A different word is called out, and so on.

An added dimension to an English vocabulary review might be to have the students place these previously-taught words into alphabetical order. English words posing pronunciation difficulties for the non-English speaker may be written on flash cards and placed along the chalkledge in random order. A student is then called upon to place these words into the proper alphabetical order within a certain time limit. By utilizing words posing pronunciation difficulties, a twofold teaching purpose can be realized: pronunciation and/or auditory discrimination practice, and practice in alphabetizing. This activity may also be played competitively–teams formed and points awarded for correct responses.

A "framing" technique might also be used. Two flash cards are held up by the teacher, e.g., *field, hill.* A student is chosen to call out a word which would fall alphabetically between the two exposed words. The difficulty of such a task varies depending upon

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[1] Kenneth Croft, "Dictionary Use in ESL Courses," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 7, No. 1 (Fall, 1973), p. 1.

ON THE NECESSITY FOR SPECIALIZED MATERIALS IN ESOL

by Ted Plaister

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages are forever searching for specially prepared materials to teach the different language skills; consequently their eyes light up whenever a brochure from their favorite publisher comes across their desks with ESL or EFL somewhere in the title. What will be suggested here is that there are plenty of language teaching materials readily available which are not specialized at all. In addition, this lack of so-called specialization does not detract from the usefulness of such materials. In support of this argument, a technique will be detailed here which uses readily available materials costing practically nothing, yet which involve the students in real communication situations requiring them to talk, listen, interpret data, take notes, and summarize.

One such type of non-specialized material consists of charts and graphs of the kind which can easily be found in such publications as TIME, NEWSWEEK, U.S. NEWS & WORLD REPORT or in sales reports, newspaper articles, etc. These charts and graphs are collected and mounted on suitably-sized cardboard and the resulting cards numbered. The more varied the types selected the better, e.g., bar graphs, line graphs, pie-diagrams, those using objects as symbols (i.e., bushels of wheat, automobiles) which show relative amounts of specified products, etc. (Note that charts and graphs of this type can be kept current as new ones appear regularly.) A sufficient number of these charts and graphs should be collected to ensure that each student has a different one to work from, or that a large enough sample has been presented in class to assure adequate coverage of the major types.

Once a collection of suitable charts and graphs has been assembled, classroom work begins. The cards are passed out to the students. The teacher then explains that individuals will be called on randomly and questioned about the kinds of information their chart or graph communicates graphically. Having done this, the teacher calls upon a particular student and the questioning begins. (For his use, the teacher has a photocopy of each chart.)

Basically this use of charts and graphs is an exchange--a dialog--between teacher and student concerning a particular chart or graph. Obviously this involves questioning and answering, but it also includes note-taking as mentioned earlier. While one student is answering the teacher's questions about his chart or graph, the others in the class are listening and taking notes on the basis of the information contained in the exchange. What does this activity accomplish? First of all, it requires that the student who is doing the talking speak so others can understand him. If a class consists of a Thai, two Iranians, one Indonesian, two Koreans, one Samoan, and eight Cantonese (a not uncommon situation in some schools), the students will speak English with their own unique accents which constitute a potential--more often, real--barrier to understanding. The language communication in the classroom is English and so the situation of trying to understand another non-native speaker of English is very similar to that which the student will face in his other classrooms. In this connection, many universities employ non-native speakers of English as lecturers who must lecture in English. I am convinced that if one has to communicate his message to others where an understanding is crucial, e.g., where others have to take notes and get the content down accurately for later study, he generally will take pains to make himself understood. This is especially true in the

classroom situation which has just been described. It may not be true of some person of considerable status whose attitude is: strain and understand, I am worth listening to! Further, in the classroom, peer pressure is at work and it has been my experience that in environments such as have been outlined here, students will strive to do something about their pronunciation. Indeed, motivation to pronounce with reasonable accuracy may actually be higher than it is in regular pronunciation class.

In any event, students and teacher alike should be encouraged to apply modest pressure on the students to use a "communicative pronunciation" by such remarks as "I'm sorry, I don't understand," "Would you mind repeating that?" and similar indicators of lack of understanding.

Second, some students are soft-spoken because of personality factors or their insecurity when it comes to speaking English. Being placed in a situation where they have to

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speak loudly enough to be heard in a classroom by their peers provides definite motivation to speak up.

Third, this method of generating an exchange between student and teacher which is being recorded by the other members of the class also serves as a check on how well the students are handling the skill of note-taking. It is a simple matter for the teacher to collect the students' notes, look them over, and evaluate them in terms of the information supplied by the exchange.

Should the teacher wish to structure the

note-taking (and this would be particularly advantageous for students at lower levels of English proficiency), he can order the presentation of his questions while providing the students with a form to fill out as the information is elicited. This might include such items as: title of the graph, type of graph, what the graph is measuring and so forth. Then as the students gained more proficiency, the structured helps would be gradually withdrawn until each student was taking his notes completely from the different teacher-student exchanges. A further refinement would be to tape record the exchange between student and teacher for later listening in a tutorial setting.

The teacher can easily check on-going comprehension as the dialog (which is real dialog, rather than contrived materials to be memorized at home) progresses by calling upon individual students to summarize what has been said thus far and this involves another useful skill. Such a procedure leads quite naturally to a complete summary at the end of the dialog, either by the student concerning his particular chart or graph, or by some other student from his notes. Finally, the students might write up a short summary of the data the graph presents (after all, a chart or graph is a means of representing data graphically rather than by means of print) to be handed in and checked by the teacher.

For this type of teaching to be maximally effective, the pace must be brisk but not so fast as to overwhelm, discourage or frustrate the student; but a student should feel some pressure because pressure is just exactly what he will often feel in the university (or other) classroom situation. Therefore, the questioning covering the chart or graph and what it has to communicate should move at a steady clip. Certain stock questions can be written out by the teacher ahead of time (and this would be especially necessary if one were using some kind of structured approach with beginning students). But probably the most useful and real questions will come as the dialog develops naturally between teacher and student.

CONVERSATIONS AND DIALOGUES

by Jack Wigfield

Many ESL textbooks include dialogues which seem to fall roughly into four classes:

A. Non-classroom situations:
1: Is this the supermarket?
2: Yes, it is.
1: Where's the meat section?
2: Over there.

B. Role playing:
1: Can I help you?
2: Yes. Are you a doctor?
1: No. I'm a nurse.
2: I'd like to see a doctor.
1: Do you have an appointment?
etc.

C. Falsified classroom situations:
(On a sunny day)
1: How's the weather?
2: It's raining.

D. Register violation:
1: Are you going to take the freeway?
2: Yes.
1: Do be careful.

(Person 1 should be specified as female since the "do" command form is seldom used in male speech.)

These dialogues all violate the increasing belief by some language teachers that people can learn a second language in a classroom much the same natural way that they do outside the classroom in communities throughout the world where adult bilingualism is a common phenomenon. Some language teachers now feel that language input in the form of a stream of speech directed at an adult in an actual situation with occasional cognitive help as to what linguistic system this language uses in that situation makes the development of a second language possible, less of an ordeal,

and can help bridge the gap between communicative competence and knowledge of the code, two factors which in Upshur's words ". . . .do not go hand in hand." (Upshur, 1974)

Dialogues, with all their faults, seem to be the most fruitful type of language learning exposure for adult early beginners. But these drill dialogues must lead to something usable in the classroom or they defeat their purpose and are comparable to pattern practice drills. This article proposes a pre-drill dialogue called a "conversation" as a means to move closer to a natural situation and to go beyond the dialogue into real communication.

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Conversations precede drill dialogues. They grow out of drill dialogues. As time goes on, they become more complicated and more varied. For example:

First Week:
Drill Dialogue: 1: Hello. How are you?
                 2: Fine. How are you?
                 1: Fine.

Second Week:
Conversation: 1: Hello. How are you?
                 2: Fine. How are you?
                 1: Fine.
Drill Dialogue: 2: What's that?
                 1: It's a pen.

Third Week:
Conversation:
1: Hi. How are you?
2: Fine. How are you?
1: So-so. What's that?
2: Where?
1: There.
    (Points to a map)
2: I don't know.
1: It's a map.
2: Oh.

Drill Dialogue:
1: Say. .How's the weather?
2: It's rainy. (Actually it's sunny.)

Fourth Week:
Conversation:
1: Hi. How's the weather?
2: Sunny. (actually sunny)
1: What's new?
2: Nothing special.
1: Where are you going?
2: Now?
1: No. After class.
2: I don't know.

Drill Dialogue
1: Say. . .How did you come to school today?
2: I came by bus. (actually he walked.)

Conversations are marked by certain features such as "say", "hey", "you know" which commonly divide initial small talk from major topics or abrupt changes in topic.

1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: How's the weather?
2: Cloudy.
1: Say. . .Who's that?
    etc.

Conversations are marked by deletions.
1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: My name is Joe. What's yours.
2: Luzviminda. (*My name is Luzviminda.)
1: Say. . .Who's that?
    etc.

Conversations are marked by veracity:
(Drill Dialogue on a rainy day.)
1: How's the weather?
2: It's sunny.
(Same day)

1: Hi.
2: Hi. How's the weather?
1: (Turning to look out the window.) It's raining.
2: Say. . .Who's that?
    etc.

Conversations are marked by a disallowance of role playing:

1: Hello.
2: Hi.
1: *This is Safeway. Can I help you?*
The conversation short circuits at this point.

Conversations are marked by interaction signals that indicate degrees of interest and understanding.

1: It's sunny today.
2: Uhuh.
1: I came by bus today.
2: Oh.
1: Say. . .Who's that
    etc.

Conversations are marked by signals like "nevermind" that allow a graceful acceptable termination of a difficult situation:

1: It's sunny today.
2: What?
1: Sunny. It's sunny.
2: I don't understand.
1: No clouds. Sun. Sunny. See?
2: Spell it.
1: Nevermind.
2: Say. . .Who's that?
    etc.

Conversations are marked by various register constraints:

1: Hi.
2: Hi.
1: What's the weather forecast?
2: For tomorrow?
1: Yeah.
2: Partly cloudy. (Radio/meteorology "field")
1: How is it now?
2: A little cloudy. (Everyday speech)
1: Say. . .Who's that?
    etc.

BRIGHAM YOUNG U

by Jay Fox

Beginning Fall 1974 the Division of Communication and Language Arts of Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus is offering a revised Bachelor of Arts program in Teaching English as a Second Language. The new TESL major is designed to prepare students better in the practical aspects of second language teaching by requiring less theoretical linguistics and by requiring a supervised teaching experience in the University's English Language Institute program.

Students in the TESL program receive instruction in both language and literature courses so they will be more versatile in teaching in language parts program below the university level. Each student is also required to study four semesters of a language. International students may use English as their foreign language by completing the University's general education program in reading writing, and speaking.

A brief description of the cirriculuum is included here to give other schools an idea of one way an undergraduate TESL program could be organized.
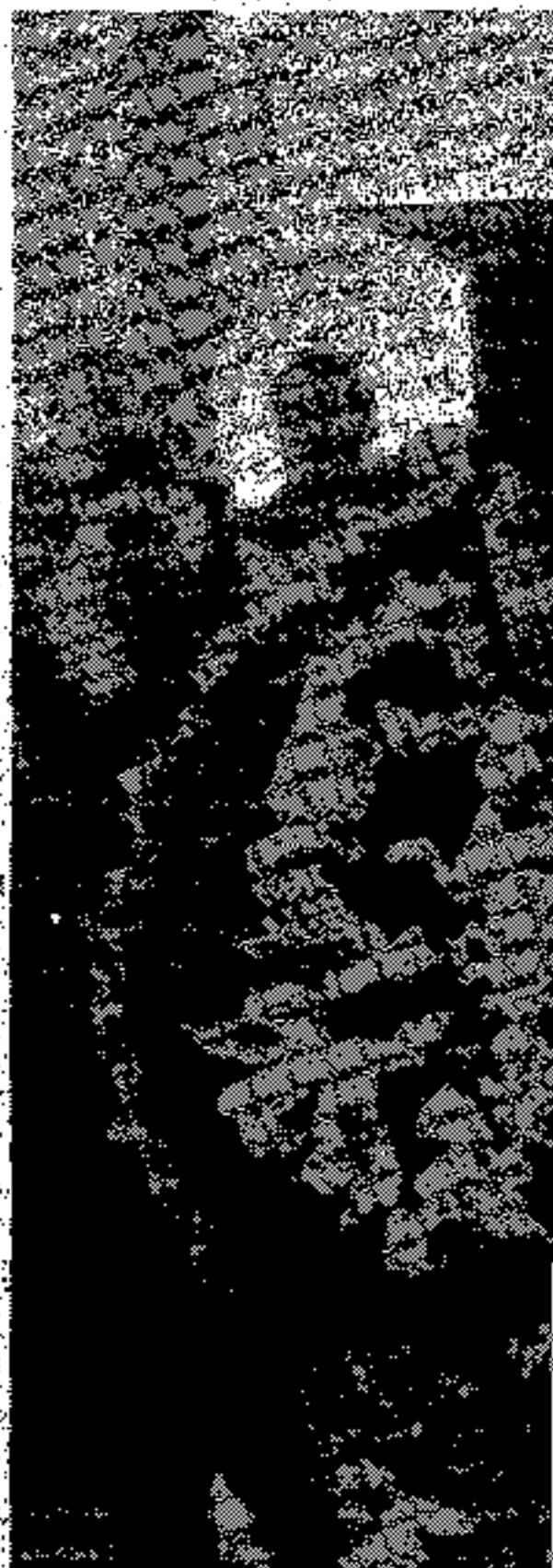
Vuki Tangitau
Principal of Liahona High School, Tonga

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NIVERSITY—HAWAII CAMPUS BATESL REQUIREMENTS

English 210 Introduction to Linguistics (3)

What language is. A general introduction to the nature of languages, examining essential components and showing how these work in various languages. This course is a prerequisite for English 320, 410, 466.

English 310 English Grammar (3)

How language works. Examination of syntactic structure of language. Exercises in syntactic description and analysis.

English 320 Language Acquisition (3)

How language is acquired. Course examines the basic assumptions underlying second language teaching with concentration on psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

English 410 TESL Materials (3)

What language materials to use. An examination of available materials in the TESL field and a consideration of their applicability to current methodologies. Includes adaptation of existing texts and construction of materials for specific, situational instruction.

English 466 TESL Methods (3)

How to teach a second language. A practical course in professional preparation for developing teaching skills in listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

MCS 250 Intercultural Communication (3)

Study of communication difficulties resulting from cross cultural and intercultural situations.

LITERATURE CORE

English 340 Language in Literature (3)
English 345 Ethnic Lieterature (3)
English 351 Shakespeare and His Age (3)
English 356 American Literature (3)
English 357 Twentieth Century Literature (3)
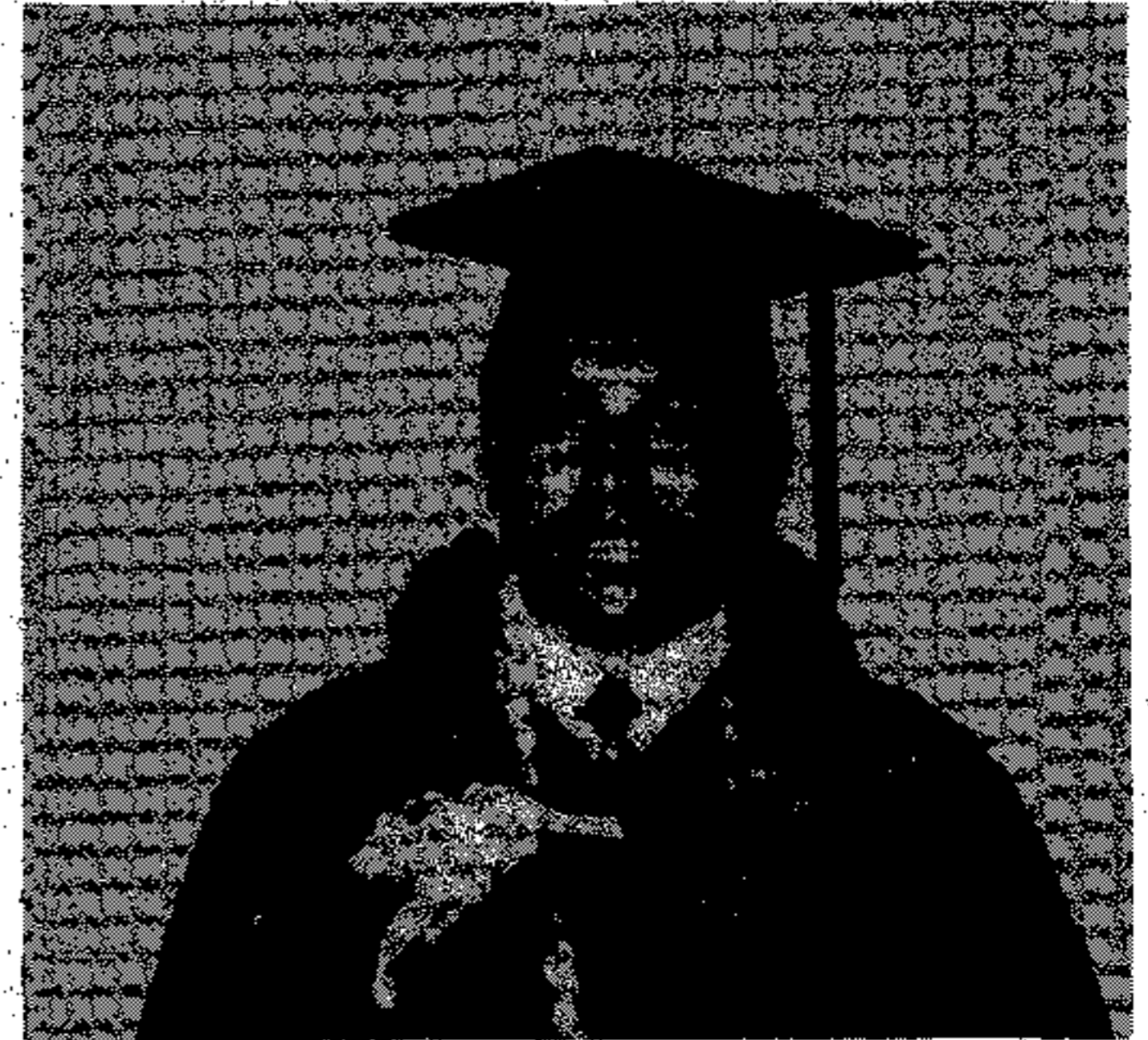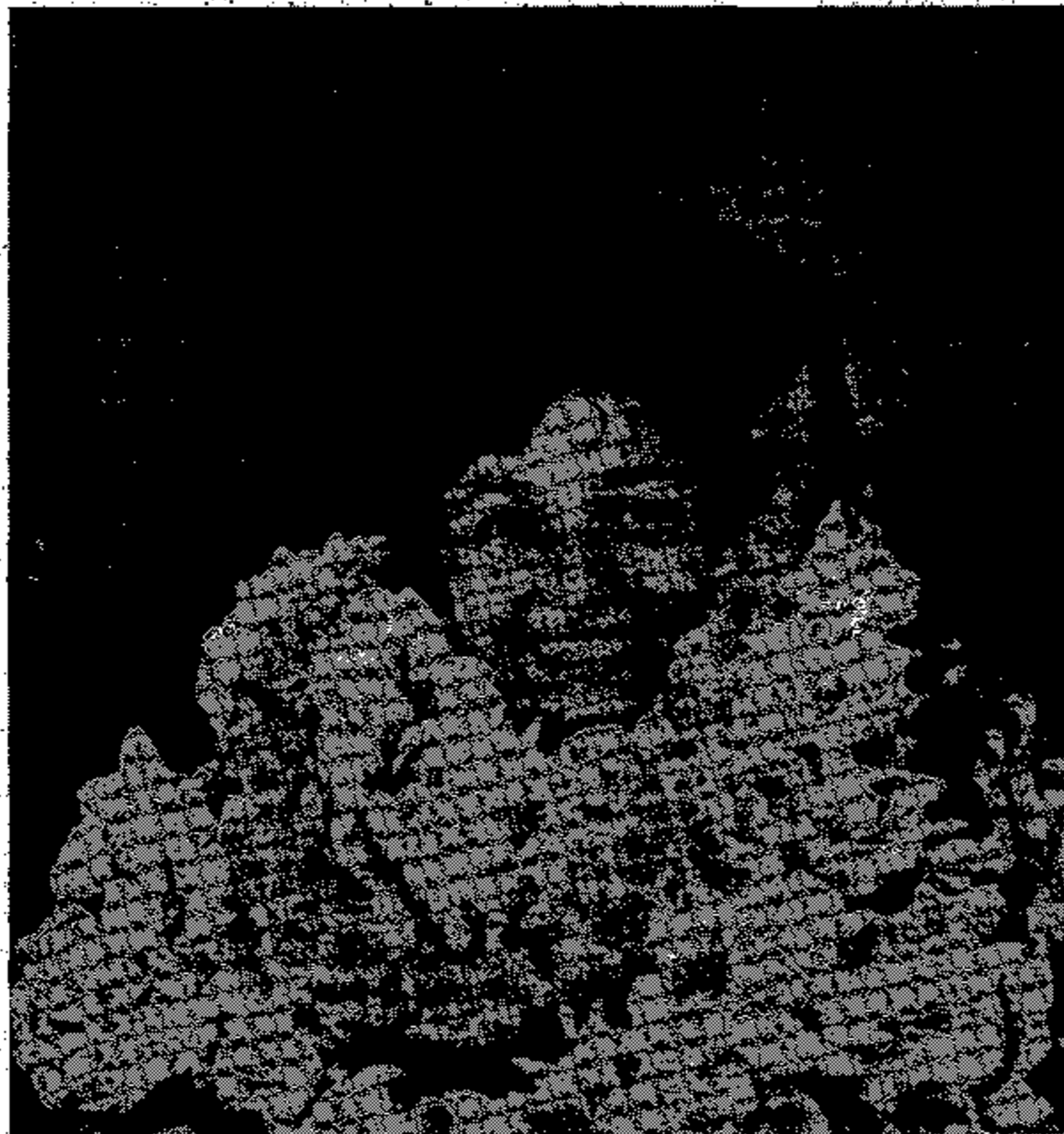
1974 BATESL GRADUATES

icture unavailable) is now teaching in Western Samoa.

Upper Right: Kelly Harris
Lower Right: Leialoha Finai

lda Wesley Moe   Dorothy Sualfilo

LEARNING WITH GAMES

by Rosita Ah Ching

One of the great problems faced by the modern day TESL teacher is how to keep students actively involved and interested in learning another language without impeding the progress of the brighter students or drowning the slower students in a mass of words which they don't understand. A teacher may gear the lesson at a speed for the top half of the class and force the students who are having a harder time to struggle along at a rate too fast for them or teach at a speed comfortable for the class mean and let the faster students suffer through the drills which are no longer a challenge to them.

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This question is not a new one but has been relevant to teachers throughout history It reaches even greater significance to the TESL teacher, however, since he or she is faced with the task of teaching students to speak and think in a foreign language.

One method of successfully meeting the challenge is to use various language games dispersed between class drills and lectures to keep the students interested in their studies as well as achieving on their own level. Language games provide several different advantages over regular classroom activities. As Julia Doleson points out in her essay from *Readings on English as a Second Language* (p. 361), language games (1) provide an intellectual challenge (2) require no time consuming correction of written responses but provides immediate feedback on any mistake the student may make and (3) are fun and relaxing as well as competitive. Probably the greatest advantage of playing games is that the class can be broken up into smaller groups of students and each group given games which meet its intellectual needs and keep students challenged on their various level.

At this time, a second question should arise — "Are games successful in practice as well as in theory?" To answer this question, it is necessary to go directly to the classroom and examine two separate teaching situations.

Thelma Lonemori, a graduate from the Church College of Hawaii has found language pronunciation games to be very successful in her teaching situation at Hilo High School on the big island. A great majority of her students are from Filipino extraction and have a difficult time pronouncing labiodental fricatives such as [f] and [v].

"I tried different drills with my students to try to get the right pronunciation of [f] and [v] but as my students left the classroom and began talking to each other, they fell back into their old incorrect speech habits. Finally in frustration, I began looking into language pronunciation games. One game in particular was very successful. I divided the class into boys against girls and kept score. The losers had to take home a short exercise as homework while the winning team had none. I would direct a question containing difficult words which a student would have to ask.

Example:

Emily: Not me Miss Lonemori, Joseph did you take her favorite violin?
Joseph: Not me, Phyllis, did you take her favorite violin?

I would keep the pace very fast so that the students were rapidly questioning one another. As the sentence got old I would rotate it with others. The students enjoyed

the game and I believe their pronunciation was successfully improved."

Another teaching situation where games were found to be successful was in my own class for the Samoans of Laie who wanted to improve their English. After several class periods of drilling and lecturing on prepositions, I noticed that my students weren't understanding the correct usage of several prepositions. In the Samoan language, the word "ile" as in "kaele ile sami" is used for both "in" and "to." Since the one word is used for both English words, my students were confused as to when to use which preposition. I began using Alice Pack's preposition exercises stressing the problem prepositions. These have a handout with a blank space where prepositions should go. One student has the sheet with the missing words while the other holds the answer key; students drill each other. I kept score over how many words each student missed so the exercise became a competitive game which was both entertaining as well as informative.

The two teaching situations cite how language games have been found to be effective in practice as well as in theory. In the introduction to *Language Games and Songs for Core English*, the author states: "Language games and songs have an important part in any elementary ESL program. Both provide an opportunity for the controlled repetition which must precede fluency; and they offer to the young child especially, a natural incentive to master a skill by practicing it at play." Language games are indeed a successful tool in accomplishing the difficult task of teaching students to speak and think in a foreign language."

CONVERSATIONS

(continued from page 7)

Conversations are marked by forms developed outside class:

    1: How's everything, man?
    2: What?
    1: Nevermind. Say. . .Who's that?
    etc.

Conversations are marked by acceptable evasions:

    1: Hi.
    2: Hi.
    1: What's new?
    2: Nothing special.
    1: Say. . .Who's that?
    etc.

Conversations are marked by correct persuppositions or presuppositions which can be questioned:

    (Drill Dialogue)
    1: Machu Pichu is beautiful.
    2: When did you go there?
    1: Last year.
    2: Did you like Peru?
    1: Sure.
    (Occurring in a conversation)
    1: Hi.
    2: Hi.

    1: You know, Machu Pichu is beautiful.
    2: Who's she?
    1: No. It's a place.
    2: Where?
    1: Peru.
    2: Are you from Peru?
    1: Yeah.
    2: Tell me about Michi Pichu.
    1: Machu Pichu. Sorry, my English isn't good enough. Say. . .who's that?
    etc.

As time goes on, the conversations take on a more important role, and the early adult beginner begins to see the drill dialogue in its true perspective: a device to keep him exposed to the language, to keep the teacher from misinforming and boring him with a lot of technical grammatical explanations, and to give him a model of pronunciation and reaction.

INDIVIDUALIZATION

take a new role, but not a less important role. *The teacher, and each one also is unique, remains the most important factor* in the classroom. The best materials can be made ineffectual by the teacher and the worst materials can be brought to life. To choose, adapt, and create materials for the class is one of the functions of the teacher in an individualized classroom. Another is to encourage the students with inspiration and guidance. Being an example of scholarship may be the most important thing. Of course he helps each student as needed and is a coordinator or facilitator of activities.

How This Effects the Student

The goal is to have him be the planner, director, and assessor of his education. This is the goal we hope he has reached at the end of formal schooling. He can't do it at the beginning of kindergarden and may not ever reach it. We shouldn't expect too much too soon, yet we should allow the student to "try his wings." The teacher helps him to be successful in his planning and works with him in evaluating his work.

Students should be encouraged to tutor one another. Of course this is not new. Students have always learned from each other and if we can use that force in our ESOL classroom, we will probably be more successful. To get the most from peer tutoring, students should be heterogeneous in terms of ability, age and sex.

Students should not be constantly placed in competition with one another; however, competition should not be avoided when it seems natural.

How This Effects the Classroom

An individualized classroom looks different. The desks are not usually in neat rows and the students almost never are involved in the same activity. Some may be reading while others are writing or listening to tapes. This approach demands that there be an ever increasing bank of materials designed to facilitate individualized programs for all levels of ability in each language skill.

The classroom is not quiet because there is a great deal of activity in it. It is educational noise however, not the sounds of chaos. It is difficult to describe the difference but any teacher recognizes the distinction immediately.

Now, let's go back to the teacher who claims to be individualizing instruction because he has lowered the class size, calls his students by name, uses programmed material, instructs small groups in particular skills, has individual conferences, and allows students to select their own material from the available resources. The question is not so much, "Is this program individualized?" as it is, "To what *degree* is this program individualized?"

If the teacher is doing all of the above, his class is more individualized than if he is doing only two or three.

In deciding the degree to which any program or class is individualized some of the questions we must ask are:

1. Is this program elective or required?
2. Is the goal decided by the student or the teacher?
3. Does the student, with the teacher's help plan his own program by choosing from the available materials the books, tapes, films, etc., he wants to use to meet his goal, or is he told to study book X, pages 1-2?
4. Is the method and pace of study determined by the student or teacher/administrator?
5. Is evaluation done by the student in conference with the teacher or is it decided by class rank or some examination?

No longer should we let go unchallenged a statement by a teacher that he has an individualized class. We should seek to know the degree to which individualization has been made possible.

There is no approach which makes students more individualistic. There is an approach however which does increase the opportunity for each of them to express and develop his unique characteristics. Good teachers have been working toward this for centuries. I hope we will continue to develop such an approach--call it individualization or any other term which is currently popular.

PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN ESL

Starting with this issue, the <u>TESL Reporter</u> will list openings for ESL and EFL teachers as they are recieved by the editor.

For information, applications, etc., please write direct to the listed names, schools, or districts, the TESL Reporter will not accept or forward information or applications from prospective employees or employers.

Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages in Tokyo, Japan, is recruiting English Instructors for the academic year April 1975-March 1976.

Information may be obtained from K. Yamamoto (Personnel Department), Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages, 2-13-13, Uchikanda, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo Japan.

Foreign Language Service Co., Ltd., in Osaka, Japan, is recruiting instructors to teach English conversation to Japanese businessmen at their companies on a one or more year contract basis.

Information may be obtained from Teruo Yamauchi, Foreign Language Service Co., Ltd., Matsumoto Building, Room 601, 10, 3-Chome, Minamikyuhoji-Machi, Higashi-Ku, Osaka, Japan.

BOOK REVIEW

Eugene J. Hall.   Grammar For Use, Books 1 & 2   Price: $4.95 each   Paperback   Published by The Institute of Modern Languages

An excellent book for advanced ESL students or teachers who want grammatical rules for English usage. Although these books use traditional grammar terminology, the rules and exercises reflect descriptive usage rather than being traditionally prescriptive.

There are six major divisions with 39 separate sections covering the problem areas of dialectical and non-native English speakers. Each section contains textual material followed by questions for comprehension and discussion. These are followed by questions for comprehension and discussion. Exercises in the form of connected discourse follow. Halles' foreword explains the rationale of the exercises:

1. Questions and grammatical points, for the purpose of making the student more conscious of the forms and meanings of the various structures.
2. Manipulations of the sentences for the purpose of making the students more at ease in their use of the forms of the patterns.
3. Exercises principally in combining and otherwise "improving" sentences, for the purpose of making the students more conscious of stylistic devices in English and giving them a basis on which to improve their own skills in communication.

These books could be used for individual study. The exercises would then alert the teacher to problems students might have in understanding the material.

Alice C Pack

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TESL REPORTER

will include an article by Dr. Albert H. Marckwardt on "The Foreign Language--Second Language Distinction," "Drilling English Auxiliary Verbs in ESL classes" by Donald M. Decker, and "Morphological and Syntactic Complementation of Two Modals and Three Auxiliaries" by Dr. Yao Shen.

TRANSLATIONS

The UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1971 reports that English is by far the most frequently translated language. A survey of the publishing industry in 67 countries revealed that during 1969 14,344 books were translated from English into another language. French was the second most frequently translated language with 5,147 titles represented. Next were German, 4,017 titles, and Russian, 3,811 titles.

The ABC Principle and the Second–Language Learner

the two words "framing" a suitable response.

Various words can be written on the blackboard in scrambled order, each word with a corresponding number. Within a specified time limit, a student or students must write down the proper alphabetical order of the words, but using only the corresponding numbers for each word. For example, *sunset* might be number four, whereas *sunshine* might be number one. Regarding these two words, the correct alphabetical order would be: four, one. The use of numbers in this activity helps to maintain a brisk pace since entire words need not be written.

KROHN LECTURES at BYU-HC

Professor Robert Krohn, author of *English Sentence Structure* and articles on linguistics and ESL methodology, visited Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus recently as a guest of the basic linguistic class.

In a lecture on "English Vowels," Dr. Krohn discussed how English vowels change in related words and how the teaching of English spelling might be facilitated by showing ELI students the spelling of related words.

Over 80 students attended the lecture.

SPECIALIZED MATERIALS IN ESOL

After using charts and graphs with a group of students what exactly has been accomplished? The students should have become thoroughly familiar with a wide variety of charts and graphs and learned to read and interpret them (for interpreting and drawing inferences from the charts would definitely want to come within the matrix of questioning) this skill cannot help but be useful to them in their work. Second, students have been given intensive practice in answering questions which are real rather than contrived; questions which are closely related to the kinds of questions which conceivably will be asked of them in some of their classes. Third, students have been taking notes and responding to "quizzes" on their notes. In addition, both oral and written summarizations have been made and this is desirable preparation for summarizing data in other classes for other purposes

One further technique is to show an enlarged version of the chart or graph--either drawn for the purpose, sketched on the chalkboard, or displayed by means of an overhead projector--to the class after the procedures suggested have been completed. The teacher then "lectures" from the chart, thus simulating an actual lecture situation. Such a lecture might be looked upon as a sort of summary of summaries. By this time the content should be thoroughly familiar to the class and this particular procedure could well impart a feeling of real accomplishment to the class as they listened and (hopefully!) understood with relative ease. Quite naturally a great number c the sentences used by the teacher will be unique and this affords the students practice in listening to what might be called uncontrived English. To carry this procedure one additional step, the teacher could, having lectured from the chart once, start all over again and give the "same" lecture again. Once more the students would be hearing a slightly different version of the same information. Then, if it could be scheduled and was practical, another teacher or any

speaker of reasonably intelligible English could be brought in and the students given the opportunity to hear still another rendition. Repeated exposure to the same information cast in slightly different syntax affords the student practice in coping with paraphrased material and should be of assistance to them in listening to and comprehending other lectures. The teacher would have to exercise judgment on when to terminate activities for a particular chart or graph so as to avoid boredom.

In addition to practicing the skills we have already mentioned, the students are led to a study of vocabulary--something for which students instinctively feel a need. With this technique, all vocabulary, new or old, is presented in a meaningful context. What better way to learn a world like *trend,* for example, than by seeing it graphically illustrated on several charts or graphs and explicated by the teacher or one of the students? Over a period of time, the entire vocabulary associated with charts and graphs would be introduced in context and repeated exposures should suffice to effect learning. Much of the vocabulary used by the teacher in questioning will be spontaneous, a far better procedure than picking words out of the air for the "vocabulary lesson of the day."

Thus, we have shown how charts and graphs can be used by a language teacher to involve students in actual language learning activities which closely approximate those they will face in one segment of their life in an academic setting, or quite conceivably in other instances as well. The materials used are neither specially prepared nor adapted for students of ESOL. Instead, they are taken from ordinary sources. Charts and graphs are not the only examples of such language teaching aids which are available to the resourceful teacher. All aids of this kind have the advantage of being relevant and real, thus lending themselves to a greater degree of acceptability on the part of the student and teacher alike than many of the artificial and staged exercises often used.

Availability of Topics in
CULTURE LEARNING

Volume 2 of *Topics in Culture Learning* is available at no charge from the Culture Learning Institute at the East-West Center. The volume contains 12 articles related to the Institute's four areas of research interest, "Cultures in Contact", "Languages in Culture", "Cultural Identity" and "Thought and Expression in Culture Learning". The articles also examine one or more of these four themes which transcend the four research areas: Learning one's own culture; learning about another culture; formal educational programs designed to teach one's own culture or about another culture; concepts and issues central to educational programs involving culture learning. Articles are aimed at the general reader rather than a specialist in any one discipline.

The twelve articles are:

The Pacific Cultural Centers Program
by Verner C. Bickley

Psychological Aspects of Cultural Pluralism: Unity and Identity Reconsidered
by John W. Berry

Beyond Cultural Identity: Reflections Upon Cultural and Multicultural Man
by Peter S. Adler

A Swedish Approach to International Communication
by D. Ray Heisey

Looking at Islanders: European Ways of Thinking About Polynesians in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries
by Gavin Daws

Understanding Human Interaction: The Study of Everyday Life and Ordinary Talk
by Karen Ann Watson

The American Way with Names
by H. Van Buren

Display Rules and Facial Affective Behavior: A Theoretical Discussion and Suggestions for Research
by Jerry D. Boucher

Seating as a Measure of Behavior: You Are Where You Sit
by Richard W. Brislin

Hologeistic Studies of Education: A Review
by Walter E. Precourt

The Training of Language Teachers: A Look at the Future
by Peter Strevens

Bilingual Education in the United States, The Pacific and Southeast Asia
by Mark Lester