JALT The Japan Association of Language Teachers
NEWSLETTER
Vol.IV No.3 Y2OO March 1, 1980

meetings: pp. 36-39

British and American Methodology

Peter Strevens

The two principle resource countries providing teachers, teacher trainers, techniques and theories for teaching English the world over are Britain and the United States....

It is not until one works closely with professionals from the opposite side of the Atlantic that the nature and extent of similarities and differences between the two become evident. Then one discovers that although they broadly share a common outlook on education and teaching, their different experience in different areas of the world, their separate historical and intellectual strands of development, and their cultural differences, combine to produce a distinctive EFL profession in each country,

This chapter presents an outline of British views and practices in the field of English language teaching, and indicates some of the contrasts between them and their American counterparts. The summary is not, of course, an apology. On the contrary, the British ELT tradition has considerable virtues: its flexibility and dislike of dogma helps the teacher to avoid transient fashions and violent swings of approach; its *pedagogical professionalism* gives the teacher a profound and valuable conception of the teaching process and of the teacher's role; without claiming spectacular achievements, the British ELT tradition nevertheless has a long record of steady, reasonable success, above all in teaching pupils overseas up to age 17 or 18. It seems to many British ELT specialists that the American approach, with its virtues of greater *disciplinary professionalism* and its stricter methodology, has been especially successful in teaching young adults within the U.S.A.

First, we need to sort out our divergent terminologies. The American terms TEFL, TESL, TESOL, TESOLD have no precise counterparts in British usage. The principle British cover term is English language *teaching* (ELT), which normally includes English as the mother tongue. Within ELT, we make a distinction between *English as a foreign language* (EFL) and *English as a second language* (ESL), and this distinction reflects important differences in the ELT situation, and hence in the methods and techniques most commonly used.

Within British ELT, it is a basic assumption that the nature of learning and teaching in any given teaching situation is affected by a great number of variables, and that in consequence a different choice among a wide range of possible procedures and methods will turn out to be appropriate in different teaching/learning situations. The notion of a single 'best' method, one which would claim to be equally effective in all circumstances, has al-

ways been rejected by British (and European) ELT, partly for theoretical reasons..., partly on what seem intuitively to be obvious practical grounds (i.e 'it doesn't work like that') and partly because on a more intellectual plane British and European thought generally takes a 'pluralist' view of the truth.

Aside from what may be a philosophical difference between American TEFL and British ELT and turning to our differing historical experiences, the British ELT profession has been concerned especially with training and supplying British teachers to overseas countries, and with giving training in Britain to teachers from overseas countries, both of the EFL and the ESL type In addition, there is a long and powerful tradition of supporting teacher training colleges overseas by supplying and training expatriate and local staff. This has been especially the case in former British territories, most of which are or were ESL areas, and where in many cases the school syllabuses and coursebooks are either written by British authors or at least modelled on their tradition. There is also a sizeable and growing British effort in EFL countries, notably in Europe and the Middle East. American experience has more often been located inside the United States, teaching adult immigrants or foreign students; when the effort has been directed overseas, it has generally been more in the foreign language than in the second language situation--though there are some major exceptions to this observation, e.g. in the Philippines and American Samoa.

...British ELT activity has followed a path of continuous development, without major change, through from the 1920's, in the tradition of Sweet, Jesperson, Palmer, Hornby. American TEFL, too, often acknowledges roots in Sweet, Jesperson and Palmer, but it has additionally been through a period of massive change. During a period dominated by Bloomfieldian linguistics and Skinnerian psychology, the attitudes of American teachers toward methodology became very different from the attitudes of their British colleagues, in several important respects. And during this same period, there were carried out a number of important American projects for assisting overseas countries in establishing or modernizing the English language programmes followed in their school systems. Now that American TEFL opinion is moving away from its structuralist-behaviourist principles, two effects can be seen: first, the outlook of teachers on both sides of the Atlantic seems once again to be converging a good deal; but second, the structuralist-behaviouralist sylla-

JALT NEWSLETTER

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The *JALT Newsletter* is the monthly newsletter of the Japan Association of Language Teachers.

Contributions, especially reviews of meetings, book reviews, and letters to the editor, are welcome. For original articles, you may wish to contact the editor first. We reserve the right to make editorial changes in the manuscripts. THE DEADLINE FOR CONTRIBUTIONS IS THE 15th OF THE PRECEDING MONTH. Send manuscripts to David Bycina, c/o Mobil Sekiyu, Central P.O. Box 862, Tokyo 100-91, tel. (03) 363-2588... Nonmember subscription rate: Y2,500.

buses established in many countries during the audio-lingual era are being left high and dry, without--as it were--philosophical support. And this happening just at a time when the syllabuses in many countries are coming up for revision and reform.

To return to the summary of British ELT, the bulk of what follows in this chapter relates to teachers of English as a *second* language, both teachers from Britain working in ESL areas and teachers from such areas who have been trained in the British tradition. The summary is largely true also of British teachers of English as a foreign language, with the reservation that EFL teachers are on the whole more strongly grounded in theory, and are perhaps also less free to be pedagogically inventive than their ESL colleagues.

A Summary of Current British ELT Practice

1. *Approach:* The approach is pragmatic, not dogmatic. The primary test of excellence is 'Does it work?' not "Is it theoretically justifiable?' Teachers are of course aware of principles and theories: postgraduate courses in particular provide excellent teaching of theory. But teachers in Britain are by and large hostile to the view that practice is just the application of theory, and they regard most current theories in linguistics, psychology and psycholinguistics as being pedagogically naive and therefore largely irrelevant. A theory of language teaching, on the other hand, with well-motivated links to specific areas of linguistics and psychology--that might be more attractive. In the meantime, British teachers retain a considerable scepticism about any single school of thought in theoretical linguistics and psychology being an adequate guide to language teaching, and many of them now make use of a mix of elements taken from e.g. structural linguistics, transformational theory, behaviourist and cognitive psychology, Chomskyan psycholinguistics, Hallidayan systemic and functional theory, Firthian ideas on varieties and on 'context of situation', sociolinguistics, and so on...

2. *Aims:* These are increasingly tailored to what is realistically capable of being achieved, and to locally-agreed targets for the learner and his community. As a rule, aims are stated in terms of the so-called 'skills' of language: understanding, speaking, reading, and writing. But many people now feel that these labels are too gross and that a more delicate analysis is needed, to show what the learner is to be able to *do* with his language: e.g. 'aural comprehension for rapid gathering of important facts in a face-to-face encounter', as a sub-division of *understanding.* All these 'skills' are likely to be specified for inclusion, but in differing proportions in different countries. In general, targets for writing tend to be lower, targets for reading tend to be valued more highly, than before...

3. *English in the total curriculum:* English has normally been taught as a part of a broad general education, oriented towards the humanities. It used to be linked with, and often incorporated, an introduction to the study and appreciation of English literature, and this constituted the principal justification for teaching the language. However, over the past twenty-five years the strength of this justification has evaporated; nowadays a much stronger justification for learning English is provided by the evident usefulness of having a practical, communicative command of the language.

There is also developing a feeling that henceforth the educated citizen needs to be multilingual, with English an obvious choice for one of his languages. So, from the opinion that the education of~foreign children must include English literature, educators have swung to the opinion that the education of all children must include an international language, for use.

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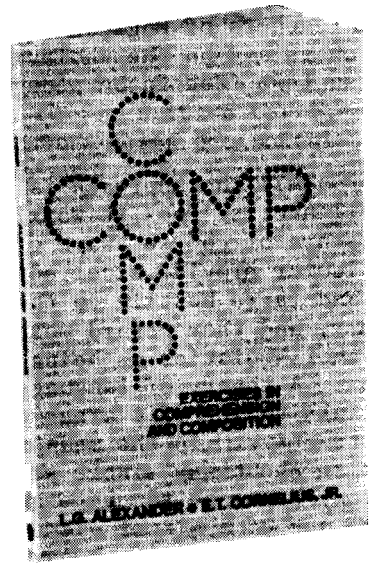

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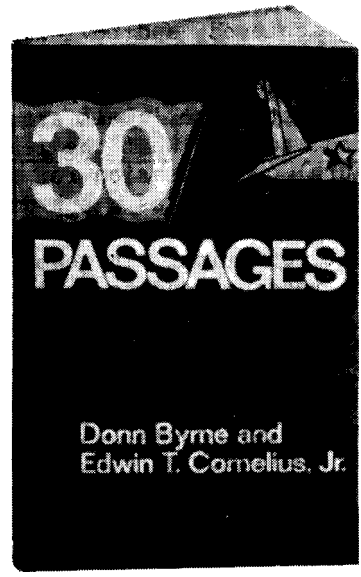

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4. *Speech/writing:* English is taught in both spoken and written form. Oral-only syllabuses are not found except for a few specialized purposes. The teaching of speech runs ahead of teaching the written equivalent by a variable amount in the early stages. Thereafter it is not dogmatic beliefs about the primacy of one medium or the other that determines the relative proportions of speech and writing in the teaching, it is rather the effects of practical conditions and problems.

5. *The syllabus:* The teacher's activity is guided by the *syllabus,* a statement of content, sequence, and (often) recommended teaching techniques. (Sometimes the syllabus consists of an ordered list of grammatical items, together with a minimum vocabulary.) The choice of content for inclusion in the syllabus, and its arrangement, are exercised by the twin operations of *selection* and *grading.* Both are nowadays carried out with more flexibility than in the past. A prior selection of language items to be taught is generally arrived at first, then this is integrated with an inventory of topics, roles, contexts, and situations. In the most recent work, communicative abil it ies and even 'notional' categories of a semantico-grammatical kind are being included as determinants of the syllabus--but the more numerous the variables the more complex and difficult the job becomes. That which is selected for teaching is regarded as a minimum, not a maximum, and is expected to be supplemented by much additional, unspecified and relatively uncontrolled material which the learner will meet in his reading and listening.

It is no longer believed that one would or should devise a sequence in which every teaching item had its immutable place. Rather it is believed that there are only a fairly small number of items (mostly grammatical) where it makes much difference whether you teach them early or late, or before or after other particular items; these sensitive items (which are often indicated by the common difficulties experienced by speakers of a particular language) are inserted in the sequence as required, but all other items are ideally allowed to occur at whatever point in sequence the topics, situations, etc., seem to suggest.

6. *Active and passive command:* From an early stage, a distinction is made between material (lexical or grammatical) which is taught for active command, to be recalled and used by the learner with facility and accuracy, and material which is to be recognized and understood when it is encountered but is not intended to be mastered. More recent thought develops this receptive/productive distinction to embrace a distinction between *form* and *function,* so that it is not just the meaning of a sentence that is taught, but its value as an utterance.

7. *Techniques of presentation:* All class presentation is required to be meaningful. That is, the drilling of sentences regardless of whether they are understood or not is never attempted. (The term 'mim-mem' is known and rejected in British EFL; it is not generally known or understood in ESL.) Meaningful presentation is achieved by a mixture of techniques, especially these :

(i) *contextualization*--suiting the action to the word, putting a word into a longer sentence, making clear the circumstances of its use, etc;

(ii) *explanation*- in either English or the mother tongue, including the occasional use of translation where this facilitates learning;

(iii) *situational* teaching--the evocation of an event or a transaction (larger in scale than simple contextualization) in which the ut-

terances are appropriate, e.g. by role-playing, playlets, puppet dialogues, games, and other contrived parallels to real-life situations,

Language material, meaningful and at least partly contextual, is presented under close control: *control* here means that the choice and timing of the piece of language concerned has been deliberate, even though this control may increasingly encourage the learner to encounter spoken or written language beyond that which he has mastered. Initially, the control is complet e the learner is completely spoon-fed by either the teacher or the materials. Later, both controlled and 'natural' material are presented.

8. *Grammar:* In British ELT, 'grammar' means not theoretical linguistics but part of the description of spoken and written English; it will be remembered that we have an exceptionally rich tradition of such studies. (The recent *Grammar of Contemporary English* by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartik, well exemplifies this tradition.) The approach used in ELT generally follows the descriptive systems of Jespersen, Palmer and Hornby. Grammar is often referred to as *functional,* by which is meant that the statements we make are statements about the semantic and communicative significance of particular points of grammar, about how language is *used,* about the conveying of meaning or the maintenance of personal relations or the organization of discourse--about a number of inexplicit though relevant concepts of this kind,

Grammar is taught explicitly only if it is helpful to do so (for example, some learners *demand* to be taught grammar) and not as a dogma that good teaching does or does not require grammar to be made explicit. At the same time, grammar is not deliberately avoided. There is a widespread use of inductive grammar teaching, in which sets of sentences are presented which embody a pattern and lead both to its accurate use and to its cognitive perception by the learner..

There is currently a wave of activity directed towards the revision of the treatment of grammar in syllabuses. This new work uses ideas about semantically-significant grammatical categories, communicative skills, functional and notional categories, It is likely that the results of this work, when it reaches teacher training courses, will considerably influence attitudes and practices.

9. *The teaching of reading and writing:* Beading is regarded as a skill of great importance to the learner... A distinction is commonly made between *intensive* and *extensive* reading. Techniques for teaching the early stages of reading include both a *phonic* approach (in which the common phonetic values of letters are taught) and *look-and-say* methods (in which words are taught to be recognized by their total lexical shape.)

As the learner progresses, he is generally introduced to structurally and lexically graded readers, which provide practice in reading and extend the learner's experience of the language without baffling him, and so turning off his learning, by too much lexical and stylistic unfamiliarity.

Writing, too, receives a great deal of attention. The teaching of writir entails at the outset control over elegant sequences of visual symbols. Then comes the production of ever longer and more intellectually complex sentences and texts: a graded progression from *tight control* through *guidance* to *free expression.*

10. *Pronunciation:* *The* acquisition of an acceptable pronunciation is deliberately taught. Segmental sounds (phonemes in Daniel Jones's sense rather

than Bloomfield's), stress, rhythm and intonation are all included. Indeed, intonation is regarded as of high importance.

The standards of pronunciation aimed at are flexible. Alghough the target towards which progress is assumed to lead is generally a non-regional accent of British English, in areas of the world where the educated community has developed an identifiably different yet compatible accent, this is often used as the aim and model. Intelligibility and communicative ability are the criteria (difficult though these are to define) rather than native-like quality.

There is virtually no bias in the British ELT profession against American, Australian and other native-language forms of English from outside Britain.

11. *Practice material:* Exercises and drills of many kinds are used to fix the material presented and to achieve accurate, fluent, unhesitating command of the language. Their design and use is strictly pragmatic: they are not usually intended to demonstrate a psychological principle or to embody a theoretical concept for its own sake. They are intended to re-teach material already presented until the learner has learned it, no more than that. For example, teachers are not governed by the principle that it is sufficient to concentrate on differences thrown up by contrastive analysis, leaving the similarities to look after themselves, and contrastive exercises or drills of such a kind play little part in British ESL teaching. The not ion of 'over-learning is generally rejected as a principle in the design of materials, at least in ESL. These attitudes reflect the kind of psychology commonly included in teacher training. Skinnerian behaviourist theory may be superficially known but is little followed; Lovell, Bruner, Burt, and above all Piaget, probably have greater influence.

Exercises are not devised in relation to a theory of language acquisition: teachers rarely have any organized view of such a theory, or if they do, they relate it to infants acquiring their mother tongue, not to teaching and learning a foreign language.

Exercises and drills are deliberately given the widest possible variety. A single technique is rarely assigned special prominence (e.g. pattern practice, substitution tables, etc.) though these techniques are used among many others. The offering of a wide range of different types of exercise is regarded as a virtue, and as a contribution to maintaining interest and fighting boredom. Mindless, boring drills are avoided.

12. *The search for interest:* Humour, variety, interesting material, demonstrably *relevant* material, involvement of the learner--especially relating the English course to the world of the learner outside the classroom--these are qualities deliberately sought because they are believed to improve both the rate of learning and the learner's continued commitment to the task.

13. *The teacher as an overseer of the learner's learning:* Teachers are trained in the belief that the learner should be regarded as the centre and focus of the entire teaching activity--though it must be admitted that many teachers frequently forget this. The learner's learning is to be continually assessed by the teacher, by informal and formal testing, by correcting exercises, by marking homework and by other means. The learner's communicative ability, the acceptability of his performance, the degree of his approximation to the appropriate model of language--these are criteria which the teacher spends a great deal of time and care in overseeing and assessing.

14. *The task of the teacher:* Though subsidiary to the learner, the teacher, too, is central to the language-teaching process. The teacher is relied upon for: (a) the presentation of material in an optimal manner; (b) the continuous, personal, long-term encouragement of the learner; (c) plugging the gaps in the learner's learning; (d) monitoring the learner's progress; (e) remedial teaching, where this is necessary; (f) the selection and possibly the creation of materials supplementary to those centrally used by the class.

In achieving these aims, the teacher disposes of a wide array of teaching techniques among which he or she selects as the circumstances require. Ideally, the teacher is encouraged to slide along the scale between full-class techniques, group techniques, individual techniques.

The teacher faces a class: the class is composed of individuals: the individuals cluster as groups. The teacher's teaching techniques are intended from moment to moment to approach the ideal of helping each individual as closely and as often as possible. The organization of group work within a large class is a feature of British classroom practice which is particularly valuable in ESL countries suffering, as many of them are, in the wake of massive educational expansion from very large classes. Perhaps this is why the American trend towards individualization has little counterpart among British teachers. Alternatively, the lack of interest in individualization among British teachers may reflect that fact that in ESL and EFL situations overseas teachers normally face classes that are much more homogeneous in nature than is the usual TEFL class in the United States.

15. *Teaching materials:* Teaching materials are relied on as aids to the teacher, not as panaceas or as ways of replacing the teacher. The best teachers use the materials as a general guide, but they take pride in transcending those materials---cannibalizing them, improving on them, re-writing them, circumventing them, re-ordering or even omitting them---in the belief that the nub of the learning-teaching process lies in the moment-by-moment relationship between a competent teacher and a willing learner.

(From Chapter 5, *New Orientations in the Teaching of English, OUP, 1977.*)

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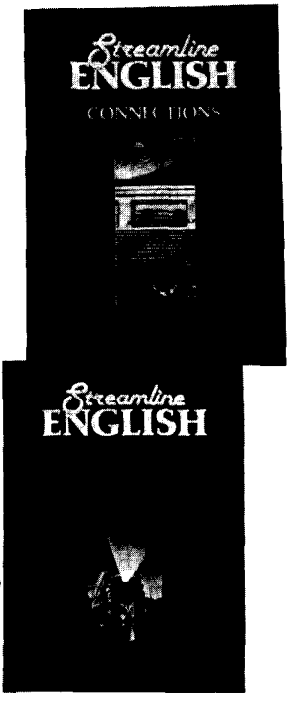

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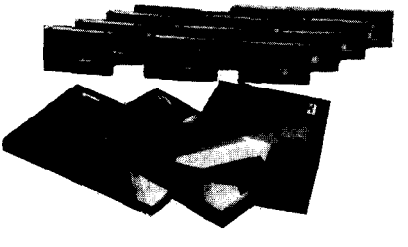

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inter·views

Lyons: Trends in British Semantics

(Dr. John Lyons, Professor of Linguistics at the University of Sussex:, recently visited Tokyo and Kyoto under the auspices of the British Council to present a series of lectures on "semantics" and "language and culture." Professor Lyons is *best known for his work in theoretical linguistics. His books on semantics and Chomsky have been translated into several* languages, *including Japanese. While* in *Tokyo, he was interviewed by Fred Allen.)*

You began your first lecture by side-stepping-the question of what is meaning. You asked, "What is the meaning of *meaning?" Are other semanticists using* a *similar or very divergent approach, and are their basic assumptions leading them to the same conclusions?*

I think there are quite a lot of linguists who would take much the same sort of view as I did. There's quite a tradition in the philosophical study of meaning which would evade that ontological question of whether there is such a thing as meaning or not, or indeed the psychological question as to whether there is anything that is localized in the brain which is for semantic representation. But actually formal semanticists--who are doing what is new in the field--would not generally be concerned with this sort of question. They would be prepared to say, "We have the technical apparatus for handling the distinctions and equivalencies we want to handle, and it's up to us to make such ontological statements as we wish."

Have there been any *practical applications* of *the more recent developments in semantics?*

I don't think so; not as far as I know, though I'm not so concerned with language teaching. The more traditional and still-enduring work in semantics has had a considerable impact on language teaching. By that I mean the recognition that the study of meaning in language should be broadly based and should relate the language to the culture in which it operates. For quite some time there have been those who have advocated the relationship of semantic structure to cultural concerns. But what is characteristic of the most recent, the most characteristically new work in semantics is its highly formal nature, and although this may well in time have some implications for language teaching, at the present moment most of the work is highly theoretical. I'm thinking particularly of formal semantics and its strong connections with work in logic and philosophy. But if we think of the work in semantics that was done under the influence of another branch of philosophy --ordinary language philosophy and the notion of speech acts--then I would have thought there was a more immediate implication there for language teaching.

You raised an interesting question in your *talks about whether the meaning of sentences* is logically *prior to the meaning of words. If sentence meaning is prior to word* meaning, does *that imply that teaching syntax is logically prior to teaching vocabulary?*

In a lot of recent work in semantics that assumption is made, and in this respect recent semantics contrasts with more traditional semantics, which is very largely word-based. My own view, in fact, is that neither one is prior to the other; that is to say, that the meaning of some words can be learned relatively independently of syntactic structure by virtue of the relationship which holds between those words and classes of objects in the outside

world. On the other hand, when it comes to other classes of words which don't correlate so readily with objects, then there is an essential component in their meaning which can only be stated in relation to their possibility for combination with other words. Essentially, in studying the meaning of sentences, you have to take account both of the meaning words and the contribution that is made by grammatical meaning. I think, in second language teaching, you could certainly start on the vocabulary and teach a certain amount more or less independently of syntax, because in doing so you would be trading on the native language and on the student's understanding, in a general sort of way, of how words combine. So you could certainly start across languages with words denoting objects, properties, and so on.

Whether you'd want to would depend very much on what your aim is in language teaching. If you're concerned with teaching someone those very limited skills which would enable him to get around minimally--as a tourist, let's say--then there wouldn't be much point in first making sure that he understood some general grammatical structures of the language.

In one lecture, you stated, "Sentence meaning determines the words chosen for use in *the sentence." Can you give some examples?*

The most obvious examples would be the words that, in the tradition of structural ist grammar, were referred to as function words or content words, though it's not as simple as that. If we were to take the definite article in English, I don't think you could give a satisfactory account of the meaning of the definite article as it opposes demonstratives or the indefinite article without going into the nature of the constructions in which it operates. For example, when the definite article occurs in a noun phrase which has in opposition with it a relative clause, there is an interdependence between the two which is semantically relevant. Or again, suppose I were to ask you the meaning of the word "of." Well, you can use a dictionary and find it's almost totally useless. It '11 give you--I don't know--37 meanings. What it really boils down to in the end is that--apart from possession, and even that is a bit hard to pin down--there are lots of uses that would involve an understanding of the process of nominalization, however you formalize it.. .I mean the grammar of noun phrases in English with a statement that alters the relationship of certain noun phrases and corresponding sentences.

Are there any studies indicating whether a person acquires the first language by its structure or by its functions?

The indications are that function is most important. The study of language acquisition in the last 15 years or so has concentrated on the investigation of the development of structures, relatively independently of function. It has been realized that very often the same structure has different functions. Parents and other people who interact with a child regularly are able to assign an interpretation, very often without doubt, which is not determined fully by the structure of the utterance...the idea of "rich interpret at ion" and the assumption that a child meant much more than what was represented in the structure. But then there's a theoretical problem here. It's quite possible that, even though that is so, the child is in control of structural differences that simply don't come out at that age. There's been a lot of discussion, therefore, in the field of language acquisition about this sort of question. My own feeling is that function is the earliest guide to structure, and that gradually the child, starting from a number of basic functions relating to basic human drives, proceeds by attaching structures to them and gradually builds on that kind of scaffolding to the more abstract structures and greater diversification.

Since the advent of transformation& grammar, linguistics in general has been more meaning-based. Do you see this trend continuing?

Yes, I mean there have been schools of linguistics which have always been interested in semantics without intermission. But the dominant school in American linguistics, in particular the American structuralists, were notoriously unconcerned with meaning for various reasons. The change that came about in American linguistics particularly, but then more *generally,* can be ascribed in great part to the influence of Chomsky's work in generative grammar and the gradual realization that syntax played a much more fundamental role in establishing the meaning of sentences. Furthermore, it was a describable role, and up to a point at least, it seemed to be a realizable goal to try to interrelate the meaning of a sentence and its syntactic structure. Then various issues developed within that framework as to whether you had a semantic base or an autonomous syntactic base, and things like that. But independently of all those particular questions which only make sense within the framework of Chomsky and generative grammar lots of other, more general questions came out which everybody's working on now.

If you were to try to ease someone into *the latest developments* in *semantics, what would you recommend as sources?*

There are a number of books which have appeared recently and which have their different merits. If you want to start finding out something particularly about the semantics done within the framework of generative grammar, then probably the best book is Janet Dean Fodor's, called *Semantics* I think. If you want to find out more particularly what the formal semanticists are about, at an elementary level there's a book by Ruth Kempson, called *Semantic Theory.* Earlier, more eclectic books, theoretically more wide-ranging and therefore less committed, include F.R. Palmer's *Semantics,* the Penguin book by Geoffrey Leech, and there's a whole host of others. I haven't mentioned my own, which is the biggest at least.

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fea·ture

A Tribute to A.S. Hornby

W.R. Lee

Everybody knows A.S. Hornby -- everybody, that is, who is interested in the teaching or learning of English as a foreign language at elementary, intermediate, or advanced level in any part of the world. Not everybody, it is true, has met this modest and good-humoured man in person -- and at eighty years of age, understandably, he does not get about as much as he used to -- but he is well known to numberless people through his books which are recognized as indispensable tools for any serious teacher or learner of the English language today.

A.S. Hornby was born in Cheshire on 10 August 1898, and went to school in Chester, an old Roman town not very far from Liverpool. During the First World War he served for three years in the Navy, and afterwards studied for three years (1920-23) at University College London, where he took his degree in English Language and Literature.

He married and immediately went off to teach English literature in Japan, which was to prove one of the main formative influences in his professional life. He fast realized that although his students could read Shakespeare, their actual knowledge of spoken English was extremely limited. He decided to give more attention to language teaching and leave the teaching of literature to the Japanese professors. He began to correspond with Dr. Harold Palmer, another great pioneer in the foreign-language teaching field. Palmer was working in Tokyo and after a few years in the south of Japan the young Hornby was invited to join him in his research on the vocabulary and syntax of English.

One of his jobs was to comb through dictionaries in order to collect and file all the 'fixed phrases', such as in *spite of* and *over and above* where a group of words cannot be identified by the meaning of the individual words that form it. Later research was focused mainly on sentence patterns, and these continued to be at the centre of Hornby's interest. Indeed, they were the basis for several of his meticulously written books for teachers and learners, such as *A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English,* first published in 1954, *The Teaching of Structural words* and *Sentence Patterns* (1959-1966), and of course the dictionaries which began to appear in 1948. The best known of these is the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.* This dictionary broke new ground. In Tokyo in the twenties students were struggling with dictionaries that gave direct equivalents of Japanese words in English, leading to absurd mistakes and misunderstandings. Hornby saw that a dictionary in English could teach much more. It could show how words are used, bringing them to life in a context; it could explain idioms; and illustrations could be used to add an extra dimension to definitions. Professor Randolph Quirk has written of Hornby: 'Lexicographer, grammarian, and widely experienced teacher of English. Given the extraordinary fact that ASH is expert at all three and has the flair of bringing each skill to bear succinctly and illuminatingly on the others, no

one need be surprised at the superb way the *ALDCE* anticipates and fulfils the needs of the overseas student of English.'

The Second World War, and the attack on Pearl Harbour, brought Hornby's career in Japan to a sudden end. He returned to England, with his clothes but not his books, to find awaiting him an invitation to join the British Council as 'linguistic adviser' for the Middle East. Appointed in December 1942, he went first to Cairo and then on to Iran the following June. During his years in Iran he directed the Tehran Institute and taught at the Teacher Training Institute of Tehran University. He also met Marian de la Motte, who was working for the British Council in Tehran, and who became his second wife. His first wife had died in Japan.

At the end of the war, back in London and still with the British Council, he was able to launch *English Language Teaching,* now the quarterly *English Language Teaching Journal* and published, in association with the Council, by Oxford University Press. In those days it was difficult to get contributors, so Hornby, as editor, wrote many of the articles himself, not always under his own name. 'The first issue was something in the nature of a one-man band', he wrote twenty years later. His articles dealt chiefly with classroom practice (group-work, composition exercises, substitution tables, etc.), but also with usage (eg. non-conclusive verbs, for plus pronoun plus infinitive) and with linguistic theory (eg. the 'situational' approach and the doctrines of de Saussure). A number of contributions were reprinted from the *Bulletin of the Institute for Research in English Teaching,* which he had edited in Tokyo. It is interesting to look back on the early issues — slim green booklets appearing seven or eight times a year -- and to note some of the other specialists who contributed, such as Michael West, I.A. Richards, H.E. Palmer, E.V. Gatenby, Daniel Jones, I. Morris, W.F. Mackey, and Roger Kingdon. In one respect the journal had the same character as it has today -- it paid regard to both theory and practice and was concerned with all levels of English learning and teaching.

After these busy years of desk-work with the British Council in London, Hornby sought greater independence and became a full-time writer for the Oxford University Press. He now began to write courses as well, eg. the English Course for Iraq and the Progressive English Course for Adult Learners (1954-56). But he still sought and found the practical overseas experience on which all his work rests, and undertook long lecture tours, mainly under the auspices of the British Council, in many parts of the world -- the Middle East, Latin America, Africa, Japan, Burma, India, and Pakistan -- and then shorter tours in a number of European countries. These journeys not only extended his lecturing experience but brought him into contact with the problems and opportunities of classroom teachers of English, so that he was able in what he wrote to see things from their various points of view.

In recent years A.S. Hornby has given most of his attention to writing, and especially to his work on monolingual English language teaching dictionaries.

In all that he does Hornby's thoughts are always with the learner and his difficulties. He is no armchair theorist: the classroom with its problems and opportunities, and the training of teachers who would enjoy their work and bring success to their pupils -- these are always in the forefront of his mind and he does not take kindly to long periods of deskbound administrative work. Thorough, careful, and tenacious in the scientific way as far as observation and description of English were concerned, at the same time he knows that teaching is an art, one which he has seized every opportunity of practising.

Hornby's work on the detail of teaching is something on which we all build; whatever combination of methods and syllabuses we may adopt it will always be necessary to find a big place for systematic step-by-step teaching, with the emphasis on ability to communicate in English with others. And Hornby does not view language teaching only from the side of grammatical and phonological patterns: see, for instance, in *Guide to Patterns and Usage,* the section on 'Various Concepts and How to Express Them.'

As an author who derives royalties from sales overseas, Hornby could escape all taxation if he lived outside the United Kingdom. But he resolutely refuses to live away from England since he feels he would thereby lose contact with the centre of research into and development of English language teaching.

In 1961 Hornby established an Educational Trust which uses the greater part of the royalties earned by his books to bring teachers of English from the developing countries to the UK to pursue further studies and return home to teach other teachers. To use Hornby's own words, he wanted through the Trust to 'have the money used for education and go back to the countries from which it came.'

A few years ago A.S. Hornby was made a Fellow of University College London and in 1977 he was awarded an honorary degree by Oxford University for his services to English language teaching. He now lives in London, where he continues to work on dictionaries and to investigate current English usage. His work is of lasting value, and we who teach and learn English as a foreign language will always be indebted to him. When presenting him for his Fellowship of University College, Lord Annan said: 'No man has ever done more to further the use of English as an international language.'

(From the *EFL Bulletin,* Issue 1, September 1978, pp. 3-4, Oxford University Press .)

inter·views

Hornby on Hornby

(A.S. Hornby was interviewed in March 1974 upon the publication of the third edition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.* Excerpts from that interview relating to Mr. Hornby's long involvement with Japan are here reprinted by arrangement with the publisher. The complete text and accompanying tape can be obtained from Oxford University Press.)

Mr. Hornby, how did you first become involved in English language teaching?

Oh, I think that started off in 1923 when I was at the University College in London. After I'd taken my degree, I was asked by the Appointment Board of the university to meet a young Japanese who was over in London at the time, and he asked whether I would like to go to Japan, to a college in the island of Kyushu and teach English. I said, 'What do you want me to do?' and he said, 'Oh well, you'll be teaching English literature, of course, because your degree is in English literature.' and it seemed quite an exciting prospect. So I went home to see my mother and father and told them I was going to Japan. Incidentally, I said, 'I am going to get married before I go.' They didn't know that! So we got married and off we went. And I found myself facing classes of 20 to 25 Japanese students, aged about 18, 19, 20 and I found that they were reading English literature. Quite happily, they were reading Shakespeare, Carlyle and all the classics. And I found that they read with some understanding, certainly with an appreciation. But whenever I started to talk to then I found that their knowledge of the English language was very limited indeed. They could read Shakespeare, but then they'd say to me, 'Where went you yesterday? ' and that kind of thing. So I decided that I must give much more attention to language teaching and leave the teaching of literature to their Japanese professors.

And I became more and more fascinated by this question of language, and started experimenting. I knew nothing about linguistics at that time; I was only 24 or so, but as time went on I became familiar with the subject, I read books about it. And then in Tokyo there was Dr. Harold Palmer, who, you must know, was a very successful teacher of languages, and who wrote many books on the subject of linguistic methodology and grammar. Well, we corresponded, and through my correspondence with him I became more and more interested in linguistics, especially linguistic methodology. And after a few years in the south of Japan it was arranged that I should go to a school in Tokyo. And, there, I was in the school of foreign languages. That was rather like some of the schools at the University of London, you know, the School of Oriental Studies, and so on. We had teachers and professors for about 30 or 40 different languages, all the languages of Asia and Europe. And I was in the English department, of course. And then I also had a position in the Tokyo Higher Normal School, and I was concerned with the training of teachers of English, I used to take them out to local middle schools, and supervise their teaching practice and things of that sort. So I became very much involved there in language teaching.

And, Palmer, at the same time, was head of the Institute for Research in English Teaching, which was quite a large institute with Japanese professors on a Board of Directors and thousands of members who were teachers of English in all parts of the Japanese Empire, as it was in those days. So Palmer was engaged in all sorts of research. He started off with vocabulary se1 ect ion and vocabulary control, and went on to work on collocations.

A collocation is a succession of words, the meaning of which you cannot identify from the words individually, one by one. You have to know the words as a group. For example, 'in spite of' is a collocation, and so is 'for example' I suppose. And, he had a grant of money from the Ford Foundation for this purpose and I was given the job of going through the Shorter English Dictionary.. .and.I think the big Webster and two or three others to comb out every possible collocation and put it onto record cards, which were then filed away in boxes. That started me off on something that's been happening ever since---putting things on cards and storing them away. So, we then went on to syntax, finding out the patterns of sentences. And, as many of you will know, I have used these patterns in my dictionaries, in the form of verb patterns. Because if you're going to make the pattern of a sentence, you will find that the keystone of your arch is always the verb. It's the keystone which holds everything together. And if you don't get your verb right, and the pattern for the verb right, well, the sentence just falls to pieces. So that was how I got involved in some of this question of grammar and pattern making which has been a feature of my work since, especially in dictionaries and in *The Guide to Patterns* which was published after I got back from Japan.

Were you actually a member of the Institute during that time?

I became a member of the Institute while I was in the south of Japan, because we had members all over the country. We had a little periodical that came out every month. But when I got to Tokyo I became a research worker for the Institute. That was the title they gave me. And, as I said, I did a lot of work on collocations, and verb patterns, things of that sort. And Palmer left Japan about 1933. And after his return to England, well, I more or less took his place. I didn't take his title; I didn't become director but in fact I did direct most of the work that was done by the research workers, a small group of British, American and Japanese friends whc worked together and did these things. And we turned out reports of various sorts for our annual meetings. Some of these reports are still in print. The report on vocabulary selection, the report on verb patterns, the report on an attempt at lexicography. These were the sort of things we did and which led to the use of this material in various kinds of books.

We did language courses. Palmer did one or two books which were published by Longmans after his return. And of course, my own dictionary done in Japan in the early stages and later reprinted in this country by the Oxford University Press. All of this research work was helpful when I got to the work of compiling this dictionary with two or three friends.

When did you leave the Institute?

Well, of course, I left the Institute, you can put it that way, when Pearl Harbour came! Pearl Harbour came and ended my work in Japan very abruptly. I had the idea that I might be in Japan until the end of the war. But the Department of Education, which had brought me to Japan, and which had continued to employ me, came along and said, 'We know what a lot of work you've done for Japan, so we'll let you go back when the Ambassador goes.' Which was a great relief to me, of course. And I got away with my clothes, but with none of my books and papers. That was a misfortune.

Luckily, when I did get back to England, Palmer was living there and was able to replace most of the things that I'd lost. He had copies of all this work we'd done in Japan and he very kindly let me have them. And after his death, his widow gave me a lot more of Palmer's things. So I was, in the end, fairly well supplied with the work we had been doing together.

Did you notice any tremendous changes in Japan when you went *back?*

Oh, the changes in Japan when I went back were enormous. I did not go back, of course, immediately after the war, while Japan was still destroyed. It had been rebuilt entirely when I got back. And Tokyo was a completely different city, modern highways, three of four different levels, speed-ways, enormous tower blocks of buildings everywhere, greatly increased traffic. When I was there Tokyo was comparatively quiet. But now like any big modern capital city, it's noisy, and you have a smell of gasoline everywhere. I didn't like it quite so much as in the old days. In the old days it was a very pleasant city to be in. But still it's very progressive and the thing I enjoyed most of course was to meet all my old---well, friends, I could call them now---they were my students in the old days, but they are my friends now. But when I got back in 1950 and 1959 (I had two visits), I found that these students of mine remembered me, and that was a very pleasant thing, to go back and find that you were remembered after all those years. And I was given all sorts of parties by different people who had been in different classes. And they were the most friendly people you can imagine. And, of course, I had known them as students in their late teens or early twenties. Now they were 20 years older. And I said, 'What are you doing now?' And one of them would say, 'Oh I 'rn the president of the Bank of So and So', or, 'I'm managing this big company or that big company'. And they were all very successful men. A lot of them were in big government positions. And I had the chance to speak to all my students, who knew about my presence, by radio.

So after all this very extensive world travelling, Mr. Hornby, you came back to England and concentrated on writing in England?

Yes, yes. I found that I had a lot of things that I felt I could put onto paper in the way of dictionaries and grammar books, after thirty years of experience. I don't think anybody could sit down and write textbooks, grammars, dictionaries for those who are studying English as a foreign language, unless that person had had long experience in the classroom. That is essential I think. And I felt that I had had this long experience---actually in the classroom, then I'd been round the world and seen conditions in many parts of the world. I think I forgot to say I'd been to Africa two or three times too---East Africa---did long tours there. So that gave me what I felt was a solid background. Then there was the research that we'd done in Tokyo. *So* I felt I was qualified to put something down on paper. I wouldn't have dared to do that if I hadn't had that experience. But I had it, so I started to write *The Guide to Patterns,* which put down what I thought was useful to a foreign learner about grammar and usage.

And then the decision came that a second edition of the big dictionary I'd done in Japan was useful. The first one was published in Japan just about the time of Pearl Harbour, just before, and I didn't actually see a bound copy till after the war. Though I had sent a complete set of proofs, sheets of proofs, from Tokyo before Pearl Harbour, while the services were still going, to the OUP in London. And they were unable to print it in England until after the war because of, well, shortage of paper, and all that sort of thing. But it did appear in London after the war.

I imagine you're preparing work for a next edition now, Mr. Hornby.

Oh, well, yes, I often think that I should stop working and retire. But I've been in the habit of working all my life, and I don't suppose I shall ever stop!

(A-S.Hornby continued to work on his dictionaries until his death lastyear at the age of 81.)

Look it Up!

Using a Monolingual Learners' Dictionary

Adrian Underhill

Can you answer 'Yes' to these four questions?

a) Does each of your students have access to a copy of a good monolingual learner's dictionary?
b) If so, do you encourage its use as an integral part of your teaching programme?
c) Do you teach your students how to exploit it fully?
d) Have you a clear idea yourself of exactly what resources are available to learners in a monolingual learner's dictionary?

The need for specific training

Most teachers would agree that orrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrrne of their ı dents to help themselves, and one way of working towards this is to train students to be effective users of a good monolingual learner's dictionary (MLD) There can be few students who would not benefit from such training. Of all the EFL books available, the MLD can probably answer a greater number of students ' questions about English than any other single book.

Insofar as it is the teacher's responsibility to teach students how to use the MLD effectively, deciding *not* to do so may be to deny students the chance of attaining some degree of independence and self-confidence in their studies. Being able to use the dictionary well is not only advantageous in itself, but may help to lead students into new modes of self-study. Given the right opportunities, students are generally quick to realise that what they find out for themselves is more likely to be retained than what they are told.

We cannot assume that students come to our classes with a good grounding in the usage of any kind of dictionary at all. Even those who have used their own *native* language monolingual dictionary at secondary school will not have been taught to use it efficiently. This is perhaps fair enough, as the demand placed on such a dictionary at secondary school is usually restricted to widening one's command of lexical items in one's own *already mastered* native language.

Using a monolingual *learner's* dictionary, on the other hand, is an altogether different problem. It is expressly designed to meet various needs of foreign language learners, who are still in *the process of learning the language,* and, uniquely, it is written entirely in the very language they are trying to learn.

What follows is an outline for a suggested programme, the objective of which is to create a set of practice exercises and games that will enable students to master the linguistic and reference skills required to use the MLD effectively, and in so doing to allow students access to the full resources of the MLD. Naturally, there would be other language spin-offs from such a programme, and it is important that the whole programme should integrate fully with normal class activities.

A *Suggested Programme*

For the present purpose, four areas of information offered by the MLD are isolated: a) Spelling, b) Pronunciation and stress, c) Grammar, d) Mean-

ing of words and phrases. Treatment of each of these areas will serve as four stages in the programme, and within each stage the language and reference skills required to extract the information can be isolated, and arranged in a systematic, cumulative, learning order.

Thus the programme will proceed by simple steps, each building on the skills practisecl in the previous step.

Stage A - Spelling

Activities: Learning the English alphabet thoroughly, backwards and forwards, including its correct pronunciation. Spell ing dictations. Putting lists of words in alphabetical order quickly. Finding words in the dictionary as quickly as possible (aim at l0-15 seconds per word). Using the dictionary page headings.

Checking spellings in the dictionary. Techniques of hunting for words in the dictionary when uncertain of spelling . Guessing likely spellings from aural input. Checking hypotheses. Word division. Games based on all the above.

Purpose: Apart from the obvious language teaching content, this lays the foundations of sound dictionary usage. Students are getting used to thumbing through pages. Locating headwords and making use of them. They are not yet asked to get involved in the entry itself.

The layout of the dictionary will begin to make sense and, perhaps, seem a little less daunting.

Stage B - Pronunciation and Stress

Activities: Learning as a class activity, to recognise and respond to phonetic symbols. Using the symbols as pegs for pronunciation. Noting how diphthong symbols are logically composed of the two component monothongs. Using the 44 key words in the cover of the dictionary as mnenomic models for these 44 English sounds. Students relating to their own problem areas in terms of both the sound and the phonetic symbol.

Using the dictionary in connection with all aspects of pronunciation work. Games involving rhyming groups, homophones, etc. Freely turning to dictionary during class work to check pronunciation, just as one checks spelling.

Using Primary and Secondary stress markings. Stress patterns in longer words. Changed pronunciation when words and syllables are unstressed. Developing the habit of always noticing and copying our pronunciation and stress as integral and unique characteristics of any given word. Stress in Idiomatic Expressions.

Purpose: Apart from the obvious language teaching content, students are learning to operate a system which will make available to them the exact sounds of any word, as well as allowing them to objectify their own pronunciation and stress difficulties.

At this stage, the student is still not asked to manipulate any of the information in the entry itself. He is using only the headword and the phonetic information that follows it.

Stage C - Grammar

Activities: Scanning entries for specific grammar information given in symbols, abbreviations or any other form.

Checking word class. Changing word class. Forming derivatives as a way of changing word class. Countable/Uncountable nouns. Transitive/Intransitive verbs. Irregular past tenses. Irregular plurals. Comparison of adjectives. Correct preposition in phrases. Miscellaneous grammar information implicit in example sentences.

As with the previous stages, all of this can be linked to whatever work is being done in class at the time.

Purpose: Students have now progressed to scanning entries for particular items of information, which requires them to distinguish between the various typefaces used in the dictionary. They are still not involving themselves with the actual description of meaning. Students can now make visual sense of the whole layout of the dictionary. . .They are now prepared for stage

Stage D - Meaning of Words and Phrases

Activities: Observing number of definitions given for any one headwork. Finding synonyms. Using the example sentences: a) to reinforce the description of meaning, b) to examplify likely contexts, c) further grammar information implicit in example sentences. Finding meanings of idioms, phrases, phrasal verbs. Becoming sensitive to the large number of meanings that some words, especially the more common ones, can have, hence, increasing awareness of 'richness' of English. Stylistic values of words, colloquial, formal, slang, etc. Cultivating the habit of writing effective vocabulary lists containing four components a) the word, b) its pronunciation and stress in phonetic spelling, c) student's own definition of meaning, d) student's own example of its use.

Purpose: Combining all four stages into one operation, as a self-sufficient autonomous learner, the student now has access to the full resources of the dictionary (within the limits of his language level) and can exploit it freely in class work, homework, self-study, travel, further education, business, etc., etc.

Further Notes

a) Teachers should keep an eye open for ways of using the dictionary in class. Wherever students can get information from the dictionary, have them do that, rather than telling them yourself. The small amount of extra time spent will be well worth it. Information that students find for themselves is far more likely to be retained.

b) Whenever your students use the dictionary, use it yourself. This gives you an idea of how long they are taking and enables you to understand any mistakes they might make. Always bear in mind that using the dictionary well is a very sophisticated activity.

c) Don't expect students to remember everything they look up. Rather, stress the fact that if they forget, they can always look it up again.

d) Likewise, don't hurry students when using the dictionary. Allow plenty of time for false starts, red herrings, etc. Encourage students to be interested in exploring the dictionary. Discuss findings, failures and successes in class as a class activity.

e) Teach students to use the dictionary as much for checking what they think they already know as for learning new things. Having one's knowledge confirmed (or otherwise) by the dictionary provides a useful insight into the workings of the dictionary.

f) An interesting way of starting a lesson, while late arrivals are

still straggling in, is to give students several items which they ire to investigate in the dict ionary. These items would be things that were coming up in your lesson anyway, and the prior self-investment of the student will encourage greater participation and commitment.

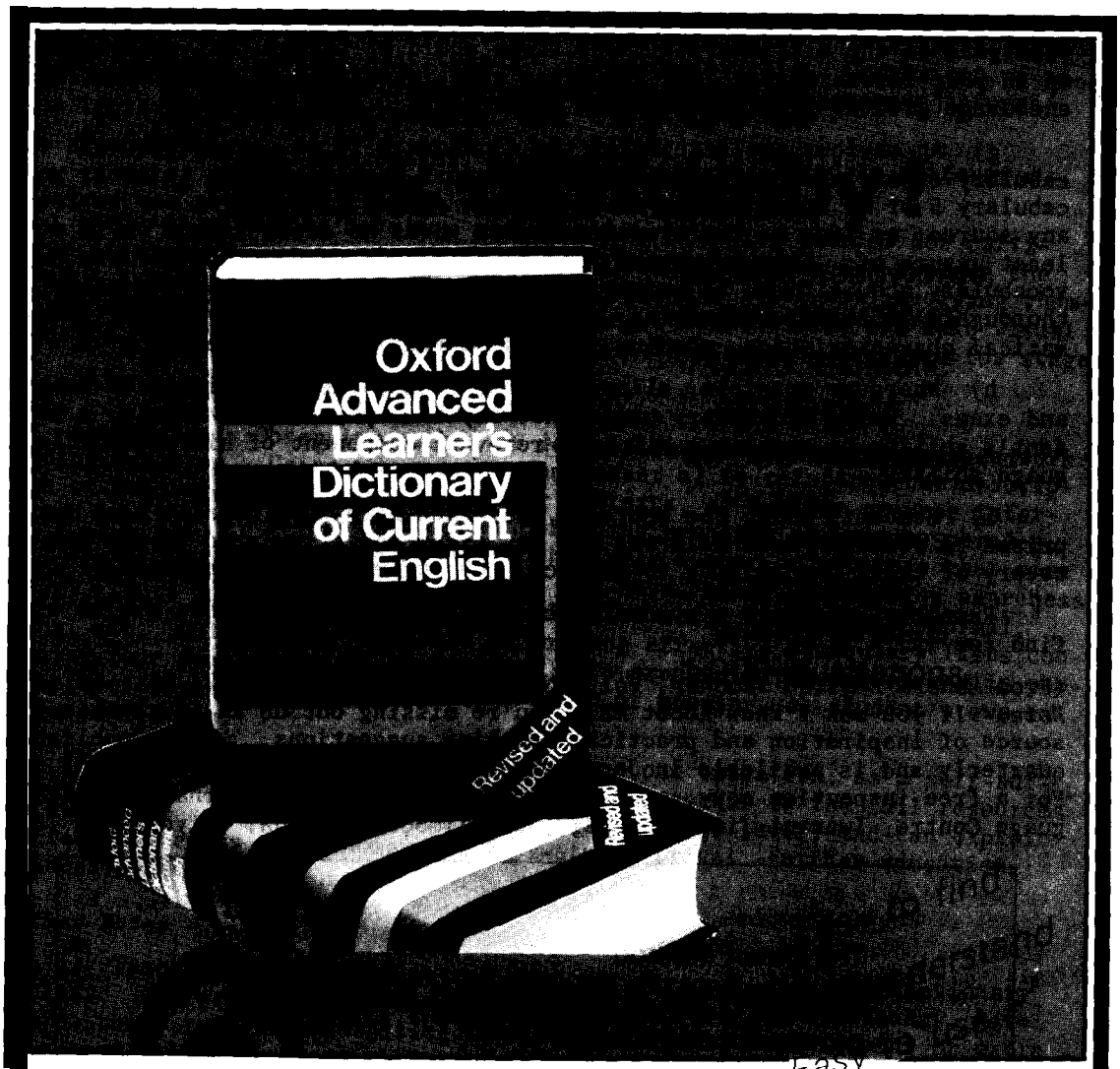
g) An obvious application of the dictionary is in connection with vocabulary expansion. Set students the homework task of adding to their vocabulary 5 or 10 words of the *student's own choice.* *The* words may be from any source, as long as the student chooses words he doesn't know or is at least unsure of. This helps the student to become responsible for his own vocabulary acquisition, as he has to choose the words and then investigate thoroughly in terms of spelling, pronunciation, stress, derivatives, grammatical characteristics, meaning, likely context and usage, etc.

h) Wherever possible, allow students to use their dictionaries in tests and exams. Build dictionary usage into any test you write. Surely, a student's ability to exploit a MLD is a relevant component of his overall language ability.

i) Students using the approach discussed here have usually been surprised to find how much help the MLD can offer and stimulated by the discovery of their own ability to extract such information competently.

Remember, the more a student uses the dictionary, the more use he will find for it.

(From *Modern English Teacher, Vol.6 No.5,* January 1979, pp. 24-25. *Editor's Note:* If you don't know about *MET,* you're missing out on an invaluable source of inspiration and practical teaching suggestions. *MET* is published quarterly and is available in Japan on a subscription basis for only Y2,500. For a free inspection copy, or a subscription, write to International Language Centre, Iwanami-Jimbocho Bldg., 2-l Jimbocho, Kanda, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo.)



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books

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

(Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980; Y2,300)

Trina Keyes

Hands up those who think a dictionary is for 'looking up words'? Keep them up if you find the dictionary an aid of limited use in language teaching, presenting so many problems for the student of English that the disadvantages of its use outweigh the advantages.

If your arm is getting tired, you are doing your students a disservice. All English language teachers are aware of the student's need to continue his study and practice the language outside of the classroom. One way of helping the student to help himself is to train him how to make effective use of a monolingual dictionary.

The problems of misunderstanding and incorrect pronunciation which may result from ineffective use of a dictionary are obvious: the student may choose a meaning of the word which doesn't fit the context; he may pronounce it as he would in his native language; or he may be unskilled in checking spelling and therefore be unable to find the word at all. And then the dictionary may give little clue to the correct syntax of a sentence, or to irregularities of spelling, or to style.

The student of English language faces problems which the native speaker does not, and his needs are different. There are now on the market several monolingual dictionaries compiled with the language learner in mind. Notable among these are the 1980 revised editions of A.S. Hornby's *Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English* and the larger *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* from which the former is largely adapted. Both of these are aimed at the student at intermediate level and above.

Each headword in Hornby's dictionaries appears in bold type, and is explained in simple language, with clear examples putting the word into context Illustrations are included where these are considered more economical than explanation. There is full phonetic information for each headword, given in the new revised 1980 edition in A.C. Gimson's system of the I.P.A. symbols. American spelling, pronunciation and usage are listed, and alternative or optional words and phrases are given in the example phrases and sentences.

Students receive help with grammar--irregular plurals are given, as are verb tenses, the comparatives and superlatives of adjectives, and subject-verb contractions. Nouns are shown as countable (c) or uncountable (u), and the use of adjectives with prepositions (distinct from, conversant with) and verbs with adverbial particles or prepositions (take off, go with) is made clear. Thus, the entry for the adjective 'good': good'/gud/adj. (better, best), includes the definition, 'efficient; competent; able to do satisfactorily what is required: a- teacher/driver/worker; at mathematics, languages.'

Hornby's *OALDCE* also gives *26* verb patterns to which the student is referred. Phrasal uses of a word, especially verbs, are set out parallel to the entry of the parent word, so that the student is not obliged to plow his way through a series of minor entries.

The dictionary by no means concentrates simply on grammar, however. Different registers of formality and current usages, versus debated usages, are given. Taboo words are marked ⚠, with a warning that such words are likely to cause embarrassment or anger if used in the wrong situations.

These and other advantages of Hornby's revised works make either of his dictionaries an extremely useful aid, both for the student and for the teacher. The student does, however, need to be taught how to use the dictionary effectively, and this has meant that the work does have to be used, initially at least, inside the classroom. A lengthy introduction (in Japanese in the paperback OSDCE) which may itself take many hours of study, explains the system of symbols and type-faces.

Adrian Underhill's excellent *Use Your Dictionary* (Oxford: OUP, 1980)--a practice book for users of both the *OALDCE* and the *OSDCE*--does much to help both the student and the teacher overcome this difficulty.

The dictionary entry, writing, speaking, grammar, and the meaning of words and phrases are all covered in carefully graded exercises, and further suggestions are given for the student and for the teacher. This book can be used by the student on his own, although it would be much more effectively used in classroom time. The teacher reluctant to spend as much as 20 minutes per teaching session on dictionary work (as Underhill suggests) will find ideas for varied classroom activities which give the students practice in all of the language skills.

Used with Underhill's workbook, or by the student who has been taught by a concerned teacher how to make effective use of a dictionary, Hornby's *OALDCE,* or his smaller, lighter *OSDCE,* are invaluable aids both in and out of the classroom.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

(London: Longman, 1978; Y3,320--hard, Y2,450--soft)

Diana Evans

For many students a dictionary is something to use when thay have a word in mind in Japanese and can't think of the English equivalent, or meet an unknown word in conversation or reading and want to quickly find out the nearest equivalent in their own language. A translation dictionary would seem, therefore, to be the most efficient and effective. The dictionary may say whether the word is a noun or verb, transitive or intransitive, etc., but generally speaking gives us indication how or when it should be used. Consequently, it is not easily assimilated into the student's vocabulary, and tends to be forgotten as quickly as it was discovered.

Yet even those at a relatively advanced level of English tend to shy away from a monolingual dictionary, often claiming that they need a dictionary to understand the dictionary. In the case of monolingual dictionaries designed for native speakers, this is often valid, but with increasing competence in English comes the need for more specific understanding of nuances of meaning, differences in tone, or levels of appropriateness, which is not covered by a translation dictionary. Furthermore, most dictionaries are based on word frequencies in literary works, but these neither include colloquial often considered "incorrect," forms, nor advice for the learner on less archaic sounding equivalents more commonly used to express the same idea in spoken English.

Whilst using either of these types of dictionary would probably be more useful for the student than no dictionary at all, there are now a number of monolingual dictionaries available which have been designed especially for non-native speaking students. For intermediate or advanced levels learners

these can be invaluable as sources of reference, not only for meanings, but also for usage. One of the more comprehensive and readable of these is the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.*

The LDOCE is designed for teachers and students of English and is unlike many other dictionaries in that it places great emphasis on the spoken language. Using a basic vocabulary of about 2,000 words for definitions and example sentences or phrases, it covers over 55,000 entries, all in current usage. The extensive *Guide to the Dictionary* clearly outlines all the terms and abbreviations used throughout: word types, labels, punctuation, affixes, combining forms, etc. (For those who buy the paperback edition this is also provided in Japanese.)

It is a very easy dictionary to use, all head words being given in bald, clear print, a little larger than the definitions which follow. Both British and American spellings and pronunciation are then listed. Where a different word may be used in American English, it is included with the British English entry, and separately, though definitions are usually cross-referenced.

LDOCE's clear, concise definitions and numerous examples of the use of each word are enough to make it useful and interesting to students or teachers, but it doesn't stop there. It goes on to provide a mine of information essential for the non-native speaker if he is to successfully incorporate new vocabulary in his range. This includes not only grammatical use, but also how to add prefixes or suffixes, how to form present or past participles, phrases in which it is often found, and so on.

If particular words or expressions have specialised or limited usage, a further note gives more detail or background information. To take the example of "filling station":

> *USAGE* Some people use filling station for a place that supplies petrol and oil for motor vehicles, and service station for one that also repairs them: (I) They won't mend the tyre here--it's just a filling station.

Since LDOCE is based on contemporary spoken English, it includes some of the more "colourful" expressions in colloquial usage, which are listed "taboo" with the warning that they "should be avoided in formal society, or when talking to strangers or children." Other limitations of word use are also labelled, e.g., fml (formal), derog (derogatory), med (medical), etc., making it easier to know when a word is appropriate or can be used.

Similarly, phrasal verbs and compounds, often avoided or confused by students, are extensively covered. Synonyms, antonyms and homonyms too, are listed both with similar/opposite words, and as individual entries.

The workbook for LDOCE, "a supplementary practice book," contains a lot of exercises, graded in difficulty, through which students can get practice using the dictionary. These can be used by the student alone, or in class, and are intended "to increase and activate the student's English vocabulary, enlarging his range of expression and giving him confidence." The nine sections in the workbook are arranged to "explore in turn nine different areas of language study which are particularly well covered in the Dictionary."

The nine sections cover "Finding your way round the Dictionary," then "Pronunciation and Stress," with exercises on stress patterns and rhyming words. "The Formation of Words" trains students in word building, while "The Grammar of Words" develops their knowledge of how words behave in sentences. "Meaning," sections six and seven, includes a whole range of comparative and contrastive exercises, and "Names and Titles," dealing mainly

with information found in the tables at the end of the Dictionary, has questions on "a borderline area between semantics and general knowledge." The final section, which students who have difficulty with variations in British and American English should find extremely interesting, covers "Kinds of Language ."

Learning with LDOCE, the workbook, can equip students with the knowledge and confidence to use "LDOCE" effectively, efficiently, and--some may consider this the most important factor--enjoyably.

Longman Dictionary of English Idioms

(London: Longman, 1979; Y3,800)

William D. Patterson

Until recently there have not been many EFL books available which systematically treat idiomatic expressions; that is, not until the publication of the *Longman Dictionary of English Idioms* (LDEI). This volume contains over 4,500 carefully selected expressions, all of which are clearly defined and most of which are used in easy to comprehend examples. Even the directions for using the dictionary have been kept at an elementary level (the system is the same as in most other dictionaries .) All that is presupposed is a knowledge of the basic parts of speech.

> First look in the dictionary under the first noun if there is one. If there is no noun, look under the first verb. If there is no verb look under the first adjective or adverb.. .phrases like (as) *dry as dust* always come under the adjective--*dry* here. (inside front cover)

Even if the user should mistake a noun for an adjective or look under the second word of a simile, the dictionary will give a courtesy cross-reference to guide the reader to the correct location for the entry.

Once the expression has been found with the formula above, the user will arrive at a head word (called an alpha word by the editors). Under each head word are the idiomatic expressions containing the word. Plural and singular forms of the same word are listed under separate head words. This arrangement makes the finding of an entry simpler and faster than with other dictionaries.

The definitions are easily understood because the defining vocabulary has been kept to about 2,200 words (the same 2,200 words used in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English),* and the sentence structure used in the definitions is not complicated. This means that the user needs little outside help in understanding the meaning of the idiom.

Almost all of the definitions are followed by a contextual example taken from a variety of British books, newspapers, and periodicals (all sources are listed on p. 387), or by a contrived example where editorial discretion decided that an actual quotation was too difficult or obscure for the non-native speaker.

The most distinguishing feature of this dictionary and the one which enables this volume to surpass all others on the market is the system of grammatical indexing accompanying each entry. Without going into great detail (everything concerning the use of the dictionary is explained with examples in the first 30 pages), the *LDEI* uses a system of symbols to indicate

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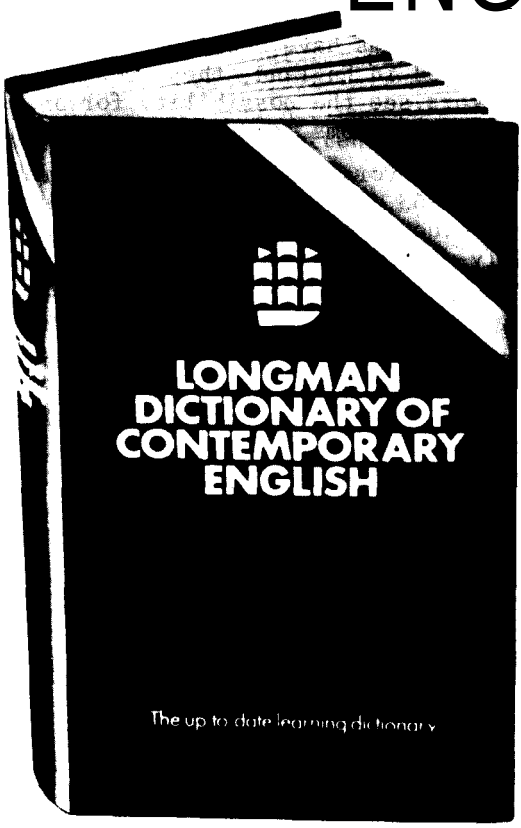

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Longman

that words within the idiom may be or may not be inflected. The symbols also tell where direct, indirect and prepositional objects occur within the idiom. This kind of indexing makes the dictionary foolproof. As long as the rudiments of grammar are known, it would be next to impossible to continually make mistakes in usage.

The present volume is suitable for all levels of EFL students, but like most other books written in a target language the benefits received from using the dictionary are in proportion to the level of proficiency of the user. The *LDIE* also makes a handy reference for teachers of English in preparing lessons. Even the native speaker of English will find it useful for the historical derivations of some of the idiomatic expressions.

One criticism that is bound to be brought up most often is that the *LDIE* treats only British English. This is not a major drawback outside of English speaking countries. In fact, if any idioms have been borrowed from non-British English speaking areas and are used in England, they are included in the dictionary. I am sure that the editors see the possibility for another dictionary of American idioms, Australian idioms, and so on.

To put the dictionary to the test I took several idioms at random from *A Mind to Murder* by P.D. James (Scribner's, 1963, pp. 115-6). The idioms were: Tell that to the marines!; flesh and blood; get no change out of; and pride of place. All of these are certainly understandable to most English speakers, no matter where they come from. The first two are used in American English. And all were in the *LDIE.*

In short, any student of English, and most teachers, should find this dictionary extremely useful and should include it on his/her bookshelf. There is not another book available which deals with idioms as well as the *LDIE.* It is a versatile book that can be used for writing, reading, speaking, and vocabulary building. Most important of all, it is the first good monolingual EFL dictionary of its kind.

A Communicative Grammar of English

by Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik (London: Longman, 1975)

Diana Evans

Since most traditional grammar books emphasise form, it has been difficult up to now for students to find out how native speakers use language to express desires, needs, emotions, and so on. As notional/functional texts become more widely used, so more and more learners of English realise that to learn only words and structures, with no concern for appropriateness, tone, or implied meaning, is to learn only part of the language.

Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik have, in *A Conrmunicative Grammar of English*, approached the traditional subject of grammar from the standpoint of its practical use in relation to meaning and communcation. As it says in the Student Preface, ". ..the main part of the book is devoted to the uses of grammar, rather than to grammatical *structure*."

Leech and Svartvik, in addition to an extensive "Grammatical Compendium," which is a clear, concise breakdown of grammatical terms and examples along traditional lines, have, in Parts 1, 2 and 3, added detailed information on English usage, which is vital for any student who wants to function effectively in the language.

In Part 1, "Varieties of English," examples of the many kinds of Eng-

lish a student may come across clearly indicate that there is no single, rigid, and uniform way of speaking or writing English. The kind of expression vocabulary, tone of voice, etc., must be adapted to the specific situation, the intended meaning of the speaker (whether explicitly 'or implicitly expressed), or the. medium through which the language is being used.

The labelled categories include not only geographical and national varieties (e.g., "British English" and "American English"), but also "written" or "spoken" English, and less tangible but equally important tonal features, including how to be "impersonal ," "tactful ," or "tentative ."

The "Intonation" section, too, adds all important explanations of the impression conveyed by voice tone or intonation pattern to the more standard ones of how to mark the nucleus of a word or the pattern of intonation of a sentence.

The book's real forte is Part 3, "Grammar in Use, " which is divided into sub-sections classified as "Concepts," "Information, Reality and Belief ," "Mood, Emotion and Attitude," and "Meanings in Connected Discourse ." It focuses a student's attention on what he is trying to convey via the language and tells him how to convey it (where appropriate giving alternative expressions and/or variations necessary to adjust the register).

Although this book is aimed at relatively advanced students, it is not complicated stylistically, and, particularly in Japan where students' reading comprehension levels are usually far higher than their speaking levels, familiarity with its content will help students of almost any level to be able to take the knowledge they have and apply it effectively.

A Comnunicative Grammar of English should go a long way towards proving to students, and in some cases teachers, that the main concern of language students should *not* be: "Is this correct or incorrect English?" To again quote the Student Preface: "Studying grammar for the overseas student makes most sense if one starts with the question, 'How can I use grammar to communicate? '"

po·si·tions

(Takamatsu) Language House Inc. of Takamatsu, Shikoku is seeking qualified native English teachers for two full-time contract positions. The school is known for its original application of the Notional/Functional Syllabus. This is an opportunity for serious teachers committed to professional teaching. Possibilities for promotion. Send resume to the director, Graham Page, 2-3-2 Kawaramachi, Takamatsu 760. Tel: 0878-34-3322.

(Tokyo) The Institute of Educational Development anticipates openings for qualified and experienced American instructors in ESL beginning in April. An M.A. in TEFL is preferred. The Institute provides an intensive program in English to prepare students for study leading to an M.D. or B.D.S. Degree at a university in the U.S. Instructors will teach 20 hours a week and spend 10 hours in curriculum development and other office work. The monthly salary will be Y450,000, with one month's vacation. A one year (renewable) contract is offered. Send resume and three recommendations to Ms. Thalia Alberts, I.E.D., Fujita Bldg. SF, 2-13-2 Kamiosaki, Shinagawa-ku, Tokyo 140.

(Japan) Applications are now being accepted for the post of *JALT Newsletter* Editor. Editorial and/or writing experience is preferred, but is not necessary. Hours flexible. No monetary compensation, but a great deal of personal sat isfact ion. Resumes should be sent to Tom Robb, 4-48 Hirakata-Motomachi, Hirakata-shi, Osaka 573.

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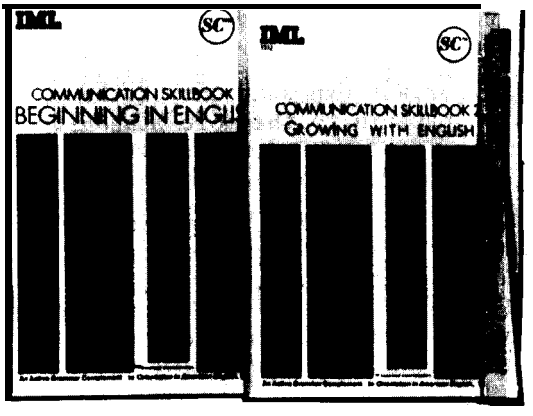

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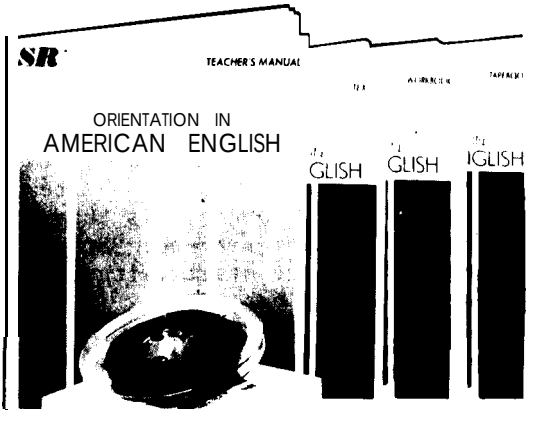

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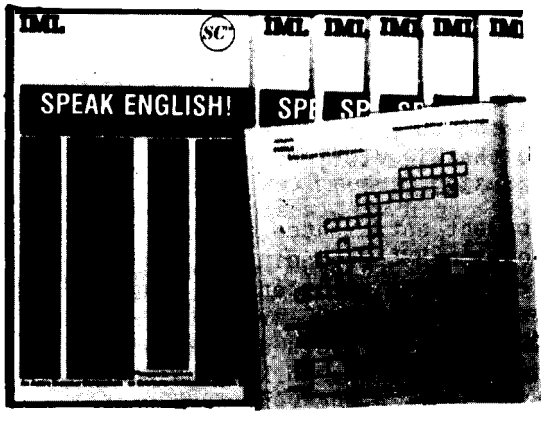

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jalt news

Executive Committee Report

John Boylan

A funny thing happened to JALT on the way to the end of 1979--we ran out of money. The fact was that when we looked closely at our budget and at the bills we had to pay, we found that there was too much year left over at the end of the money. The sad state of financial affairs pretty much set the theme for the JALT Executive Committee meeting held at the Matsushita Overseas Training Center in Hirakata, January 19-20. In sessions lasting from Saturday morning until 1:00 a.m. Sunday and starting again at an 8:30 breakfast, the committee dealt with 32 items of business, most of which concerned something we don't have enough of these days--money.

Treasurer Timothy C. (for cost-cutter?) Lewis, in a well-prepared OHP presentation, showed the committee that JALT's spending exceeded its income every *month* in 1979. (At least, we 're consistent !) It was evident that his message wasn't lost because every time spending came up, several pocket calculators magically appeared followed by cries of: "How much is it going to cost?" "We can't afford it, " and "What's the bottom line?"

The push for fiscal responsibility even spilled over to Sunday's lunch when the members decided to cut costs by ordering hamburgers. All seemed to be in agreement, however, that it would take more than cheap lunches to get JALT back on its feet and that we're going to have to prove that we've been a financially responsible organization for at least three years before we're even considered for foundation status in Japan.

With that in mind and armed with their paring knives (hatchets, some might say) the committee got to work, trimming and cutting. When the dust settled, publications turned out to be the biggest loser. Although the *Newsletter* escaped uninjured, the *Journal* was cut to one issue a year and was combined with the *LTIJ'79 Review.* The second biggest cut was in administrative spending; all officer's expenses were cut 25 percent.

The committee also decided to send two members, not three, to TESOL '80 and to limit research grants to the Y65,000 already spent. Furthermore, in an attempt to improve JALT's cash flow, it voted to delay implementation of the calendar-year membership plan until fiscal 1981, which begins on October 1, 1980.

Will any of these cuts help? The committee members seem to think they will, and they're looking forward to having a little money left over at the end of the year. And that's the bottom line,

let·ters

RE: PUBLICATIONS POLICY

To the Editor,

I address this letter to you although, more properly, it should be addressed to the JALT Executive Committee. I do this so that others may also realize what is happening and have a chance to respond to it. I have heard, although not seen in writing, that at the January meeting of the JALT Executive Committee it was decided to combine the *LTIJ'79 Review* and the *JALT Journal* into one issue to be published in November, 1980. I heard that this was done without consulting the Publications Board. I wonder why this was

done? I, for one, can see several reasons why something like this should *not* have been done.

The first is that people have already paid for the *LTIJ'79 Review.* It was part of the package that was available to those who pre-registered for LTIJ'79. This was sold to us and that means to me that a commitment was made to have a *Review.* Now this is to be part of something that we receive as members of the organization. Can't the Executive make up its mind as to what is what?

The second point is that the *Review* and the *Journal* are animals of two different natures. Putting them together is like putting *Time* and *National Geographic* together. They don't mix. They both deal with contemporary issues and have ideas that overlap, but the basic nature of the two is different. Now, I am not saying that the *Review* and the *Journal* are exactly like the two magazines that I mentioned. But you don't combine two publications with such dissimilar purposes.

My third point is that a Publications Board was established by the Executive Committee during this past year to handle the area of publications. From what I have understood to have happened, they were not consulted. They were not given a budget and asked what could be done with it. *They* were told that they would produce the publications as decided by the Executive. So, what is the purpose of having a Publications Board? The idea was that the JALT Executive Committee would control them by the power of the purse and the power of appointment only. Why, then, this other interference?

A final point is that the national again this year increased the amount of money that it gets from the members. Unless the combined *Journal/Review* is to contain everything that two journals and the *Review* would have originally carried, the members are getting less for their money. How can that be justified?

Based on the above arguments I believe that the JALT Executive Committee should reevaluate what they have done. They should return the power of deciding what to publish to the Publications Board. They should get their fingers out of matters that they don't know about and let those who do have the responsibility.

Larry Cisar, Tokyo

chap·ter notes

KYOTO CHAPTER FORMING

An informal meeting of those interested in forming a new Kyoto Chapter was held on January 26. It was proposed that the rapidly expanding Kansai Chapter be divided into two parts, one centering in Osaka and the other in Kyoto. Potential members gathered after the regular Kansai meeting on February 17 and decided to work toward official recognition. Although confirmation of a new chapter cannot be granted until the next Executive Committee meeting in April, the group has determined to ask for affiliate status during the interim.

A pro *tem* executive committee has been formed consisting of Irma Nishizawa (Membership), David Weiner (Program), Reiko Sakai (Treasurer), Yukinobu Oda (Publicity), and Leslie Sackett *(Newsletter* Liaison/Recording Secretary). Because several of these people are currently officers of Kansai, the Kansai executive committee will have to replenish its ranks. Anyone interested in serving on the committee is asked to contact Kansai Chapter President Jan Visscher at 078-453-6065.

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----------(cut off)----------

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meet·ings

Peggy Intrator on Texts and Techniques

Ms. Peggy Intrator, Senior Editor for Collier-Macmillan International, will present a series of workshops on "classroom techniques," "methodology," and "textbook selection and syllabus design" during the month of March. The complete schedule of her appearances follows below:

Hokkaido

Topic: Classroom Techniques
Date: Tuesday, March 11
Time: 6:00-7:30 p.m.
Place: Sapporo-shi Kyoiku Bunka Kaikan, Kita 1-jo, Nishi 13-chome, 011-271-3721
Info: Ukitoshi Sato, (home) 011-661-2036, (office) 011-681-2161

Tohoku

Topic: Classroom Techniques
Date: Wednesday, March 12
Time: 1:30-3:00 p.m.
Place: Fujinkaikan Meeting Room
Info: Dale Griffee, (home) 0222-47-8016, (office) 0222-67-4911

Kanto

Topic: Classroom Techniques
Date: Thursday, March 13
Time: 6:00-7:30 p.m.
Place: Kobe Steel Language Center, Fujii Building 7F, 5-3, Yaesu 1-chome, Chuo-ku (Yaesu Exit of Tokyo Station, across from Japan Airlines)
Info: Larry Cisar, 03-295-4707

Okinawa

Topic: Classroom Techniques
Date: Saturday, March 15
Time: 7:00-8:30 p.m.
Place: Okinawa Kokusai Daigaku, Kyoshitsu-to No. 3
Info: Katsunobu Sunagawa, 0988-87-0101, ext. 298
Marie-Laure Kawashima, 0988-87-9101, ext. 270

Nishi-Nippon

Topic: Methodology: Past and Present
Date: Sunday, March 16
Time: 2:30-4:00 p.m.
Place: Fukuoka YMCA, 092-781-7410
Info: Kenzo Tokunaga, 092-681-1831, ext. 370 or (home) 092-431-4253

Kansai

Topic: Textbook Selection and Syllabus Design
Date: Wednesday, March 19
Time: 2:00-3:30 p.m.
Place: Doshisha University, Koen-kan Meeting Room
Info: David Weiner, 075-493-3680
Yukinobu Oda, 075-251-4151

Ms. Peggy Intrator is the Senior Editor in charge of all ESL/EFL material for Collier Macmillan International. In this capacity, she has total

charge of not only acquiring new projects, but of developing them and eventually publishing them so that they meet the needs of the international market. These duties require an intimate knowledge of linguistics, methodology, an awareness of the needs of the international marketplace, and a strong awareness of and involvement in the ESL/EFL community. Ms. Intrator draws upon her extensive educational and professional background to meet all the varied demands of this job,

Ms. Intrator's experience spans several continents and includes a variety of teaching, research and publishing positions. First, her degrees in French and English act as the base from which she draws her academic knowledge. Her teaching experience in such areas as Spanish, French and ESL/EFL have given her an awareness of the classroom needed to publish appropriate books. Ms. Intrator has also worked closely with teachers in Mexico, Puerto Rico, Canada, France, Spain, and North Africa. These experiences have obviously given her expertise with regard to the international needs of ESL students.

Ms. Intrator's presentations will not be commercial as such, but occasional reference may be made to Collier-Macmillan publications.

TOKAI

Topic:	A CL/CLL Workshop
Speakers:	Paul G. La Forge & Ray Donahue
Time:	March 15 (Sat.), l0:00-5:00 p.m.
	March 16 (Sun.), l0:00-5:00 p.m.
Place:	Nanzan Junior College, Nagoya
Fee:	JALT Member: Sat. or Sun., Yl,SOO; both, Y3,000
	Non-member: Sat. or Sun., Y2,000; both, Y4,000
	Student: Sat. or Sun., Yl,OOO; both, Y2,000
Info:	Ray Donahue, 0561-42-0345

NOTE: *Advanced registration is required due to limited space.* Send a *yubin kawase* form through any 'post office along with the full registration fee. Be sure to include your name and address and indicate the days you will attend. Address the yubin *kawase to* JALT (ジャルト), Nagoya, Account No. 59693. The deadline is March 10, 1980.

The purpose of the workshop is to gain an understanding of counseling learning (CL) and Community Language Learning (CLL). In contrast to rather abstract and theoretical presentations of CL/CLL at the JALT conventions, the emphasis in this workshop is on practical applications in the classroom.

CL is the application of counseling to any educational task. Counseling in education is based on a counselor/teacher--client/student relationship. The educational relationship is based on a psychological contract in which *both* parties, the teacher-counselor and the student-client grow. The student-client grows into the target skill. The *relationship,* which is focused on an educational task, is so flexible that it can be reversed with profit to both parties. Reverse counseling will be included within the scope of the workshop. Teaching-learning, when viewed as counseling in education, is persons, persons in contract, and persons in response.

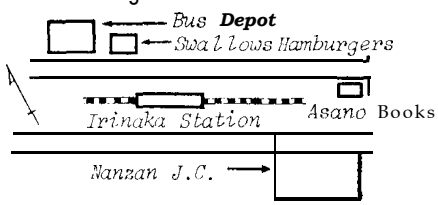
CLL, the specific application of counseling to foreign language education, is a *supporative language learning contract which consists of group experience and group reflection. The* nature of CLL will be demonstrated through a series of exercises which presuppose active participation by the participants. Reflection on each exercise or CLL contract, it is hoped, will lead the participants to new and practical insights for application in

the classroom. Although proficiency in English speaking will occupy the main focus of the workshop, reference to other foreign languages may be included in the exercises.

The following is a selection of content of some of the CLL contracts which will be a part of the workshop: 1) The Experience of Silence (whole group), 2) The Johari Window (whole group), 3) An Interview with You (pairs), 4) An Interview with the Workshop Presenter (whole group), 5) The Shape I'm In (small group), 6) A Search for Somebody Who---(whole group), and 7) Short-Term Counseling (in small and pair groups).

Participants are asked to read "The Epigenetic Principle in CLL," in the *JALT Joumal,* Nov., 1979.

This workshop is being co-sponsored by JALT-Tokai & The Center for the Study of Human Relations. The Center for the Study of Human Relations, the only department of its kind in Japan, fully recognized and accredited by the Japanese Ministry of Education, has been functioning since 1973 at Nanzan Junior College.



Directions: Irinaka Subway Station is on the Tsurumai Line. When you arrive at the station, take Exit 2, which is only a 4-minute walk from Nanzan J.C. If further directions are needed, ask for Nanzan Tanki Daigaku.

Out-of-Town Guests: From Nagoya Station, take the Higashiyama Line Subway one stop to Fushimi Station. Change to the Tsurumai Line (going towards Yagoto) and get off at Irinaka Station (Iranaka is the only station name written in hiragana.) For those desiring, "Spartan quarters" are available Saturday night on campus for Yl,500.

KANTO

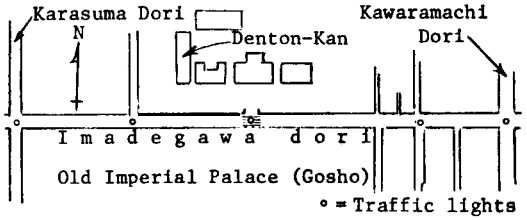
Topic:	The Transition from Listening to Speaking
Speaker:	Dr. James R. Nord, Visiting Professor at Mie University
Date:	Sunday, March 23
Time:	l:00-5:00 p.m.
Place:	Athenee Francais, 2-11 Kanda Surugadai, Chiyoda-ku (near Ochanomizu Station)
Fee:	Yl,000 for members; Y2,000 for non-members
Info:	Larry Cisar, 03-295-4707

There is an increasing interest in techniques for teaching listening as a skill. But the question is still raised about the relationship between listening and speaking. In various articles, Professor Nord has presented a theoretical three-step growth model for developing language competence through listening comprehension exercises. He has also suggested specific techniques in order to transform this theoretical model into a practical guide. In this presentation, after reviewing his model and techniques, he will explain why speaking can and should be a natural outgrowth of properly conducted listening exercises.

Dr. James R. Nord is an Associate Professor in the Learning and Evaluation Service of Michigan State University. He did his undergraduate work at the U.S. Naval Academy and then received his Master's Degree and his Doctor's Degree from Michigan State. He also studied Linguistics and Psychology at the University of Paris. Dr. Nord's primary interests are in educational media and technology. He is the inventor of some immediate feedback technologies and is a strong advocate of the "listening approach."

KANSAI

Topic: A Demonstration of Counseling-Learning/ Community Language Learning (CL/CLL)
Speaker: Fr. Paul G. La Forge, Nanzan Junior College
Date: Sunday, April 13
Time: l:00-4:30 p.m.
Place: Doshisha Women's College, Denton-kan, Rm. 205, 075-251-4151
Fee; Free to members; non-members, Yl,000
Info: Yukinobu Oda, 075-251-4151
Kenji Kitao, 075-431-6146 or 075-343-6017



Directions to Doshisha Women's College: Take a city bus, No. 2, 6, 36,203, 204, 205, or 206 from Shijo-Karasuma, or No. 2, 36, 203, or 204 from Kyoto Station, and get off at Karasuma-Imadegawa. Walk east for five minutes. Doshisha Women's College is on the left side of the street.

The purpose of the presentation is to demonstrate the following principle from Curran: "The very process of presenting an idea may produce an 'affective bind' for one or more of the students." The counseling task is to negotiate supportive conditions so that the affective bind can be broken. Since the Japanese adult learner of English at the college level and beyond seems hindered in his or her progress by many kinds of affective binds, negotiation should occur in all our classrooms. An understanding of the counseling task of negotiation may help us to identify the nature of the affective binds. Therefore, the audience is expected to actively participate in the demonstration, which will be carried on in English.

Specical *Interest Group: Teaching English in Schools*

Topic: Teaching American Culture to Japanese Learners
Speaker: Ms. Michiko Inoue, Sonodagakuen Junior College
Date: Tuesday, April 22; 6:00-8:00 p.m.
Place: Koenkan Meeting Room, Doshisha University
Info: Yukinobu Oda, 075-251-4151

CHUGOKU

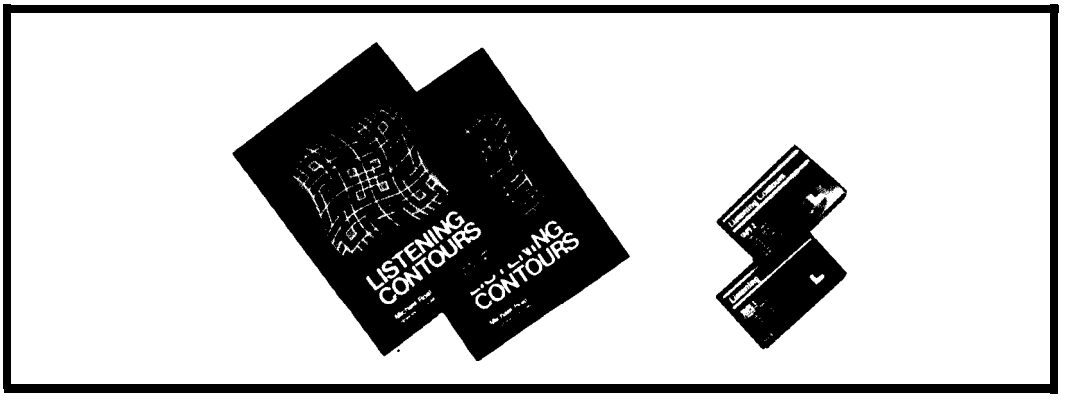
Topics: Listening Comprehension/ Poetry and Jazz Chants
Speakers: Marie Tsuruda and John Maher
Date: Sunday, March 9
Time: l:00-4:30 p.m.
Place: Hiroshima YMCA
Fee: Free to members; Yl,000 for non-members
Info: A. Barbara O'Donohue, SSJ; 08266-s-3476

For our March program, Marie Tsuruda, Executive Secretary of the Chugoku Chapter, will present a program on meaningful listening comprehension. Marie's list of accomplishments is very extensive, and her teaching background spans many years.

John Maher, visiting lecturer at Shimane Medical College, will discuss the use of poetry and jazz chants in the EFL classroom.

GUIDED LISTENING

a course in controlled listening for ESL students



LISTENING CONTOURS

by
Michael Rost

Student workbook	100 pp.	¥ 980
Teacher's manual with tape scripts	56 pp.	Y1800
Set of 2 40-minute cassettes		Y6000

A realistic course in controlled listening, *Listening Contours* guides the intermediate ESL student through progressively longer and more complex aural comprehension passages. Composed of 23 short (1½ to 6 minute) lectures on a variety of general interest topics, the text aids students in note-taking and organizing information into outlines. Ideal for students preparing to study in English speaking universities or for students seeking to gain overall listening improvement.

The "controlling" factor in the course is *concept redundancy:* main ideas are reworded, supported, and summarized within the lecture itself. Concept redundancy allows the student to increase his attention span and integrating abilities-while actively listening to extended talks.

Each lesson contains preparation notes to focus the note-taking process; outlining aids to help the listener organize his notes into "general topics," "main ideas," "specific facts," and "examples"; sample outlines for the students to compare with his own work; and supplementary comprehension questions.

The lectures are given in natural, spoken style by a variety of native American speakers. Scripts are available only in the teacher's manual.

Demonstration pamphlet and tape available from the publisher.

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