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TEACHER PREPARATION IN TESOL: A Brief Report on Responses to an International Questionnaire

by Lynn E. Henrichsen

In the spring of 1978, the Communications and Language Arts Division of the Hawaii Campus of Brigham Young University initiated a formal evaluation of the course requirements for its TESL major—preliminary to a revision of those requirements. As part of this evaluation, a questionnaire dealing with the elements perceived as needed in a TESL teacher-training program was developed. Over the summer, five hundred copies of the questionnaire were sent to TESL educators and employers in the United States and nearly fifty foreign countries.

One hundred fifty-three of the questionnaires were returned—a return rate of 31% (acceptable given the circumstances under which the questionnaires were distributed). The return rates for questionnaires from within the United States (30.72%) and those from non-domestic respondents (31.14%) were compared and examined for response bias, but none was found.

Questionnaires were returned from the following areas—a total of thirty different countries:

Mainland U. S. (77)	Sudan (1)
Hawaii (9)	Rhodesia (1)
American Samoa (4)	South Africa (1)
Palau (1)	Egypt (1)
Western Samoa (1)	Saudi Arabia (1)
Tonga (9)	Kuwait (1)
Fiji (1)	Iran (2)
Japan (12)	Belgium (1)
Korea (2)	England (1)
Taiwan (1)	Greece (2)
Philippines (3)	Turkey (1)
Indonesia (2)	USSR (1)
Thailand (4)	Brazil (1)
Bangladesh (1)	Colombia (1)

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India (1)	El Salvador (1)
Pakistan (1)	Mexico (1)
Senegal (1)	Canada (5)

Institutions represented by the respondents covered a broad range also—colleges and universities (91), adult education and military schools (10), commercial language schools and government agencies (25), and public schools at the secondary and administrative levels (26).

Questionnaire recipients were asked to respond to the questionnaire by writing a number indicating their recommendation in front of sixty specific TESL-related topics and four general summarizing areas. A computer summary of all responses is provided in table one (pp. 10-11). Both mean and mode responses for each questionnaire item are indicated.

Certain topics were definitely more popular than others. In the general section, TESL methods and materials (2.758) led, followed by linguistics (2.254), education (1.745), and literature (1.183), in that order.

In the specific areas, ranking the mean responses from high to low results in the following order for the twenty topics considered most important by questionnaire respondents:

1. Specific training in teaching listening comprehension (2.627)
2. Specific training in teaching reading (2.555)
3. Student teaching experience (2.523)
4. Specific training in teaching writing (2.516)
5. Intercultural understanding and awareness (2.503)
6. Special skills in testing and evaluation (2.484)
7. General, introductory linguistics (2.471)
8. Special skills in teaching conversation (2.464)

9.5. Materials selection and evaluation (2.451)

9.5. Language Learning (2.451)

11. Specific training in teaching pronunciation (2.412)
12. Modern english usage (2.372)
13. Phonology (2.255)
14. Language acquisition (2.209)
15. Materials development and production (2.190)
16. Syntax (2.150)
17. Structural grammar (2.026)
18. The audio-lingual method (1.987)
19. Foreign language proficiency (half-way between near-native command and basic competency: 1.523) (1.889)
20. Transformational grammar (1.882)

The ten areas considered least important (or about which respondents had little or no opinion or information), excluding the "other" items which appeared under four categories, were as follows:

47. St. Cloud (Audio-visual) method (0.993)
48. Dialectology (0.928)
49. Literary analysis and criticism (0.869)
50. Suggestopedia (0.856)
51. British literature (0.797)
52. Pidgin and creole languages (0.667)
53. Shakespeare (0.621)
54. Asian literature (0.556)
55. Polynesian literature (0.516)
56. Australian-New Zealand literature (0.477)

Perhaps the safest generalization that can be drawn, based on the relative importance given to questionnaire items by respondents, is that TESL educators and employers throughout the world want teachers trained in the practical aspects of everyday ESL teaching. The demand for training in "methods" is much lower than that for training in specific classroom "techniques." Moreover, it would also seem that audio-lingualism and structural grammar still hold sway in the TESL world and that many of the recently developed methods and grammars have not yet made their mark on the international TESL field. In spite of its prominence in linguistics, transformational grammar barely makes the top twenty, and methods such as The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, and Suggestopedia are far down the list.

The counter-argument to the above is that—whether employers recognize it or not—"there is nothing so practical as a good theory." It is questionable whether teachers

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THE USE OF PERSONAL JOURNALS IN THE TEACHING OF ESOL

by Christine Baker Root

Those of us who are charged with the responsibility of teaching writing and composition skills to students who are learning English as a second language often find that those students have considerable difficulty writing in English with any degree of fluency. Many of them are perplexed, indeed intimidated, by the task of having to write an essay in English. While the standard, traditional means of teaching writing to intermediate and high level ESL students are sometimes effective, these methods frequently fail to help us achieve our teaching goals because of the emotional and psychological obstacles which they often engender. What is needed is an effective, non-threatening vehicle for teaching students to write—a method that will help them overcome their diffidence toward written communication. Having students write and keep personal journals is offered as such a vehicle. The journal is offered as the unstructured counterpart to the structured composition class and is to work in conjunction with the formal teaching of writing.

There are four basic, compelling arguments for adopting daily, out-of-class journal writing as an adjunct to the writing production class. the first and most compelling reason is that it provides an opportunity for daily written communication. The second reason is that because the journal is unstructured and not graded, the students feel comfortable in experimenting with new structural patterns and vocabulary which they, in a formal composition, would not risk. The third reason is that experience shows that as a semester progresses, the journals become significantly longer as well as more experimental. These three reasons lead us empirically to believe that we have achieved our goal: to "loosen up" the students' attitude toward writing in English. The fourth argument for making use of the journal is based on its success in more humanistic terms. The rapport that it very often sets up between the writer and the reader can be an important aspect of second language acquisition.

Not long after I began to teach high-level ESL writing, it became clear to me that too many of the students approached writing in English as drudgery. It also became obvious that some new techniques would have to be implemented if students were ever to be able to write cohesive and natural compositions. It was my hope that journals might be a successful solution, the most compelling argument for their use being that writing is an acquired skill which improves with practice. If the students were to write a short paragraph every day, the idea of writing in English would, theoretically, become less overwhelming. I envisioned the journal as an approximation of a goal rather than a goal in itself, as a means rather than an end. It would be a series of rehearsals for a composition or a vehicle for the practice of new grammatical and organizational patterns, rhetorical devices and vocabulary. It would provide students with an opportunity to "try out" or experiment with those patterns which they were learning both in and out of class, without the consideration of risk and grades.

The mechanics of implementing the journals started with my telling the students that they must write at least one half page, one paragraph, for me everyday. They could write on any topic of their choice. When students expressed difficulty in finding something about which to write, I suggested that they simply discuss their daily activities or tell me their feelings, reactions or impressions of their first weeks in the United States. As the journal idea became more entrenched and as its success became more

evident, my ideas on this issue of "what to write" became more refined. Now I suggest that the students use the journal as a sort of diary to be saved as a souvenir or record of their comments and thoughts about life here. Students like this idea.

The students were also told that I would only read the journals, that I would not pass judgment on them through grades or corrections. I would, I told them, collect them daily and return them the next day. I assured them that I very definitely would read their journals, although I would not mark them. It was not long, however, before the students began to ask me for feedback. They were simply not satisfied knowing that I read the journals; they wanted to know what I thought and whether a particular usage was right or wrong. Since my original intent had been not to grade or correct but to have the journals serve as a completely undisturbed exercise in free writing, I needed a solution to this student-initiated demand for feedback.

One possible solution with which I have been experimenting is simply to make comments and underline the careless errors that I know they can recognize and correct themselves, e.g. errors in verb agreement and spelling. In this way I hope to make the students responsible for their own learning. The question arises, however, whether even that amount of negative teacher feedback renders the journal no longer neutral. Perhaps in the students' minds there is no longer any difference between a journal and a composition.

The issue of whether or not to grade journals is a substantive one deserving serious consideration. There are two viewpoints at issue and they are working against one another. First, we have the students' need for feedback. Secondly, we have the notion that correction stifles spontaneity and naturalness and that it forces the students to spend too much time fretting over spelling, unparallel structure or whatever grammatical point and thereby inhibits the flow of ideas. Morover, some students are disappointed in themselves when they make mistakes; some students are intimidated by risks. There is also research that militates against the use of teacher corrections. Daniel Fader (1976:71) believes very strongly in quantity over quality. He states that content, style, grammar and rhetoric are clearly insignificant in journal writing; the mechanics will fall into place when the student is comfortable and feels natural about his writing. Donald Hall (1976:18-22) is even stronger in his argument that we must allow our students to loosen their minds and disallow "conscious control or focus on an attempt at mechanical perfection." Daily writing, he says, should be working rapidly without trying to impose a direction or necessarily to make a point.

If our goal is the unencumbered flow of ideas in English, it is clear that correcting journals is in itself counterproductive and that the journals are more experimental if nothing negative is pointed out. One possible solution has been advanced by Barry Taylor (in a personal communication). He suggests that we might try pointing out what is right rather than what is wrong and attempt thereby to be much more positive in our remarks. Instructor comments on journals should be qualitatively different from those on compositions. Tell the students that they are making better use of new vocabulary, that they are expressing themselves more clearly or being more logical. Comment that a topic sentence is good or an idea clever and well put. In this way the student is never told that he did something wrong. His self-confidence is no longer undermined in his attempts at innovation. In short, he is encouraged. To many students, writing is a mystery; telling them what they did right can be every bit as illuminating as telling them what they did wrong. We must not make the mistake of assuming that they realize it when they do something right. Critical to the success of this approach is a conscientious explanation of the purpose of the journal. It must be emphasized to the students that this is not a disciplined writing but a free writing and that grammar and its accouterments are not at issue here; the clear flow of ideas is the end goal of this exercise. The first and most salient reason for incorporating the journal is that it offers a daily, free writing exercise.

The second major reason for endorsing the journal is that it works hand in hand with classroom instruction. Because the students are not placed in a threatening

situation, they do experiment with incorporating new vocabulary and organizational, structural and rhetorical patterns of which they are unsure. They then reinforce what they have learned. I have seen students in my classes rehearse the use of the semicolon and the referential "such," for example, in journals and then, when satisfied and comfortable with their proper application, use them in compositions.

The third compelling reason to include the journals as an integral part of the writing class is that they make writing in English easier. We can see evidence of this fact in that the journals begin to assume the length and character of compositions as the semester progresses. Students very often begin writing journals with paragraph delineation, an introduction and a conclusion. It would seem then that the journals, and by extension writing in English, have become less troublesome.

The fourth reason to consider implementing the journal is a more humanistic but no less cogent one. The personal relationship that the journal engenders works in two ways. First, it offers students the occasion to talk about matters of a personal or critical nature with a guarantee of confidentiality. They know that their innermost thoughts will not be compromised. By students' own testimony, there is a sense of confidence and security derived from knowing that they have a confidant. Secondly, in learning the students' private thoughts and problems, the teacher is in a better position to deal with his/her students as individuals and meet their individual needs. Hence the benefits accrue in both directions.

Because foreign students too often approach writing in English as a chore, they have great difficulty in working toward a successive, progressive delineation of the end goal—clear and effective written communication. If we as teachers accept that writing is an acquired skill and if we believe that it must be practiced daily, we must provide our students with a field such as the journal on which to work toward that goal. In first supplying a ready topic for writing, secondly providing a non-threatening vehicle for the practice of mechanics and thirdly luring students to loosen up and write more while at the same time allowing for a gratifying relationship to develop, the journal does deal with these fundamental needs of the student.

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RELC REGIONAL SEMINAR

Acquisition of Bilingual Ability and Patterns of Bilingualism with Special Reference to Southeast Asian Contexts.

Singapore, 16-21 April 1979

The Regional Language Centre (RELC) of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) will hold its 14th regional seminar, 16-21 April 1979, in Singapore. The theme of the seminar is "Acquisition of Bilingual Ability and Patterns of Bilingualism with Special Reference to Southeast Asian Contexts."

The objectives of the seminar are:

To review developments in research on bilingualism and bilingual education

To provide a forum for the exchange of experience among educators and researchers from within and outside the SEAMEO region

To identify areas of multilingualism that can be usefully researched in those areas which would be of practical value to existing programmes

Abstracts are invited on topics relevant to the theme of the seminar. For further information and invitations to participate in the seminar, please write to:

Dr. Evangelos A. Afendras, Chairman
Seminar Planning Committee
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30 Orange Grove Road
Singapore 10
Rupublic of Singapore

TEACHING WRITTEN ENGLISH TO ADULT ESL STUDENTS: Some Critical Annotations of Current Teacher Materials

by Diana Mae Sims

In a recent article in the *TESL Reporter* ("Distinctive Features of Written English," Summer 1978), Lynn E. Henrichsen noted a renewed interest in the teaching of writing skills and called the attention of ESL teachers to the characteristics of written English vis-à-vis spoken English. Characteristics were categorized in three ways: differences in medium, differences in time, and differences in distance. Under medium, a primary difference is described in this way:

> The first of these differences is that a system of writing and conventions of spelling must be learned, a rather formidable task in English but one which cannot be overlooked or passed over lightly in teaching ESL, especially in the case of students whose native writing system is not the Roman alphabet. When the orthographic system reflects the phonological system of the language as imperfectly as it does in English, instruction in this area is particularly important.

The implication is that ESL students of the writing system of English must learn a system of orthography which is so "imperfect" in its relation to English sound that instruction about spelling conventions is very important. Of course, mastery of English orthography is essential to students not only in writing English but also in reading it.

During the past decade, however, linguists have proposed that the spelling of English is a polysystematic reflection of the sound system of English. Obviously, knowledge of this relationship aids in reading, writing, and pronouncing written English. Theorists Noam Chomsky and Morris Halle (1968:49, *et passim)* have described this relationship, and educators Wayne B. Dickerson and Rebecca H. Finney (1978) applied spelling information of this kind to the development of ESL curriculum.

If, then, ESL teachers are to be able to "develop in the speaker the additional skills necessary for good writing" (Henrichsen: 1978, 1), they need a familiarity with recent research as well as traditional pedagogy in the field to date. From this point of view, a representative array of TESL materials in use for teaching written English is examined below. A number of texts and essays, both theoretical and methodological, are annotated in chronological order:

1. Lado, Robert. *Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach.* New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc. 1964. *Language Teaching* is a classic in TESL. Lado's philosophy about written English is that it involves "Fit" (134), "associating the graphemes and the (spoken) language" by means of phonic generalizations and lists of exceptions. Although Lado feels that "the fit of English writing is very poor," he offers no pedagogical help other than admonishing that "nothing can be more deadening than having to recite all the exceptions to a rule" (136). As an example of poor fit, Lado cites the "irregularity" of (k) as both "K and CH as in king, chemistry." This view overlooks the way that the spelling KING follows the English orthographic system (according to Sims, 1978) and CHEMISTRY reflects a Greek etymology.

2. Schane, Sanford A. "Linguistics, Spelling and Pronunciation." *TESOL Quarterly* 4 (June 1970): 137-141. Sanford Schane's paper is an early notice of the interface between TESL and generative phonology. It perceptively calls for the development of TESL instructional materials which apply the systematic nature of English spelling to the teaching of reading and writing to second-language learners.

3. Chomsky, Carol. "Reading, Writing, and Phonology." *Harvard Educational Review 40* (May 1970): 287-309. Carol Chomsky's article has been frequently cited and anthologized (it appears, for example, in Mark Lester's *Readings in Applied Transformational Grammar).* It is perhaps the best short explanation of generative phonology and its application to the teaching of written English. Chomsky's discussion is important and useful, especially for non-linguists.

4. Hale, Thomas M., and Buder, Eva C. "Are TESOL Classes the Only Answer?" *Modern Language Journal,* 56 (1970): 487-492. Hale and Buder report experimental research showing significantly greater success in TESL among students totally immersed in English and isolated from speakers of their mother tongue. Especially relevant to reading ESL is their finding of student difficulty after the age of puberty with the low-level sound rules of English (thus, with the relationship between English spelling and sound).

Hale and Buder's article is reprinted in *Focus on the Learner* (Oller and Richards, pp. 290-300), which has an entire section on aspects of second-language learning.

5. Wilkins, D. A. *Linguistics in Language Teaching.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press, 1972. Wilkins (62-67) succinctly describes for non-linguists the present standard theory of generative phonology. In dismissing this theory as having no pedagogical value, however, the author restricts generative theory to pronunciation and fails to note its applicability to reading and writing. Thus, he remarks on the use of alternating forms in teaching English whereby "the learner might be required to repeat, with phonetic accuracy, sequences" such as ALTERNATE / ALTERNATIVE / ALTERATION (66). Other than pronunciation drill and extensive reading, though, Wilkins makes no suggestions for teaching the spelling system of English.

6. Finocchiaro, Mary. *English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice.* New ed. New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc., 1974. Finocchiaro, an indefatigable worker in the field of TESL, presents essentially an audio-lingual approach to methods and materials in this widely-used text. Although calling for the inclusion of rationalist-cognitive theory in language pedagogy (18), she suggests techniques for teaching written English which reflect a preoccupation with surface structures. For example, Finocchiaro (76) believes that "it is only after students can say material with reasonable fluency that they should be permitted to see it." Indeed, reading consists "of making sounds in our throat. We read faster, therefore, if we know how to say the sounds." Such tenets have been disputed by other reading specialists (e.g., Chomsky, C., *supra*).

7. Wardhaugh, Ronald. *Topics in Applied Linguistics.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1974. Anyone involved in TESL should read *Topics in Applied Linguistics,* Parts 2 and 3, on spelling and reading. Wardhaugh demonstrates how an understanding of generative phonology can be applied to mastery of the English writing system. He stresses the morphophonemic character of English spelling where "letters are used to represent sounds in ways which preserve important morphemic units" (25).

Wardhaugh's survey also contains a cogent and telling critique of phonics. Included is an explication of the well-known analysis of English spelling patterns by Venezky (1967). Venezky's analysis and, in turn, Wardhaugh's are notable because they point out how information on English phonology and orthography, integrated with phonics, can contribute to reading and writing theory.

8. Dixson, Robert J. *Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language.* New ed. New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc., 1975. In the treatment of the writing system of English, Dixson's text has some questionable features. For instance, it contains an assertion about the pronunciation of CH which is not altogether true:

> Ch in English clearly represents the initial sound in church and child. It is a sound not easily confused with any other. (89)

Other potentially confusing sounds of CH are overlooked: [š], as in MACHINE, and [k], as in MECHANIC. Moreover, while the

Guide states that [č] is clearly represented by CH, this sound can also be represented by T, as in Natural, and TCH, as in DITCH. Indeed, the other sounds for CH and spellings for [č] are not infrequent in English.

Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language also contains a questionable statement about S. The instance occurs in its closing remarks:

> In many English words containing s in medial position, the s remains unvoiced and is pronounced as s. Examples are master [maester], last [læst]. In others, it is voiced and pronounced like z. Examples are busy [bɪzi], reason [rɪzən]. Since English spelling gives no indication in any of these words as to how the s is to be pronounced, the foreign student is naturally confused. . . . Most students need long and continuous drill. (108)

This sort of attack on English orthography has been questioned by transformational-generative linguists. Chomsky and Halle (1968:49, *et passim*) and others have pointed out how English spelling, when considered with phonological rules, is, in fact, revealing of pronunciation. Especially predictable is the rule which voices /s/ to /z/, as in the alternation SIDE/RESIDE.

9. Chastain, Kenneth. *Developing Second Language Skills: Theory to Practice.* 2nd ed. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1976. Chastain's methods text is a comprehensive discussion of research on TESL and of the psychology of teaching. It relies on phonics and suggests that instruction in phonic generalizations precede reading or writing activities (309). "The connection between the sound and its written symbol" must first be established, according to Chastain, and writing requires the same kind of readiness:

> The first step that students should take in learning to spell what they hear is to learn the different graphemes possible for each sound and the context in which each occurs. The teacher should isolate these graphemes and present them one at a time in the early stages of writing. (368)

Chastain assumes that English has a phonetic writing system. Thus, with respect to TESL, the text is a kind of pedagogy which has proved wanting even for native-speaking students.

10. Mazurkiewicz, Albert J. *Teaching about Phonics.* New York: St. Martin's Press, Inc., 1976. *Teaching about Phonics* is a methods text for teachers and prospective teachers. According to its preface, Chapters 2, 3, and 4 are useful in TESL. In using the phoneme as a group of related sounds, and in emphasizing sounds as keys to meaning, its approach is typically structural or descriptive. Thirty phonic rule-generalizations for print-sound relationships and a list of phonemes of English are proposed for teaching the writing system of English.

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11. Paulston, Christina Bratt, and Bruder, Mary Newton. *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures.* Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1976. In this methods text two well-known TESL educators, Paulston and Bruder, advocate "word study" for reading skill. The technique involves practice in recognizing derivational suffixes and lexical "word classes" as keys to "the decoding of words" (189). Thus, their concentration is not on the morphological relatedness of forms to underlying representations and to orthography. Instead, it is on suffixes attached to related forms of a morphologically-related set. While the text pinpoints morphology as the area contributing to reading success, it fails to exploit knowledge about spelling as one means for improving reading skill.

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"The Psycho-Social Barrier" Revisited

by Drew and Debbie Dillon

The Antipodes Again

As avid and long-time students of things Japanese, we read with great interest "The Japanese Psycho-Social Barrier in Learning English," by Fred J. Edamatsu, in the fall 1978 issue of *TESL Reporter.* Mr. Edamatsu's views are characteristic of a popular school of Japanese thought whose eternal mission seems to consist in perpetuating the very problems it tries to solve. Readers should know that arguments such as Mr. Edamatsu's regularly find their way into popular Japanese publications and are often dutifully and, sad to say, uncritically adopted by students of English seeking to articulate the frustrations of learning an alien tongue.

Although Mr. Edamatsu's somewhat opaque language makes for rough reading, he seems to pursue the following line of reasoning:

A. Language and culture are inseparable.

B. Western culture and Japanese culture are irredeemably alien to one another.

Therefore

C. It is inevitable that the Japanese student will have a peculiarly difficult time learning the English language.

Having established C to his own satisfaction, Mr. Edamatsu suggests that awareness of this "psycho-social barrier" is the key to overcoming the difficulties it poses.

Clearly, there is considerable room for discussion concerning the validity of assumptions A and B. We choose here, however, to present some practical considerations immediately pertinent to Edamatsu's conclusion, which we find to be unnecessarily pessimistic.

Psycho-Social Advantages

We feel that the culture and idiom of a student from any country provide him with *both* advantages and disadvantages when it comes to learning a new language. Mr. Edamatsu has gone to great lengths to describe the social and psychological difficulties with which Japanese students of English must struggle. We would like to help balance the picture by outlining certain advantages enjoyed by these same students in their pursuit of competence in the English language.

Certain features of Japanese culture and the Japanese mind actually favor the assimilation of "English patterns of perception" and the development of foreign language skills. By way of example, we have grouped some of these into four categories:

1. Literacy
2. Familiarity with modern technology
3. Motivation
4. Discipline

In order to illustrate these features, let us consider the case of the "typical" Japanese student of English. We shall call him Mr. Tanaka.

Japan's is a highly literate society that places great value on learning and achievement. Mr. Tanaka has grown up in a world of books and facts, of language used both for artistic and communicative purposes. The Japanese have great reverence for the written language and for their sophisticated literary tradition. Mr. Tanaka began learning to read and write his own language at an early age. He worked very hard when he was a student in high school and college. He knows what it means to own books, to study them, to listen to lectures, to take notes and to assimilate new ideas. The rigorous Japanese educational system and constant contact with the written word have left Mr. Tanaka better prepared than students from many other countries to succeed in an academic program of English studies.

Mr. Tanaka lives in a large and modern Japanese city, where the latest technological tools and processes are as much a part of his daily life and language as in any part of the English-speaking world. His home is filled

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Summary of Responses to

Responses coded according to the following system:

3 = considered extremely important
2 = considered somewhat important
1 = considered not very important, but desirable
0 = not important or not desirable
blank = no opinion or information

	MEAN	BREAKDOWN OF RESPONSES (Mode in boldface)				
EDUCATION		BLANK	ZERO	ONE	TWO	THREE
Educational Psychology	1.830	14	11	31	42	**55**
Developmental Psychology	1.327	27	15	43	**44**	24
Curriculum Development	1.824	17	6	28	**55**	47
Instructional Media	1.549	21	8	42	**51**	31
Other (specify)	0.216	**136**	3	2	5	7
LINGUISTICS						
General, Introductory Linguistics	2.471	9	1	11	29	**103**
Phonology (Phonetics & Phonemics)	2.255	14	0	16	40	**83**
Morphology	1.824	25	3	25	46	**54**
Syntax	2.150	19	1	16	38	**79**
Semantics	1.725	24	3	28	**58**	40
Sociolinguistics	1.856	20	7	23	48	**55**
Pidgin and Creole Languages	0.667	39	42	**49**	16	7
Dialectology	0.928	32	28	**54**	29	10
Bilingualism	1.405	26	11	44	**45**	27
Bilingual Education	1.288	25	18	**48**	37	25
Psycholinguistics	1.791	20	8	26	49	**50**
Language Acquisition	2.209	14	4	14	39	**82**
Language Learning	2.451	11	1	10	28	**103**
GRAMMARS						
Traditional	1.582	26	7	34	**50**	36
Structural	2.026	15	4	16	**60**	58
Transformational	1.882	17	8	23	50	**55**
Other (specify)	0.399	**126**	3	4	3	17
Modern English Usage	2.372	12	2	8	38	**93**
LITERATURE						
General Literary Background	1.686	18	12	38	35	**50**
Literary Analysis and Criticism	0.869	34	36	**46**	24	13
Shakespeare	0.621	40	45	**47**	15	6
British Literature	0.797	33	39	**49**	23	9
American Literature	1.000	29	29	**50**	32	13
Modern Literature	1.098	31	22	**47**	38	15
Australian–New Zealand Literature	0.477	47	**51**	42	8	5
Asian Literature	0.556	46	**47**	38	19	3
Polynesian Literature	0.516	47	**51**	38	10	7
Other Literature (specify)	0.333	**103**	24	9	9	8

BYU-HC TESL Questionnaire

TESL / TEFL METHODS						
Grammar Translation	1.117	31	**36**	27	33	26
Audio-Lingual	1.987	19	4	23	40	**67**
"Cognitive Code"	1.817	36	2	17	33	**65**
The Silent Way	1.314	37	13	35	**38**	30
Counseling Learning	1.346	**42**	7	32	**42**	30
Suggestopedia	0.856	**56**	19	41	21	16
St. Cloud (Audio-Visual)	0.993	**57**	12	37	26	21
Total Physical Response	1.105	**50**	13	35	31	24
Situational Reinforcement	1.588	36	8	22	40	**47**
Aural Approach (Winitz & Reed)	1.176	**57**	8	24	36	28
Other (specify)	0.510	**122**	3	2	2	24
TESL / TEFL MATERIALS						
Materials Selection & Evaluation	2.451	18	0	1	28	**106**
Materials Development & Production	2.190	22	0	10	38	**83**
SPECIFIC TRAINING						
Pronunciation	2.412	14	1	7	31	**100**
Conversation	2.464	12	2	6	28	**105**
Listening Comprehension	2.627	10	1	2	20	**120**
Reading	2.555	10	1	7	21	**114**
Writing	2.516	10	1	7	27	**108**
Literature	1.190	24	24	**45**	43	17
Drama	1.209	20	21	**55**	41	16
Student Teaching Experience	2.523	10	4	6	19	**114**
SPECIAL SKILLS						
Supervision & Administration	1.196	29	16	**48**	45	15
Foreign Language Proficiency	1.889	21	6	26	37	**63**
What level of proficiency*	1.523	45	0	20	**51**	37
Intercultural Understanding	2.503	11	1	7	26	**108**
Language Lab Operation	1.549	17	6	45	**63**	22
Testing and Evaluation	2.484	6	0	5	51	**91**
GENERAL						
Education	1.745	15	6	32	**65**	35
Literature	1.183	12	25	**62**	43	11
Linguistics	2.254	9	1	14	56	**73**
TESL Methods & Materials	2.758	8	0	0	13	**132**

*1=Near Native Command, 2=Basic Competency, 3=Some Knowledge

A DIRECTED READING APPROACH

by Jeffrey Butler

Reading teacher. Are those words mutually exclusive, like painless dentistry or lowered taxes? Can reading, a private, non-observable, largely unconscious act be taught by print proctors who know little about electro-chemical brain processes, and even less about what constitutes a human thought? Or are symbol-message interconnections best facilitated by reading coaches who prepare their charges with reading drills before sending them out to learn inductively by facing the dreaded print jabberwock one-on-one? Teachers or coaches, which are we?

I hope the answer is that we are teachers, those who systematically approach reading instruction with intellectual skill and a humane sense of experimental artistry. No doubt, like coaches, we provide drills and motivate our mental athletes with pavlovian aplomb through scores and grades. But if drilling and rewarding are most of what we do, then we might as well be replaced by reading machines customized with programmed reinforcement messages which say, "Your intelligence excites my circuits," or "Even as a machine that answer offends me."

It is my contention that reading teachers, of a second language or otherwise, will find their jobs supplemented rather than supplanted by machines only as long as they understand some realities about reading and have a systematic teaching approach which integrates these realities into practice. What follows is a brief discussion of both.

Reality 1. Reading is only one part of a larger languaging process. Listening, speaking and writing are also parts of languaging and, along with reading, interact with and reinforce one another. This means that talking, listening, and writing about reading techniques and materials help a student become a skillful reader, and are justifiable learning activities in a TESL reading classroom. Conversely, if these other languaging processes are not used to supplement print person one-on-oneness, reading skill development will not be facilitated.

Reality 2. Reading in any language is a process of recording, decoding, and encoding information which leads to comprehension.

Recording suggests that a student needs to develop sensitivity to key informational elements within a printed piece and a method for retaining that information.

Decoding means that a reader must convert the information he has gleaned from a written text into a set of ideas which he comprehends. Vocabulary and contextual comprehension must be symbiotic to one another for decoding to occur. A reading teacher does not have a choice of which of these skills to teach. They are interrelated and must be taught together.

Encoding is reorganizing information into prioritized arrangements. The success of this reorganization, or synthesis, can be estimated through post reading discussions and tests. In fact, discussions and tests will frequently crystallize encoded concepts by verifying student assumptions about idea relationships and conclusions to be drawn from them.

Reality 3. While reading skills are transferrable from content to content, comprehension may not be. That is, in spite of using similar reading strategies in two or more subject areas, the reader cannot expect to comprehend all of the material equally well. To a TESL reading teacher who is preparing his students to matriculate in an English speaking institution, this principle is important. It suggests that a reading program should emphasize core concepts, scientific approaches, and the specialized jargon of the several general education disciplines to which the student will be exposed. Without this focused preparation, even a moderately successful ESL reading student may not be able to effectively assimilate general education subject material.

Reality 4. Teacher-student interfacing is essential at several stages in the reading instruction process. Perhaps one reason why reading teachers are surviving the development of intelligently programmed reading

machines is that learners frequently need feedback for which there are no programs. This dialogic function is probably the most important pedagogical resource a teacher brings with him to the teaching of reading. Traditionally, much of this mental interaction occurs during post reading discussions and tests. The teaching approach which follows explains how and why teacher-student dialogue is necessary at other reading process stages as well.

The Directed Reading Approach. The teaching technique which follows is called a Directed Reading Approach, or DRA. The words in this title bear brief discussion because they represent not so much a label as a description of one method for extending and refining reading skills.

Directed Reading Approaches range along a continuum from high-moderate-low teacher involvement. The pedagogical decision determining the amount of structure is a function of student skill or readiness tempered by teaching style. ESL students, because they often deal with unfamiliar vocabulary items, strange rhetorical patterns, and new learning concepts, require greater structure at the early stages of their academic careers than later when their reading repertoires are more sophisticated.

Writing teachers generally acknowledge writing to be the product of a three-part process, the stages of which are commonly labeled prewriting, writing, and post writing. Reading, the introverted consumer of writing's extroverted productivity, is also a process with which teacher and student can interact at three stages: prereading, reading, and post reading. This is not to suggest that reading itself is composed only of three stages. There is considerable academic research and debate over what constitutes the thought processes which comprise reading. The phases labeled here, however, do represent teaching stages during which an instructor can perform his dialogic function.

"Approach" implies the wide spectrum of teaching styles and techniques which can be brought to a reading lesson. It represents the openended creativity with which a teacher complements the written text. A description of some approaches used within the framework of a Directed Reading Approach follows.

Far too often reading tests are guessing games. Students read slowly for these tests, hanging on every word or idea because they do not know what the questions will be. In the Directed Reading Approach, however, students are primed and focused during the prereading phase. The teacher often begins the lesson by listing vocabulary with which students may have difficulty. These words can be introduced individually through prefix-root-suffix analysis, synonymn identification, spelling makeup, or through any other word isolation technique designed to meet the lesson objectives. It is not uncommon for an instructor to ask students to group these words according to categories they determine themselves, and then use these categories for a prereading discussion of potential concepts to be found in the reading. Frequently, the title of the reading selection is discussed in relation to the vocabulary items and categories in this early stage of developing reader readiness.

The prereading stage offers the opportunity to present the reader with content questions for his consideration while he reads. Searching for the answers to these questions will give the reader a preconceived focus for reading. It should not be supposed that, armed with questions which indicate the teacher's priorities, a student will merely skim or scan material looking only for the answers. He may quickly find factual material, but interpretational questions requiring analysis, syntheses, and evaluation will not be so obvious. Giving the reader these questions in advance, however, will reduce ineffectual exploration and speed up

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prioritized induction of key concepts.

One key to understanding content, particularly in a narrative reading or one with chronological ordering, is a time line written by the student. Along this line he marks the sequential occurrence of events in the reading. The simple act of organizing events along a time continuum reinforces student understanding of order and, when completed, gives him a ready made form for overall review of his material. Similar techniques can be adapted for idea or structural analysis of other holistic rhetorical forms and internal organizational patterns.

As a concluding step in prereading, a student should be directed toward reading process objectives, methods of attacking the reading material. Aside from requesting that the student overview, or skim, supplemental markers, subheads, captions, pictures, illustrations, graphs, etc., before he reads, the teacher should suggest the type of reading to be done and a timed rate to be met. Types of reading range from scanning, or rapid identification of predetermined facts, to study reading where a majority of the ideas in a selection are read or considered carefully. It should be noted that to become efficient readers, students do not need to read every word in a selection. Further, they should be able to adapt their reading techniques and rate to the material and the purpose, reading more or less and faster or slower according to their needs. These two points, though obvious to seasoned readers, are frequently overlooked by grade conscious students generally, and more frequently overlooked by linguistically naive second language readers.

The second, or reading stage, of a Directed Reading Approach will clearly have been somewhat determined by careful prereading preparation. Guided by questions, supplemented by vocabulary comprehension, and regimented by reading technique, the student can frequently negotiate the reading material by himself. Although the teacher's silence during the reading phase may suggest that he is not a participant, he nevertheless is a key contributor to content comprehension because he has set the agenda. Occasionally a teacher may orally read a part or all of a selection. Oral reading, though traditionally frowned upon in a college setting, is particularly important for ESL students. By hearing and seeing words simultaneously, they learn inflection, pronunciation, word recognition, and contextual understanding, all of which are essential to second language acquisition. In more advanced ESL classes, where students have greater than hesitant control over the language, they may occasionally read to one another.

Post reading is a time for debriefing. The reading teacher should probe his students to see the extent of their understanding. Not only should he ask students to share the answers to prereading questions, frequently requiring them to show evidence within the text for their conclusions, but he should ask other questions as well. These additional questions should expand upon the original questions requiring the reader to flesh out concepts stated by or implied within the text. Frequently, these questions should require the readers to manipulate the newly acquired ideas by evaluating them against circumstances or concepts beyond those in the reading. These demonstrations of mental agility will help reinforce the material and prepare the reader for more sophisticated concepts to be encountered in subsequent readings.

ESL readers should again review the vocabulary presented earlier in the prereading step during the post reading. This discussion should reinforce original definitions in light of their contextual settings. One advantage of contextual vocabulary review is to identify frequent connotative shifts in word interpretation caused by the larger sentence-paragraph-page structures in which these words sit. Another advantage of further vocabulary consideration is to allow students to identify additional unfamiliar words which the instructor may have overlooked while previewing the material.

Finally, a post reading debriefing should discuss the process of reading. The teacher should find out how well students met predetermined reading technique and rate goals. If the word register or concept level was too sophisticated for the students, reading will have been an unsettling and painful experience. A reading teacher needs to know how his material was received so

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Psycho-Social Barrier Revisited

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with modern electrical appliances and his wife shops in a well-stocked supermarket. He takes a subway to work and an elevator up to his fifth floor office. He knows at least as much as the average American about space research, solar energy, frozen foods and smog. And his familiarity with science and technology is more than skin deep, for he has more than likely learned as much about Western history and philosophy as have most Americans. The fact that the Japanese language has freely borrowed thousands of English words and expressions (e.g. "escalator," "television," "inflation," "microwave," etc.) bears further testimony to the close relationship between modern "Western" culture and life in contemporary Japan. Clearly, then, as Mr. Tanaka approaches the English language, his understanding of the way the world works turns out, in many respects, to be entirely appropriate.

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We have noted above that learning and achievement of any kind are very highly valued and encouraged in modern Japanese society. This observation alone goes a long way to explain why Japanese students of English are highly motivated. Such motivation further benefits from the characteristically exalted status accorded English and things American in Japanese society. It is instructive to note the extraordinary degree to which the most common objects (e.g. handkerchiefs, notebooks, T-shirts, etc.) can be made attractive to young Japanese by the conspicuous addition of a few printed English words. Profound interest in the English language is by no means restricted to the younger generation, however. Mr. Tanaka recognizes that English is an international language whose acquisition may well enhance his opportunities for job promotion. His company, like many others, actively encourages its employees to study English by giving them time off and paying their tuition. As Mr. Tanaka makes progress in his acquisition of English, he is more likely to be congratulated than "ostracized," as Mr. Edamatsu would have us believe.

Growing up in Japan, Mr. Tanaka has, as a matter of course, developed a strong sense of personal discipline. In a thousand different ways, he has learned the value of perseverence and tenacity of purpose. As a young adult, he set numerous specific goals for himself--what university he would attend, what he would study, where he would get a job, how much money he would save and when he would marry. He adheres unswervingly to these goals until some major setback or failure forces a change. When he realizes the inevitability of change, he devotes himself, with great resiliance, to an appropriate new goal. Difficult to discourage, he is somewhat uncomfortable in the face of "positive reinforcement" and is always striving to improve his performance. He will work tirelessly for long hours until he is satisfied that a task is completed. In this respect, Mr. Tanaka makes an ideal student. He studies long and hard, devoting much time and energy to the pursuit of success. He takes criticism well and is undaunted by repeated failure. On reaching a learning plateau, students of other nationalities often become discouraged, which results in reduced effort and a lack of visible improvement. Even when similarly discouraged, however, Mr. Tanaka continues to strive for perfection.

Concluding Remarks

We think we understand what Mr. Edamatsu is talking about, and have often noted in our Japanese students characteristics which might well be attributable to some sort of "psycho-social barrier." In many respects, Japanese are indeed "unique," but so are Vietnamese, Germans, Tongans, Greeks and Hottentots. Try as we might, we cannot persuade ourselves that any "psycho-social barriers" peculiar to the Japanese are significantly responsible for the difficulties they encounter in trying to

learn English.

There are numerous other reasons why many Japanese may fail to achieve dazzling proficiency in the English language. Many of these have to do with the rather sorry state of English teaching in Japan. We would like to see Mr. Edamatsu consider, for example, the effects of:

- antiquated and inappropriate teaching methods,
- a chronic unwillingness to weed out incompetent teachers,
- a lack of trained native-speaker instructors, and
- a traditional student-teacher relationship which is not conducive to the development of oral skills in a living language.

Perhaps the most unnecessary, and therefore most unfortunate aspect of all this, is that arguments of the type espoused by Mr. Edamatsu enjoy enormous popularity among the Japanese themselves, who seem to derive great solace from the suggestion that their difficulties with the English language are not really their fault. We fear that, far from promoting a constructive "awareness" of the problem, Mr. Edamatsu's article and others like it serve only to perpetuate the sort of fatalism which condemns language learners to unending despair.

READING

(continued from page 14)

that he can intelligently decide which selection to present next. In the most extreme cases, he may be required to give students extensive practice in word attack and word meaning skills before they again read material of commensurate sophistication. In other cases, the textbooks may have to be reselected to meet both the content and reading readiness levels of the students. Texts do not facilitate learning, regardless of their content relevancy, if they cannot be read.

It is hoped that by applying a Directed Reading Approach to the teaching of reading, an ESL reading teacher will have a workable tool. With it he should move students toward becoming autonomous readers. Recognizing that using this approach will require him to be intimately familiar with his assigned material and individual student's abilities, the reading teacher should also realize that his systematized efforts must also be patterned according to predetermined learning objectives. Applying the Structured Reading Approach sensitively and consistently, the ESL instructor will become a part of the reading process. He will become a reading teacher.

BOOK REVIEW

Dykstra, Gerald, project director. *Composition: Guided → Free,* Programs 5-8.

Teachers College Press, Columbia University New York, 1978.

Paperback $1.50 each. Kit of five (includes teacher's manual) $6.75.

Teachers who have used levels one through four of *Composition: Guided → Free* with success will welcome the arrival of levels five through eight of the same series. Others, who have been in agreement with guided composition theory but who have had misgivings about using the first four books (designed for students in the elementary grades) because of their juvenile character will receive books five through eight with relief.

Originally published in 1974, the first four levels of *Composition: Guided → Free* were billed as "part of a comprehensive series in twelve levels." The second four levels now available give no indication if or when levels nine through twelve will be published.

Whatever the fate of the upper four levels of *Composition: Guided → Free* levels five through eight are a welcome addition to the series, overcoming many of the objections to the previously available levels. The writing models treat more sophisticated

adult topics and should satisfy the tastes of secondary school and adult education students. There is also a greater variety of writing model topics in levels five through eight than is found in the lower levels. This variety may be due to the variety of authors. Models in the level five book (Carol Jankowski, author) center around the history of the United States. Level six (Lois Morton, author) contains a variety of topics, from tourism and Thomas Edison to Mayan civilization and mountain climbing. Level seven (Hafiz Baghban, author) is made up of traditional style folk tales from Afganistan. And level eight (Alice Pack, author), like level six, covers a potpourri of topics, from pole vaulting and job seeking to learning a new language and making bread.

Of course, there are also many similarities between the lower and upper level books. The first thing that meets the examiner's eye is their similar format (8" by 5½") and the same brightly colored paperback binding.

TESL Reporter

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BATESL program of the Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus.

Editor . . . . . Alice C. Pack
Staff . . . . . Lynn Henrichsen
Greg Larkin
James Ford

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, Brigham Young University–Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

Inside the books' covers, the similarities continue. Levels five through eight are based on the same combination of learning and linguistic theory that supports the first four levels. The emphasis is still on learning to write by writing and on the students' successful, step-by-step attainment of specific, predetermined goals. Several advantages of the theory and its resultant materials are mentioned in the teacher's manual, among them the fact that success in achieving writing goals is possible for students at all levels–even beginners–and that, in spite of the abundance of writing practice provided for students, the teacher's burden of correction work is relatively light.

In essence, each book is a collection of writing models accompanied by a set of sequenced goals presented as tasks or steps. It is considered a "tool for eliciting writing practice controlled in such a way that the student is always capable of writing error-free papers." The steps, including copying, simple substitutions, gender changes, number changes, person changes, tense changes, mood changes, conditional changes, direct and indirect speech, negation, questions, voice changes, combining sentences, lexical changes, expansions, inventions, and–finally–choosing a topic and writing on it, increase in difficulty as control decreases. Upper level books cover the easier tasks in a few steps and then focus on more advanced skills.

Personal experience with the books in the classroom has shown that students still have problems making the final leap (somewhere between steps thirty-five and forty) from loosely controlled to completely free writing. However, in spite of this drawback, *Composition: Guided → Free*–with its large number of gradual steps, variety of models, individualized self-pacing, comprehensible instructions for the students, near-comprehensive coverage of the grammatical features of English, and pleasant packaging–remains definitely superior to the other guided-composition writing texts that have been produced since the guided-composition idea was developed over a decade ago.[1]

Lynn E. Henrichsen

[1]Gerald Dykstra and Christina Bratt Paulston, "Guided Composition," *English Language Teaching*, January 1967.

Teaching Written English to Adults

(continued from page 8)

12. Saville-Troike, Muriel. *Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language: Theory and Method for Multicultural Education.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey; Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976. The discussion of phonology in this methods text centers on phonemes, allophones, and the sounds of spoken English. This descriptive interest extends to a theory of the English writing system built on spelling-sound correspondence. For instance, the text states the following about orthography:

> A student of any age learning English must learn to hear, and then produce, twenty-four distinctive consonant sounds. The symbol used for each of these phonemes is . . . sometimes different from the symbol which represents the sound in conventional spelling. (34)

As an example, the spelling symbol for [č] in NATURE is T instead of CH, "the symbol which represents the sound in conventional spelling." Consequently, the text suggests teaching phonics to ESL students as a key to reading (113).

Aside from advocating phonic techniques, the text contains some provocative exercises for instruction in English orthography. The author suggests that ESL students, using a printed passage, search for words having a specific sound. Then they analyze their lists for alphabetical sequences of the sound, so that "spelling regularities [are] induced in class discussion" (112). Beyond suggesting a phonics approach, however, the author is never specific about what these "regularities" are.

13. Diller, Karl C. *The Language Teaching Controversy.* 2nd ed. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1978. Diller espouses a rationalist approach to language and asserts his propositions in strong terms. His theoretical work *Generative Grammar, Structural Linguistics, and Language Teaching* (1971) is now in a new edition entitled *The Language Teaching Controversy.* It has relevance to TESL as a succinct overview of the schism between structural and generative approaches to second-language teaching which has characterized and divided second-language pedagogy.

Diller's view is that readers and writers of English must have a productive command of language structures. Diller praises the "direct method," in which ESL students learn the writing system (i.e., spelling system) of English from the outset of instruction. The direct method involves study of the sound system of English as a prerequisite to reading and writing proficiency.

14. Downing, John. "Linguistic Awareness, English Orthography and Reading Instruction." *Journal of Reading Behavior,* 10 (Spring 1978): 103-114. Downing summarizes traditional and new views of the basis for English spelling. He argues for an understanding of the historical development of English spelling principles as a basis for instruction in reading. Phonic instruction, believes Downing, should be supplemented with "an intelligent understanding of why English words are written the way they are" (114). While not focused toward TESL, this survey is important to ESL teachers because second-language learners also must master spelling principles of English. An excellent reference list follows Downing's paper.

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TESL Questionnaire

(continued from page 2)

trained only in specific teaching techniques would be able to function as anything more than mere classroom automatons. Good teachers need to know not only *what* to do but *why* they are doing it. It is also quite understandable that the "field workers" in TESL would lag behind the "theoreticians and innovators." Which of the current rages will catch on widely and perhaps dominate the field in the future and which will be forgotten in a few years is anybody's guess at the moment.

A final remark in the limited space available for this report would be that, with the exception of a "general literary background," TESL demands very little training in the area of literature *per se.* Specific training in teaching literature (for ESL students), however, ranks relatively high on the list.

In conclusion, it must be noted that this brief report does not attempt to offer an exhaustive summary and discussion of the results of this questionnaire and is certainly not "the last word." A more extensive analysis of questionnaire responses by geographical location and institutional status of respondents is yet to be written.

TESL REPORTER 12-YEAR INDEX FORTHCOMING

Any TESL publication which perseveres to its tenth anniversary may justly be thought to have come of age. If its lifespan stretches back to the beginning of the TESL movement, its pages will have reflected the full range of developments in the field. And if its focus has been on practical application, it will contain a wealth of matter helpful to the teacher in the classroom. Having just celebrated a decade of service to teachers of English as a second language, the *TESL Reporter* now meets all of these conditions.

At least reader responses have often contained words of appreciation for help the newest issue has given them when it was needed most—today, tomorrow or next week. But there has grown with each new issue an increasingly large body of other potentially helpful items lying beyond easy reach. Who, without a guide, can search through forty-eight issues to find that one needed teaching strategy, that one review of a book under consideration? Such a guide, we are happy to announce, will be available when *The Twelve-Year Index to the TESL Reporter* is issued as the Summer 1979 issue.

The index, edited by Russell Clement of the BYU—Hawaii Campus library, organizes information in several ways. There are alphabetical listings of authors, titles of articles and book reviews. Most helpful will be the detailed subject listings. For the sake of uniformity in the TESL field, the subject descriptors are based on the *TESOL Quarterly*'s index. However, there are many modifications which reflect the specific nature and practical purpose of the *Reporter,* for example, the addition of a heading for classroom games.

New ELI Director at BYU-HC

Lynn E. Henrichsen has been named director of the English Language Institute (ELI) program in the Communications and Language Arts Division, replacing Ronald Shook who has been ELI director for the past year and a half. The announcement was made by Dr. Eric B. Shumway, CLA chairman.

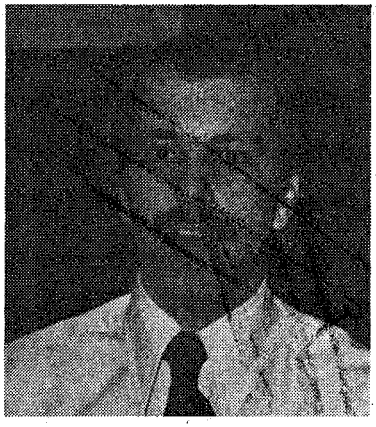
Prof. Henrichsen's goals include continuing to upgrade the quality of teaching in ELI classes, increasing the correlation among the various ELI classes as well as with other BYU--Hawaii Campus English courses, and improving the validity and reliability of the evaluation procedures used in the ELI program.

"I'm pleased with the enthusiasm, dedication, and professionalism of the ELI teachers and I enjoy the challenge of working with the international mixture of students here," he said.

He feels that ELI classes are of great importance as they form the language and study skills foundation for a large portion of the foreign students who enter BYU--Hawaii.

BYU--Hawaii's ELI program offers courses at four proficiency levels and in four different skill areas.

In the 20 months he has been at BYU--Hawaii, Prof. Henrichsen has published numerous articles and given a variety of presentations at professional meetings in his



academic field. Currently, TESL authority Dr. Alice Pack and Henrichsen are producing a writing textbook designed to help students who speak English as a second language or standard English as a second dialect learn to write English correctly.

Henrichsen also works with the TESL major on campus as the advisor to the TESL Society, an academic club. The Society's purpose is to increase TESL majors' and minors' exposure to the field through professionally oriented extra-curricular activities such as attending conventions or meeting with guest speakers. The Society also publishes its own newsletter, *Ka'Olelo Hou No TESL.*

TESL REPORTER

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