this month....

COVER: JALT '86

Interview
M.A.K. HALLIDAY

M. A. K. Halliday *was interviewed on his current work and philosophy on grammar by JALT Publications Board Chair Virginia LoCastro, when he came to JALT '86 in Hamamatsu.*

VL: *Quite a number of ELT teachers do MA. courses and are exposed to your systemic grammar, in particular, your book, "'An Introduction to Functional Grammar.'' But they find it very difficult to get through. I'm sure you've been asked this question before. Do you have any way of making the ideas more accessible to ELT teachers?*

MAKH: I think there has to be at least one, probably more than one, level of interpretation in between. We have in our group in Sydney at the moment a number of people working at various different intermediate points: preparing workbooks or work materials to go with the grammar, or preparing things for teachers in particular contexts — like grammar for teaching literature in high school, or grammar for adult migrant education, or whatever. And then at yet another level, there need to be materials for actual student use. So I would say there are really at least these levels of translation in between the theoretical grammar and the language learner. I don't think I'm the best person at all — I'm probably about the worst — to write at these other levels. We have people starting to do this and I hope there will be others doing the same.

I noticed at the Tsukuba University Libray the other day a glossary of some sort of systemic grammar. . .

Yes, it's de Joia & Stenton's ***Terms in Systemic Linguistics: a guide to Halliday.*** I hadn't known about the sub-title when it was being done; I thought it was a guide to systemic work in general. It was compiled before my ***Introduction to Functional Grammar*** came out.

Do you think that would be useful for people?

Yeah, I think it's useful in that the compilers did try to pick out citations from over the years relating to key terms, particularly those that got introduced or changed along the way as the theoretical edifice evolved. I think it would have been more useful if they hadn't confined it to my writing but had covered systemic work generally. But I do think citations are more useful than glossaries with definitions. There's a danger in approaching any subject through definitions of its terms: a danger of thinking that a glossary of technical terms somehow constitutes a theory. That's why I have always been rather against glossaries. I think they do more harm than good on the whole.

Yes. people have to get the theoretical nitty-gritty on their own.

Well, they can be helped — I think the 'workbook notion is as important as any, and I do plan myself to produce more specimens of actual analysis of text. Some of my colleagues, in our own department and elsewhere, are working on particular areas of the grammar — transitivity, the clause complex, grammatical metaphor and the like — that are either specially difficult or specially important (or both).

My second question was about applications of systemic gmmmar to ELT. In a sense, you're addressing that question by suggesting workbooks to be used as transitions. Are you aware at the moment of anyone who has attempted to apply in any direct way in classroom teaching some of your ideas?

Well, earlier versions of it were applied in this way, as the ideas evolved; and this experience fed back into the theory. There are a number of applications of the grammar in its present form — which I think has now been tested enough to be used in this way — being worked on at the moment.

Could you give some specific examples of how language has evolved in a particular way because

of its function in the social system?

In one sense, no, I can't — because every sentence that's been written about the grammar would actually be an example. What you referred to is the general interpretation of language as a system. It's saying that languages are not arbitrary constructs. They have a 'natural' grammar, if you like — there is a natural relationship between the grammatical forms and the meanings. And that relationship is very much a property of the whole system, rather than of separate bits of it. So there's nothing that isn't an example; that's part of the problem. But it's a fair request, so I'll try to accede to it.

Let me just refer to two things, one most general and one most specific. The most general one is in the way we as a species relate to our environment, the planet we live on. We relate to it in two different ways — I've used these metaphors elsewhere — treating it both as terrain to be explored and as material to be quarried. In other words, we have to understand our environment and we have to act on it; and these two motifs run through the human species, in all cultures. Now what is generally not realized is that they are also the fundamental conceptual framework of the grammar. The whole of the grammar, of all natural languages, is organized around these two very basic human functions with respect to the environment. That would be a very general example.

Now let's take an example that's more specific. Take the transitivity system, the part of the grammar through which we construct our experience of events. Any system that is going to interpret our sense of happening has to fall somewhere between two extremes: one of saying all events are different — that is, there are no general classes of events — the other saying all events are alike. But we recognize that all our experiences fall into a small number of natural classes: (1) physical phenomena of the external world, (2) phenomena of consciousness, and (3) abstract relations. It seems that all grammars represent these as distinct in their transitivity systems. Furthermore, we deconstruct, or analyze out, our experience of events in a way that enables us to make effective generalizations. We separate out the event itself from the participants in the events; and this enables us to recognize similarities — the same participant doing different things, or the same process with different participants. So all transitivity systems make this generalization by separating out the verbs from the nouns. This is how the grammar models our

experience — our awareness of what goes on around us and inside our heads.

So those would be the sort of examples I would give.

Would it be fair to say that the differences between literate societies and oral societies, where the oral tradition continues to be strong, would be an example of an answer to my previous question.

No, not in the same sense as what I had in mind. There is no doubt that the development of written languages introduced new modes of meaning into society. Writing came with particular developments that certain societies took; as they became settled, as they became producers, they learnt to reduce their languages to written form. Then with the gradual accumulation of wealth (in both senses: that is, material wealth and knowledge) the written language began to evolve its own new structures. Now, the particular way in which written languages have evolved, to bring these new forms of knowledge into being — that would be another example, yes. At the same time I wouldn't want to overstress the dichotomy of spoken and written language, or oral and literate cultures. After all for a long period of human history what we have had has been actually a mixture: that is, a 'literate' society in which however only about 15% of the population were literate. That brings up an interesting question: What is the nature of the culture of the illiterate members of a literate society? And looking at the question from a linguistic point of view, we have to recognize that spoken and written language have the same system underneath. This creates a problem for grammarians. You need to be able in one sense to write different grammars, one for spoken and one for written language. Yet you don't want to write different grammars, because the two are simply different modes, different manifestations of the same system.

But there's no doubt that writing introduced new ways of organizing experience — or rather, that writing was part of the complex of cultural processes by which that happened.

Very often people talk about the distinction between what is grammatical and what is acceptable. You did talk about this in an interview with Herman Parret in 1974. Could you explain your point of view about this distinction?

The context in which it arose first was that of the split, essentially due to Chomsky's work, between formal and functional grammar. Chomsky pushed the two very far apart, which is the price

you pay if you give top priority to the aim of representing grammar as a formal system. In order to do this you have to draw the line of idealization very high, idealizing out of the picture any kind of irregularity — anything other than the basic philosopher's type of sentence, like 'John hit Bill.' When 'what can be formalized' is then used to define grammaticality, you get a big gap between what is grammatical and what is acceptable, because lots of things which by any normal canon would be acceptable in ordinary discourse in both speech and writing, get thrown out. What I said at the time was, I prefer the approach through functional grammar. If you don't place such a high value on formalization, then you don't need to idealize so much; you can recognize that a great deal of what is dismissed as performance, by those who make this very sharp competence-performance distinction, is simply part of the normal patterning of language.

I would still maintain that this is true. That doesn't mean, of course, that there is no such thing as a mistake. There clearly is. But it does mean that we base our conception of what is a mistake, and what is acceptable, on the normal practice of the members of the community. Now of course that gets complicated, because some people introduce their own prescriptive notions and make rules which don't conrrespond to what they themselves actually do. All we can do is observe these linguistic moralists and hope their efforts don't upset the teaching too much.

As I am interested in the dynamics between the social and the linguistic, I'd like to ask you to elaborate on how are sociological categories realized by linguistic categories?

Through functional variation. That's the quick and short answer. Let's start from the language end. We can represent the grammar of a language as in some sense an integrated system. Now, the grammatical forms, categories, structures arc themselves a realization of semantic patterns, patterns of meaning, which we can not yet represent for a whole language; whether indeed we ever shall — it's questionable whether we should try. But we can't at the moment. So we think in terms of a situational semantics. That is to say, we recognize what Ruqaiya Hasan calls "contextual configurations" -- recurrent complexes of situational features — and try to characterize the register (that is, the semantic variety of the language) that is associated with these situations. Any particular register will include certain core features which arc present in most varieties of the language plus

certain special features of its own. That notion of a contextual configuration, which makes rather more explicit the familiar 'context of situation' of socio-linguistics, must derive from some interpretation of the culture, of the social system.

My colleague Jim Martin, in his work on educational discourse, splits up the concept of functional varieties and distinguishes between 'register' and 'genre,' with genre being a sort of higher level register that reflects the purpose of the interactants in a situation; and then on that he builds a further, 'ideological' component. What he is doing is to represent the social system, and social processes, in terms of an ideological construct which he derives from language, step by step.

This approach is complementary to the one which I adopted, basing myself on Bernstein's work, which was to start with an interpretation of the social system, and social processes; to use that as the point of departure, and then try to relate the language to it.

The general point I think we would all make in systemic theory is that the key notion is that of realization; and that this is essentially the same relationship throughout. That is to say, the way that the sound system realizes the grammatical categories, the way the grammar realizes the meanings, the way these in turn realize the social order, in two or three further steps, all these form a kind of chain of realization. An American colleague, Jay Lemke at the City University of New York, has done some very exciting work, defining this concept in terms of what we call 'social semiotic': defining human social semiotic systems in mathematical terms, and stating their properties as formal systems. 1 find this very helpful because it shows in what respects language is like other social semiotic systems, and how these relate to systems in general. Lcmke provides a formal model of what this 'realization' means.

Now the problem is — and I've certainly been to blame here — that it is very hard to talk of these processes without building in directionality. We have verbs like "to realize," "to express," "to symbolize," and they give you the sense of a one-way process: the sense that meanings are somehow formed "up there" in the social system and the language simply takes them over ready-made and expresses them. That is not in fact how I see it. I see rather the whole system as a many-level system which creates meaning: and the grammar is playing its part in creating those

meanings, along with every other level. It is difficult to find some way of talking about this which doesn't imply determinism in one direction.

The mood system in grammar is concerned with the social-interactional function of language. The speaker takes on a certain role in a speech situation. Can you give some examples?

Well, at the most general level, in all semiotic situations one is exchanging either **information** or **goods-and-services.** You're using language either to act with or to think with. And in initiating the exchange, you're either **giving** or **demanding** the information or goods-and-services. To take on the role of giving information, you make a statement; to demand information, you ask a question; to give goods-and-services, you make an offer; and to demand goods-and-services, you make a command, or request. These four — statement, question, offer, and command — are the basic semantic categories of speech and function; and they are in turn realized in grammar through the mood system.

That gives you a good example of a meaning-creating system; and you can see historical processes going on, whereby the meaning potential becomes expanded. Think of the notion of giving information; semantically, we typically enact this as statement, making a statement. The grammar evolves forms to do this: declarative structures, with associated intonation patterns and so forth. The system then proceeds to pull these apart, so that it maps the intonation pattern that is typical of one category on to the structure that is typical of another. And out of all this are created new meanings, which introduce more delicate distinctions into the system. So that is one example: it's that aspect of the social relationship which consists in deciding what the nature of the semiotic change is that you're embarking on.

Is this function universal?

Yes, I think so. It's certainly universally true that all languages have in their grammar some system of mood; but obviously it is organized in all kinds of different ways. And it seems to be generally true (and it makes good sense, although I wouldn't yet claim that this is universal) that the grammar of exchanging information is a great deal more elaborated than the grammar of exchanging goods-and-services: for the very good reason that exchanging information is itself a linguistic one, where there's nothing else going on, whereas exchanging goods-and-services is just using the language to help on a process which is itself not a linguistic one. I think it's probably true in all languages that there is no such highly elaborated

system of imperatives — maybe no special grammar at all for commands and offers. As you know, there are a lot of languages, including many European languages, that have something in the grammar called an 'imperative,' but nobody actually ever uses it, unless it is in talking to children or animals.

Early work you did on the new/given dichotomy is now pretty much accepted. Hve you yourself done any more work on intonation?

No, not in the sense of taking the phonology further than I did back in the '60s with **Intonation and Grammar in British English;** but yes in the sense of integrating it into the rest of the grammar. I think there are two things that need to be done next.

One is to extena the study of intonation further into discourse. That was what Afaf Elmenoufy had started to do, back in the 1960s. David Brazil from John Sinclair's group in Birmingham has done perhaps the most interesting work in that area — although I still find my system more revealing than his! And a necessary step in this direction is to find out much more about the tie-up between information and the clause complex. The second requirement is to carry it further in detail. We can now process a much larger data base than we could do back in the '60s. I believe that grammar is essentially probabilistic, so that it has to be studied quantitatively; and we've now got to the stage where we're not going to learn anything further until we are processing large quantities of text and looking at probabilities — looking at, for example, the detailed quantitative analysis of the combination of intonation patterns with other features. This has now become possible.

So much of the work that's been done is based, until recently, on very small samples. What you're saying, then, is we need to expand and really check the research out again with larger quantifies.

Yes. And I think it's a pity that a great deal of discourse analysis is done without any reference to intonation. Conversational analysis, for example, provides a very detailed transcription of spoken text; but there's effectively no intonation — what little there is is very crude.

And certainly for anything to do with inter-personal meanings — for example, when one is looking at the way people negotiate, or at adult-child interaction — it's essential to include a detailed account of the intonation patterns. There is always a problem of how far in detail to take it; and here I've always used the criterion of the

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grammar. That is to say, if I was able to incorporate into the general grammar a particular contrast in meaning which I recognized as being carried by intonation, then I made sure the intonation analysis went far enough to include that distinction. If there were other distinctions, for example in pitch variation, which I couldn't account for in terms of the grammar, then I left them out. So the grammar provides the criterion for saying how far in delicacy the analysis should go.

What have you been doing recently in the area of language and education?

Well, what I've been trying to do is a part of the effort that we've been building up in Australia over the past few years. We've got a 'language education' body — not a formal association but a series of workshops taking place roughly every nine months. I've in fact just come away from the seventh in the series. These workshops have been moving around, being held in different places in Australia; and they bring together people working in very different areas of language education. Many of them are concerned with mother tongue education: for example, Jim Martin, Joan Rothery and their team first focused on children's writing in primary school and are now studying the development of subject areas in secondary schools — looking into the language of three main subject divisions in the secondary curriculum. These are just two out of the 14 topics covered by the most recent of these workshops.

When I first went to Australia in 1976, I became consultant for the Language Development Project; this was a national effort to promote language education, bringing together all aspects of it in the context of children's language development from birth through to adulthood. I tried to build on the linguistic foundations we'd been developing over the years. Quite a number of different initiatives came out of that project, including some interesting films and study materials. One example of the spinoff from this project would be the series of 11 books published last year by Deakin University Press, edited by Frances Christie (who had been project director) — the series is called "Language and Education," and was designed for students in distance (off-campus) Masters of Education programs. Then coming back to the workshops I mentioned just now: in this kind of workshopping with teachers we deliberately focus very closely on text. The text can be of various kinds: for example, teachers record their own work in the classroom, or take samples of

children's writing. The purpose of the workshop is then to sit down together and do an analysis of the text, using the grammar as a tool. I guess you could say this is our main strategy: what we're doing is using the grammar as a way of thinking — not just about language, but about people's development, about learning generally. My aim is to work towards a language-based theory of learning — we've been relying too. long on the psychologists to produce theories of learning and frankly they haven't done all that well, in terms of educational needs. Part of the reason is, I think, that language hasn't been given a proper place in it. So we're saying, let's focus on language as our main source for understanding how people learn. Let's try a complementary approach.

In the course of all this we try to keep in touch with the main efforts in Britain and the United States and elsewhere. The people in the United States who would be closest to us are those like Jerry Harste in Indiana, Ken and Yetta Goodman and Dorothy Watson (the CELT group); and there is a related group in Canada (CEL, though the initials stand for quite different things). In England there is a national organization, the National Congress on Languages in Education; I went to their Assembly this year, and was very impressed with their approach to all these issues.

Some say Levi-Strauss ideas are no longer of interest, that structuralism in general is demode. What is your reaction to this?

I think I'd separate those two. Levi-Strauss himself, and his particular ideas, are one matter — one which I don't think there's time to go into here. Structuralism in general is a different matter. Those who like to be in fashion invent their own version of structuralism in order to pronounce it out of date. But as my wife — Ruqaiya Hasan — has pointed out, everything that is labelled post-structuralism, deconstructionism, post-modernism, and so on, was already there in structuralism anyway. Structuralism always was a deconstructing activity: you analyse, you interpret, you challenge, you uncover the ideology. But those who build on it have to make themselves look different. Compare what happened in linguistics: there's very little difference between the Chomskyan and the Bloomfieldian approach — Chomsky gave an underpinning to the whole thing as a formal system, and therefore introduced other components, but the basic philosophy, the conceptualization of what language is, is very much Bloomfieldian. It often happens in the history of ideas that people try to knock most violently

those they are closest to, because they need to distance themselves. Most of what goes under these post-structuralist banners is actually very close to structuralism. I was recently at a conference at the University of Strathclyde in Scotland and I was very disturbed by this. The conference had a big billing as 'Style in Language 25 Years On,' taking the 1958 conference as a point of departure. But the trouble was that many of the speakers were taking not only Jackobson 25 years ago, but Saussure 75 years ago, as if it was the latest word, solemnly pointing out that something that Saussure said in 1909 isn't true and concluding that that demolishes the whole of linguistics. It's unbelievable. But of course if you spend your time demolishing the thinkers of the past, you stay right back where they were. So I don't think it makes much sense to say that structuralism is demode. It's become part of contemporary thinking. We don't stop there, of course; we move on. Perhaps the most important move, associated with with semiotics, has been towards unifying the different disciplines concerned with human action, human behaviour — or at least enabling them to communicate with one another. But that too is something structuralism was already beginning to do.

I'd like to ask one last question. Elsewhere you mention that little is known about the effect of peer group speech on children learning their first language. Has any work been done in this area? Have you and your colleagues been looking at it?

A little bit, but it's still I think the poor relation — for obvious reasons: peer group speech is the hardest to get. I'm sure there's work going on around the world that I don't know anything about. But I could give you one or two examples of work that is being done by our colleagues in different centres in Australia which includes peer group speech, both in and out of school. I do think it's important, partly just to fill out the picture of how children learn a language, but especially because in language more than anywhere there is an enormous difference between the way people behave in actual situations and the way they behave in experimental situations. So while the important development here is to get natural discourse of all kinds, that of child-child has a special value. I'm not saying we don't learn anything from setting up experimental procedures — we obviously do; but what children can do under those sorts of conditions is only a distorted fragment of what they can do naturally.

Right now, I assume most of your work is

primarily with systemic grammar and then you're doing a lot of work in the area of language and education. Is there any particular new interest that you would want to comment upon?

As part of this same effort, I've become very interested in the language of science; initially taking that as just one example of the languages of learning, one that I happen to be interested in, but then also recognizing that, historically, in Western Europe at least, science (especially physics) was the leading edge in the creation of new languages for learning. And I also have become very interested in what scientists themselves have been saying over the years about language, especially where they have regarded language as being in some way inadequate to their needs. This, of course, goes right back to the time of Francis Bacon and the 17th-century language planners. But you find it coming up again in the 20th century, again particularly in physics, with scientists complaining that the language is letting them down. I'm interested in why they feel this way and in the relationship between the language that is being created as a scientific metalanguage and the ordinary, everyday, unconscious language that we speak. So I think really this is a natural growth out of what I was doing before.

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TEACHING ESL INTERNATIONALLY?

By Virginia LoCastro, The University of Tsukuba

In the April 1986 issue of the **TESOL News-letter,** there was an article by Anne V. Martin, entitled "Expectations and Reality: Teaching ESL internationally." The title caught my eye and I read through that article first, as I had never seen "ESL" with "international" before. Perhaps because of the fact that I have been teaching English outside of an English-speaking country for six years, my working assumption has been that there are "EFL" and "ESL" teaching/learning situations. So, as combining "ESL" with "internationally" seems to be semantically impossible, particularly in an article about China, I decided to do a check of some representative literature to see what various applied linguists and writers of teacher preparation texts have to say about "ESL" and "EFL," as well as second and foreign language teaching/learning. I had assumed that both were obvious and necessary.

Let us start first of all with Stern's **Funda-mental Concepts of Language Teaching** (1983). In Chapter 1, Part 1, "Talking about language teaching," he is concerned with terminology and does look at, among other expressions, "second" vs. "foreign" language, making a distinction be-tween what he calls subjective and objective definitions of the terms. According to Stern, "foreign" language can be used to designate a relationship between a person and a language, the "foreign" language being any "new" one for the individual in question. He goes on to state that from a more objective point of view, the conceptual distinction between second and for-eign language is expressed this way:

> In contrasting "second" and "foreign" lan-guage, there is today consensus that a necessary distinction is to be made between a non-native language learnt and used within one country to which the term "second language" has been ap-plied, and a non-native language learnt and used with reference to a speech community outside national or territorial boundaries to which the term 'foreign language' is commonly given. A 'second language' usually has official status or a recognized function within a country which a 'foreign language' has not. (p. 16)

There are important consequences of this dis-tinction between second and foreign language. Stern gives two: (1) the purposes are different – the second language may be needed for education as well as political participation in the country, whereas a foreign language may be for travel abroad, reading, communication with native speakers of that language; (2) the environmental support is different, such that foreign language learning usually requires more formal instruction. All in all, the basis for this distinction concerns the speech community or communities as "terri-torial reference or contact group."

Then Stern goes on to examine international vs. intranational [(1) above] languages, conclud-ing finally that all four uses – foreign, second, international, and intranational -- are subsumed under the term "second" language. "Foreign" language can be used for stylistic variation or for description of contexts when distinctions must be made.

Brown (1980), in **Principles of Language Learning and Teaching,** addresses the differences between second and foreign language learning in essentially the same way as Stern, and through-out the text, "second" and "foreign" language are used interchangeably.

This also seems to be true of Littlewood (1984) in **Foreign and Second Language Learn-ing: language acquisition research and its impli-cations for the classroom.**

In **Communicating Naturally in a Second Lan-guage,** Rivers (1983) uses "second" language throughout, except in Chapter 12, "Foreign language acquisition: where the real problems he." Yet, even there, we can find "second" lan-guage, with "foreign" language used only when referring to the fact that foreign language learn-ers' exposure to the target language is mostly from textbooks, and when signalling the differ-ences in needs analyses of second vs. foreign language learners. It thus seems Rivers is follow-ing the basic notion that "second" language can be used generically, with "foreign" used only when necessary to make a distinction.

Savignon has the following definition in **Communicative Competence** (1983:309): "A second language is a language learned after the basics of a first or primary language have been acquired; foreign language; 'target' language." This implies that "foreign" is a synonym for "second."

Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), in **Language Two,** define a second language as that "learned after the basics of the first have been acquired," thus echoing that of Savignon. They state that it may be a "foreign" language or a "host" lan-guage, the latter being the language learned in an environment where it is spoken primarily by the residents of the country or community. A

foreign language would be, for example, French learned in New York City, where it is not used by the residents (pp. 278-280).

Rivers and Temperlay (1978), in ***A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language,*** give the same definition, yet there is an addendum on p. ix: "The term 'foreign language' will sometimes be used for the target language, in this case English, where the distinction between the two situations is immaterial to methodology." It is not at all clear to this writer what this statement means, other than that there is confusion in the usage of foreign/second and ESL/EFL, the two "situations" referred to.

Diller (1986) admits he feels uncomfortable with the second vs. foreign language distinction as he feels if one is using English to study English, then one has got second language learning. He goes on to add that all "good 'foreign' language teaching is always 'second' language teaching."

Let's now take a look at some who believe a distinction between foreign/second and ESL/EFL is necessary. Richards (1978) states that the title of his book, ***Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning, is*** designed to show that second and foreign language learning have "legitimate, but distinct, meanings" (p. 7). The term "second" language is used increasingly in the U.S. and elsewhere in applied linguistics to mean the learning of any language after the first. However, he adds:

> Hence it includes the study of the learning of English by immigrants and non-English-speaking minority groups, as well as the learning of English by students, say in Germany. This usage is regrettable. (p. 5)

Richards prefers to use "foreign" language learning when there is no question of learning a language as a common language or as ***lingua franca*** for communication between two groups. A foreign language is learned for use in communicating primarily with native speakers of that language, and it has no internal functions in the learner's country. Moreover, Richards feels cultural dimensions of language are part and parcel of EFL teaching, but are unnecessary in ESL situations and, in particular, in situations where English is used as an international kinguage. For example, in situations such as at international conferences, one can no longer say English is the property of any one national or ethnic group; teaching the culture of the U.S. or of the U.K., then, may be unnecessary and even unwanted by those who have such a purpose in studying English. Smith (1986) clearly makes a distinction in terms of countries, not individuals. "In my mind, there are ESL or EFL ***countries,*** not ESL or EFL ***speakers***." He goes on to elaborate:

> When English has some "officialdom" function (e.g. can be used in law courts, as medium of instruction in public schools, as lingua franca between speakers of diverse languages in the same country) in a country, like in India, the Philippines, Fiji, it is then taught and used there as a second language. The country is an ESL country. Of course there are many fluent, articulate speakers/users of English in such places, but there are also some/many who don't use English well at ah. When English has no "official" function in a country but is simply taught as a school subject for the purpose of giving the student a foreign language competence which he may use in one of several ways – to read literature, to read technical works, to listen to the radio, to understand dialogue in the movies, to use the language for communication with non-nationals, in a country like Japan or Thailand, it is then taught and used there as a foreign language. In EFL countries one can also find fluent speakers/users of English.

Smith emphasizes that ESL should not be used to describe people more proficient in English than those described as EFL speakers. In addition, though this only complicates one's efforts to clarify usage, Smith feels we need to add two more acronyms – EIL: English as an international language, and EIIL: English as an international and intranational language – in order to cover the varied situations in which English is used in the world today, as well as the implications of those situations.

> The implications are not trivial. They are very important for materials developers and teacher trainers and are concerned with reasons for teaching/learning/using English, varieties of English students should be exposed to; performance targets, and cultural emphasis.

Finally, a quick look through the EFL Gazette and Pergamon's ***ELT Documents*** (see "ESL in the United Kingdom," No. 12) gives one the impression that in British ELT, the distinction between ESL and EFL is maintained.

The literature indicates a tendency to see the EFL/ESL distinction as irrelevant on one side of the Atlantic, with the exception of Richards and Smith, whereas on the other side, it is not. There may be historical as well as other reasons for this difference. It is not this writer's intention to go into them in this article.

A search of the literature does not, then, necessarily shed a great deal of light on the question of the use of ESL versus EFL, or second versus foreign language learning/teaching. Clearly there would seem to be two different questions here: whether the terms ***ESL/EFL*** refer to teaching/learning contexts and the terms ***second/foreign language*** refer to the psychological and cognitive variables of the learners. Is

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it useful to distinguish EFL from ESL contexts? Is it useful to talk about second as well as foreign language learning? Perhaps some of the confusion in the terminology results from our not knowing the differences. ESL, EFL, EIL, intranational, second language learning, foreign language learning, all seem to get thrown into the same pot.

Yet, in the opinion of this writer, there `are` differences; and so distinguishing ESL from EFL, as well as second language learning from foreign language learning, are both necessary. Second language learning implies differences in goals, levels of motivation, and attitudes, as well as other variables on the part of the learners, from those of learners in foreign language learning situations. Therefore, even though one may agree with some who say that what goes on chemically inside the brain is the same, the affective dimensions do need to be acknowledged.

As for EFL versus ESL, it does not seem possible to talk about teacher training, materials, needs analysis, environment, students, to name only the more obvious, without also stating clearly whether the teaching setting is EFL or ESL. Teachers need to be made aware of the differences in order to be informed practitioners and decision-makers, The differences may not be clear, as the literature review indicates. Never-

theless, we need to attempt to clarify them and deal with them differently from the way they are currently being dealt with.

One area, at least, where the differences between ESL and EFL contexts have to be addressed is that of teacher training, especially the training of non-native speaker teachers returning to their home countries after training courses in English-speaking countries. John Dougill (June 1986) criticizes current thinking in ELT which leads to the teacher believing the same methodology should be applied in all teaching situations, regardless of the "age-range, motivations, resources and numbers," and, presumably, the context. ESL methodology cannot be transplanted overseas, unchanged, into an EFL teaching context. Learner training, to take one example, is frequently discussed in the U.S. and the U.K. teacher training courses. For example, memorization is not seriously acknowledged as a learning strategy in the West. However, all of us teaching in Japan know Japanese learners of English who become quite fluent speakers of the language seemingly having memorized phrase books and vocabulary. Teacher training, then, should be contextualized if possible; minimally, the teachers-in-training need to be apprised of the differences between the ESL and EFL teaching/learning situations.

So what does all this add up to? For those "out in the field," especially those who have taught both in ESL and EFL situations, it seems a necessity to distinguish between ESL and EFL. A generally agreed upon, working definition of ESL vs. EFL teaching/learning contexts is needed. A careful, studied description of the differences, and of the implications of those differences for the practitioner, is called for. The perceptions, experiences, and concerns of those teaching in a country, such as Japan, where English has no legal status, are such that the ethnocentric bias implicit in viewing all language learning as "second" language learning (see Diller, mentioned above) is unhealthy and untenable.

Thus, materials writers, methodologists, and teacher trainers should begin to realize, and then act upon, the fact that English is used for many different purposes by people with varying proficiencies and with different objectives. Too many of the textbooks/coursebooks are "culturally loaded," explicitly and implicitly. And to many teacher training programs remain insensitive to the varied teaching situations outside ESL countries. To use "teaching ESL internationally" in any way to talk about EFL contexts produces nothing but confusion and fuzzy thinking.

Note

'Kachru (1982) explains that an international language is one used solely for communication with the external world whereas an intranational language is one that is used by at least some communities inside a nation. Obviously, countries where English is the native language of a majority of the inhabitants is said to use the language intranationally.

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EFL/ESL DISTINCTION

By Marc Helgesen, Coordinator - Intensive Courses, Univ. of Pittsburgh ELI-Japan Program

"I don't think we're in Kansas anymore, Toto."
- Dorothy in The Wizard of Oz

ESL and EFL. Are they the same or different? Definitions for each do, of course, exist. "ESL" is the teaching of English as a second language in countries where English is the primary tongue, whereas "EFL" involves English study in countries where another language is used as the means of communication. Beyond discussing definitions as things in and of themselves, however, we see a tendency to use "ESL" to cover both situations. The title of a recent **TESOL Newsletter** article on teaching in China referred to "Teaching ESL Internationally" (Martin, 1986). Noting this and numerous other examples, LoCastro (in the previous article) points out that, although a number of writers acknowledge the distinction, the terms tend to be used indiscriminately. This seems to be especially true of North American writers. In their tertiary definition of the term "ESL," Richards **et al.** (1985:93) even cites "the use of English in countries where it is not a first language" as a U.S. usage.

Yet, for many of us working in Japan and elsewhere outside of the English-speaking world, it is with some frustration that we frequently see ESL applied to our situations. Such a use tends to obfuscate the basic differences between ESL and EFL. This article is an attempt to note some of those differences, particularly as they concern student, teacher, and curricular needs, with the goal of encouraging clarity through a more considered use of the terms.

By and large, ESL students have a pressing need for English due to their daily contact with an English-speaking culture. Because of the need to use English outside of the classroom on a regular basis in ESL situations, one can assume at least some degree of integrative motivation' (the desire to communicate with people from that culture) to be coupled with the obvious instru-

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mental motivation (the need to meet external goals, e.g., to succeed at academic work for a university student, to get and hold a job for an immigrant) While it is possible for individual ESL students to be both integratively and instrumentally motivated, this dual motivation can in no way be assumed in the FFL classroom, which Haskell (1986), reflecting on teaching in Japan, Micronesia, and Puerto Rico, described as a place "where needs and situations were unique to EFL teaching, unique in the sense that they were so bereft of the kinds of supporting materials, personnel, and situations that typical ESL situations had, . . . (and) lack(ing) the kind of student, on the whole, who 'needed' English for anything like survival or everyday use." If EFL students are not coming to the classroom for the same reasons as their ESL counterparts, why then are they coming at all?

In considering the EFL students' reasons for study. it is useful to identify three types of students: those who study English as an academic requirement, those who have specific professional or academic needs and/or goals, and those who study out of pesonal interest. In the first two categories, we clearly see instrumental motivation (as contrasted with the integrative motivation of ESL students) as a primary concern. The motivation of the last group is less clear. It is useful to further consider each group.

In many countries, students study English because it is an officially prescribed part of their curriculum. In others, such as Japan, it is officially an elective but is perceived to be a *de facto* requirement and nearly all students take it "due to the fact that English is an important factor – often a decisive one – on high school and university entrance examinations" (Kumabe, cited in Kitao *et al.,* 1985: 129). These examinations, reflective of the grammar/translation approach by which the students have been taught, are not usually based on the use of language for any communicative purpose but rather on the ability to translate formulaically. As a result, the students are studying English not for any integrative reason but, rather, to pass an examination. Because of the focus on grammar/translation, even "successful" students (those who do well on the tests) very often emerge from the system as "false beginners," having some knowledge "about" English, particularly of vocabulary and of grammar rules, but unable to communicate effectively in the spoken or written language

The second major category of EFL learners is the group that studies English for very specific, communicative reasons; generally they are studying to do business in English (though, as will be discussed later, this does not imply using it with native speakers) or in preparation for academic

study in English-speaking countries. Shaw (1981: 110), in a study of motivations of students in India, Thailand, and Singapore, found academic and business reasons dominating a list of language study motivations. Interpreting that study, Ashworth (1985: 119) pointed out that "the students were learning English for instrumental purposes, to help them in their careers. They were not learning English for integrative purposes, that is, in order to become integrated members of the English-speaking community."

The final category, those studying for personal reasons, consists largely of students who have vague or nonexistent instrumental reasons for studying English (TENOR – the Teaching of English for No Obvious Reason). These students often study at private language schools or in company-supported programs. For these students, language learning is often an intellectual exercise or a hobby (Helgesen, 1987).

While ESL students do have instrumental motivations similar to those of first and second types of EFL students listed above, it is the lack of integrative motivation on the part of EFL students that makes their total goals and motivation matrix differ significantly from that of ESL students. In meeting student needs and expectations, the roles of EFL teachers and assumptions about curricula necessarily differ from their ESL counterparts. As Maple (1987:35) has pointed out, ESL assumes fluent (usually native speakers, minimally fully bilingual) instructors usually dealing with a standard British English. Such assumptions are not valid in EFL.

Coleman (1986) and Palstton (elsewhere in this issue) both point cut that EFL teachers are often not proficient in the target language. Both suggest that this calls for a reconsideration of the methodologies and materials those teachers are asked to use and the support those materials provide (Coleman tells of a teacher using a book that referred to the breakfast cereal "corn flakes," who, lacking adequate information, told the class that "corn flakes" is an alcoholic beverage that Americans drink for breakfast). I recall a colleague, upon hearing a similar story at a recent conference, saying that such people shouldn't be teaching English in the first place. Such "should's" and "shouldn't's" make little difference in the world of EFL; they *are* teaching English.

Even when the teachers are native speakers or fully bilingual, the classroom variables (curriculum, methodology, and class make-up) are not necessarily the same in ESL and EFL.

In any ESL context, there is the assumption that opportunities exist for real communication

outside of the classroom, a situation that Maple (1987: 35) has termed "acquisition-rich." In EFL, on the other hand, that is rarely the case. As the only source of English in the students' lives, the classroom must provide for both the "learnine" and the "acquisition": the "accuracy" and the "fluency," often in what most would consider an inadequate amount of time (e.g., the typical Japanese university class meets fewer than 40 hours a year).

Further, even the English the students are learning can be different. As mentioned earlier, many students study for business reasons, but this does not imply doing business with native speakers. As English emerges as an international language, it is increasingly used as the *lingua franca* between non-native speakers. I've had the opportunity to teach Japanese petroleum technicians how to instruct their Burmese peers, business people how to coordinate fiber optic cable sales in the Middle East, and doctors how to address international medical conferences in Europe. Such student tasks are typical in EFL and implicit in them are questions not only about the varieties of English (American, British, or an international or regional variety) for reception as well as production, but also the cultural behaviors and assumptions generally associated with language.

Even basic assumptions about language teaching and methodology can differ. The communicative approach, generally considered "state of the art" in language teaching, is predicated on the students exchanging real information. While many ESL classes, particularly those in academic or pre-academic situations include students with a variety of mother tongues, EFL classes (similar to many ESL refugee and immigrant classes) typically include only students with a shared native language. It is not usually necessary for them to use English to communicate. Coupled with the motivation differences presented earlier, it is a constant teacher concern to keep the students from doing the activities in their native language.

Methodologies learned in ESL teacher preparation courses often become irrelevant when teachers face the large classes commonplace in EFL. In Japan, for example, secondary and university English classes of 40 or more are typical (Taira and Sasaki, 1983). Teacher training courses (traditionally U.S.- and U.K.-based) generally assume that classes will be much smaller. Many of the humanistic techniques that have been advocated in the past ten years (see, for example, Moscowitz, 1978) assume a very personal relationship between the teacher and the students. The "new methods" such as Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia normally assume small classes. As Adams (1986: 20) and Adamson (1986:22) have pointed out, the use of these methods in large classes requires adaptation and accommodation. While this is a large-class problem not specifically tied to EFL, it remains a fact that these huge classes are commonplace outside of English-speaking countries and rare in ESL situations.

Thus far, we have established that student motivations, curricula, teacher skills, class makeup, and relevant methodologies often differ in ESL and EFL. Given these differences, what do we as a profession need to do?

The key is, of course, to recognize the needs and goals of any particular group of students and to design/modify their language program so as to meet those needs. At the most basic level, we need to exercise more precision in referring to situations within the discipline. Following the definitions set forth by Richards et al. (1985 : 93), in our professional writing and discussions, we can use "EFL" to refer to English language teaching in countries where English is not a native tongue. The use of the term "ESL" should be limited to references to English instruction in situations where it is used as a native language (e.g., U.S., Canada, U.K., etc.) or where it is a second language widely used within the country as a language of education, government, business, etc. (e.g., India, Singapore, etc.).

There are, of course, times – particularly in reporting on research – when the location of the class is irrelevant. In such cases, there is no need to differentiate. Paulston (1987), while agreeing that they are different regarding curricula, pointed out that "what chemically takes place in the (student's) brain" in learning a particular aspect of language, is the same in ESL and EFL. LoCastro's survey (in the previous article) would seem to indicate that in the past, these situations have been handled by calling everything "ESL," or by the indiscriminate interchanging of the terms. In light of the issue brought out in this article, perhaps the common British term "ELT" (English Language Teaching) is the most suitable.

The more precise use of the terminology will help to increase our awareness of the differences between ESL and EFL, but the implications go beyond mere acronyms. Several issues arise immediately. Given the differences in students' abilities (i.e., false vs. true beginners), needs and motivations, and curricula, what changes need to be implemented in teacher training programs? If we recognize the variety in the ability levels of tne teachers and the needs of the students, the implications for material developers are vast. The roles of English as an international language

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and the relation of "culture specific" data to language and, therefore, ELT, are only beginning to be considered in a major way. Is it, in fact, valid to include those countries where English, while not a native tongue, enjoys a special status in education, government, etc., in the ESL category, or should there be yet another definition?

This article was written from the viewpoint of a foreign teacher in Japan. What expansions are necessary to generalize it to non-native speakers and to other EFL situations?

Certainly, people are examining all of these issues. To address them with the attention they deserve goes beyond the scope of this article. Indeed, it will take years for all of the issues to be clarified, much less to get the problems solved. But, consistent with the growing internationalization of the profession, we should take the concrete step of acknowledging EFL as well as ESL, initially by considering the terms we use and, further, by keeping the distinction in mind as we move forward as a profession.

Note

1The definitions throughout this paper are consistent with those of Richards *et al.* in the *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics.*

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TESL VERSUS TEFL: WHAT'S THE DIFFERENCE?

By Robert Maple, Madrid, Spain *(Reprinted from the* TESOL Newsletttr, *April 1987)*

The following is a tentative list of what I personally perceive the differences between TESL and TEFL to be. I would appreciate your additions and comments – especially on points you disagree with. Please write to me c/o Mary Stauffer, ACHNA, c/o San Bernardo, 107, 28015 Madrid, Spain.

TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language)

1. Acquisition-rich environment. Normally in English-speaking countries, but possible in institutions and schools (e.g., the American College in Paris) in non-English-speaking countries if English is **really** the lingua franca of interaction and work or study. This situation assumes the presence of native speakers of English and the real need to use English for communication. A school where non-native speakers agree to use English in order to create a pseudo-English environment for practicing their English would not be truly ESL if indeed they all had a common first language.

TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language)

1. Non-acquisition environment. Normally in non-English-speaking countries – except in schools/institutions as noted in the other column, or in a country like Singapore or India where English is the true lingua franca (although most people have another first language). Some acquisitions **can** occur in pseudo-English environments (where people agree to **use** English, but don't need to), but this "suspension of disbelief" may result in the acquisition of language that no native speaker uses, eventually perhaps evolving into a new dialect (as happened in India). However, most such pseudo-English speech communities are temporary.

2. Students in the class are usually from more than one Ll background, making the use of English essential.

3. The teacher usually does not speak the Ll of all the students.

4. The teacher is usually a native speaker of English (or fully bilingual).

5. Students are more apt to have integrative motivation than in TEFL situations – due to the fact that they are in the U.S./U.K. working/ studying, possibly even intending to stay there (as immigrants or refugees).

6. Students need English and usually perceive this need. It will be put to use immediately or in the near future for school, work, or acculturation.

7. Teachers assume that students want to assimilate or at least to become adjusted to the society of the English-speaking country. Teachers may even try to change attitudes and value systems (re. women's roles, politics, individual responsibility, racial or religious attitudes, etc.) through readings and discussions.

8. Students usually study in intensive programs (8 to 25 hours per week). Unless living in an L1 ghetto situation, students usually improve in proficiency quite rapidly, especially at the beginning.

9. Class size is usually small, even in public schools (rarely over 25, often only 10 to 15 students per class).

10. Expectations for ultimate levels of proficiency are usually quite high – by both students and teachers. There is pressure and motivation to continue improving, as students have to compete with native speakers at work/school.

11. Many teachers (as native speakers) seem to assume English is "theirs," and that *their* way is the only way to express things in the language. If in the U.S., students "must" learn only American English, often accompanied by heavy doses of American culture and survival skills. Teachers may say things like "We just don't say that," when correcting students' usage, even if another dialect (e.g., British) allows it.

Students learn the national or regional dialect of the place where they are living. ESL teachers usually encourage conformity to that dialect.

2. Students in the class usually all have the same Ll. Using English is not necessary for communication.

3. The teacher usually has the same Ll as the students.

4. The vast majority of teachers are non-native speakers of English. The English proficiency of these teachers varies widely – from fully bilingual to minimally functional.

5. Students are almost all totally instrumental in motivation. Very few are going to the U.S. or U.K. Most are studying English for their own needs or for pleasure. Exceptions are in job-related programs (as in multinational firms) or among those few people with definite plans for going to an English-speaking country.

6. Most students don't see any need at all for English, at least while they are studying it, although many see it as a "deferred need."

7. Teachers know that students do not want to become "mini-Brits" or "mini-Americans" becoming part of the Ll culture. The students' identities should not be threatened or challenged by foreign language study. This is important for EFL teachers to keep in mind in cultures where the pervasive inroads of Western culture are resented.

8. Most students study only a few hours per week (2 to 4), over quite a few years. Gains in proficiency may be very slow, with setbacks after vacations or interruptions in their study (as when they skip a semester).

9. Class size is usually larger, except in better private programs. In public schools, 50+ students in one class is not unusual.

10. Expectations must be much more modest. Most students after a 10- or 12-semester program (at 2 to 4 hours per week) will achieve between 0 and 1 (FSI oral). Except in the best private programs, 300 hours of EFL is not the same as 300 hours of ESL.

11. There seem to be two perspectives on what kind of English students should learn. One is that students should learn either the American or British dialect. The other advocates World English. English is seen as no longer "belonging" to the Americans, British, Canadians, etc., but rather, to anyone who uses it for real communication needs. World English need not be modeled closely on one nation's dialect. The type of English taught/learned would depend on the student's own goals. In reality, most students learn a national variety of English (Brazilian, Greek, Egyptian, etc.), with an American or British

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flavor in terms of spelling, as well as some aspects of lexicon, syntax, and pronunciation. The criterion for acceptability is that it be mutually intlligible with other national Englishes, as well as with the standard British and American dialects.

12. Students use their English mostly with native speakers of English (except in class). Some native speakers (the less sophisticated) m a y have difficulty understanding foreign students whose English is too accented or non-native, thereby serving as motivation for students to improve their output.

12. In some countries, students are more apt to use their English as a lingua franca with speakers of third languages than with native speakers. For example, a Venezuelan may use English in Curacao; an Arab uses it in Cyprus. Meetings with German and Italian participants are often in English – with no native-speakers of English present.

13. ESL textbooks are priced to the dollar or pound, so they do not seem unduly expensive in the U.S. or U.K. Textbook selection does not primarily depend on the price of the text.

13. In developing countries, the price of textbooks is critical. Many excellent books are ruled out because of the excessive burden they would place on students' budgets.

14. Teachers usually have fewer than 20 hours per week of contact hours, and relatively few take on second jobs. Most have time for preparation and correction, and they consider these to be normal, routine activities.

14. In some developing countries, it is not unusual for teachers to have more than 50 contact hours (teaching) per 6-day week in their two or more jobs, leaving very little time for preparation, correcting papers, in-service training, or learning to use new texts or techniques.

15. Americans tend to see innovation and change as normal and exciting, often experimenting readily with new materials and techniques. Many such materials and techniques were developed by such native-speakers teaching ESL in the U.S. or U.K.

15. Many cultures see change and innovation as threatening and anxiety-provoking. Such attitudes may make them more resistant to the introduction of new materials and techniques. A student-centered classroom is out of the question for many traditional teachers.

16. Most ELT texts are written with the ESL market in mind, therefore containing material and skills development for survival in the U.S. or U.K.

16. Using ESL texts for EFL means either deleting such culture-bound material or else teaching students things they will not need.

17. The native-speaker ESL teacher often plans curricula and uses activities most appropriate to U.S. or U.K. learning styles.

17. The EFL teacher must consider the students' learning styles when planning the curriculum and the methods to be used.

THE EFL/ESL DISTINCTION
Interviews with Christina Bratt Paulston, JoAnn Crandall, and Mario Rinvolucri

Because of growing interest in the ESL/EFL distinction, three prominent ELT teacher trainers, Christina Bratl Paulston, JoAnn Crandall, and Mario Rinvolucri were questioned at different times on the topic during recent interviews with The Language Teacher. **Those excerpts make up this "composite" interview, done by Marc Helgesen and Steve Brown.**

The three interviewees are involved in quite different situations. Crandall, an American, is **president of the world's largest language teaching professional organization. She is active in teacher training in the U.S. and other places in the western hemisphere. Paulston, A Swedish-born, naturalized American, works primarily in the U.S. Rinvolucri, an Englishman, spends much of his time doing teacher training throughout Europe. Rinvolucri and Paulston agree that EFL and ESL are significantly different, especially in terms of student need and motivation. Crandall finds the distinction less than useful. What the three agree upon is the focus on the needs of the students.**

Christina Bratt Paulston is the Chair of the Department of Linguistics at the University of Pittsburgh where she also directs the English Language Institute. She is, with Mary Newton Bruder, the author of ***Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and procedures*** (Winthrop). She was recently interviewed during a visit to the University of Pittsburgh ELI-Japan Program, Tokyo.

LT: Do you perceive teaching English as a second language as essentially the same or different than English as a foreign language?
CP: It depends on the questions you are asking. If, at a ministry level, you are asking questions about how to set up curricula and train teachers and so on, I think decisions are made on different grounds. The process of language planning is different for EFL and ESL. If you are asking questions about what chemically takes place in the brain in learning the present progressive. I don't think there is any difference. I think probably they differ the most in attitudes and student motivation and such aspects. That is, socially they differ. And that's why we make the distinction. But neurologically, no.

LT: You are doing some work developing material for non-native speaking teachers. Could you tell us about that?
CP: Well, both Mary Bruder and I have done a lot of consulting in places like Africa, have taught in South America, wherever. And in many places the basic difficulty in teaching English has nothing to do with methods or the text but it has to do with teacher proficiency in English. Pair that up, if you would, with the latest rage for communicative

language teaching and it finally struck me as so obvious that you had a teaching method that went counter to what teachers were able to do well. Mary and I thought that we would reexamine what we know about language teaching from the viewpoint of a non-proficient teacher and look at what is really important in a teaching situation: what teachers can do and do well even if they're not native speakers. Both Mary and I have taught French when we didn't speak it at all, so we have firsthand experience of teaching a language we didn't know and a great deal of sympathy for teachers who are bullied into teaching methods that they don't feel comfortable with.

LT: What kinds of things do you find that those limited English proficient teachers are good at doing?
CP: Well, for one thing, nothing is as discredited these days as drills, for instance. One thing that drills do, if you don't just do mechanical drills but do at least meaningful, communicative-type drills, is that they control language behavior and language input and you get a great deal of practice taking place in the classroom and lots of "using" of language, and fairly correct language at that. Just about anybody will tell you, including some interviews from the December [1986] issue of ***The Language Teacher,*** that drills have no place in language teaching. I think they do have a place. But you need to spell out the conditions.

Mother-tongue usage is typically ranted against. I think it has its place and one strength of a non-proficient teacher of English is that he can resort to the mother tongue for, mind you, isolated translations of individual vocabulary items.

JoAnn Crandall is the president of TESOL. She is the director of the Communications Services Division of the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, D.C. Dr. Crandall was a main speaker at JALT '86.

LT: As you probably know, many of us here are interested in the distinction between ESL and EFL. Is that a useful distinction for you?

JC: It seems to be really a strongly felt difference here. Because I view everyting through learner needs and what the learner's goals are, I don't see the world dividing into ESL and EFL. For example, students who are studying English in Honduras who are going to go to the U.S. for school are taking EFL there from the traditional perspective of EFUESL, but they're also getting some cultural orientation to life in the U.S. Now, someone who is studying English because of international business has a whole set of requirements for the use of English, some of which are likely to involve using English in an English-speaking country. So I don't understand why we have to keep this division. Maybe it's because I haven't seen it from this (teaching in Japan) perspective. From a teacher's perspective, many of the things I would do in this setting I would do in the other. They're not that different. The big question is whether there is to be a cultural orientation or any cultural integration and how much.

One of the programs we did recently was a series of program reviews for the Agency for International Development (AID) in Central America, looking at the status of English language teaching in those countries, broadly, but particularly at the adult and university level. They were planning for a large Central American Peace Scholars Program and they wondered whether or not there would, in fact, be the kinds of facilities in the countries that they could send people to for their initial English language training before they came to the States. One of my goals, one of the things I believe in strongly, is that we've got to put our resources in these areas in the countries instead of always sending students to the United States for their English language training. It's more important to provide the money to institutions within the country, to provide them with support services such as teacher training, materials, and curricula so that you can strengthen those institutions. They can provide training to secondary school teachers. There's a kind of trickling-down effect where English language education as a whole is improved.

Mario Rinvolucri is a noted teacher trainer for the Pilgrims Language Courses, Canterbury. He is the author of several ELT texts including ***Grammar Games, Once Upon a Time*** (Cambridge), ***Vocabulary*** (Oxford), ***Challenge to Think*** (Longman), and ***Grammar in Action*** (Pergamon). He was the featured speaker at the 1986 JALT Summer Institute.

LT: What do you think about the "EFL/ESL" distinction? Are they basically the same, basically different? What are the implications?

MR: I think we came up against this distinction first when Australian colleagues joined our team in Pilgrims on our summer program in Canterbury and some of these Australian teachers who were used to ESL situations (teaching migrants who had recently arrived in Australia) got very annoyed by the fact that many of these Europeans were studying English almost as a game, or as a social accomplishment or an adjunct to their studies. These people (the Australian colleagues) were confronted with people who desperately needed English. They were teaching the initial ten-week courses that the Australian government offers an immigrant. When I went to Australia, I suddenly understood why they felt annoyance with the EFL students they had in Canterbury. I saw potentially rather mediocre teachers teaching really very well, lifted by the energy and enthusiasm and need of the students. So, in a sense to be an ESL teacher, I think, to many people is maybe an easier task because you've got, not always, but you have this immense motivation that fills you, from your students.

LT: The students have concrete goals?

MR: And another thing, not only the concreteness but also the vital emotional need. All of the people in that room really wanted to learn. Some of them were doing better than others as you'd expect, but that "WHOOMPH" was there and you'd have to be, I don't know, some kind of idiot as the teacher not to have responded.

There is also the whole pastoral element which makes ESL more of a helping profession. A colleague of mine most recently got herself involved in a "maternity English" project, superbly funded by the Australian government. She discovered in the teaching of the material, which was aimed at women on prenatal courses and then actually going through labor, that it was impossible for the female language teacher to confine herself to working entirely on the language of childbirth because there was a whole social worker aspect.

This has to be built into the course. I think this affects both the methodology and the kind of people who want to come into this kind of work. It's apparently a deeper form of work than simply teaching a language. I think that's the way many ESL teachers see it; as more of a vocation.

LT: Almost a mission.

MR: Well, certainly some of the people I've worked with.

LT: Any consideration of teaching, methodology, etc., needs to think about the teachers. In Japan, and I think this is true throughout much of the EFL world, we have a lot of teachers who have little background in writing.

MR: You mean the Ex-pats?

LT: Yes. And on the Japanese side of it, a great percentage of the Japanese public school English teachers were actually trained in English literature or something other than language teaching. What should they do in terms of filling out their training

MR: The best model I know is the teacher training model in Italy where the state offers no formal training. What's happened there is that groups of predominately female teachers ('cause that's what they are in the H.S. system) have, over the past 15 years, got together and started their own cooperative teacher training courses. USIS (the United States Information Agency) in Rome came in on the act and helped the leaders of these groups by offering them six weeks at course in Berkeley (I think. It was in one of the California universities). And they have been very successful. They've seen excellent results. Later . . . the British Council . . . came in and helped. But the important thing is not these foreign agencies. The important thing is that these poeple got together and started their own thing. Very, very practical, down to earth. It included a lot of language improvement because their level wasn't good. And I've seen radical improvement in the spoken abilities of some of those teachers. Very exciting, positive sign. A beautiful model for other places.

BID FOR POWER is a multi-media course of English for commerce and industry at intermediate and advanced level. It is designed for business people who need to develop their English skills for negotiating with other English speakers, and who are working for their firms in English-speaking environments throughout the world.

Classroom materials:

- 2 Videocassettes
- 1 Students' Coursebook
- 1 Teachers' Manual
- 1 Workbook
- 1 Answer Key
- 2 Audiocassettes

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- 1 Viewers' Handbook
- 1 Workbook
- 1 Answer Key
- 1 Audiocassette
- 1 Story Synopsis (in Japanese)

BID FOR POWER

BBC English for Business

FLIGHT 505

FLIGHT 505 is a mediated course in American business English. It is designed with Japanese business people in mind, allowing students to gain experience in business English, social interaction, and getting along in a foreign country.

- 2 Videocassettes
- 1 Learners' Manual
- 2 Audiocassettes

Enauiries to'

REPORT ON THE ANNUAL CONFERENCE
OF THE COMMUNICATION ASSOCIATION OF JAPAN

The annual conference of the Communication Association of Japan was held in June at Otsuma Woman's University in Tokyo. The field of communications is an extremely broad one in scope with language teaching being only one integral part, though a very important part, in Japan. Presentations were given in sessions on Intercultural Communication, Mass Communication, Interpersonal Communication, Rhetoric and Speech Arts, Communicative Language Teaching, Communication Education, and in a special session on Debate. A conference of this scope attracts scholars from all over the world, and allows language teachers to view their own work within a broader communicative framework and to learn about other areas of communication which relate to the teaching of language. Herewith a report on a few of the many papers presented which were related to language and teaching.

Yukihiro Nakayama and **Mark Willis** talked about English language education from an intercultural communication perspective. They suggested that English, when it is going to be used for intercultural communication situations, should be taught from that perspective, and not from the conventional *native speaker/non-native speaker* perspective. In conclusion, they recommended that more effective intercultural communication could be achieved if native English speakers were educated in the features of Indian, Filipino, Korean, Japanese, and other Englishes.

Kazuhiro Hirai advocated that, in teaching English "to be used in intercultural communication, . . . an intercultural communication model, as opposed to the present linguistic model of using English, be developed, based on low-context and specific-purpose-oriented communication." In addition, he contends that similarities are what should "be found in interpersonal communication between any two cultures, rather than differences," and that these similarities should be dealt with in teaching *communicative English* as the most widely-used international language; in teaching different cultures in a comparative and contrastive way; in developing a positively affective attitude toward different cultures in learners; and in developing learners' ability to gain an understanding of different cultures on their own.

Discussing the value of academic debate in Japan, **Satoru Aonuma** reported on a survey which showed that the advantages to participation in competitive academic debate were the strengthening of both critical thinking skills and research skills. In addition, debate develops English language skills, and the knowledge of current topics. By way of suggestions on how to improve debating in Japan, he mentioned that more articles and papers on debate pedagogy should appear in journals; that more effort should be made to strengthen the relationship between academic debate and the real world; and that a debate curriculum should be established in universities.

LaVona L. Reeves addressed Japanese students' problems with rhetorical situations. From her work with the National University Entrance Exam Essay, she concluded that Japanese students have similar difficulties to American students in rhetorical situations; namely, in analyzing their audience, their message and their own writer's voice. She reported that, while many Japanese universities have a course called "English Composition," this course usually consists of translating isolated sentences from Japanese to English, and students have no experience in handling longer pieces of writing. As a solution to this problem, she recommends that students write in class on a topic related to everyday occurrences, thereby receiving experience and instruction in writing and editing a whole text of 200 to 300 words. She also recommends that the instructor focus on the ideas expressed, rather than on spelling and grammar only. In that way, the students can come to realize that writing is a valuable tool for communication, and is well worth the time and effort it takes.

Gregory Peterson gave a report on a research methods course he instructs for the English Department, Communications concentration, at Notre Dame Women's College in Kyoto. He explained that the course gives students opportunities to work on group research projects using four methods: content analysis, questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews, and observation. He reported that the course is hard and time consuming for the students, but that, nevertheless, the feedback on the course indicated that it was extremely valuable in giving the students experience in learning how to work together in groups, in improving their English language communication skills, in learning research methods, and in making them more critical thinkers.

This overly short review neglects many papers of interest to language teachers. As always, this was a conference of great value to anyone interested in any aspect of the field of communications.
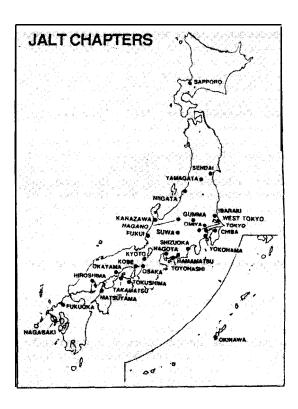
Submitted by Eloise Pearson

JALT '87
Tokyo

RICHARD ALLWRIGHT
SPEAKING AT CONFERENCE

Richard Allwright will be a British Council-sponsored speaker at JALT '87. Currently head of the Department of Linguistics and Modern English Language at the University of Lancaster, England, he teaches on various aspects of language pedagogy and second language acquisition and also heads the department's Classroom Language Learning Research Group. He is also currently First Vice President of TESOL and Presidentelect for 1988-89.

Mr. Allwright has taught postgraduate applied linguistics since 1969, at the Universities of Essex, California at Los Angeles, and Lancaster. He started in EFL by teaching in Sweden at both primary and adult levels, then went to Edinburgh for his M. Litt. in Applied Linguistics. He has taught numerous short methods courses in many different countries, has lectured widely, and published extensively on his main area of inter-est, classroom-centered research, the detailed study of what actually goes on in classrooms.

JALT CHAPTERS

MyShare

SENTENCE TYPES

By Louis Levi

In recent years there has been a rediscovery of the value (known to most teachers 40 years ago) of what is now called *sentence combining* (in the simpler world of 40 years ago it was called *sentence joining).* Either term is a misnomer, since what is actually involved is not the combination of sentences, but the encoding of ideas into a clause complex.

The practice in a number of recent texts seems to suffer from two major defects. First, it calls into existence, as building blocks, sets of sentences that could never have been either written or spoken ("The boat did something. It went up and down. It did this as it moved. The boat went across the waves."). The intention and inter-relationships here are not always immediately obvious.

Second, the sentences that are expected to result from the combination of these units tend to be of a comparatively highly-wrought, self-conscious subordinating style of high semantic density, and of a literary cast. (A further disadvantage of many exercises of this type is that they do not distinguish between the possible and the desirable. The fact that a combination is possible does not mean that in a given context the combination is rhetorically effective.)

Concentration on sentences of this degree of elaboration seems either to assume that the simple linking of co-ordinate units is too simple to require practice, or (a hang-over from much traditional first-language teaching) regards language of this simple style as something for a school to discourage rather than to foster. At the high school and junior college level, however, it is just such a style that should be encouraged, for coordination and low semantic density are the characteristics of unself-conscious speech and writing.

What is really required at all but the more advanced stages of teaching is not an attempt to develop complex sentence structures, but the identification and practice of the sentence patterns that commonly occur in this kind of English.

In the earliest stage of the English course that is being developed at Tokyo Woman's Christian University Junior College, we have so far found specific places for two types of sentences of great frequency and utility in simple narrative, spoken or written, that experience has shown do not come readily to our students.

The first is the simple *series* sentence:

He came in, sat down, and started to read.
She turned on the gas, put on the kettle, and made herself a cup of tea.

Students tend to do one of two things: they either avoid an analytical approach and seek some vague, all-embracing expression; or they break the simple sequence into two parts ("He came in and he sat down. Then/After sitting, he started to read.") The repetition of the pronoun after and is, of course, another failing.

The simplest type of exercise to try to give initial practice in this type of sentence consists of supplying a stimulus and requiring a sentence stating the next three things that someone did.

Videotapes have also been made of simple sequences of actions: for example, a young man on a beach puts down a bag, takes out a towel, and spreads it on the sand. Then he takes off his shirt, takes out a tube of sun-tan cream, and sits on the towel. Finally, he unscrews the cap of the tube, squeezes out some cream, and rubs it on his face.

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The second of these two types of sentences of highvalue in the expression of everyday experience is the ***but. . so*** sentence:

> Junko phoned Akiko, but she wasn't in, so she left a message with her mother.

> I started to read a new book on language teaching, but it was dreadfully badly written, so I chucked it away.

The easiest way to give initial practice in putting together sentences of this type is to present sentences with one or more of the clauses missing:

1. She spoke to a Canadian, but . ., so she couldn't understand him.
2. Ken drank wine at the party, but he wasn't used to drinking, so. . .
3. . . ., but it was very expensive, so she couldn't buy it.
4. The match was supposed to start at 3 o'clock, but . . ., so . . .
5. ..., but..., so let's call the whole thing off.

A variety of play-way approaches can also easily be devised; for instance, one student writes the initial clause on a slip of paper, passes it to a second student, who adds a ***but*** clause and passes it to a third student for the addition of the ***so*** clause. In an elaboration suggested by Marc

Helgesen, the third student then writes the first clause of a sentence to continue the narrative started in the first, folds the paper so that only that clause is visible, then passes it on. This continues until there are eight or nine sentences, when the papers are unfolded to see which of the stories (if any) "hold together."

Informal English use is characterised not only by certain sentence types, but also by certain fixed sequences of sentences. The fact/comment sequence is an obvious example:

> I had a chocolate parfait this afternoon. It was quite delicious.

> I saw ***Legal Eagles*** last night. I didn't think much of it.

The Language Teacher would welcome examples of any other specific types of sentences, or sequences of sentences, that teachers may have found helpful to practise at any level of teaching. In a future issue we will try to print a selection, together with suggestions for practising them.

Louis Levi came to Japan from Israel in 1981, and has since been teaching at the Junior College Division of Tokyo Woman's Christian University. With this issue, he begins his editorship of the My Share column.

J A L T
Undercover

ORBIT 1. Jeremy Harrison and Peter Menzies. Oxford University Press, 1986. 91 pp. (Teacher's Book, two workbooks and two cassettes available)

Two colleagues and I used *Orbit 1* (Student's Book and Teacher's Book) in two adult elementary conversation classes at the Fukuyama YMCA during spring semester, 1986.

As stated on the back cover, *"Orbit* is a four-part course which takes adult students of English from beginner to upper intermediate level. Book 1 is for beginners and 'false beginners.' " The majority of our students fell into the "false beginner" category, and it seemed appropriate in terms of level.

Orbit 1 teaches British English. This posed no significant difficulties for us (we are all Americans), but it may be a consideration for some teachers.

The textbook consists of 88 single-page lessons. These are organized in groups of four, around related themes. The lessons may be related notionally, functionally, or grammatically, with considerable overlapping between these categories. After every 20 lessons, there are two review lessons. Also running through the lessons is a 16-episode, illustrated story, similar to what can be found in the comics section of many American newspapers.

On the back cover the publisher lists several special features of *Orbit,* which will be quoted at various points below. The first is that it "combines a structural/functional syllabus with a communicative approach." In general, my colleagues and I find no problem with the communicative areas, expressions and grammar covered in *Orbit 1.* Our problem is with how they are covered.

The publisher claims that *Orbit* "appeals to adult learners in both content and style." An obvious attempt has been made to catch and hold the students' attention with flashy color illustrations, humorous treatment of material, personality profiles, etc. Nobody can complain about trying to make an English textbook interesting. Unfortunately, all too often this has been at the expense of adequate explanation and re-

inforcement of the language being taught. This is the most serious problem with *Orbit I.*

A glance through the Student's Book reveals that nearly half of the total space in the book is occupied by illustrations. On some pages pictures take up as much as two-thirds or three-fourths of the available space. Some of these illustrations serve a clear educational tunctron; many others seem superfluous.

On the part of any given page not covered with illustrations, one typically finds a very sketchy presentation of the language being taught in the lesson and several short, uninspiring exercises. To the credit of the authors and publisher, the key points of the lesson are highlighted in tinted boxes: a blue box for the model sentences and vocabulary targeted in the lesson; and a brown box setting out formal aspects of grammar and morphology, and sometimes including explanations of concept and usage. However, more examples are needed to give students a feel for how these elements are used in actual communication.

Similarly, students need more opportunities to work with the language once it has been presented. The exercises in the text are excessively abbreviated and in some cases not very practical. Many exercises consist of little more than simple instructions, such as "practise these numbers" (followed by a list of numbers) or "ask and answer questions like this" (followed by an example or two). Exercises of this type may be adequate for a few students, but most need more extensive structured reinforcement in my experience. This is especially true if they are trying to study on their own outside of class. Thus, as far as the Student's Book is concerned, I cannot in good faith endorse the publisher's claims that *Orbit* "makes each lesson self-evident to both teacher and student" and "provides self-study material for use at home or in the classroom."

The Teacher's Book is conveniently organized with lessons and notes for teachers on facing pages. Pages from the Student's Book are reproduced identically, so the teacher does not have to shift back and forth between two books if he/she wants to point out something on a page. The Teacher's Book contains some helpful notes about the material covered in any given lesson, that lesson's relationship to preceding and succeeding lessons, suggestions for introducing exercises, additional possibilities for practice, etc.

However, the Teacher's Book does not compensate for the sparseness of material in the Student's Book. To a greater extent than should be necessary, the teacher must generate examples
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and exercises to reinforce the main text. My colleagues and 1, all experienced teachers, found ourselves regularly frustrated by the amount of preparation it took to teach meaningful lessons using **Orbit I.**

In fairness, it should be noted that the **Orbit 1** Workbooks, which we did not utilize, appear to provide a partial answer to the above complaints about the sparseness of material. The two workbooks, which cover Lessons l-44 and 45-88 respectively, provide a page of written exercises for each corresponding lesson in the Student's Book. Answer keys are provided, so students can check their own work.

Requiring students to purchase two additional workbooks in order to get the full value out of the textbook has obvious advantages for a publisher. While I have nothing against workbooks, I feel that a textbook should contain enough examples and exercises to give the "average" student a reasonable chance of learning the language introduced. **Orbit 1** does not meet this criterion, in my opinion. All the workbook exercises could easily be included in the main text, and there would still be no surplus of material with which to work. Despite this objection, I would encourage any teachers who are considering the textbook to consider the workbooks as well.

One final attribute of **Orbit,** according to the publisher, is that it "presents topics with universal appeal and interest." Book 1 covers a wide variety of topics, many of which will be of genuine interest to Japanese students. In some respects, however, it is too universal for a beginning textbook. Quite a few lessons, for example, are set in or contain references to locations outside of English-speaking countries. Despite the publisher's disclaimers, the use of a lot of non-English names was confusing for our students. Likewise, most of them were unfamiliar with characters like Wild Bill Hickok and Count Dracula, who turn up without introduction, apparently for humor's sake, in several lessons. These shortcomings are relatively minor but require time-consuming explanations.

Orbit 1 is being introduced by a major EFL publisher as the first book of a new four-part course. As such, it will attract the attention of many English teachers in Japan. While this textbook has its positive points, it does not offer the kind of thoroughness and quality that one would like. My colleagues and I expressed our opinions by changing books at the end of the term.

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Reviewed by Al Flory
Fukuyama YMCA Business School

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Reviews in Brief

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: A Learning-Centred Approach. **Tom Hutchinson and Alan Waters. Cambridge University Press, 1987. 183 pp.**

State-run institutions in many (typically third world) countries have sought help from British and American organisations posing as expert in the design of courses for groups of learners with "specific" language objectives. Actually (in my experience) such courses are usually highly experimental and not always very successful. This book makes the valid point that approaches to ESP have been faulty in that they are product-centred – confining themselves to considering what language is to be taught, or what skills to be inculcated – rather than learner-centred. In their view, consideration of the learner and the learning process should be paramount at all stages of ESP course design.

To expound this point the book takes us (briefly) through the history of linguistics, learning theory, how the two have contributed to ESP, approaches to course, syllabus and materials design, and evaluation. Thus it provides a comprehensive background to TEFL thinking (mainly British) over the last 20 years. This may be the book's main merit. The authors frequently refer to the necessity of focusing on the learner but ultimately what they have to say is that ESP material should be interesting. This is all very well, but teachers have already had glimmerings of this great truth; how to apply it is another matter. The authors are suspiciously good on how courses may fail in this respect.

The book is clear, well diagrammed, and well laid out. It is slightly dull and the authors have a tendency to patronise (ESP for technicians: Pumping systems. Hello! I'm a blood cell.), but there is a great deal of food for thought for anybody who is involved in course design, or who wants a basic short course in applied linguistics.

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Reviewed by Jerry Ward
University of Library and Information Science
Tsukuba

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DICTIONARY OF CLICHES. **James Rogers. Ward Lock, 1985. 290 pp. £10.95. (orig. pub. Facts on File, 1985)**

This may or may not put the cat among the pigeons, but if I've said it once I've said it a thousand times, you can't beat a good cliche. There's nothing like a good cliche is what I al-

ways say, and I don't care who knows it. I mean, you know, where would we be without them? Things would have come to a pretty pass, and the world would be a sorrier place, and no mistake.

None of the cliches in that cliche-packed first paragraph could be found in the work under the most likely headwords – **put, cat or pigeons** in the first example. Alphabetical ordering of this sort of thing probably demands a supplementary index.

The dictionary contains over 2,000 common expressions, collected (on the editor's own admission) from a group of wordsmiths who just happened to be touring China together. The selection is, therefore, a random one, as it was bound to be. The distinction between cliches, proverbs, ordinary idioms, metaphors, boringly overused collocations, etc. is after all very much a subjective one. I myself thought "Make hay while the sun shines" (p. 161, under Make) was a proverb, but who is to say? Of George Orwell's 13 examples of what he calls "a huge dump of worn-out metaphors" in his essay "Politics and the English Language," nine receive entries here.

The only thing you can really expect from a dictionary of cliches is humour, and it is present here: automatically in some of the entries and on purpose in the laconic explanations of many of their histories. But the claim that **hunky dory** is from a street in Yokohama called "Huncho-dori" (*sic*) does raise doubts, and despite what it says on p. 209, Jonathan Swift was not alive in 1783.

The book is in line with the modern fashion for amusing trivia, but it is far from exhaustive, and there is some uncertainty about who it would really be useful to.

Reviewed by Paul Snowdn
Waseda University

MEANING BY ALL MEANS: A Vocabulary Text and Workbook for Students of ESL. **Charles Mason. Prentice-Hall, 1986. 132 pp.**

This book is an invaluable resource for the teacher whose job is to prepare students for academic work in English. Based on research in American universities, the book presents 588 basic academic vocabulary items which are likely to cause the foreign student trouble in college textbooks. In addition, the different types of exercises provide the student with the opportunity to develop essential skills in inductive reasoning, to learn the use of context to derive meaning and to improve study skills.

The format, the same for each of the 15 lessons, is clearly explained in the Practice Lesson at the beginning of the book and consists of five types of exercises.

In the first type of exercise, students read a sentence in which the words are used in a meaningful context and then are asked to decide if a second sentence is true or false based on the previous context. This exercise lends itself well to small-group work and discussion.

Analogies make up the second type of exercise. Nine types of analogies are used throughout the book. This is an excellent exercise for seeing relationships between words.

The third type of exercise deals with word derivations and lends itself well to dictionary use and related skills.

The fourth type deals with subject-verb patterns. Part of this exercise requires students to write original sentences. A more guided type of exercise might help students initially avoid using words incorrectly.

The final exercise gives practice in definitions and paraphrases for the 15 words in that lesson. This is useful as a basis for testing. Four achievement tests are provided to the teacher in an accompanying answer key.

I have used this book with great success in an intensive academic program as the basic text for an extensive vocabulary program, but it would be of equal value as a supplementary textbook in any academic program.

Reviewed by Harry Jennings
Temple University Japan

THE STORY OF ENGLISH. **Robert McCrum, William Cran and Robert MacNeil. London, Faber and Faber and BBC Publications, 1986. 384 pp.**

This is an ambitious, important and interesting book. It presents recent research into the history and presentday social role of the many varieties of the English language in the world today.

The book is designed to complement a nine-part series produced by the BBC and filmed in many different countries between 1983 and 1985 (not seen by this reviewer).

The claims made for the book are not modest. "We have tried to tell the whole story" (p. 11),

say the authors; and "There are several popular superstitions which we have tried to demolish," But they make the mistakes of being smug about the world dominance of English and of repeating the most challengeable superstition of all – that this dominance is attributable to properties inherent in the language such as its "simple grammar" and its "teeming vocabulary" (p. 47).

However, most of the book is an excellent statement of the reasons for rejecting this simplistic superstition. The authors make it clear that English grew to its current status because of the commercial and political dominance of English-speaking countries since the 19th century.

They explain how powerful political forces led to the elimination of several indigenous languages and how emigration, colonisation and the consequent mix of races led to the emergence of several standard varieties. They show how the forces of group identity and apartness led to the creation of non-standard varieties.

Some sloppy sections, but essential reading.

Reviewed by Richard Cauldwell
Kobe University

RECENTLY RECEIVED

The following materials have recently been received from publishers. Each is available as a review copy to any JALT member who wishes to review it for *The Language Teacher.*

Notations before some entries indicate duration on the holding list: an asterisk (*) indicates first notice in this issue, a dagger (†) indicates third-and-final notice this month. All final-notice **items will be discarded after Aug. 31.**

CLASSROOM TEXT MATERIALS/ GRADED READERS

*Akai.   VOA 英語ニュース聴解セミナー   Textbook, three cassettes). Osaka Kyoiku Tosho, 1987.
*Hazelbrigg. ***English Sound and Sense for International Communication.*** Allegan Educational Foundation, 1987.
*MacAndrew & Blundell. ***Interlink 1*** (Student's Book, Teacher's Book),
*Macmillan "Stories to Remember" series, 2 vols. Macmillan, 1987.
   Hilton, adapt. Green. ***Goodbye, Mr. Chips.***
   Stevenson, adapt. Holt. ***Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde.***
*Madden & Reinhart. ***Pyramids: Structurally based tasks for ESL learners.*** University of Michigan Press, 1987.
*Murphy ***et al. Use English!*** Book 1 (Student's Book). Macmillan, 1987.
*Peaty. ***Face to Face: Pairwork practice for intermediate students.*** Cassell, 1987.

Lonergan & Ward. ***New Dimensions 2*** (Student's Book). Macmillan, 1987.

†Ball. ***Seeing English.*** Macmillan, 1986.
†Casanave & Williams. The ***Active Reader: An introductory reading/communication text for students of ESL.*** Prentice-Halt, 1987.
†Costello. Stories ***from American Business.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†Dolugill. ***English Any Time.*** London: Lingual House, 1987.
†Jones. ***'Progress to Efficiency*** (Student's Book). Cambridge, 1987.
†Lautulippe.   ***Developing Academic Reading Skills.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†Naterop & Revell. ***Telephoning in English*** ("Professional English" series). Cambridge, 1987.
†Rainsbury. ***Bill Morgan's Beat and Other Scenes for Communication.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†Rodby. ***Writing by Choice: Intermedicate composition for students of ESL.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†Sawyer-Laucanno. ***Case Studies in International Management.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†Schwabe. ***Building Academic Skills: An ESL workbook.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†Steinberg. ***Practice Tests for the TOEFL.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†Tomlinson. ***Openings.*** London: Lingual House, 1986.
†Webb ***et al. Worksheet: A business-based writing and grammar guide.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†White. ***Writing Away.*** London: Lingual House, 1986.
†Wiley & Wrigley. ***Communicating in the Real World: Developing communication skills for business and the professions.*** Prentice-Hall, 1987.
†U.C.L.E.S. ***Cambridge Proficiency Examination Practice*** 2. Cambridge, 1987.

TEACHER PREPARATION/ REFERENCE/RESOURCE/OTHER

*Pattison. ***Developing Communication Skills: A practical handbook for language teachers, with examples in English, French, and German.*** Cambridge, 1987.
*Rivers, ed. ***Interactive Language Teaching*** ("Language Teaching Library" series). Cambridge, 1987.
*Yalden.   ***Principles of Course Design for Language Testing*** ("New Directions in Language Teaching" series). Cambridge, 1987.

†Sinclair ***et al.,*** eds. ***Collins COBUILD (Collins-Birmingham University International Language Database) English Language Dictionary.*** Collins, 1987.

The Language Teacher also welcomes well-written reviews of other appropriate materials not listed above, but please contact the Book Review Editor in advance for guidelines. It is ***The Language Teacher's*** policy to request that reviews of classroom teaching materials be based on in-class teaching experience. Japanese is the appropriate language for reviews of books published in Japanese. All requests for review copies or writer's guidelines should be in writing, addressed to: Jim Swan, Aoyama 8-122, Nara 630.

IN THE PIPELINE

The following materials are currently in the process of being reviewed by JALT members for publication in future issues ***of The Language Teacher.***

Aebersold ***et al. Critical Thinking, Critical Choices.***
Allen & Robinett. ***The New Technologies.***
Bacheller. ***Listening and Recall.***
Bachman. ***Reading English Discourse.***

Chapter Presentation Reports

Chapter reports on presentations are to be 150-250 words, typed double-spaced on A-4 size paper, and submitted to the Editor by the first of the month preceding publiqtion. Longer reports can be considered only upon prior consultation with the Editor.

FUKUOKA

IT WORKS FOR ME!/US!

The April meeting of the Fukuoka chapter offered members an opportunity to share their successful ideas with one another. Presenters represented a variety of approaches, institutions, and teaching situations. Nevertheless, each presentation reflected a number of common features: emphasis on a) students' needs, b) students' interests, c) meaningful communication, d) communicative tasks, e) negotiable tasks and results, f) interaction between learners, and g) the teacher as facilitator.

Very briefly, then, the presenters and their presentations: 1) Janice Garvin (Kita Kyushu YMCA), Picture That: exploits information gap using pictures; 2) Chris Carman (Kita Kyushu YMCA), *Verbal Baseball:* exploits questions and answers in a game situation; 3) Robert Hanson (Fukuoka/Tokai Daigaku), *True Colors – A Method for Teaching Songs:* exploits students' interest in music as a basis for communicative activities; 4) Glenn Gainer (Fukuoka Daigaku), *Give Me a Blackboard:* exploits information gap and students' creative interests using pictures; 5) Martin Power (New International School), *Developing Short-Term Memory Using a Tape Recorder:* listen, remember, and repeat. Increase amount of information gradually. Develop listen-

ing, short-term memory, intonation, and pronunciation; 6) Rand Uehara (Saga Medical School), *A Potpourri of Ideas*: exploit use of video camera, scenes from movies, cassette tapes, student notebooks, *manga*, etc.; 7) Dick Dusek (Kinki Daigaku), *The Friendship Test*: communicative activities based upon the process of making friends in a game situation; 8) Maddy Uraneck (Tokai Daigaku), *Build a City*: exploits pictures and information gap to develop communicative/negotiation skills.

Reported by **Rand Uehara**

IBARAKI

SUGGESTOPEDIA – A HUMANISTIC APPROACH

講演者　　野沢　和典（Nozawa, Kazunori）

5月10日水戸市民会館に集まった参加者は、野沢氏の suggestopedia の実演で、くつろいだ雰囲気の中に、生徒の潜在能力を引き出すための理論と実際の方法を学んだ。

ほとんど使われていない人間の能力を活性化するためには、緊張を解くことが大切だという。参加者も実際に手足を伸ばしたり、音楽を聞いたりして心身をほぐし、心の受容性を高めた。その上で、生徒の長期記憶を促すために、全神経を集中させる様々な工夫がなされるのだが、これには、まず興味ある教材を選ぶことと、生徒が教授者や教材を信頼している必要がある。教材は背景の音楽にのせて rhythm, intonation, tone 等に大きな変化をつけて退屈さを追放する。普段聞きなれた読み方とはかなり異なっていたが、つい引き込まれてしまう雰囲気があった。

記憶されたものを引き出して、生徒の活動を促すやり方は pairwork, group work 等を利用した communicative approach で、他の教授法と大きな差はないが、個人を尊重し、生徒に自信と積極性をもたせるために、間違えても間接的な訂正しかしないのが原則だということである。

Dr. Lazanov の流れをくむ「暗示的加速度学習」とい

(cont'd from previous page)
Ball. *Dictionary of Link Words in English Discourse.*
Ball & Wood. *Dictionary of English Grammar Based on Common Errors.*
Black *et al. Fast Forward.*
Brown. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.*
Crow. *Vocabulary for Advanced Reading Comprehension,*
De Jong. *The Bilingual Experience.*
Dubin & Olshtain. *Course Design.*
Dunn. *Noah and the Golden Turtle.*
Gairns & Redman. *Working with Words.*
Glendinning & Holstrom. *English in Medicine.*
Harmer & Surguine. *Coast to Coast.*
Harris & Palmer. *C.E.L.T.*
Herzfeld-Pipkin & McCarrick. *Exploring the US.*
Hino. トーフルの *650点：私の英語修養*.

Howard. *Idioms in American Life.*
Janssen. *Unusual Stories from Many Lands.*
Kasser & Silverman. *Stories We Brought With Us.*
Macmillan "Advanced Readers" series.
Master. *Science, Medicine and Technology.*
Mugglestone *et al. English in Sight.*
Neufeld. *Handbook for Technical Communication.*
Rosenthal & Rowland. *Academic Reading and Study Skills*
Suzuki *et al. Basics in Reading.*
Taylor *et al. Ways to Reading.*
Tomalin. *Video, TV and Radio in the English Class.*
Valdes. *Culture Bound.*
Watson. *Welcome to English.*
Wright. "How to. . ." series.
Zion *et al.* "Open Sesame" series.

うことで、専門の精神医学的知識が不可欠なのではない
かという印象があったが、生徒をリラックスさせ、集中
させる方法等（具体的な音楽名も含んで）普段の授業
にも応用できる点の多い講演であった。
　　　報告者　　小松崎道子（Komatsuzaki, Michiko）

KANAZAWA

TPR: FROM SIMPLE ACTIONS
TO CLASSROOM DRAMA

By Dale Griffee

Total Physical Response has been around for
some time now but few teachers have made use
of it for classroom purposes. As Griffee pointed
out, this is because of lack of training and the
dearth of textbook material. As a consequence,
the method has acquired a mystique rivalled only
by Suggestopedia and CLL with which it is often
bracketed as "fringe" or "alternative" methods.

Griffee's one-man attempt at de-mystification
was revealed to Kanazawa JALT with useful tips
for how to store and generate commands; class-
room management; and extension activities, The
session was particularly fruitful in demonstrating
how TPR can be used for simple drama sketches,
samples of. which were taken from Griffee's
Lingual House book.

Reported by John Dougill

KOBE

KOBE CHAPTER CONFERENCE
ON INTERCULTURAL CONCERNS

This all-day integrated lecture workshop,
focusing on intercultural concerns in the class-
room, was attended by about 100 people who
came from as far away as Nagano.

The keynote speaker was Ryoko Nakatsu,
author of ***Nande Eigo-o Yaru No.*** Nakatsu talked
about her cross-cultural experiences when she
lived in the U.S.S.R. as a child and in the U.S.A.
as a college student, and her readjustment
problems upon her returns to Japan. She said she
suffered culture shock not onlv in Russia and the
U.S., but also in Japan once having lived abroad.
Nakatsu moved to the U.S.S.R. for several years
when she was very young. And when she return-
ed to Japan, it was like entering into a new cul-
ture despite her Japanese upbringing by her
parents. Growing up in these situations, Nakatsu
felt at times dissatisfaction, disappointment,
and fear of being in the three cultures, especially
hers, when she returned. These feelings and others
caused her not to assimilate completely into

Japanese society. Nakatsu classifies herself as a
"non-Japanized" Japanese. She told us that if she
had had some guidance about the cultures, some
of these reactions would not have been so
traumatic, and assimilation might have occurred.
It was these and other concerns that the talks
that followed were focused on.

The first speaker was **Dr. Sonia Eagle,** an
anthropologist. Eagle suggested that one way to
try to alleviate the culture shock that one en-
counters in a new culture is through an anthro-
pological study of one's own culture and the new
one. This study is a fieldwork study in which the
students go out and observe one or several
behaviors, e.g. eating and greeting, by taking
notes and returning to the classroom to discuss
their findings. While it is sometimes impossible
to go out in a new culture and observe, Eagle
suggested using films and videos for this purpose.
She said that through this method a person can
acquire a new culture and then later can be
taught to overcome the culture shock that
Nakatsu experienced.

Another way to overcome culture shock
before it happens was introduced by **Linda
Donan.** She suggested that by roleplaying, the
students can be helped through difficult experi-
ences before they actually happen.

The third speaker was **Ralph Robinson** from
IRI International, Inc., a company which special-
izes in training business people in languages and
cultures. His talk focused on interactive listening.
When two people of different cultures talk, there
is always some miscommunication which is not
corrected or clarified, which can reduce inter-
action and communication. Some of the skills
that are taught for remedying this are interrupt-
ing/turn taking, checking understanding, and
summarizing/confirming.

John Ratliff, last speaker of the conference,
reviewed all that was said and contrasted eastern
and western values, He concluded by stating that
through proper intercultural training, a person
can become an "international person," someone
who can observe non-judgmentally, tolerate the
ambiguities of a culture, has a sense of humor,
and has empathy for different cultures.

Reported by J. Patrick Bea
The Natural Way E.C. School

NO CHAPTER IN YOUR AREA?

Why not organize one! Contact Keiko
Abe, JALT Membership Chair, for complete
details. Address: l-12-11 Teraya; Tsurumi-
ku. Yokohama 230.

KOBE

SIMPLE QUESTIONS

By David McLane

David McLane began his presentation at the June meeting with an introduction to Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), which makes students explicitly aware of three "learning modalities" he introduces as "picture, sound, and feeling." Although all learners have their own preferred modality, successful learners are able to "shift" from one to another, according to NLP.

The demonstration that followed centered around quick (less than three seconds) responses to auditory/visual stimuli: "word tennis." In small groups, one student starts with giving ("serving"), using both word and gesture, any number to another. The second student responds ("receives") by repeating the number and, in turn, giving any number to another group member. Gradually other items (color, quantity, quality, subject, action, place, time, etc.) are added, so that a simple "7" may end up as "7 beautiful blue penguins sailing into the sunset off the west coast of Africa." An extension of this activity has one student inviting another to ask questions ("How many?" "What kind?" "What?"), the answers to which build up an image. The partner then gives feedback in the form of the complete image. The third activity involved the actual drawing of a combination of images created from auditory input. All these fast-moving activities showed ways that NLP can be used effectively to draw out even the most reticent students.

Reported by Jan Visscher

OSAKA

EXTENSIVE READING
USING GRADED READERS. . AND BEYOND

By Julian Bamford

Julian Bamford's essential purpose at the June meeting of JALT-Osaka was threefold: to explain what graded readers are, what value they have, and how they might best be used. To answer these questions it was also necessary to define certainly closely related terms, particularly the term "extensive reading." Extensive reading, as he defines it, is "the reading of large amounts of material for pleasure and information, just as one does in one's own language. And, as in one's own language, one rarely, if ever, consults a dictionary." Of course in order to do this in a foreign language, one must read that which is compatible with one's reading ability; hence, graded readers.

Graded readers are books that have been written with a limited vocabulary and limited grammatical structures so that they may be read easily by students of English at various levels. Essentially they are meant to increase reading ability, but at the same time they have the potential of improving vocabulary as Bamford demonstrated by written samples of his students' reactions. They also seem able to improve a student's self-image and motivation to study foreign language. Many students seemed very grateful for the opportunity to read material that they found genuinely interesting.

Bamford suggested several ways of using these books and generally, in his own practice, seemed to try to find a balance between encouraging and coercing his students to read. His enthusiasm was infectious and his presentation was friendly and energetic.

Reported by Jerry Biederman

SAPPORO

JALT SAPPORO
FOURTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE

Robert Weschler, in helping the conference to get its act together, taught us to create tension in the classroom, bringing his bags full of plastic toys and pictures, through which he demonstrated how drills can be productive through variety and use of humor. Participants ended up producing such sentences as, "Take the elephant out of the ham burger!" He stressed activities that involve gaps which must be filled through questioning, answering, and other communicative activities.

Keiko Abe demonstrated classroom activities for children and young adults. Participants responded positively to the games that encouraged shy students, especially those who don't know each other, to speak up. One comment was that Abe showed how students can learn and remember through acting and physical movement rather than just using printed material.

Ann Chenoweth talked about how teachers can help writers develop a more global perspective when rewriting (not just editing) papers. She stressed the importance of writers developing a sensitivity toward readers and, through feedback, helping the writers understand where there may be misunderstanding because of gaps in information or lack of development.

Takashi Oda, who has already published two

books containing conversations visitors to Hokkaido might have with Japanese residents, has written some materials using dialogues concerning political events in other countries, in order to enable students to develop vocabulary for listening to the news or reading periodicals. He is currently writing materials on Japanese culture using two approaches – the "field trip" approach (i.e., actually going to kabuki plays, etc.) and the "armchair" approach (watching videotapes, and reading books about Japan written by both Japanese and non-Japanese authors). His purpose is to help Japanese with vocabulary background information in English so they can better explain their culture to people from other countries.

**Reported by C.A. Edington,
Yumiko Enyo, and Taiko Sugiwaka**

SENDAI

HOW TO USE AND MAKE ROLEPLAYS

By Jim Zorn

The moment you assume an identity other than your everyday self, you have entered the world of roleplays. Are they a useful tool for learning foreign languages? Sendai JALT members answered that question for themselves after acting out the "Famous People Cocktail Party" from Jim Zorn's fresh new book on roleplays.

Roleplays relieve stress by freeing students from the self-consciousness they attach to their everyday selves. They provoke the imagination and expand Language possibilities. They help the students develop second language/second culture identities and, last but not least, they're more fun than a barrel of monkeys.

Zorn uses the participatory approach. He soothes frazzled nerves with Vivaldi and then plunges everyone into the whole experience, eliciting both the questions and the answers from the participants themselves. Here, the accent is on spontaneity, creativity, and improvisation.

Roleplays are culminating activities; they're infinitely variable and can meet the needs of every level. If they aren't already, they ought to be the language teacher's "most deadly weapon."

Reported by Alan Gordon

SHIZUOKA

GETTING STUDENTS TO TALK

By Barbara Hoskins, New Day School, Sendai

At the May meeting of the JALT-Shizuoka chapter, Barbara Hoskins addressed the problem of turning uninteresting English textbook lessons into communicative activities. She focused on texts used in junior and senior high schools, although most of her presentation was applicable to all levels. She described the difficulties which teachers often encounter in Japanese schools in introducing communicative activities when the ultimate goal of students is to be able to pass the examinations. Her approach, therefore, is to incorporate the words and grammar of the textbook into communicative activities.

Hoskins began by presenting a simple four-part taxonomy for classifying communicative activities: transfer of medium, transfer of information, exchange of information, and matching exercises. She then gave a number of examples of these communicative activities generated from the *New Horizon* series. The presentation concluded with a workshop where participants worked with examples of junior high school textbook lessons to produce a variety of communiative activities.

This presentation demonstrated that despite the need for continuing innovation in existing high school English materials and teaching methods, teachers can, with a little imagination, restructure textbook materials in an interesting way and, through pair and group work, get the students to talk.

Reported by Barry Natusch
Tokoha University

SUWA

FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN NAGANO PREFECTURE AND JAPAN

The June meeting of JALT-Suwa featured speeches by representatives from five different educational institutions in Nagano Prefecture on the present direction and future needs of language education in Nagano and Japan. The individual speeches were followed by a panel discussion of the problems facing Japan's educational system.

The first speaker was Takuro Miyashita, an English teacher at Matsumoto Arigasaki High School. He strongly believes that Japanese language teachers should have more teacher training. He pointed out that the present curriculum objectives established by the Ministry of Education are often not followed.

The next speaker was Haruhiko Shokawa, an English instructor at Minowa Technical High School. He finds that most students are de-motivated by the English lessons they receive in junior high school and that preparation for entrance exams limits the amount of time spent on developoing students' communicative ability there.

Minoru Iida, professor of the Liberal Arts Department at Shinshu University, spoke next. He explained that budget restrictions prevent his institution from offering enough language classes, which has resulted in over-enrollment, causing crowded classrooms. He said only 25% of the 1,300 students who wanted to enroll in English conversation class could be accommodated this term.

Shizuko Tanaka, administrator at Suwa English Academy (a private English conversation school), followed Professor Iida. She indicated that their 200 students vary in age from

Bulletin **B**oard

JALT NATIONAL SUMMER SEMINAR
Tokai University Junior College
Shiiuoka, August l-2

Highlights – Hiro Taguchi: *Suggestopedia and TPR in the U.S.;* Don Maybin: Motivating *Students and Tired Teachers;* Ken Tamai and Takeshi Maenaka: *Reforming English Teaching in Japan's Public High Schools;* Mr. Tamai, Mr. Maenaka, Ruth Venning, and Minoru Wada: *Team Teaching.* For information call John Laing, 0542-61-6321 (W) or 0542-46-6861 (H), or hurry to the site, near Yunoki Station. Members, Y14,000; non-members, Y16,500 for two days. Complete details in the July *Language Teacher.*

THE 9th IN-COMPANY LANGUAGE SEMINAR: Bringing ESP Into Focus
CALL FOR PAPERS

To focus on the most salient area of ESP in Japan, training working people to conduct what business they must in a foreign language, this Seminar, to be held Sat., Oct. 10, in Tokyo, calls for papers which deal with, among other areas, appropriate theories of learning, methods of instruction, curriculum design, theory and implementation of needs analyses, and the bridging of "general" and "special purpose" language instruction.

Procedure: Send (1) a 150-word (max.) summary of your presentation with a ten-word (max.) title. You may append an elaboration. Omit your name, address, and any other identifying mark. (2) An identical summary and title plus a 30-word (max.) biography written in the third person. Have this second summary bear your name, address, and phone number on each page.

Submissions in Roman script should be typed, double-spaced, on A4 paper. Those in Japanese script should be on A4 "400-ji *genkoh yohshi."* Send your proposals – to be received by Aug. 26 –

to: George E. Reseter, Program Chair, 1-25-12 Toyoda, Hino-shi, Tokyo 191.

SECOND LANGUAGE RESEARCH FORUM CALL FOR PAPERS

The University of Hawaii will host the eighth Second Language Research Forum (SLRF) March 3-6, 1988. Plenary speakers will be Susan Gass (Michigan State University), Eric Kellerman (University of Nijmegen), Barry McLaughlin (University of California, Santa Cruz), and Richard Schmidt (University of Hawaii). We are soliciting data-based studies in any area of SLA, including (but not limited to): Bilingualism, SL Classroom Processes, Discourse Analysis, Ethnography of SLA, Interlanguage, Language Universals, and Transfer. Presentations will be limited to 45 minutes, including 15 minutes for questions. Send (a) three copies of a 250-word abstract (name on one copy), (b) one copy of a 100-word summary, and (c) a 3" x 5" card with name, address, paper title, your current professional status and area of research to: Graham Crookes, Program Chair. SLRF '88, Department of ESL, University of Hawaii at Manoa, 1890 East-West Road, Honolulu, HI 96822, USA. Abstracts must be received by Oct. 30. Notification of acceptance will be mailed by Nov. 15.

SIT SUMMER SEMINARS
Odawara, August 19-23 and 26-30

The School of International Training will offer two highly participatory, experiential residential seminars which will examine the role of culture and communicative competence in language teaching this summer at Odawara's Asia Center. Aug. 19-23: Dr. Alvino Fantini – Teaching for Communicative Competence; Aug. 26-30: Janet Gaston – Integratlng Culture in the Language Classroom. Optional graduate credit. For information: Shari Berman, 03-719-4991, or Fusako Allard, 06-315-0848.

INTRODUCTION TO SELF-ACCESS PAIR LEARNING TRAINING
Tokyo, August 20-24

Nicolas Ferguson, Director of the C.E.E.L. in Geneva, will offer a five-day training seminar for those interested in self-access pair learning. This

Are your students
having problemswith listening?
Take a look at

Listen for It is particularly suitable for
Japanese students who have studied English for several
years but still lack the ability to understand
conversational American English.

(cont'd from page 40)

training is strongly recommended for anyone who wishes to teach the course ***Threshold.*** Place: I-House (Kokusai Bunka Kaikan), Roppongi. For information: Didasko, 6-7-31-611, Itachibori, Nishi-ku, Osaka 550; tel. 06-443-3810.

非行高校生と英語教育
HIGH SCHOOL JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND ENGLISH EDUCATION

　現在の公立高校は、一部ではあるが、飲酒・喫煙・暴力・万引き・不純異性行為・家出・授業妨害等が学校中を吹き荒れているといっても過言ではない状態にある。こうした嵐の中にいる若者達を、義務教育ではないからといって切り捨てることは、日本の社会においては、その若者達の一生を左右する問題であり、きわめて困難である。

　JALT は言語教育の研究団体であるが、言語教育を通して人間形成をしていくことは言うまでもない。そこで、JALT の会員で、英語という道具を使って、非行高校生を立ち直らせる試みに関心のある方を募りたい。

　興味のある方は、下記まで連絡して下さい。

〒380　長野市大豆島　2743～1
長野県長野東高等学校
北澤　勝親
☎　0262-21-8111

INTERNATIONAL RESOURCES
Change of Address

International Resource!, a JALT associate member, has a new address: Yamatane Ikebukuro Bldg. 5F., 1-11-22 Minami Ikebukuro, Toshima-ku, Tokyo 171; tel. 03-982-7349.

(cont'd from page 39)

5 years old to 60 years old. Therefore, the greatest challenge is meeting the needs of students with different backgrounds. In addition, some children go to the school to please their parents and, thus, are not very motivated.

The last speaker was Miwako Koshiishi, administrator of the Language and International Training Program at Seiko Epson Corporation's Human Resource and Development Center. She explained that the company's program was established to prepare businessmen to travel and work abroad. She believes that having trained native speakers as teachers is essential to any language program in Japan.

Reported by Robert L. Brown III

Meetings

KOBE/KYOTO/OSAKA Joint Meeting

On Sept. 20 at Umeda Gakuen. Dr. Philip Jay Lewitt, Tottori University, will conduct a five-hour workshop, Zen and the Art of Composition. See the September *L T* for full details.

NAGOYA

Topic:	Creating a Multi-Dimensional, Comprehensive English Program in Japanese Schools
Speaker:	Hiro Taguchi
Date:	Sunday, August 9th
Time:	1:30-5 p.m.
Place:	To be announced
Fee:	Members, \500; non-members, \1,500
Info:	Tetsu Suzuki, 0566-22-5381
	Lynne Roecklein, 0582-94-0115

Mr. Taguchi is a Japanese person with experience in two worlds of foreign language teaching/learning, the world of a schoolboy learning English in Japan and that of a teacher and teacher trainer in the U.S., where he has worked in both English and in Japanese. He is now the Program Director for Japanese study at the Language Pacifica in San Francisco.

With his experience in both worlds, Mr. Taguchi has developed methods of integrating the insights of TPR (Total Physical Response) and Suggestopedia into the dominantly grammar/translation-oriented Japanese English education in such a way that a strong listening/speaking dimension is added. In this way, his methods do not at all compete against the norm but rather make the present programs in Japan more comprehensive. He will explain the theory and practice of his approach, and hopes to engage in lively discussion of the issues raised.

OSAKA

Topic:	Some Ins and Outs of Interlanguage Discourse
Speakers:	Richard Berwick and Steven Ross
Date:	Sunday, August 16th
Time:	1-4:30 p.m.
Place:	Umeda Gakuen
Fee:	Members, free; non-members. \1,000

(cont'd from previous page)

Info: Tamara Swenson, 06-35 1-8843
           Steve & Beniko Mason, 0798-49-4071

In examining various aspects of language used in classroom and non-classroom settings by both teachers and learners, different types of input to learners will be considered from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives with a view to contrasting current approaches to course design. In particular, pair work and teacher-fronted approaches will be examined. The discussion will also include analyses of learner discourse in various information-gap activities, in common 'conversation' textbook dialogs, and in conversation with both native and non-native interlocutors. A survey of common accommodation strategies used in interlanguage communication will be included.

Richard Berwick, associate professor of applied linguistics at Kobe University of Commerce, has published articles in **TESOL Quarterly** and the **JALT Journal.**

Steven Ross, lecturer in the faculty of general studies at Kobe University of Commerce, has been involved in various aspects of research into the process of classroom language learning for the last six years.

OSAKA SIG (date/place as above)
Children

Topic: Games Old and New
Time: 11 a.m.-12:30 p.m.
Info: Sr. Regis Wright, 06-699-8733

JALT-MATSUYAMA SUMMER SEMINAR
Dogo Prince Hotel, August 8-10

Although the Seminar is designed for junior and senior high school teachers, all who are interested in improving their English proficiency and in furthering their intercultural understanding are welcome. There will be a lecture and two workshops by Michihiro Matsumoto, a former simultaneous interpreter for the American Embassy, Tokyo, and interviewer for NHK. Some of his books are: **Logic of Intellectual Conflict,** 1975; **Rapid Listening in English,** 1983; **A Dictionary of "Give" and "Get" Expressions,** 1983. In discussion sessions the participants will work on improving reading, writing, and listening skills as well as intercultural understanding. Due to space limitations, we can accept only 50 applicants for the seminar.

Fees (including two nights' accommodation): Members, \25,000, non-members, \26,000; \5,000 less without accommodation. Mr. Matsumoto's lecture only: \3,000/3,500.

Information: Michiko Ishii, 0899-43-7033, or Kazuyo Kuwahara, 0899451218

	Saturday, Aug. 8th	Sunday, Aug. 9th	Monday, Aug. 10th
9:00	Registration		
9:30	Opening Ceremony	Captioned Video	Video Viewing
10:00	Listening Comprehension Presentation (all participants)	Session II – Writing Workshop (i) by M. Matsumoto	Listening Comprehension Presentation
10:30	Listening Comprehension Keview (Individual groups)		Listening Comprehension Review
11:00	Coffee Break	Coffee Break	Coffee Break
11:15	Reading Workshop by Nancy Baxer, Temple University	Writing Workshop (ii)	Questionnaire and Closing Ceremony
12:30	Lunch	Lunch	
2:00	Session I – Lecture by M. Matsumoto	Session III – Reading Workshop	
4:00	Tea Break	Tea Break	
4:15	Questions and Discussion	Reading Workshop	*(Schedule subject to change)*
5:00	Dinner	Dinner	
7:00	Discussion (Article)	Discussion (Article)	
9:00		Party (8:30-10:00)	

SAPPORO

Topic:	A Live Alive English Conversation Class
Speaker	C.A. Edington (on video)
Date:	Sunday, August 23rd
Time:	1:30-3:30 p.m.
Place:	Kyoiku Bunka Kaikan, 4F.; North 1, West 14 (At the Nishi 11-chome subway station, take exit #1, walk diagonally across the park past the fountain, cross the street and go one more block east. Look for the red building with the big block sculpture in front of it.)
Fee:	Members, free; non-members, \500
Info:	T. Christensen, 011-737-7409
	Mary Virgil, 011-572-3366

A videotape will be shown of an actual English conversation class and techniques used in developing students' speaking and listening skills. The teacher, C.A. Edington, taught for almost five years at Asahi Cultural Center. The viewing of the tape will be followed by a discussion – reactions to or comments on the techniques used.

SENDAI

Topic:	Teaching for Communicative Competence
Speaker:	Alvino Fantini
Date:	Tuesday, September 1st
Time:	6-9 p.m.
Place:	Shimin Kaikan, 022-262-4721
Fee:	Members, \500; non-members, \1,000
Info:	Tomoo Mizuide, 022-246-0859 (night) or 0223-22-3853 (day)

In this seminar, participants (1) expand their view of communicative competence; (2) explore the interrelationships between language and culture; (3) investigate language acquisition in children and second language learning in adults; and, finally, (4) apply these concepts to the language classroom through a six-stage model which integrates all aspects of communicative competence, while drawing on a variety of methods and techniques. The seminar includes both theory and application and is highly participatory.

Dr. Alvino Fantini is the Director of Bilingual Multicultural Education at the School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont. See **Bulletin Board** for information on his Aug. 19-23 seminar.

TOYOHASHI

Topic:	Chinese the Silent Way
Speaker:	Tak Uemura
Date:	Sunday, August 30th
Time:	1:30-4:30 p.m.
Place:	Kinro Fukushi Kaikan, 2F.
Fee:	Members, free; non-members, \500
Info:	Kazunori Nozawa, 0532-48-0399 (evenings only)

What is the difference between 'memorizing' and 'retaining'? How can students retain without memorizing? What is the difference between 'language' and 'communication'? Which are you teaching? Where does 'meaning' come from? How can teachers tell that the students are learning? If these questions intrigue you, you can find some solutions by participating in a language-learning workshop: 'Chinese the Silent Way,' an approach in which teaching is subordinated to learning. Self-made charts will be used.

Tak Uemura teaches at Koryo International College and has degrees in TESOL from Teachers College, Columbia University, and the University of California at Berkeley.

TOKYO SIG

Business

Topic:	Problems in Setting Up Company Programs
Speakers:	Derald Nielson, David Wardell, and John Chance
Date:	Sunday, August 16th
Time:	2-5 p.m.
Place:	Nichibei Kaiwa Gakuin, Yotsuya
Fee:	Members, free; non-members, \500
Info:	Marilyn Books, 03-229-0199
	Steve Wilkings, 03-327-8655

The speakers will lead a discussion of the problems in developing language programs for Japanese businesses, and offer suggestions on how to solve them.

Derald Nielson, an instructor and researcher, has been teaching in Japan for 13 years. He is currently Director of International Communication Research Associates (ICRA). David Wardell and John Chance are instructors at the University of Pittsburgh English Language Institute Japan Program.

YOKOHAMA

Topic:	Fluency and Accuracy
Speaker:	Marc Helgesen
Dte:	Sunday, August 16th
Time:	2-5 p.m.
Place:	Kaiko Kinen Kaikan (near JR Kannai stn.)
Fee:	Members, free; non-members, \500
Info:	Bill Patterson, 0463-34-2557

On Sept. 13 Rick O'Connor will speak on "Preparing for the TOEIC."

Positions

(KASHIMA, Ibaraki-ken) An affiliate of Sumitomo Metals is looking for people, particularly couples, with backgrounds and experience in TESOL, ESP and communication or cross-cultural training for full-time teaching positions from September. An advanced degree is desirable but not a necessity. Initial contracts are for one year, renewable upon satisfactory performance. Information: Mikio Ando (Director) or Walter Matreyek (Manager) Sumikin-Intercom, Inc., 5-15 Kitahama, Higashi-ku, Osaka 541; tel. 06-220-5500.

(KYOTO) Part-time teachers, evenings and Saturdays. Two years' English teaching experience required, TEFL and/or teacher training preferred. Full-time possible if well qualified. Timothy Kelly, Kyoto YMCA English School, Sanjo Yanagi-no-banba, Nakagyo-ku, Kyoto 604; tel. 075-231-4388.

(NAGOYA) Full-time Associate Instructor, native English speaker, beginning April 1, 1988. Contract is for two years with one renewal possible. Minimum teaching load of 16 hours/week plus office hours and participation in program planning. Compensation depends on qualifications. M.A. in ESL/EFL, English, Linguistics, or related field required. Send resume, statement of career goals, two recommendations including one from a faculty memer of most recently attended graduate school, to Peter Garlid, Department of English, Nanzan Junior College, 19 Hayato-cho, Showa-ku, Nagoya 466, by Oct. 1.

(NISHINOMIYA) Part-time native English instructors needed for Saturday afternoons from September. Send resume in English to: Union English Conversation School, 4-14 Ochayasho-cho, Nishinomiya, Hyogo 662; tel. 0798-35-8911 (Shukugawa), 9 a.m.-5:30 p.m.

(OSAKA) Part-time and full-time English Conversation teachers from April, 1988. An M.A. degree in TESOL or some related field is preferred. Send personal history to the President by Sept. 19. Interviews will be held in early October. Dr. H. Yanagihara, Poole Gakuin Junior College (Anglican;, 4-5-l Makizukadai, Sakai, Osaka 590-01; tel. 0722-92-7201.

(SAPPORO) Full-time teacher of English, mainly conversational, who will also help develop teaching-learning materials. Native speaker with M.A. or M.S.; Japan resident. Two years beginning April 1, 1988; one renewal possible. Salary and allowances: \4,900,000-7,000,000. Rental housing provided. Send detailed personal history (including names, ages, relationship, occupation of family members who will live with you), three letters of recommendation (including one from a senior responsible person associated with your current work), a list and, if possible, copies of academic publications, and a formal photograph to: Administrative Section, Administrative Office, Sapporo Medical College, West 17, South 1, Chuo-ku, Sapporo 060, to arrive by Aug. 22.

(SENDAI) Certified teachers and/or with TEFL certification wanted. North American, native English speakers with teaching experience. Full-time positions from Nov. 1. For further information: Kurt Scheibner, James English School, 3-3-10 Chuo, Sendai 980, or phone 022-267-4911.

(TOKYO) Prentice Hall/Regents of Japan is looking for an ESL/EFL Sales Rep for Japan. This is a very important position with excellent career potentials for the right person. Broad TEFL experience and knowledge of Japan essential. A background in curriculum development or other writing experience doing presentations, workshops and/or teacher training, and involvement in JALT all positive factors. For further information: Norman Harris, 03-238-1050.

(TOKYO) Native speaker of English for a full-time position beginning April 1, 1988. Main duties will include teaching reading, writing, and speaking to freshmen and sophomores. For details and a list of the required documents, write the English Department Office, Tsuda College, 2-l-l Tsuda-machi, Kodaira-shi, Tokyo 187. Applications and all necessary documents must be received by Sept. 28.

(TSU) Full-time English tachers for children and adults wanted from October. Interviews will be held in the last week of August and the first week of September. Send resume by Aug. 20 to: Principal, Asahi Language Academy, 345 Hadokoro-cho, Tsu-shi, Mie-ken 514; tel. 0592-24-4063.

MEMBERSHIP INFORMATION

JALT is a professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language learning and teaching in Japan, a vehicle for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping abreast of new developments in a rapidly changing field. JALT, formed in 1976, has an international membership of some 3,000. There are currently 30 JALT chapters throughout Japan. It is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) and a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

Publications – JALT publishes The **Language Teacher,** a monthly magazine of articles and announcements on professional concerns, and the semi-annual **JALT Journal.** Members enjoy substantial discounts on **Cross Currents** (Language Institute of Japan) and **English Today** (Cambridge University Press). Members who join IATEFL through JALT can receive **English Language Teaching Journal, Practical English Teacher, Modern English Teacher,** and the **EFL Gazette** at considerably lower rates.

Meetings and Conferences – The **JALT International Conference on Language Teaching/Learning** attracts some 1500 participants annually. The program consists of over 200 papers, workshops and colloquia, a publishers' exhibition of some 1000 m^2, an employment center, and social events. **Local chapter** meetings are held on a monthly or bi-monthly basis in each JALT chapter. JALT also sponsors special events annually, such as the Summer Institute for secondary school teachers, and regular In-Company Language Training Seminars.

Awards for Research Grants and Development – Awarded annually. Application must be made to the JALT President by September 1. Awards are announced at the annual conference.

Membership – **Regular Membership** (\6,000) includes membership in the nearest chapter. **Joint Memberships** (\10,000), available to two individuals sharing the same mailing **address, receive only one copy of each** JALT publication. Group Memberships (\3,600/person) are available to five or more people employed by the same institution. One copy of each publication is provided for every five members or fraction **thereof. Associate Memberships** (\50,000) **are available to organizations which wish to demonstrate** their support of JALTs goals, display their materials at JALT meetings, **take** advantage of the mailing list, or advertise in JALT publications at reduced rates. Application can be madk at any JALT meeting, by using the postal money transfer form (yubin furikae) found in every issue of *The Language Teacher,* or by sending a check or money order in yen (on a Japanese bank) or dollars (on a U.S. bank) to the Central Office.

Central Office: Kyoto English Center, Sumitomo Seimei Bldg., 8F., Shijo Karasuma Nishi-im, Shimogyo-ku, Kyoto 600; tel. (075) 221-2376. Furikae Account: Kyoto 5-15892. Name: "JALT

JALT —全国語学教育学会について

　JALT は、語学教育のために、最新の言語理論に基づく、より良い教授法を学ぶ機会を提供し、日本における語学学習の向上と語学教育の発展を図ることを目的とする学術団体です。現在、日本全国に約3,000名の会員を持ち、英語教師協会（TESOL）の加盟団体、及び国際英語教師協会（IATEFL）の日本支部として、国際的にも活躍しています。

出版物：上記の英文記事を参照。JALT 会員、或は IATEFL 会員には、割引きの特典がある出版物もあります。

大会及び例会：年次国際大会、夏期セミナー企業内語学セミナー、各支部の例会等があります。

支　部：現在、全国に30支部あります。（札幌、仙台、山形、茨城、群馬、大宮、千葉、東京、西東京、横浜、新潟、金沢、福井、長野、諏訪、静岡、浜松、豊橋、名古屋、京都、大阪、神戸、岡山、広島、徳島、高松、松山、福岡、長崎、沖縄）

研究助成金：詳細は JALT 事務局まで。

会員及び会費：個人会費（¥6,000）―最寄りの支部の会員も兼ねています。**共同会員**（¥10,000）―住居を共にする個人2名が対象です。JALT の各出版物が、2名に対し1部しか配布されないという事以外は個人会員と同じです。**団体会員**（¥3,600－1名）―同一勤務先に勤める個人が5名以上集まった場合に限られます。5名毎に、JALT の出版物が1部配布されますが、端数は切り上げます。**賛助会員**（¥50,000）―JALT 活動を支援するための寄付として会費を納めて下さる方、或は年次国際大会や例会等で、出版物の展示を行ったり、会員名簿の配布を受けたり、又、JALT の出版物に低額の料金で広告を掲載することを希望する方が対象です。

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JALT 事務局：〒600 京都市下京区四条烏丸西入ル　住友生命ビル8 F　京都イングリッシュセンター内

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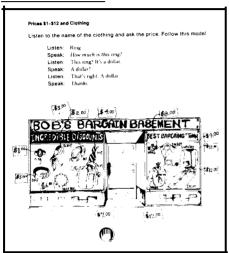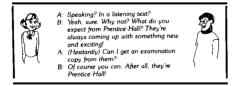Balwearie Gardens
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