ISSN 0287-2978

JALT 全国語学教師協会
THE JAPAN ASSOCIATION OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS
NEWSLETTER

March 1. 1983 ¥250 Vol. VII, No. 3

LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATION

WIDDOWSON ON TEACHING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL IDENTITY

By Virginia LoCastro

With communicative approach to language teaching. . .English for Specific Purposes. . .Language as discourse. . . These are all phrases which come to mind upon hearing the name Widdowson. Professor Henry G. Widdowson recently made his second visit to Japan under the joint sponsorship of the British Council, JACET (the Japan Association of College English Teachers) and Oxford University Press.

He has been professor of education with special reference to the teaching of English as a foreign language at the University of London Institute of Education since 1977. After obtaining a doctorate in applied linguistics from the University of Edinburgh, he taught in Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh between 1969 and 1977.

Two of Professor Widdowson's books on applied linguistics are *Teaching Language as Communication* (1978) and *Explorations in Applied Linguistics* (1979). He has also been involved in the *English in Focus* series and the *Reading and Thinking* series. All these books are Oxford University Press publications.

Among Prof. Widdowson's current concerns are, first, his interest in getting learners to transfer what they already know about language as communication in their own language to other languages and, secondly, the use of content from other subjects by instructors in language courses.

Virginia LoCastro, the *JALT Newsletter* editor, interviewed Prof. Widdowson about ESL, discourse analysis, and cross-cultural issues in teaching English as a foreign language.

VL: Your book, *Teaching language as communication*, published in 1978, is essentially a discussion and rationale for the communicative approach to language teaching. What's your thinking on this subject now in 1982?

HW: My ideas have developed a bit since then. What I think now is an extension of what I thought then and I don't think I would wish to recant. One thing quite important for me to stress is that the communicative approach that I was discussing in that book isn't to be equated with notional/functional syllabuses. The point I tried to make in that book and that I've tried to develop further is the central importance of discourses: developing in the classroom meaningful, purposeful activities which will lead the learners to an awareness of how the language is used. That for me is the central concern of language teaching.

You don't achieve that simply by changing the elements in your course from one kind of unit to another, from structures to notions, from structures to functions. I feel even more strongly than I did in 1978 that the important thing is to develop a capacity for discourse, for using language for discourse purposes. Therefore the communicative approach has to center on the methodology of classroom teaching. It really touches on the question of how the textbook operates in the classroom.

VL: Have you changed your mind at all about ESP and the idea of combining the content of subject areas students are taught in school with the language teaching that goes on? Some call

Henry Widdowson

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that English for Specific Purposes. Have you changed your ideas about that approach?

HW: My feeling about ESP, as expressed in **Explorations** in 1979, was that it tended to concentrate too much on the description of what it is eventually the learners have to do at the end of their course. And so ESP courses tended to be focused on the design of courses which incorporated the language of eventual need. I felt then, and I feel even more strongly now, that in ESP, one has to think of an appropriate methodology which would involve the learner in activities, which are congruent with the purposes for which they will eventually use the language. What I mean by that is, it doesn't seem to me to be very helpful to say "right, I've got a class of mechanical engineers, I'll find out what language mechanical engineers use by analyzing textbooks in mechanical engineering" and then say that's the course. Then the instructor uses an ordinary language teaching methodology to teach that course. The students fill in the blanks, transform sentences and the instructor does all of the normal pedagogy of conventional language teaching.

What one needs is a methodology which is similar to the methodology of civil engineering or mechanical engineering. That is to say you need a methodology based on the solving of problems of engineering activities which appeal to the intellectural interests of engineers.

So this is why we introduce information transfer exercises in the *Focus* books because these were exercises which require engineering students to do the same kind of thing they would

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Volume 4 of the JALT Journal was mailed out on Dec. 20 to all members who did not attend the JALT '82 conference. If you have not received your copy by now, it probably means that our computer goofed! To get your copy, please notify President Jim White by either phone or postcard: l-4-2 Nishiyama, 1-412 Nishiyama-dai, Sayama-cho, Osaka 589. Telephone: (0723) 66-l 250 (Evenings).

FROM THE EDITOR

The JALT *Newsletter* has grown from a 12-page to a 36-or-more page monthly publication. Our Commercial Members are generously supporting us with advertisements. Success!

Nevertheless, the NL needs more than ads; legally, we can not have more than 50% of the NL be composed of ads. The NL is therefore seeking articles, book reviews, teaching tips, summaries and reviews of presentations and lectures, articles for reprinting, etc., written in clear, objective, expository prose. In addition, three special issues have been selected:

June, 1983:	Drama
October, 1983:	English as an International Language
February, 1984:	Teaching English in the Business World

The deadline is the 5th of the month preceding publication. Your support is appreciated.

JALT
NEWSLETTER

Vol. VII, No. 3 March 1, 1983

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The JALT *Newsletter* is the monthly publication of the Japan Association of Language Teachers. The editors are interested in articles of not more than 1,200 words concerned with all aspects of foreign language teaching, particularly articles with practical applications. Articles may be in English or in Japanese. The editors also seek book reviews of not more than 750 words; classroom texts, techniques, and methods books are preferred. It is not the policy of the JALT Newsletter to seek books for review from publishing companies. Employer-placed position announcements are printed free of charge. Position announcements do not indicate endorsement of the institution by JALT. It is the policy of the JALT Executive Committee that no positions-wanted announcements be printed in the *Newsletter*.

All announcements or contributions to the *Newslettcr* must be received by the 5th of the month preceding publication. All copy must be typed, double-spaced on A4 sire paper, edited in pencil and sent to: Virginia LoCastro, 3-40-25 Ogikubo, Suginami-ku, Tokyo 167. Japan. (03) 392-0054.

The Japan Association of Language Teachers is a not-for-profit organization of concerned language teachers who want to promote more effective language learning and teaching. It is the Japan affiliate of TESOL and FIPLV. Through monthly local chapter meetings and an annual international conference, JALT seeks new members of any nationality, regardless of the language taught. There are chapters in Sapporo (Hokkaido), Takamatsu (Shikoku),, Sendai (Tohoku), Tokyo (Kanto), Nagoya (Tokai), Kyoto (East Kansai), Osaka (West Kansai), Fukuoka (Kyushu), Nagasaki and Okinawa. Membership information can be obtained hy contacting:

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have to do when they are doing engineering. Again, the focus in my view has to be on methodology, on what kind of activity you require learners to carry out. And these activities have to be congruent with their interests in life.

VL: So you would put the emphasis on the process, not just on the objectives of the courses.

HW: That's right. I would think very much in terms of the learning aims of the learning process, and less on the eventual objectives you are striving to achieve. If you get the aims right, in pedagogic terms, the objectives will take care of themselves.

VL: Could you exnlain a little about the use of information transfer exercises? Could one use such exercises in everyday language learning situations?

HW: Yes, I think so, if one considers the kind of reading matter which students are likely to meet. The whole communicative event represented by an article in a newspaper or whatever it may be is only partly linguistic; it also in part consists of visual displays of some sort, diagrams, maps and charts. If you look at a newspaper, you always find pictures, diagrams, of maps or little charts saying how much the Gross National Product has increased or decreased. Now this is all part of the matter to be understood and the language only works in relation to the non-language elements. It poses very interesting problems for the reader to see how the language part relates to the non-language part and we can use this as a very useful basis for class activity.

In fact we've been doing work of this sort in London. It's concerned with setting up problems of a very general sort which require students to interpret a diagram, or a chart, and then see how the written language relates to that. You can give a reading passage and then ask the student! to do something on the chart, or do something on the map; they are transferring from one to the other.

It's a transfer which seems to be a natural language activity. This is what we all do when we process language. But it's not a visual aid. A visual aid, as traditionally used, is a way of illustrating the language. With the kind of visual you use with information transfer, the language and the visuals have an equal status. They are interdependent.

VL: Could vou explain what discourse or discourse analysis is to an audience of interested instructors who have no real knowledge or background in linguistics?

HW: I am not sure that the way I use it is the way in which other people would wish to use it in the trade. But the way I use it is to refer to the way in which natural language works by the language user relating to the linguistic sign to the context, whether this context is in the immediate situation of utterance or whether the context has to do with what the people who are talking know what the others know. So it's a matter of shared knowledge as well. Whenever I say anything or write anything, I am supposing the person that I am addressing will relate the language to something else outside the language, to something that I mentioned before or to something which we both know, something which is obvious from the immediate situation in speech. And it's the way we relate the language to knowledge and experience outside language which I refer to as discourse.

Now this will often require a sort of negotiation. If I say something you may not be clear on what I mean. So you say, "What do you mean?" Then I say something else, and gradually we try and bring your knowledge and my knowledge into a convergence and the whole process of arriving at a common understanding is the discourse process. So every time you read meaningfully, and write meaningfully, and speak meaningfully, you're involved in the discourse process of negotiating meaning. That's what I mean by discourse.

VL: And then discourse analysis would be an outsider looking at that process.

HW: Yes, discourse analysis is an approach to the description of that process. We oughtn't to get too far into the technicalities of that, but just as previously the central concern of linguistics was the description of the sentence, which was the idealized niece of language taken out of context, discourse analysis is concerned with language which is in the context of use.

Discourse is not just spoken discourse; the way I have defined discourse is just as relevant to the reader-writer relation as it is to the speaker-hearer relation.

VL: In fact, it seems like a very useful definition because often in articles on discourse or discourse analysis, there seems to be a separation. Some talk about conversational analysis or speech acts. And then others talk about cohesive devices in writing, cohesion in writing. I think to the average reader, it gets a little confusing sometimes.

HW: Yes. there are people who equate discourse with spoken discourse. There are people that by discourse mean the actual spoken conversation. There are also people who think of discourse simply as a block of text, quite independently of what that text is being used to mean. So there are a number of different ways of defining discourse. But the way I define discourse is the way I explained, neutral with respect to whether we're talking about written or spoken interaction. It has to do crucially with the process whereby this interaction takes place. The text mediates this relationship.

VL: My next question concerns cross-cultural problems. Do you have any comments about the possible cross-cultural problems involved in teaching language as discourse? For example, some linguists compare the Japanese non-linear style of discourse where seemingly no point is made with a "Western" style of linear development of ideas where a final point is made. Do you think there is any relationship here with teaching language as discourse?

HW: This, in a way, brings us to the technicality of the nature of discourse and what one is analyzing. In general there seem to be two aspects to it.

On the one hand, there are certain conven-

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PIT CORDER

TEACHER TALK

In spite of the greater emphasis recently on the role of the learner as central to linguistic development in second language acquisition, the teacher continues to contribute to the learner's natural development by adapting his/her language to the competence-level of the learner. 'Teacher talk' is the label given to this adaptation and was the subject of a public lecture on January 17 at the British Council in Tokyo by Stephen Pit Corder, professor of applied linguistics at the University of Edinburgh.

Well-known for his book, ***Error Analysis and Interlanguage*** (Oxford Universitv Press. 1981) Prof. Corder's visit to Japan was sponsored by Sophia University, the British Council, and JACET (The Japan Association of College English Teachers). The title of the January 17th lecture was "The Teacher's Role in the Learner's Linguistic Development."

Ann Chenoweth of the Kanto Chapter agreed to summarize this lecture for JALT.

Dr. Pit Corder's purpose in addressing the group was to outline some conclusions he has drawn from recent empirical research in second language acquisition. In general these studies have shown that the second language learner is more autonomous in the process than is commonly assumed. This calls for a reconsideration of the position that the teacher occupies. Corder first presented some background on the learner's linguistic development, then outlined some necessary conditions for successful language acquisition in classrooms, and finished with some recommendations for language teachers.

It is important to be aware of the distinction between learning (having conscious, explicit knowledge) and acquiring (having unconscious, implicit knowledge). People who have learned a language can usually talk about it, but perhaps not in it, whereas people who have acquired a language can speak in it, but perhaps not about it. Corder recommends that it is more profitable to develop techniques to get learners to develop their unconscious knowledge of a language rather than hoping that a shift from explixit to implicit knowledge will occur later.

Corder noted that the learners, in developing an implicit syntactic syllabus as they interact with their linguistic environment, move through a variety of stages as they progress towards the target language. This development seems to be programmed in people in essentially the same way independent of the first language, the age of the person (after about 8 years), or whether the person is receiving instruction in the target language. Corder observed that with second language learners, as with young children, there is no connection between how frequently a form is used by the teacher/mother and when it's acquired. Language learners must be exposed to a wide range of forms to develop the target language naturally. Both second language learners and children are developing a language in its own right that should not be regarded as an imperfect, inadequate rendition of the target language.

Since the development of the internal syllabus in all language learners follows nearly the same course, it might seem possible to develop a classroom syllabus that would parallel it. Corder showed that this is not likely to be possible, however, as teachers teach one thing at a time while the learner is learning everything at once. In addition, the learner passes through a number of intermediate stages which in the target language are ungrammatical. It certainly does not seem to be advisable to include ungrammatical items in a syllabus.

Corder states that learners will acquire a second language, provided certain conditions are met:

1) The learner must be exposed to adequate quantities of the language.
2) The learner must be involved activelv in communicative activity. This does not mean that the learner must be required to speak, but required to use the language receptively and actively (e.g. involved in attempting to understand).
3) The learner must be motivated.

One important task that the teacher faces is to adjust the level of the language to suit the learners. This is similar to the way in which a mother adapts her speech to speak with her child and the way in which native speakers adjust their speech when talking with ohters who are not proficient in the they are using. There is a strong probability that these three registers are similar because they have a common function of making communication easier and maximally effective. In general they are perfectly grammatical but simplified. For example, utterances tend to be shorter; pauses are longer; language functions, structures, vocabulary, and topics are limited, repetition is frequent; and the language is closely related to the situational context.

This last feature is perhaps the most important one as Corder's central point is that language is learned through communicative activity. It is our responsibility as teachers to create the possibility of communication in the language in the classroom. The students' success is dependent on the extent to which we succeed. Of course, as the learners progress, the teacher continually readjusts her language so that the learners constantly have to make an effort. It is the sign of a good teacher to recognize how much the learner can understand; it is this that is the natural gradation.

The role of the teacher in the future, rather than providing information about the target language, will be to:

1) provide opportunities to hear language used for communicative purposes.
2) engage the learners in communicative activities in the classroom.

Dr. Corder's presentation clearly shows support from second language acquisition research for communicative language teaching syllabuses by showing how it is psycho-linguistically well-founded. In addition, he predicts that in the future, language teachers will use activity-based syllabuses with good results.

WIDDOWSON .....

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tional rhetorical patterns, which are what you are referring to here. We find this not only generally within certain primary cultures, but also in secondary cultures. By that I mean that if you are learning to be a scientist, you are learning the secondary culture of science, which is different in many respects from your primary culture because the nature of scientific explanation is different. You have to learn the secondary culture, the particular routines for doing things in science. If you write a scientific paper, there are certain conventions you follow, and you can describe these conventions.

Now let's call these 'rhetorical routines'. It may be the case that rhetorical routines differ from primary culture to primary culture and, within primary cultures, within secondary cultures. It may be that the way one conducts a conversation in Japanese is rhetorically different from the way you conduct a conversation in Enelish. The way in which you begin a telephone conversation, for instance, in Britain is very different from the way you begin a telephone conversation in France. Now these are established conventional routines. the etiquette of social life, if you like, and they obviously define different kinds of communicative events. In that respect, I would guess that there would be different rhetorical routines in Japanese and in English.

One of the interesting questions is, if you're talking about a secondary culture like science, whether in fact science is the same in Japan as it is in Britain. My guess is that it is. There are rhetorical routines that you have to follow if you're a scientist, no matter what your primary culture is. But m terms of the general primary cultures, let's say that the rhetorical routines in Japanese tend to be non-linear, and the Western is more linear. That's one point

The other aspect of discourse is the way in which one uses procedures of interpretation for realizing meaning "in flight." When you say something, I check to see whether that relates to my knowledge and, if it doesn't, I check back with you and we have this negotiation of meaning between us. Now this negotiation of meaning, I would guess, is common across all languages. In other words, the actual rhetorical routines may differ, but the process of achieving these routines and repairing them if they break down. and of establishing the relationship of information being transferred from one person to another is part of the general communicative character of natural language anywhere. So the procedural side of using a language is not likely to be very different. But the rhetorical aspects of language, the framework in which you actually work, are likely to be different.

VL: Could you comment on the ESL (English as a Second Language) vs. EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teaching/learning situation and the methodologies and approaches that are used? Is there any reason why one might say that in an ESL situation, the communicative approach is more appropriate, whereas in an EFL situation, the structural approach, the grammar-translation approach, is somehow "better"?

HW: The first thing is that I don't think there is a sharp distinction between the structural approach and the communicative approach. I think it has been damaging over recent years that some people have presented this as if there were a clear cut alternative. Are you a "structure-approach" person or are you a "communicative-approach" person?

It strikes me as unwise to think of the communicative approach as a new approach, totally different from what has gone before. I think you can use a structually-based syllabus and use a structurally-based textbook, and still introduce communicative activities in the classroom. So I would prefer to see communicative language teaching as being an evolution, an extension from other practices, and not a new paradigm or revolution where you have to reject everything in the past in order to embrace new things.

Now having said that, it seems to me that, whether you're in an EFL or ESL learning situation, the same basic principles must apply. If you're interested in teaching language as use, then you've got to develop a methodology which encourages learners to acquire the capacity to use language. That is true whether it is an EFL or ESL situation.

The techniques, however, might be different. The way in which these principles might be interpreted might be different. One of your techniques might be rote memorization because that technique is helpful in Japan, say, and it suits the Japanese character in some way. That is fine so long as you recognize what rote memorization can do and what it can't do. It may well contribute to the whole purpose of language use. And in the same way, there may well be techniques more appropriate for second language than for foreign language learning. But the principles must be the same.

VL: The next question has to do with the fact that testing is an important activity in Japan and that, to my knowledge, there are no tests yet to assess progress and/or proficiency of learners.

HW: That's true. People have been trying to work out tests, but there is a built-in contradiction about it which has to be resolved. If you are testing knowledge about language structure, a test is perfectly possible because simply demonstrating a knowledge of language structure is a non-natural thing anyway. An examination which, by its nature, is contrived, an artificial situation, is not able to reflect any kind of natural behavior. How can you check natural behavior if you create a situation which is non-natural?

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MORE FROM JALT '82

THE USE OF MAGAZINE PICTURES

Presented by Andrew Wright

**Reviewed by Richard Ulrych,
Tokai University, Kyushu**

In his entertaining and well-organized three-hour presentation on the use of magazine pictures, Andrew Wright demonstrated many ways in which pictures can be used to teach oral language skills. In addition, he gave a brief summary of EFL books and materials which deal with using pictures in the classroom. The result was a presentation which gave members of his audience a better understanding of the role of pictures in language teaching.

In the first part of his presentaion, Mr. Wright discussed the role pictures can play in controlled, semi-controlled and free-speaking practice in the classroom. With oral drills, for example, pictures can be used to cue substitutions, the completion of sentences, and answers to questions. For example, if students are engaged in a substitution drill based on the following frame:

S1 : "Look, there's John and Ann."

S2 : "Yes, they're off to *someplace* as usual."

a picture of a man and a woman going toward a movie theatre could be used to cue the substitution of "the movies" for the word "someplace" in S2 Thus, the students would reply with "Yes, they're off to the movies as usual."

The same picture could also be used in question/answer drills that focus on the use of the present continuous or past continuous. By showing the picture to students and asking the question "What are they doing?", one can cue the response "Thev're going to the movies." By showing the picture and then hiding it behind one's back and asking "what were they doing?", one can cue the answer "They were going to the movies."

Mr. Wright emphasized the fact that grammar drills such as those just discussed are not communicative. The teacher knows what is depicted in a given picture and can therefore anticipate the content as well as the form of the students' response. It is incorrect, Mr. Wright stated, to suppose that the above drills are somehow more meaningful because they involve the use of pictures. However, he added, that although these drills are not communicative, they are still useful, because they give students practice in manipulating language forms and in producing formally correct utterances.

Controlled communicative drills, in contrast, provide students with an opportunity to give information or to express opinions that cannot be anticipated by others. Though the teacher continues to control the sentence patterns students use in their responses, the content of the responses is somewhat up to the students.

One example of a controlled communicative drill that Mr. Wright demonstrated was based on a large poster that depicted different stages of a person's life. While the activities the person in the poster was engaged in were clear, information about the person was lacking, and thus some room was left for the students to develop their own ideas. Using the poster, a teacher could easily ask questions that would encourage students to reply using particular sentence patterns, yet at the same time express themselves freely. For example, by pointing at pictures of the person at different stages of his life and asking the question "How old do you think he is here?", students would make guesses about the person's age using the pattern 'I think he is about _____.'

Although in the previous communicative drill the teacher is the center of class activity, Mr. Wright demonstrated that controlled communicative drills can be carried out so that the teacher is only a monitor. In such drills students break up into groups. Each group is handed a packet that contains both pictures and instructions.

Andrew Wright

In the group in which I participated, students were given pictures of household items. These pictures were placed face down on the table. One person (person A) was asked to pick up a picture and look at it without showing it to the other members of the group. Another person (person B) was then instructed to ask "Did you buy anything yesterday?", to which person A replied "Yes, I did as a matter of fact." A third person then asked "What did you buy?" To this question person A replied "Guess." At this point the group engaged in an activity similar to the game "Twenty Questions." Our goal was to guess the object depicted in A's picture. Once we succeeded in guessing the 'purchase' made by person A, we were asked to obtain another packet and to carry on with another activity.

In the second activity, we again worked with pictures of household items that were turned face down. Person A picked up a picture (it turned out to be a picture of a bathtub). Person A was instructed to ask person B "Can I borrow your bathtub?" A coin was then flipped to

determine the answer. If the coin landed heads, person B would reply affirmatively but would make a condition (e.g. "Yes, you can borrow my bathtub but be finished with it by 6:00"). As it turned out however, the coin landed tails and person B had to answer negatively giving a reason ("No, I'm sorry you can't. My sister's using it.").

Controlled communicative activities such as these based on pair or group work have the advantage of giving students more opportunities to speak and work with each other without a teacher being present. Often this leads students to express themselves more freely. At the same time, a teacher still has some control over the form of the sentence patterns students will use. This control is exerted through the instructions that the students are to follow.

Andrew Wright noted that in devising controlled communicative drills, it is essential that the students understand the instructions for the activities. It is also important that the language tasks involved be neither too easy nor too difficult. Mr. Wright noted that language activities will fail if the students do not know what to do or if they do not have the language ability necessary to carry them out.

In the second half of his presentation. Andrew Wright shifted attention from the use of pictures in controlled speaking practice to their use in open communication. Whereas in controlled practice, pictures serve as cues, in open communication they are used to stimulate and provide a framework for speculation, discussion and game activity. It became clear during the presentation that some pictures are more suitable for speculation and discussion activity than others.

Pictures that can stimulate speculation have to be open to interpretation. In other words, there should be many aspects of the picture about which no definite statements can be made. As an example, Mr. Wright, showed the audience a very simple stick-figure picture that was open to a number of interpretations. In this picture there was a house with a broken window, a man emerging from the house looking at the window, a small boy standing near the house, and a person off to the left running in a direction away from the house. By asking such questions as 'What has just happened?' 'Why is this person running?' 'What is the relationship between this person and that person?', a teacher could try to get students to express different points of view about the picture.

Using the same picture. Mr. Wright showed that it is relatively-easy to shift from using a picture as a basis for speculation to using it as a basis for discussion. This is accomplished by asking questions that are related to the picture but which draw upon the personal experience, knowledge, values or beliefs of students. In the case of the previous picture, Mr. Wright asked such questions as 'Have you ever broken a window?" 'How did it happen?' 'What happened to you?' He suggested that one could lead a class to discuss the issue of punishment --- some suitable questions might be 'If this boy broke the window, should he be punished?' 'Why or why not?' As students express their different uoints of view on punishment, an interesting exchange of opinions may occur.

Mr. Wright pointed out that discussion can also be based upon pictures or groups of pictures that show different aspects or points of view of a single theme. To illustrate his point, Mr. Wright showed us one group of pictures that depicted people engaged in various danaerous activities. He suggested that initial discussion about this group- of pictures could focus on identifying the common theme that unites the pictures. After the common theme is identified, one could discuss how the activities the persons are engaged in could affect the safety of others.

In the final part of his presentation, Mr. Wright presented three games that involve the use of pictures. All three games ~ (a) "Describe and Draw," (b) "Describe and Arrange", and (c) "Identify the Differences" are done in pairs and exploit the information gap that is created when one person has an opportunity to see a picture that his partner cannot see.

In "Describe and Draw", student A has a picture, and must describe the picture to student B, who then draws a picture based on the description. Of course, student B can ask student A questions about the picture. The winners of the game are the two students who finish drawing an acceptable copy of their picture first.

"Describe and Arrange" is very similar to "Describe and Draw". Each pair of students is given building blocks, or matchsticks, etc., and they are given a picture. One student looks at the picture and gives building instructions to the partner, who follows these instructions and asks questions about the content of the picture.

"ldentify the Differences" is based on a division of information and not on a simple information gap. In this activity, the two students have similar but not identical pictures. Their iob is to find out how the pictures differ by asking each other questions. The first pair to identify all of the differences wins.

Mr. Wriaht's demonstration was followed by a discussion of books and materials relating to the use of pictures as a teaching aid. All the following books and materials were highly recommended by Mr. Wright.

D. Byrne's **Teaching Oral English** (Longman) and B. Heaton's **Practice Through Pictures** (Longman) were described as valuable sources of ideas about the use of pictures in controlled grammatical practice. Heaton's book in particular was highly recommended because of the number of pictures (384) and dialogs it contains.

For those interested in how pictures can be used in controlled communicative drills, the chapter in Keith Johnson's **Communicative Syllabus Design and Methodology** (Pergamon) entitled 'Making Drills Communicative' is recommended. References to this chapter had earlier

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appeared in an article in **Modern English Teacher,** 7, 4, 1980.

D. Byrne and A. Wright's **What Do You Think,** Books 1 & 2 (Longman), were recommended for those who want a better understanding of how to use pictures to stimulate speculation (Book 1) and discussion (Book 2).

A. Wright, M. Buckby and D. Betteridge's **Games for Language Learning** (Cambridge University Press) and D. Byrne and S. Rixon's **Communication Games** (National Foundation for Educational Research) are two books that offer insights into communication games that involve pictures.

A. Maley and A. Duff's **Drama Techniques for Language Learning** (Cambridge University Press) deals with the use of pictures in communication games. It also shows how pictures can be used for pair and group work involving both controlled and open communication. A. Maley, A. Duff, and F. Grellet's **The Mind's Eye** (Cambridge University Press) also describes many pair and group activities in which pictures are used.

J. McAlpin's **The Magazine Picture Library** (George Allen & Unwin) is a general source of information about organizing and using a collection of magazine pictures.

J.Y.K. Kerr's **Picture Cues for Language Practice** (Evans) and A. Wright's **Flash Cards** (Modern English Publications) contain both pictures and ideas about how to use them. Kerr's book in particular was highly recommended. It contain's 300 picture cards and 85 dialogs. Though a bit expensive (£332), it saves the teacher the trouble of assembling pictures and devising dialogs that can be used with them.

Mr. Wright emuhasized that all of the urevious books and materials save the teacher both time and trouble.

WIDDOWSON

(cont'd from p. 5)

So this is the central problem about communicative language testing and it's true that there's been no satisfactory way of developing communicative tests. Whether one wili find a way in the future, I don't know. One has got to compromise. There is no more sense in looking for a natural test anymore than there is a point in looking for natural language in the classroom because, in a sense, the classroom is a contrived situation and so is the testing situation. So you've got to work within that constraint.

However, I would wish to argue that, if the communicative approach is effective in developing the capacity for language use, it ought also to be effective for developing knowledge of the language system.

And so my guess is that a methodology based on communicative principles ought to prepare students for passing formal tests.

VL: The last question has to do with the fear that some learners have that when they learn another language very well they may lose their own cultural identity. I want to relate this to the opinion of some experts that teaching language as discourse implies the learner adopting the communicative styles of that target culture.

HW: Now, that's an interesting, but very difficult question. If you are thinking of communicative ability in terms of spoken language, spoken interaction, then if you are going to be accepted as a member of the group of English-speaking people, you will obviously learn how to behave. If you want to be a member of that exclusive club, you've got to learn the rules. And you follow a kind of etiquette that is appropriate for that group.

To that extent, you accept the culture of that group. It doesn't mean that you reject your own. It seems to me that if you wish to be thought of as an English-speaking gentleman, you can do so, but when you go outside that club, you can resume your character as a Japanese. I don't think necessarily that one forces the other out.

It *is* certainly true that when one speaks another language well, one does change identity when one moves from one language to another. You are not the same person. If you are fluent in Japanese and English, when you are speaking Japanese, you are not the same person as when you are speaking English. And I don't see why you should be. I don't think it is a threat to your primary culture.

VL: But you may be aware of the fact that in some cultures that is a threat to their identity.

HW: It really depends on whether you wish to learn a language to identify with a group of speakers of that language or whether you want to learn a language to talk with those people but not necessarily to identify with them.

There are always two aspects to language. There is the communicative aspect and there is the identifying aspect. You can use language as a badge, as a blazon, as an identification of group membership; you use language as a means to establish solidarity.

Now if you wish to learn language so you acquire both its identifying and its communicative functions, clearly you're embracing the culture of the other people. Now I don't see why you shouldn't do that but also retain your own.

Of course it is perfectly possible to accept the communicative function of the language and not accept the identifying function of the language. When people subconsciously retain their own accent, that is precisely what they are doing. What in effect happens is the learners accept the utility of having this particular foreign language as a communicative resource but still retain their own because they feel no sort of identity; they are not culturally absorbed. They will count on the native speaker of English to make allowance, which most people always will do anyway.

It actually can be dangerous to embrace the identifying function because if you sound like an English person, then you will lose the benefit of being an outsider, and people will just assume you are a member of the group.

---------- update ----------

As promised in the January issue, a list of corrections (marked with an asterisk) and additions to the JALT Membership list follow below. Please see the January issue for an explanation of the format and the codes. We hope to continue publishing corrections and new memberships at regular intervals. Please notify the Executive Secretary, Thomas Robb if you find any irregularities in your own listing.

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'PUDDING ON THE STYLE': ON COUNTERING CLICHES OF AMERICAN AND BRITISH ENGLISH

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One of the most dramatic, yet too seldom considered changes in the post-World War II status of teaching English abroad is the degree to which English has become an international language – a Language of Wider Communication – rather than the language of Great Britain *or* the United States. Traditionallv. those studving English in non-English speaking' countries were expected (and did expect) to learn one or the other of the two major varieties, American English (AmE) or British English (BrE). Mixing of the two at any linguistic or communicative level was frowned upon, and a quick glance at the "other" variety was considered sufficient to explain differences. Few attempts were made to go beyond the cliche and stereotype stage.

Today, even in older British-influenced, one-variety systems, the once received view that only one variety will do (and do very nicely) is suffering severe and continuing setbacks. Physical communication (the universality of car travel, international flights, etc.) and the tremendous growth of mass printing and electronic media have meant that nearness is no longer just a geographical concept, but one of time and influence as well.

For all these reasons and many others as well, the Shavian tones long associated with a common language ("England and America are two countries separated by a common language") have been considerably mitigated, at least among professionals in EFL education. Remarkably, it has become increasingly difficult to separate the two varieties by giving key contrasts. This is especially true among the young, and especially among the British. When Oxford University Press states that henceforth, all of its volumes will spell *gramme* as *gram,* or when one hears *have a nice day* on phone-in British radio *programmes* (BrE now uses program for computers, etc.), is this the insidious Americanism taking root, or simply the new BrE blossoming? Randolph Quirk's oft-repeated example of this phenomenon is well-worth repeating. Where once only Americans were capable of throwing *rocks* (Quirk's British generation being limited to throwing *stones),* his students today not only throw *rocks* with ease, but also have absolutely no AmE connotations when doing so. Further examples could be given; however the point is that even syntactic forms (e.g. AmE *Do ,you have. . .?* as opposed to BrE *Have ,you. .?)* are so rapidly assimilated into BrE, that to keep the two sepaate one must rely upon historical, rather than present-day descriptions. When Queen Elizabeth (11) uses *due to* in what BrE once considered the AmE sense of "on account of," what the Queen's English is, is a matter of theory rather than practice. And in practice, the position taken by a British dictionary of high repute, *Chambers,* is becoming more common: "in this newest version of the dictionary [1972] the label '(U.S.)' formerly used to distinguish purely American English, has been dropped almost entirely" (xii).

Almost every foreign learner of English, therefore, will be faced with the necessity of acquiring receptive competencies for both varieties. Because of the historical nature of the spread of English, it is the traditional British one-variety EFL systems which are most strongly affected by the fact that "their" language can no longer be equated with the world's first, foreign language. It must be stressed, nonetheless, that neither variety can support the folk-linguistic notion that it is "more correct" or even "older" than the other. Moreoever, those who would still maintain claims of superiority today will sooner or later be met by ridicule from both sides of the Atlantic (for example, try tracing the etymologies of *color* or *tire,* see Chaucer for *I guess,* and the *King James Bible,* before throwing stones/rocks at others' *judgments!).* The problem, however, is that old cliches and stereotypes, some according to Quirk (1972) reaching back to the first British, colonial baiting games after the (BrE) *War of American Independence,* continue to strongly affect views of AmE, and thereby lessen the chances of informing students about both varieties, and whatever differences do exist.

We (American and British, respectively) share a common interest in AmE/BrE as a research area. We also have a common responsibility to train future German teachers of English. Germany has long held to a BrE model for TEFL. and has onlv treated AmE in passing, in spite of the enormous, even primary, influence of AmE and America on German and Germany in the past four decades. We have been concerned with the overwhelming number of cliches which obstruct and confuse our students' views of the two varieties. Previously, we have reported our own research into the nature of these cliches (see e.g. Stevenson and Brunt 1979). Recently, we have "team-taught" a seminar in which AmE and BrE are compared and contrasted; and that has as a central goal to remove or at least mitigate some of the more flagrant misconceptions and stereotypes. From our own conversations at various international meetings with EFL teachers who work abroad, we are aware that very similar problems exist elsewhere. Perhaps what we tried in our seminar will prove as useful for others as it was for us.

From questionnaires (both ours and others') and everyday experience we were able to compile a list of some of the most frequent cliches believed by German pupils, students, and teachers of English. It goes without saying - but perhaps should be said after all ~ that almost all of these cliches are "at large" even among well-educated German speakers of English, and almost all are negative towards AmE. Our own

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judg(e)ments have been supported by oral and written questionnaires administered in German by senior students to other Germans. Among the most frequent cliche's about AmE/BrE differences:

- clear differences in spelling exist and these spelling differences are regular (e.g. *theater* and *theatre)*
- clear differences in vocabulary exist and these differences are regular (e.g. *truck* and *lorry; apartment* and *flat; vacation* and *holiday)*
- A very large number of words exist which can be termed "Americanisms" and which are understood or used only in the U.S. (e.g. *cop, bathroom, automobile)*
- AmE is strongly marked by slang usages, while BrE uses slang seldom, if at all
- AmE is extremely fond of word games and puns ("pun and games"?), while BrE is more "serious" or "dignified"
  AmE constantly changes accepted spellings, especially in advertising (e.g. *kat, kar, xtra, Xmas)* while this is rare or unusual in BrE
- AmE is much freer with mechanics, that is, punctuation, date or address forms, etc., while BrE has established and "correct" forms (e.g. BrE would have *1st December.* 1982 and AmE *Dec. 1 '82).*

These cliche categories are but a few of those which we derived, and many others exist. There are those dealing with syntax (e.g. that AmE omits forms more often: BrE speakers seldom notice that *he could have done* with the AmE "it" omitted is only BrE); pronunciation (e.g. it is assumed that *either* does not normally receive both pronunciations among educated speakers in both varieties); so-called errors or socio-linguistic markers (e.g. it is assumed that "r-less" pronunciations will also be marked as "higher" in AmE, or that the "et" pronuncation of *ate* is also an educated variant in AmE); vocabulary distribution (e.g. only AmE has *fall:* Americans sing "... those fall leaves drift by my window. ... and so on.

We had learned through hard experience that these cliches have a very great staying power. Stating that they were cliche's and stereotypes and well-established folklinguistic notions was not enough by any means. To make matters worse, most EFL textbooks in use in West German schools actually teach such so-called differences and, how could one doubt the textbook or revered grammar? And finally, our system is plagued like so many others by those infamous "American/English" dictionaries, "translations," and handbooks which all support the fiction that many clear differences exist which, in fact, do not. Did you know that in *American* they say *automobile,* and in *English* they say *car?* We didn't either, and neither did the *AA,* the British *Automobile Association.* But then we have not had the benefit of such AmE/BrE "aids."

Given this background, we decided that a departure from the usual lecture format and teaching technique was called for. We decided that because of the tenacity with which such cliches were maintained, it was necessary to administer a pedagogical shock to our students, albeit one with high voltage and low amperage. Until our students were convinced that many of their own cliches were cliche/s, little progress could be made towards actual comparisons. We proceeded as follows.

First, in preliminary lectures, we stressed the fact that so much misinformation circulates about AmE/BrE differences because (1) individuals making comparisons seldom know both varieties well enough to do so, and professionally trained "duets" (e.g. Markwardt and Quirk) are the exception rather than the rule. (2) Most discussions tended to stress apparent differences (e.g. *gas station* versus *petrol station* instead of the common form, *filling station). (3)* Many if not most comparisons are made across levels and registers (e.g. a word such as *dude* is held to be equivalent to *person,* etc.) (4) It is often forgotten that in reality there is no such thing as "General American," and similarly, "British English" or "RP" are also abstractions. Therefore, the "analysis" of abstractions or the specification thereof can only produce results with no predictive validity. To state that Americans pronounce *either* one way (with the vowel sound in *beat)* and British speakers another (i.e. as in *bite)* results in large numbers of natives in both being abstracted into atypicality. Or, a worse absurdity, they can then be described as being under the influence of the other variety. Finally, to set the trap (5) we stressed that although many differences do exist, the greatest problem in approaching them was that most people, native and non-native, professional and untrained, were positive as to what the differences were, although they had little intellectual evidence to support their beliefs. Could our students (actually) believe that even teachers who regularly read American and British newspapers, for example, did not see what each variety did, and continued to espouse differences which did not exist, or were not true contrasts? No, of course, this was hard to believe, although one has heard that such individuals do exist (tsk-tsk)!

We purchased three (native) English-language newspapers, two of which could be considered "quality," and one of the more popular type. All were available at a local (i.e. German) newspaper shop (or is it *store?).* We went through each and cut out headlines and short selections which were most appropriate to our purpose. All of the clippings were then pasted onto sheets and copied by xeroxing (AmE?). No indication of their origins was given, and any place names, etc., were crossed out. We allowed one "normal" class meeting to pass, and then handed out the sheets. They carried the following instructions:

> All of the following clippings are taken from recent English-language newspapers. Mark each clipping (e.g. an "A" for one from an American newspaper; a "B" for one from a British newspaper) to indicate whether

you think it comes from an American or British newspaper.

We then took turns reading out each clipping, allowing a few seconds for our students to mark each one. Table 1 gives a *selection* of the clipping. *TEA Newsletter* readers are invited to follow the instructions, as well.

Table 1

Selected "Clippings" from English-language Newspapers

1. Prep, porn, pills, and Mrs. Everywoman
   Three literary hypes: promoting heart, anger, and a blue nose style
2. EVIL DIESEL
   -Since we're on the road, let's carry on truckin'! -The truck driver who claimed that diesels don't cause lead pollution may be right. But. . .
   SUPERCOLOR P.O. Box 44
4. SPEND XMAS IN THE SUN
5. Be your own boss!
6. A superb development of 20 apartments
7. A new development of 9 luxury flats
   I'm an insurance broker
9. Teenage delinquents are people too
10. DP AUTOMOBILES
11. POST BEFORE 16th NOVEMBER 1981
12. March 5. 1982
13. Make it a regular read

Our denouement was now due. We informed our students that *all* of the clippines had been taken from three *British* newspapers, of the same date: the *Sunday Times,* the *Observer,* and the *Sunday Mirror.* Wrong choices (i.e. an "A") there were in abundance, with an average of about 70% of all clippings being marked as AmE.

We followed up this exercise with a second handout. In this one we contrasted what appeared in standard (German) EFL textbooks and references with actual (again, xeroxed) clippings. *Selections* from this handout are shown in Table 2.

table 2

Selected Statements on AmE/BrE Differences

1. *Mencken* in *The American Language* (1936 ed.) quoting McAlpine (1929): "When two-thirds of the people who use a language. . . decide-to call it a *freight train* instead of a *goods train* they are 'right'; and the first is correct English and the second a dialect."
2. *Fowler* in *Modern English Usage* (1965 ed.) commenting on statement above: "We are still far from admitting this claim, but in fact are showing signs of yielding to it in spite of ourselves."
3. HMSO (Her Majesty's Stationery Office) in *Britain 1976: An Official Handbook:* "A computer-based total' "operations system, allowing constant control of all consignments and freight train and wagon movements, introduced in southwest England in 1973 has been extended to the whole of Great Britain."
4. *Hornby. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (1974): (US) *freight train/car* (= GB *goods train).*
5. *Observer* (15 April 1979) advertisement for British Rail entitled BRITAIN'S OVER-NIGHT REVOLUTION: "British Rail's new air-braked wagons are a far cry from the freight trains of old.
6. *Englisch fur Erwachsene 3* (EFL textbook): American English: *store.* British English: *shop.*
7. *Advertisements* from U.S. magazines: The Tog Shop. . .free catalog.
   At fine book and record shops.
8. *Advertisements* from British magazines: . . . it makes a store a safe place for people to shop in.
   Callers are welcome at our store.
9. *Quirk* in *English-a European Language* (1970) "So we could go on. The long and imposing lists of so-called distinctively British and American words and usages that are found in handbooks are highly misleading: both the items so neatly separated are either well-known in one or other country or, as frequently the case, in both.

After both exercises, our students, future teachers of English, were much more willing to accept that the problems of comparison were real and that AmE/BrE cliches were indeed widespread. And, hardly least, they were also much more critical of the many textbooks and references which kept such cliche's alive by offering simplistic comparisons and contrasts. Notably, many of our students who at first were not sure just how fair the exercises had been, have since decided that administering them to other students and even self-assured "natives" is good fun, after all. We therefore recommend this technique to others facing similar difficulties. Furthermore, we would be delighted to correspond with anyone who would like more specific information, or who wishes to relate his or her own experiences with such "pudding on" of students (to demonstrate that the proof is in the pudding!).

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(Reprinted from *Teaching English Abroad Newsletter,* Vol. 3, No. 2, 9/82.)

Conferences

TESOL SUMMER INSTITUTE 1983

July 4 – August 12, 1983; Toronto. Jointly hosted by the Department of Linguistics, University of Toronto, and the Modern Language Center, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. The theme will be "English in bilingual and multicultural societies." A wide variety of courses and mini-courses, a Forum Lecture series, and a number of related activities will be offered. The annual summer meeting of TESOL will be held during the Institute, July 21-23, 1983. Accommodation for participants will be available on the campus of the University of Toronto. A handbook containing details on all matters relevant to the Institute will be available in January, 1983. Requests and inquiries should be addressed to: TESOL Summer Institute, School of Continuing Studies, 158 St. George Street, Toronto, Ontario M5S 2V8, Canada.

ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

Training for Effective Communication in International Business. September 11 -- 17, 1983; Registration deadline: August 1, 1983. Odawara, Japan. The Culture Learning Institute of the East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii, and the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) are jointly offering a special seminar at LIOJ for native and non-native speakers of English who are involved in international business. In particular, it is designed for those who: (a) manage or train foreigners within their company; (b) negotiate for their company with foreigners; and (c) sell to or buy from foreign buyers/ suppliers.

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teaching tip

TECHNIQUE FOR PARAPHRASING/REPORTING

By Mary Ann Decker, Athenee Francais

The following technique aims at developing PARAPHRASING rather than PARROTING skills. Dialogue is used as a base; anything from textbook dialogues to excerpts from plays can be used. After becoming familiar with the contents of the dialogue and the relationship between the characters, the students use the technique to retell the dialogue in narrative or story form.

Students are encouraged to paraphrase using their own words. The aim is to get at the meaning behind the lines rather than just teach the mechanics of reported speech. By using this technique, the teacher has a better idea of whether the students have really grasped the intentions of the dialogue speakers and the students gain valuable practice in using their own words to convey meaning.

Sample dialogue: Shoplifting

1. Discuss shoplifting. Get ideas from the students or give them any information you have as to who shoplifts and why. Discuss measures that stores take to prevent or decrease the incidence of shoplifting.
   Explain dialogue.
2. What is the role of the store detective? Who do they think the woman is? Why might she be shoplifting? How do they think she feels when she is caught?
   These questions can be done after studying the pictures before the dialogue is read, or, if that's too difficult, read the dialogue once and then discuss the characters.
3. The teacher should read the dialogue to the students once in order to show the proper intonation or feelings of the characters.
4. Make sure the dialogue is understood.
5. Put students in groups of four.
   Person 1 – Reads store detective's part.
   " 2 -- Read's woman's part.
   " 3 -- (does not look at dialogue) Listens to person 1 and narrates or retells what has been said.
   " 4 – (does not look at dialogue) Listens to person 2 anciretells.

Example:

Person 1: (Reading) "Excuse me, madam."
" 3: The store detective stops the woman.
" 1: "I'm a store detective."
" 3: And identifies himself as a store detective.
" 1: "Would you come with me, please?"
" 3: Then he asks her to come with him.
" 2: (Reading) "A detective? Come with you?"
" 4: The woman seems surprised and repeats what the detective has said.
" 2: "Why?"
" 4: She asks him why he wants her to go with him.

In paraphrasing, phrases like: he explained, she insisted, she begged, she offered, she denied, should be encouraged.

She insisted she had paid for it.
She begged him to let her go.
She offered to pay for it.

These words carry more meaning than 'say' and 'tell' and teach the students to be more aware of the speakers' feelings and intentions.

6. Check the students' understanding by having them repeat their paraphrases of key sentences in front of the class.
7. Put students into new group. New group retells story like those of persons 3 and 4.

Example:

A man stopped a woman in a shop and identified himself as a store detective. He asked the woman to come with him. She was surprised and asked him why.

Give the picture to the students and use the questions for practising the conditional, agreement and disagreement.

Suggestion: Use simple dialogues. The task here is both to understand the meaning and to translate it into other words. The MATERIALS might include DIALOGUES FROM IMPACT by Watcyn-Jones. After treating the dialogue, you can help the students by putting key words on the board, e.g. for Unit 3 "Finding the Way."

to apologize
to offer
to ask for directions/information
to repeat
to thank
to say you understand
to stop someone

Encourage the use of these words in the retelling:

"Brian stopped a woman on the street. He *apologized* for bothering her *and asked for directions* to Castle Road. She said she didn't know how to get there *because* she was a stranger there herself. ."

Notice the introduction of connectors (and, because). After paraphrasing individual sentences, the students should be shown how to connect them to make a smoother narrative. Give them lots of help at first with key words and connectors. Write a narrative of the dialogue yourself and give it to them with the original to compare.

Chapter Reviews

PRONUNCIATION

Reviewed by R. Tapp, Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages

Pronunciation is an essential element of language but it often takes a back seat to other skills 'in the ESL curriculum. Even when teaching schedules don't allow much class time for focusing specifically on pronunciation, there are ways in which a teacher in any sort of ESL classroom may draw the attention of students to this important skill. The October meeting of the Kanto Chapter, held at Nichibei Kaiwi Gakuin (JACI), brought together four speakers who offered advice and techniques for teaching pronunciation.

Melanie Ford gave a brief introduction to the topic, reminding the audience to be aware of teacher adaptation, that phenomenon which gives us the impression that our students' pronunciation is improving when, in fact, it is our own proficiency at listening to them which has improved. The goal of teaching pronunciation, she said, should be to correct errors that interfere with communication, rather than to make students sound like native speakers. She pointed out that listening and pronunciation go hand in hand – if the students can't hear a sound, they won't be able to say it. She urged teachers to emphasize pronunciation in the classroom because, when they do, student interest in it picks up.

Jeff Shapard then offered some 'Notes on Pronunciation'. He discussed pronunciation from a linguistic point of view, mentioning epenthesis (vowel insertion), a problem for Japanese learners, and then, liaison (linking) and elision (reduced/contracted forms), two processes teachers would like to encourage. As some sources of pronunciation problems, he mentioned interference from language and writing systems as well as social and psychological variables. But, he said, since the true source of a student's pronunciation problems may not be immediately obvious or may result from a combination of variables, it is not practical to spend valuable class time trying to locate the exact source(s) of each and every error. *Therefore,it is more profitable to base correction techniques on identification and description of the error itself.*

Mr. Shapard then defined pronunciation problems: they are *systematic* errors which *differ* from the phonological pattern of native speakers and/or the articulation used by native speakers *significantly* enough to result in the loss of effective communication. Correct pronunciation, he added, is pronunciation that is similar enough to the patterns of native or other fluent speakers so that effective communication is not hindered. He commented on problems resulting from the false belief in the existence of one standard English and from the diversity of geographical and/or social varieties of English. He also noted that we teach pronunciation to increase the effectiveness of communication, improve listening abilities, and enhance the self-confidence of the learner.

Mr. Shapard then described a model-and-repeat technique for helping students correct pronunciation problems. He tries to get the stu-

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dents to develop a monitoring ability, this is, to listen to their own pronunciation as they produce an utterance. If the students are unable to monitor themselves, then the teacher records the students and plays the tape back. To illustrate, Mr. Shapard played two tapes of students speaking and commented on their pronunciation.

The third speaker, Charles Tully, gave some 'Pronunciation Hints'. He advised teachers to work with students at close range in order to hear better, allow the student to watch the teacher's mouth, and pay attention to that particular student. He also suggested teachers to squat or sit so that their heads are at the student's level and not worry about spending time with one student since all the other students will be listening too. He demonstrated many practical techniques, including blackboard work, the use of tissue paper and mirrors, the use of a pocket tape recorder? and the use of the hands to represent the positions of the tongue, teeth and lips. He concluded by saying, 'Cross-language interference is not as significant as bad habits. Therefore, a lack of knowledge of Japanese on the part of the teacher is no hindrance. Spies learn second languages perfectly as adults, as do oppressed minorities. Students CAN learn correct pronunciation if they want to.'

Paul Arenson next did a demonstration of techniques for giving the student feedback on pronunciation. He wrote a minimal pair on the blackboard, gave the pronunciation of each word, and then invited the audience to make sentences using the minimal pair and some other words he had written on the blackboard. As each 'student' spoke, Mr. Arenson pointed to the words he heard the 'student' say; this lets the student know if the sounds produced were the intended pronunciation. Mr. Arenson then demonstrated the technique of repeating back to the student what the student said. He also discussed the technique of silent dictation, in which the teacher points to words on the board arrd the student says them.

At the beginning of his demonstration, Mr. Arenson reminded the audience that it takes twenty seconds for the brain to process each bit of input and that we should allow our students time for that processing. He also said we should help students become more aware; then they go out of the classroom and use that awareness to learn further.

The final presentation, again by Melanie Ford, was a demonstration of how to use 'Pronunciation Squares.' She also distributed a handout listing some methodological principles of and approaches to teaching pronuncation.

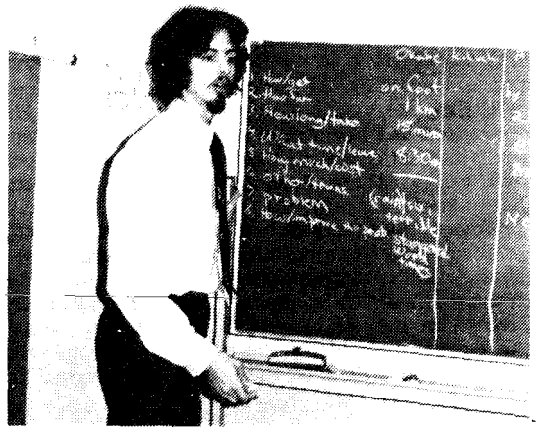
GAMES!

Reviewed by Marc E. Helgesen, Sendai New Day School

A not uncommon scene: You walk into a JALT meeting. Perhaps a quarter of the people present are attending their first JALT meeting. Another 25% are relatively new, having joined within the past three or four months. You really don't know the people very well. Yet within ten minutes, you've had personal conversations with nearly everyone. You know that Terry went skiing over the New Year's holiday, that Atsuko doesn't teach, that Yoko is planning to live abroad. and that Anne came to Japan last June.

That was just a small part of how Jeff Schwartz's GAMES! workshop at the January Tohoku JALT meeting in Sendai started. Jeff', who has been teaching in Sendai for two and a half years, spent the next three hours sharing a variety of games for language learning as well as providing the background for selecting and creating others.

The initial activity was a "find someone who" (Moscowitz, 1978). Each participant was given a list with a dozen tasks (e.g., find someone who was born in Sendai, find someone who has written a book, find someone who can't answer yes to any of the other questions, etc.). Schwartz pointed out that such an activity is not only a useful "ice breaker" for the first class,, it can also be manipulated to provide meanmgful practice for a variety of grammatical structures. Even children and adults with a very limited written vocabulary can make use of the game if the list includes pictorial stimuli. By providing a goal, the drill of asking for and



receiving information was transformed into a game. The atmosphere was far lighter and more relaxed than often exists in language classrooms. Perhaps most importantly, there was real communication going on.

Schwartz discussed ways in which games can be used to (1) introduce (preview, create the need for new language), (2) present new material, (3) practice, (4) review, (5) test, and (6) provide for the transfer of new language. He suggested that the last four points often provide the setting for the most efficient use of games since introducing and presenting material at times take a superordinate role which contradicts the "enjoyable atmosphere" necessary for games to be effective.

Quoting Adnrew Wright (1982), Schwartz pointed out that the necessary criteria for games

include the (1) ease ot set-up (most presented took less than ten minutes to prepare) and organization, (2) the likely interest level of the students, (3) the degree to which language is intrinsic/needed/useful, (4) the density of language (what percentage of the time do people speak?), and finally, the quintessential question (5) "Does it work?"

It was pointed out that the language goes beyond that used in the game itself. Students must gain an understanding, minimally at the receptive level, of the rules and directions presented by the teacher. Further, there is a great deal of "game language" such as "hurry up." "It's my/your turn", etc. that may be taught.

The primary function of the workshop was the demonstration of over a dozen games particularly useful in the language classroom. Below is a description of a few of them. While some of the games presented required game boards and other paraphenalia, only those without such needs are included in this review.

The Games:

1. No easy answers: Each student imagines two or more health/medical problems (they can be as simple as a headache or as complex as a brain tumor) and possibile solutions. The problems and solutions are written on separate slips of paper. The teacher collects all slips and randomly distributes one problem and one solution to each student. The students must engage in short conversations to find a solution appropriate for their particular problem. Then they find the solution, they ask for another problem card. The person who collects the most problems and solutions wins.

2. Progressive pictures: The teacher (or a student) thinks of an object. The students must ask questions to determine what the object is. With each question, the teacher draws a portion of the object on the chalkboard.

3. Jumbled pictures: The teacher presents a series of geometric shapes (lines, circles, etc.). When put in the correct positions, the shapes form a picture. The students must ask questions to determine the picture.

4. Who am I: The name of a famous person (real or fictitious) is placed on the back of each student. The students circulate, asking questions to determine their identity. For children's classes, it may be useful to use pictures of famous people. For variety, put the names of class members on the backs of other students (Nomura, 1982).

5. Memory Chain: This is an old game but one with a variety of valid uses. The teacher determines the item to be practiced. Each student must repeat all other students' sentences before adding his/her own. The chain continues until all students have added a sentence.

For example, if the class is learning the simple past, the first student might say "Last weekend, I shopped." The second student would say, "Last weekend, Mr. Watanabe shopped and I watched TV." The chain continues. Students may not use a sentence used by a previous student. They may, however, use sentences like "I did the same as Ms. Takahashi." The situation can be changed to practice the future tense (e.g., "Next week I will.

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degrees of certainty (e.g., "Next summer I will/might/will probably. . ."), a/some (e.g., I went to the store to buy a/some. . .") or nearly any other structure.

While a good deal has been written of late about games, many of us never get around to using them except perhaps in children's classes or to kill a few minutes at the end of class. Schwartz's presentation provided several ideas to enable each person present to incorporate games into his/her regular teaching repertoire.

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CULTURAL INTERFERENCE IN JAPANESE ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Reviewed by Juro Sasaki, Kyoto

Mr. Linju Ogasawara was the speaker at the November 14th meeting of JALT-East Kansai. He majored in linguistics at the Education University of Tokyo (University of Tsukuba), and taught at the University of Tokyo High School, ELEC, the University of Melbourne, before joining the National Ministry of Education (Mombusho) in 1970. He has been working for its English Textbook Department where English textbooks for high schools are screened.

There are many reasons for the lack of success in the use of the oral-aural method for teaching English in Japan. Some of them are: the grammar-translation method in formal school education, the inability of the teacher to speak English, the types of questions on university entrance examinations, the cultural traits of Japanese, the fact that less time is devoted to foreign language classes in high schools, Japanese orientation toward the written language rather than toward social conversation, and the Japanese language not being an Indo-European language.

Mr. Ogasawara says that some people are pessimistic about Japanese English language education in the future, and that the Ministry of Education is being made the scapegoat for the inefficient English language education in Japan. He noted several problems in Japanese English language education, and explained them one by one. They can be summarized as follows:

------ The Japanese Ministry of Education has no control over the types and content of test questions on the entrance examinations of universities and colleges.

------ Many university and college English teachers favor the translation of literary works.

----- Local boards of education award English teaching certificates, without any screening, to any graduate who has acquired the required number of college credits.

-- The teachers of English who need in-service training seminars or workshops, including spoken English practice with native speakers, rarely or almost never attend them.

---- Most high school English teachers have very little experience with modern spoken English.

- - - - Probably because of the influence of a long period of learning to read Chinese classics, Japanese people are letter-oriented and value the reading of difficult passages.

----- Because of the preference for literary texts to colloquial and everyday language material, texts tend to be difficult to read.

--- Most colleges exclude the aural-oral component of foreign language skills from their examination questions. Thus high school teachers tend to ignore the spoken side of English in their teaching.

------ Using textbooks which tend to present too many new words and concentrate on grammatical points, little consideration is given to the aural-oral aspects of learning.

----- Junior high school English teachers tend to stick too closely to the textbook they have adopted.

----- Junior high school teachers tend to become concerned with teaching techniques, but have very little insight in the underlying principles or hypotheses.

------ English language teachers are not very innovative or experimental in devising their own methods or techniques.

------ Japanese people want to "be in the same boat." This makes it difficult to introduce ability-differentiated groupings for classes.

----- Japanese people are concerned with authority or status. Some teachers and students have more confidence in Obunsha books, for example, than they do in native speakers.

----- Most textbook authors lack the competence to handle the cultural component as they should. They are still on the 'sight-seeing' level.

competence to handle the cultural component as they should. They are still on the 'sight-seeing' level.

----- Japanese people tend to conduct subjective and non-comprehensive evaluations and tests. This is true with the STEP tests and regular school tests.

--------Japanese people elect to remain silent rather than using a language and experience the embarrassment of making mistakes in the language.

----- As a result of the tendency not to express things verbally, it is difficult for the teacher to teach students to express themselves either orally or in writing.

---- Younger Japanese these days feel that foreigners should learn and use Japanese because Japan has become the center of the world. They are not as highly motivated as their predecessors, except in the study of English for the entrance examinations.

AN APPROACH TO SPEAKING ENGLISH

by Sonia Yoshitake, West Kansai

Having taught English to Japanese students for 15 vears. I believe the following two points are keys to teaching students to speak- communicative English.

First of all, students should be convinced that to produce English sounds more successfully, they have to move their lips back and forth more than up and down. The tongue usually attracts more attention than the lips because it is important in producing sounds like L and R which are so difficult for Japanese. But in my opinion, the movement of the lips is of primary importance and should be emphasized more. Unfortunately many go on learning to speak English without this knowledge, trying to produce English sounds with flat lips. When one looks at the lips of native speakers of English, one realizes their lips rarely become lax even when speaking in Japanese.

A good exercise to practice correct lip movement is to point to your nose vertically and kiss your finger. I advise my students to repeat this movement with the lips 50 times before they speak English.

The second most important thing is to learn to think in Enalish. though this is not easy. Here is my method:' I tell my junior high level students not to try to say anything more difficult than a 10 year old boy would say in his own language. If they are senior high students, they are not expected to speak beyond the level of a 13 year old boy.

Notice how well children can express their ideas using simple language. So, when students are in college, I ask them to make efforts to speak as a high school boy would. I tell them to relax, take their time and stick to it until they know they are able to think in English. Then, it is time to concentrate on brushing up on all the aspects of English speaking.

There is no easy road for Japanese students to learn how to speak English naturally and attractively, but these suggestions may help.

JALT Undercover

BEGINNING ENGLISH THROUGH ACTION

Pat Jackson, Kathryn Price, Marge Dequine and Celeste Padover. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. 1982,212 pages

Reviewed by Luke McMahon

Beginning English Through Action provides lesson outlines for eleven total physical response (TPR) programs designed for teaching pre-school and primary level children.

Each program begins with a list of the vocabulary the students will need for the lesson. Then comes a series of 'Steps,' which are set under the category headings Review, New Vocabulary, In Combination With, Examples, Review, Reinforcement/Enrichment and Comments. The steps provide a framework for a lesson which the instructor must add to and develop.

While textbooks that combine language learning with action exercises are widely welcomed, this one will be most helpful to teachers who are prepared to spend time preparing the lessons or who are looking for a program to which they can add their own ideas. They will no doubt appreciate the logically structured language continuum it presents, beginning with single words and developing to the creation of complete sentences. Another way in which it might possibly be helpful is use as supplementary listening material.

The main disadvantage for the average instructor is that it takes an inordinate amount of time to prepare stimulating lessons. The book could have been a much more valuable tool if the writers had prepared comprehensive lesson plans instead of asking teachers to essentially become textbook writers themselves. At the end of each program they have included a thorough review, but, if the 'Steps' had also been structured in this way, the book would have been much more practical.

Another new book out on TPR, *Learning With Movements* by Nancy Maryuez (Sky Oaks Productions) has a very simple and useful format which could be adapted to *Beginning English Through Action.* Teachers instructing children and others who are interested in the TPR method may find it profitable to use both books together.

FLUENCY SQUARES FOR BUSINESS AND TECHNOLOGY. Phillip L. Knowles and Ruth A. Sasaki. New York: Regents. 1981. 118 pages.

Reviewed by Valerie Oszust

"The uniqueness of this book is that the goal of all language instruction, the communication of information, becomes the means of achieving it. Students are actively engaged in expressing ideas to each other. They are not focusing on grammatical structures per se." This excerpt, from the preface of **Fluency Squares for Busl-ness and Technology,** points out the methodology of the book – teaching for communication. As the content of the book is well-researched and up-to-date, businessmen will find communication activities relevant to their work.

The book is intended for businessmen from a variety of professions and who have a passive knowledge of basic English grammar but need

a fresh approach to studying. This is achieved through the use of a notionally-based syllabus. The authors state in the preface that "various semantic categories or concepts occur much more in technical conversations than in daily conversations and many of these concepts have wide application." The book thus focuses on a core of concepts such as change, cause and effect, purpose and logical relations which are needed by all businessmen regardless of their particular fields.

The text is composed of twelve units. Each unit has a fluency square which consists of from one to eight pictures which illustrate a single theme. Themes include company description, product comparison, successful and unsuccessful business strategies and the production process. Written reinforcement exercises, grammar notes, dictations, follow-up activities and listening exercises involving numerical relationships and graphs accompany each fluency square.

The text is intended for classroom use and not for self-study. In a typical lesson, students look at a fluency square while the teacher gives an oral presentation of the information it represents. Students relate the information with the pictures and arc asked to repeat it. The teacher is encouraged by the authors to repeat the information in different ways so that the students focus on communicating rather than on memorizing. This is followed by question-and-answer practice between the teacher and students and then by the students in pairs. Cues for possible questions are listed under each square and grammatical structures such as "who" questions and "yes-no" questions are being practised but together with notions such as state vs. event, time relations or reason. Following oral practice, students do the written reinforcement exercises, dictations and tests. The quantitative listening task is not strictly related to the square and can be done independently if the teacher wishes. Finally, the follow-up activity transfers the notions practised in the square to the students' discussions of their own jobs and companies. Fluency square 4, for example, which deals with a company structure and how it has changed, is accompanied by a follow-up activity which requires the students to write down five dates important in their work history and interview each other about them.

The content of the book is drawn from information on industrial robots, trade with the Soviet Union, crude oil consumption and Arab imports in 1979 and other topics of current interest to busmessmen. Being notionally-based, it can be used in classes of bankers, computer engineers, salesmen and secretaries. Finally, as reliance of the printed word is minimal, it is excellent for breaking Japanese students of the bad habits of memorization which have by and large characterized their approach to learning up to this point. (One student once claimed that his method for learning English was to memorize every English sentence he ever heard.) In my own experience with using fluency squares in a major Japanese computer company in Tokyo, the material was very well-received by the students and they seemed to have significant progress in communicating using the notions in the book.

One must point out, however, that the book was developed in an intensive program where students study grammar in the morning and afternoon and have it reinforced in a business context in the evening. Teaching a few hours a week in a non-intensive program, on the other hand, necessitates changes in the two to three hour time schedule per unit suggested by the authors. Each unit should ideally be supplemented by a previous lesson created by the teacher which reviews the grammatical structures covered in the coming unit. Otherwise, students tend to be burdened by too much material and may become discouraged. Fluency square 6, for example, requires the student to manipulate the passive in the simple, present continuous and future forms as well as relative clauses. Thus, this lesson would best be preceded by a review lesson of the passive voice. Then fluency square 6 would reinforce the passive voice in the new context of a business theme and introduce notions.

The preface states that "the focus of the book is on concepts and not on specialized vocabulary" and, except for dictations, no vocabulary lists arc given. However, since vocabulary is necessary to talk about business and technology and since memorizing individual words is fundamentally different from memorizing complete sentences in terms of its value for learning, the text might have been enhanced by a list of vocabulary related to the various fields of business. This would prepare the students better not only for the follow-up activities but also, in some cases, for the square itself. It is difficult imagining bankers being able to follow. for examole. Unit 12 which deals with the process of steel-making if they have not previously studied the vocabulary of steel-making. As for when the banker comes to giving his presentation on, say, cash flows, without a vocabulary list, he will probably end up relying on a Japanese-English dictionary.

Whether the text is intended to teach notions as well as reinforce them is not stated in the preface. Assuming teaching to be the propose, the book might have presented fewer notions in each unit and graded them more carefully. As it is, the notions included in each unit are all those which occur naturally in discussing the content of the unit. With stronger students,

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this may not present a problem but for lower-level students who are being taught the material, it seems that some units cover too much. One strength of the book, however, is that the same notions do come up again and again in different units.

Minor criticisms of the text include the point that tests and dictations sometimes go beyond the information and vocabulary given in the key sentences for each fluency square. Fluency square 3, for example, deals with 'good and bad mileage' whereas the test deals with 'fuel efficiency' and the dictation with 'fuel consumption', vocabulary items which may not necessarily have come up in class. The teacher should be aware of this and adapt the lesson or tests accordingly.

A final point to be made is that though the pictures are generally clear and complete, a few can be somewhat confusing. This is the case with Square 4 where the oral information does not follow the sequence in which the visual cues are given and leads to some confusion on the part of the students.

Overall, however, Fluency Squares for Business and Technology is a text which achieves its objective – the communication of information ~ by means of a technique which challenges the students, and content which is relevant to them. For teaching classes of businessmen from a variety of backgrounds, it is a book to be highly recommended.

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Positions

JAKARTA/INDONESIA

Long established ELT organization seeks 2 American teachers of English as a foreign language for 18 month contracts in Jakarta. British-trained instructors preferred but not essential. The work will involve study skills, TOEFL preparation and probably technical English for the oil industry. Materials preparation experience essential. Housing not provided but a reasonable house (3 bedrooms) leases for around US$2000 per year (unfurnished). Salary: US$l2,800-17,000 p.a. depending on relevant exnerience. Applications enclosing C.V.. availability date, recent photo, telephone & passport numbers, referees' phone numbers and audio cassette asking specific contractual questions to: The Director, Executive English Programs, P.O. Box 4 147, Jakarta Pusat, Indonesia.

(KURE) The Kure YWCA wants an English teacher from September 1, 1983. Applicants should have a college degree and teaching experience. This position is a full-time position with approximately 20 teaching hours a week. Those interested should submit a personal history and two letters of recommendation. For more information call Yoshiko Kawagoe at 0823-21-2414, Kure YWCA, 3-l Saiwai-cho, Kure, Hiroshima.

CORRECTION AND APOLOGY

In my article, "Checklist for Communicative Activities", *JALT Newsletter 6.10,* pp. 18-22, I mistakenly cited the author of COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING; AN INTRODUCTION (Cambridge University Press, 1981) no fewer than three times. The correct name of the author of this book is *William Littlewood.*

I would like to apologize to Prof. Littlewood, to Cambridge University Press, and to the readers of the *JALT Newsletter* for any inconvenience this error on my part has caused them. Prof. Littlewood's book is an excellent introduction to the subject of communicative activities and I can recommend it strongly to all language teachers.

Bernard Susser

JALT '83. THE EARLY WORD.

The ninth annual JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning will be held on September 23rd, 24th, 25th, 1983. This is considerably earlier than in recent years, and deadlines have been revised accordingly, so please make a special note of this and plan **early** – particularly if you are a regular contributor and were anticipating the same schedule as last year!

The conference will be held this year at Nagoya Shoka Daigaku, a private business university situated on a large, attractive campus some miles east of Nagoya. Travelling between the site and the conference hotel will take 30 minutes or so, but the various advantages of this site should be enought to outweigh even this distinct disadvantage. The university houses some of the most advanced technological facilities in Japan in distinctive modern buildings, and the environment is conducive to progressive ideas and methods – most appropriate place for JALT '83!

The diversity of recent conferences has been such that it can hardly be contained in any theme narrower than that of the title of the conference itself: Language Teaching and Learning; and we hope that this year's conference will reflect an even greater range of approaches to this concept. As always, it will be on the contributions of individual teachers that the success or othewise of JALT '83 depends, and we hope that as many as possible of you will come and share your ideas in what is, after all, a forum for the dissemination and exchange of ideas, theoretical and practical. There will be more detailed information on the procedure for submitting proposals in subsequent newsletters, but now is the time to start organizing ideas for lectures, workshops, discussions, demonstrations, etc. Also, mention JALT '83 to friends. whether thev are JALT members or not, and encourage them to come along and give a presentation on something that has helped them in language teaching or learning. The conference is not on the English language alone there are many teachers of other languages in Japan who would have a lot to offer, and should be encouraged. Presentations can be given in any language and on any language. related topic.

Richard Harris
Programme Chairman

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

The Comite International Permanent des Linguistes (CIPL) will hoId the 13th International Conference of Linguists at Nippon Toshi Center, Tokyo, from August 29 to September 4. Information on the program and registration can be obtained from: ICL 1982, Gakushuin University, Mejiro l-5-1, Toshima-ku, Tokyo, Japan 171.

Bulletin Board

BOOKS FOR REVIEW

The following books have been sent by publishers seeking reviews in the JALT *Newsletter.*

American Signs, Jan Huizenga. Oxford University Press.
Double Action Picture Cards. Yedlin. Addison-Wesley.
English ALFA. Teacher's Books 1-6. Houghton Mifflin.
English for the Secretary. Yvonne Hoban. McGraw-Hill.
Getting Along with Idioms. Lorraine Goldman. Minerva.
A Handbook of English Language Teaching Terms and Practice. Brian Seaton. Macmillan.
Hearsay. Teacher's and Student's Books. Guy Wellman. Nelson.
Introducing English Pronunciation. Baker. Cambridge University Press.
It Depends on What You Say. Dialogues in Everyday Social Englsh. Brita Haycraft and W. R. Lee. Pergamon.
New Incentive 1. Teacher's, Student's and Practice Books. W. Fowler, J. Pidcock, and R. Rycroft. Nelson.
Picture Prompts. Teacher's and Student's Books. Don Kindler. Nelson.
Practice Your Englsh. Books 1 and 2, W. Fowler and N. Coe. Nelson.
Profiles. Teacher's Book. Susan Axbey. Nelson.
Reading bv All Means. Dubin and Olshtain. Add&on-Wesley.
Reply Requested: 30 Letters of Advice. Richard Yorkey. Addison-Wesley.
Side by Side. Books 1A and 2A. S. Molinsky and B. Bliss. Prentice-Hall.
Simulations in Language Teaching. Jones. Cambridge University Press.
Steppingstones. Books 1 and 2 with Teacher's Guides. Jean Johnston. Addison-Wesley.
Study Skills. 2nd Edition. Student's Book. Richard Yorkey. McGraw-Hill.
Surveys I. Kinsella. Cambridge University Press.

Any one of the above books will be sent to a JALT member who wishes to review it for the *Newsletter.* If the book is not reviewed in the agreed-upon time, then it must be returned. All requests should be sent in writing to the editor.

TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM

The Bell American School in Fukuoka has plans for a 24-day Michigan State University Teacher Training Program, open to junior and senior high school teachers or anyone else interested: departing from Fukuoka on July 28. 1983. Participants will be able to enroll in MSU extension courses. Returning August 20th, the cost is ¥664,OOO per person, including transportation and lodging. The itinerary includes brief stops in San Francisco and Los Angeles. For further details contact Ms. Etsuko Suzuki, c/o Bell American School, 3-4-l Arato, Chuo-ku, Fukuoka 8 10, tel: 092-76 l-38 11.

NEWS RELEASE

The Regents Publishing Company and The American Language Academy announced today the formation of a joint venture – Regents/ A.L.A. CO. – to create, produce, market and distribute computer-aided instructional materials for English-as-a-Second/Foreign Language study.

It is anticipated that the first Regents/A.L.A. CO. CAI series will be available in the Spring of 1983 and will be demonstrated at the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languaaes (TESOL) conference in Toronto this March.

Regents/A.L.A. CO. will be located at 2 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016. (212) 889-2780.

11 TH SOPHIA SEMINAR

The 1lth Sophia Seminar for High School Teachers of English is going to be held at the Hotel Danko-en in Ito-shi, Shizuoka-ken, Aug. 21 to Aug. 27. Any Japanese teachers of English meeting the following requirements may apply:

1. Be native Japanese. full-time high school teachers of English.
2. Have a minimum of three years teaching experience.
3. Be able to attend for the entire period of the seminar.
4. Have less than six months of study or travel in an English-speaking country.
5. Be willing to write a critique of the Seminar to be submitted on the final day of the Seminar or shortly thereafter.
6. Not have participated in any of the previous nine Seminars for High School Teachers of English sponsored by Sophia University.

For information/applications, please write to:
Seminar for High School Teachers of English
c/o Dr. Felix Lobo, S.J.
Sophia Linguistic Institute for International Communication
Sophia University
7, Kioi-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 102

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KYOTO GOLDEN WEEK MINI CONFERENCE CALL FOR PAPERS

The East Kansai Chapter, JALT, will hold a one and a half-day mini conference at the British Council, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto-shi, on Friday, April 29, 1983, from 9:30 a.m. to 6:00 p.m., and Saturday, April 30, 1983, from 9:30 a.m. to 12:30 p.m. We hope to have a keynote speaker, workshops, presentations on languages and teaching, and meetings by special interest groups as well as any others who would like to form discussion groups.

Anyone interested in contributing in any of these areas, please contact either:

David Hale, 49 Saikata-cho, Ichijoji, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606, tel. (075) 7 1 l-5397, or

Ian Shortreed, 74-3 Suita Kawara-cho, Mukaijima, Fushimiku, Kyoto 612, tel. (075) 622-5586.

PLEASE FILL OUT THE FORM BELOW AND SEND TO EITHER ADDRESS ABOVE. Deadline: March 3 1, 1983.

CHECKLIST
FOR CONFERENCE PRESENTERS
East Kansai Mini Conference
April 29/30,1983

1. Title of Presentation:

2. Amount of time: _____ 30 min.; _____ 1 hr.; _____ 2 hrs.

3. Day & Time: _____ Friday morning; ___Friday afternoon; _____ Saturday

   _____ Friday afternoon; __ Saturday morning.

4. The equipment you need (e.g. video, etc.):

5. Please write one paragraph abstract which includes: a) a description of what you intend to do; b) the format (e.g. lecture, demonstration, discussion, workshop, etc.); c) the kind of group this would be most useful for; d) about 2 lines of biodata, i.e. where you work, your background, etc.

GRADED DIRECT METHOD
SPRING INTENSIVE COURSE

Date: April l-7 (except 3rd and 6th): 5 days
Time: i) 10:30- 12:00
ii) 1:00 -- 2:30
iii) 2:45 -- 4: 15
Place: Union English Conversation School
Instructors: Yoko Katagiri, Itoko Kawakami, Sayoko Meyer, Aiko Kugimiya
Fee: ¥40,000 (each)
Info: Union English Conversation School (0798) 35-8911; Kazuko Shimokawa (06) 302-0423

NEW ADDRESS FOR ALA

One of our Commercial Members, American Language Academy, has moved into more spacious quarters on the outskirts of Washington. Their new address and phone number are:

American Language Academy
Suite 200
11426 Rockville Pike
Rockville, MD 20852
U.S.A.
Telephone: (301) 984-3400

EDUCATORS TRIP TO CHINA

March 22 to April 1
11 days and 10 nights

289,000 yen per person, all inclusive
(Based on a group of 20)

Shanghai, Hangchow, Suchow, Sian, and Beijing

Contact Bill Sharp:
Home: (03) 333-7498
Work: (03) 359-9621

SPRING TEACHERS' COURSE

The British Council Kyoto Centre will hold its regular Spring Teachers' Course from Monday, March 28. to Fridav. April 1. 1983. English teachers from junior-and senior high schools are warmly invited to apply for enrolment. The Course aims both to develop participants' confidence and practice skills in the use of English and to look at some pedagogical applications. The instructors are all British and qualified university teachers. Early application is advised. For further information call the Centre at (075) 791-7151.

NEW JOURNAL
Reading in a Foreign Language

The Language Studies Unit, University of Aston in Birmingham, England, plans to launch this new journal in 1983, to be published twice a year -- in March and September. The journal will publish articles concerning both the theory and practice of learning to read and teaching reading in a foreign or second language. Conference reports and book reviews will also be published. The language of the journal will be English.

The over-riding objective of the journal will be to make a positive and practical contribution to improvements in standards of reading in a foreign language, principally at upper secondary/ tertiarv levels. The maior thrust of the iournal will therefore be in the field of Languages for Specific Purposes - including, of course, reading for academic and professional study, content, field readability, etc.

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Ray Williams and Alexander Urquhart, Editors, *Reading in a Foreign Language*, Language Studies Unit, University of Aston in Birmingham, Gosta Green, Birmingham B4 7ET, England.

Meetings

CHUGOKU

Topic:	The Importance of Nonverbal Communication in Teaching EFL
Speaker:	Yoshiaki Nakamitsu
Date:	Sunday, March 6
Time:	1:00 – 4:00 p.m.
Place:	Room 4 12. Hiroshima YMCA, Hatchobori, Hiroshima
Fee:	Members, free; Non-members:¥1,000
Info:	Marie Tsuruda, (082) 228-2269

In our everyday conversation we send and receive a complex system of nonverbal signals, but most of the time we are not aware of using them. Then we tend to assume that words send the full meaning of our messages. This presentation is designed to examine the elements of nonverbal communication and to indicate the significent role of nonverbal communication in teaching EFL.

Yoshiaki Nakamitsu received his M.A. in TESL at the University of Arizona and is presently teaching at Yamaguchi University.

HAMAMATSU

Topic:	From Listening to Speaking in Five Stages
Speaker:	Tom Pendergast
Date:	March 27th
Time:	1:00 – 4:00 p.m.
Place:	Seinen Fujin Kaikan, 3-3-1, Saiwai-cho, Room 505, Hamamatsu (0534) 734501
Info:	Nancy Olivetti (0534) 53-2969, (0534) 48-1501

Listening comprehension in a foreign language can be developed rapidly and enjoyable when students are trained to respond physically to oral commands in a variety of situations.

The theoretical framework for a listening approach will be discussed and three stages in a typical listening program will be demonstrated by the presenter and similar exercises developed and practiced by the participants.

The crossover into speaking will be demonstrated and practiced in two stages.

Tom Pendergast is currently Professor in EFL at Osaka University of Foreign Studies and Advisor for DIDASKO, K.K. He will be moving to International Buddhist University (IBU) in April to direct a new English program based on self-access learning.

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meetings.....

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KANTO

Topic: Student-centered Project Activities
Speaker: Miho Steinberg
Date: March 13th
Time: 1: 00 p.m.
Place: Bunka School of Languages, Shinjuku (03) 379-4027
Info: Philip Hall (03) 454-6453
Shari Berman (03) 7 19-4991

Miho T. Steinberg is currently on sabbatical leave from the University of Hawaii, where she was director of the English Language Institute. She has taught English and trained teachers in Japan, Canada, and the U.S.A. for the past 20 years.

SENDAI

Topic: Listening: What to Teach and How to Teach It
Speaker: Julian Bamford
Date: March 13, 1982
Time: 4:00 – 7:00 p.m.
Place: New Day School, Sendai
Fee: ¥500 members, ¥1,000 non-members
Info: Steve Brown (0222) 67-4911 or 72-4909; Marc Helgeasen (0222) 6.5-4288

SHIKOKU

Topic: The Essence of Interpreting and its Application to General English Education
Speaker: Tatsuya Komatsu –
Date: Sunday, March 13
Time: 2:00 – 5:00 p.m.
Place: Education Department, Kagawa University, Saiwai-cho, Takamatsu
Fee: Members: ¥1,000; Non-members: ¥2,000
Info: Betty Donahoe (0878) 61-8008
Michiko Kagawa (0878) 43-5639
Sachiko Sakai (0878) 82-7322

JALT Shikoku is very pleased to announce that its March guest will be the well-known Tatsuya Komatsu. Mr. Komatsu is the senior managing director of Simul International, director of Simul Press, and has co-authored several publications.

The speaker, a first-generation conference interpreter in Japan, will analyze the skills of conference interpreting from a linguistic perspective and will demonstrate that interpreting is composed of the most essential factors in human communication – comprehension of a given speech and an effective expression of ideas. Theories and techniques for training interpreters, therefore, are very useful in general English education.

meetings . . . . . .

TOHOKU

Topic: Listening
Speaker: Julian Bamford
Date: Sunday, March 13
Time: 4:00-7:00 p.m.
Place: New Day School, Company Bldg., 15-16,2 chome, Kokubuncho, Sendai
Fee: Members:¥500, Non-members:¥l000
Info: Hiroko Takahashi (62-0687), Steve Brown (James Eng. Sch. 67-4911 or home, 72-4909), or Marc Helgesen (New Day School, 65-4288)

Listening skills are often the weakest of the skills for students learning English outside of a native speaking environment. Julian Bamford of the American Business School, Tokyo, will present an expansion of his JALT '82 workshop entitled "Listening: What to teach and how to teach it."

TOKAI

Topic: Round-table discussion: What is the significance of modern approaches to foreign language teaching for you as a teacher?
Speakers: A panel of local members
Date: Sunday. March 27th
Time: 2:00 - 5:00 p.m.
Place: Kinro Kaikan, Tsurumai Park
Info: Kazunori Nozawa (0532) 47-0111, ext. 414; Andrew Wright (052) 762-1493

TOKAI

Topic: Simulation and Gaming in the EFL Classroom: a practical workshop
Presenters: Karen Campbell, Michael Horne, Del Smith
Date: Sunday. April 24th
Time: 1:00 - 5:00 p.m.
Place: Kinro Kaikan. Tsurumai Park
Info: Andrew Wright (052) 762-1493; Kazunori Nozawa (0532) 47-0111 ext.414

Simulation exercises were traditionally designed for the training of civil servants, business and military personnel. Relying on the human instinct to improvise, a simulation creates a challenging situation in which all participants are cornpelled to contribute thought, word or action in order to resolve the situation. Since the 'end' of the exercise is largely dependent upon participant conclusions, the motivating force of the exercise is practically guaranteed.

The presenters have had considerable success with simulations in both university EFL classes and teacher-training workshops. Their materials are both self-made (designed for use with Japanese students) and drawn from a variety of simulation exercises currently in use in elementary, junior and high schools in Britain. A large part of the value of simulation exercises is to be found in pre- and post-exercise reflection and follow-up study. A simulation, therefore, offers a total learning experience.

WEST KANSAI

Topic: Alternative Methods for Teaching College Composition
Speakers: Ian Shortreed & Curtis Kelly
Date: March 20, 1983
Time: 1:00 – 4:30 p.m.
Place: Umeda Gakuen (St. Paul's Church) 2-30, Chaya-machi, Kita-ku, Osaka
Fee: Members, free; non-members ¥500 (applicable against annual dues if joining at this meeting)
Info: Vince Broderick 0798-53-8397 (evenings)

This presentation will concentrate on three aspects of teaching ESL/EFL composition:

1. Exploring sentence combining as a real alternative to structural grammar instruction, especially for non-native speaker teachers of English. . . . . .
2. The teaching of process in writing – the stages that- an ESL/EFL student goes through in learning how to write and how we can teach toward that process.
3. Evaluation of student writing – a critique of current approaches to writing.

Ian Shortreed and Curtis Kelly are co-coordinators of the EFL writing program at the Kansai University of Foreign Studies. Mr. Shortreed has a BA in Sanskrit and Oriental Linguistics from the University of Toronto and is at present working toward his MA in ESL at the Universitv of British Columbia. Mr. Kellv has a BA from Ohio State University and an MA in ESL Education from Vanderbilt University.

Special Interest Groups

Children's Interest Group: March 20, 11:00 – 12:30 p.m.
Umeda Gakuen, Contact: Sister Wright, 06-699-8733

Teaching in Colleges & Universities: March 20, 11:30 – 12:45 p.m.
Umeda Gakuen, Contact: Jim Swan, 0742-34-5960.

Teaching English in Schools: Wednesday, March 30, Center for Language and Intercultural Learning, Contact: Keiji Murahashi, 06-328-5650 (days).

WEST KANSAI

Special Interest Group: Teaching in College and Universities
Topic: Difficulties in Teaching in Universities from Practical Viewpoints
Speaker: Masavuki Kishi
Date: March 20th
Time: 11:30 – 12:45 p.m
Place: Umeda Gakuin
Info: Jim Swan (0742) 34-5960