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Comparative Studies of Reading and Problem Solving in Two Languages*

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The paper will attempt to answer three questions. *First,* what is meant by "grasp of language" and is it possible to find evidence that in reading a person has a better grasp of one language than of another? Apart from such obvious differences as knowledge (or ignorance) of vocabulary, idiom, and syntax, in what ways does a person's reading in his weak language differ from his reading in his strong one? *Second,* what effects do such differences in grasp of language have upon a person's understanding of what he reads? To begin with they result in his reading his weaker language more slowly than his stronger one. This in turn can result in a poorer grasp of what he has read in his weak language-and this can reveal itself in inability to solve problems which are presented in the weaker language, problems which he could have solved if they had been presented in the stronger language. *Third,* what can be done to help students to read their weaker language more effectively? I have no tidings of my own to present in this connection, but I would like to speculate about the use of methods which have been used to speed up reading in a person's strong or main language.

From studies of bilingual persons come a series of results which relate linguistic and non-linguistic functioning. Where bilingual have been found to have a poorer grasp of some language than monolingual speakers of that language, the deficit has almost invariably revealed itself among other things in reading skill.[1] Additionally, the deficit in language is usually associated with a relatively lower mean IQ for bilingual when the test is a verbal one, but not when it is a non-verbal one.[2] In a number of studies, too, bilingual have been found weaker than monolingual in problem arithmetic, but not in mechanical arithmetic.[3] These are hardly surprising conclusions. My main interest here is not in establishing them or in discussing the evidence on which they are based, but rather to inquire about possible reasons why they might be true. Nothing I say, however,

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[1] See J. Macnamara, *Bilingualism and Primary Education* (Edinburgh University Press, 1966) .

[2] N. T. Darcy, "A review of the literature on the effects of bilingualism upon the measurement of intelligence," *Journal of Genetic Psychology, 82* (1953), 21-58; and "Bilingualism and the measurement of intelligence: Review of a decade of research," *Journal of Genetic Psychology, 103* (1963), 259-282.

[3] J. Macnamara, *Bilingualism and Primary Education* (Edinburgh University Press, 1966) .

should be taken as implying that bilingualism is necessarily connected with a linguistic or intellectual deficit; I am merely attempting to explain such deficits when they occur.

Some explanations of reading and problem-solving difficulties in bilinguals are so immediate that they need not detain us. Obviously if I were set a problem in Russian, a language of which unfortunately I do not know a word, I would not be able to solve it no matter how simple it was. It is equally obvious that if I were set a problem in Italian, a language which I can usually decipher with some difficulty, I could well be tripped up by some words or idiomatic turns of phrase which were incomprehensible to me. In the present paper I wish to abstract from such very real linguistic difficulties and to ask what happens when I set a problem in a language that I can read tolerably well, such as Irish or French, but which nevertheless is not my native language.   In effect, I am asking whether there is such a thing as command or grasp of language which enables me to read English with greater ease and mastery than I read Irish or French. Further, if the answer to that question is yes, I wish to inquire in what such mastery might consist.   In attempting to answer these questions I shall draw on several studies which I and my colleagues have conducted over the years both in Dublin and Montreal, but which I have not hitherto drawn together in a single article.

Problem solving in two languages

The first two investigations[4] approached the problem in a global manner. The central part of the plan was to select persons who knew two languages, but not both equally well, set them problems in the two languages, and make sure that they understood every word and expression used in the problems. The persons we selected were all native speakers of English and all had studied Irish for at least six years. They were sixth grade children, boys and girls, in certain Dublin and Dundalk primary schools. In the first study the number of children was 62; in the second it was 341. The problems were either specially composed or "borrowed" for the purpose. The crucial thing was that though the problems involved relatively complex reasoning processes they could be expressed in both languages in terms that would be familiar to the children. To ensure that the children understood the language in which they were expressed, a series of simple problems was devised which made use of the same vocabulary and syntactic structures as were used in the complex problems. An example of a problem in complex form is:

> If May is the sixth month of the year and if a pound is not more than an ounce divide 81 by 9. Otherwise subtract 3 from 7. Write down your answer.

4 J. Macnamara. "The problem-solving difficulties of bilingual children," *Bulletin of the British Psychological Society, 18* (1965), 58-59, (abstract); and T. Kellaghan and J. Macnamara, "Reading in a second language." In: M. D. Jenkinson, ed., *Reading instruction: An international forum* (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1967), pp. 231-240.

The set of simple problems into which this was broken in order to test children's understanding of each of its components is:

(a) May is the sixth month of the year Right Wrong I don't know
(b) A pound is more than an ounce.   Right Wrong I don't know
(c) Divide 81 by 9   Answer...........................
(d) Subtract 3 from 7   Answer...........................
(e) If a crow is white write 8,
    otherwise write 9.   Answer........................

The last item was included to test understanding of the "if—otherwise" construction. Each complex problem and its associated simple problems were expressed in Irish and in English. In each school which took part in the study the sixth grade pupils were divided at random into groups of equal sizes, one group in each to answer the Irish problems, one to answer the English ones.

The results were analysed separately for each problem. Only the responses of those children who had answered all the simple questions associated with a particular complex problem were analysed. The purpose was to determine whether among those who understood the language a significantly larger proportion of "English" children than of "Irish" ones solved the complex problems. A chi-square test yielded the answer "yes" in the case of about half the problems. So far we have been unable to determine the distinguishing characteristics of the problems which yielded positive results. But the overall outcome is clear: differential levels of "grasp of language" were established by the children's responses to the complex problems.

Reading speed in each language

What precisely is the nature of the difficulty indicated in the problem-solving studies just described? Where in the various processes of assimilating and dealing with the information did it occur? A first clue came from an earlier study[5] in which it was found that fifth and sixth grade children solved problems equally accurately in their two languages but took a longer time to do so in their weaker language. This pointed to a time factor as being possibly related to the problem-solving difficulties observed in the two studies of the preceding section. However, there is no clear connection between a time factor and those difficulties, since no time limit was imposed on the children of the first two studies.

To probe deeper into the problem we had forty bilingual sixth grade boys similar to those described earlier read aloud Irish and English versions of three arithmetical problems.[6] Each boy read each version three

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[5] J. Macnamara, "The use of Irish in teaching children from English-speaking homes: A survey of Irish National Schools." Unpublished Ph.D. thesis (University of Edinburgh, 1963).

[6] T. Kellaghan and J. Macnamara, pp. 231-240.

times, and interst focussed on the improvment from first to quickest read-ing as much as on the absolute reading times. Though the two versions of each problem contained roughly equal numbers of words, the boys took longer to read the Irish version. Improvement from the first to best time (usually third reading) was greater when reading the Irish version. The finding that reading in a weaker language takes longer than reading in a stronger confirms results obtained by other studies of bilingualism.[7] The finding that reading times improve more in the weaker than in the stronger one suggests that the boys came nearer on their first reading in English than on their first reading in Irish to the speed at which they could com-fortably handle semantic information. All this leads to the conclusion that the boys experienced relatively greater difficulty in the "input process" when the language was Irish.

Analysis of reading in two languages

The remaining studies which I would like to treat were conducted with the help of colleagues and students both in Dublin and Montreal: the detailed results are to be found elsewhere.[8] The idea behind them is that reading skill can be broken down into several measurable compo-nents. We distinguished seven such components of which the first five are clearly related to the intake of information: the perception of individual words, the perception of strings of words in grammatical sequence, the interpretation of individual words, the interpretation of syntactic struc-tures, and the ability to anticipate the sequence of words beyond the point at which one is reading (i.e., the use of transition probabilities in written language). The remaining two components may perhaps be grouped to-gether as being related to output (in reading aloud): articulation of in-dividual words, and the articulation of a string of words in grammatical sequence (concatenation). Clearly the seven components are not water-tight divisions; ability to anticipate because of transitional probabilities is likely to be related to ability to interpret syntactic structures. Never-theless, we felt that it might be possible to tease them apart to some extent by means of a series of tests.

We devised for the purpose eight tests in each of two languages. With these tests we obtained eight time measures for performance in each of the two languages. The plan was to compare times across languages and in particular to study whether increases in time for successive tasks were equal in the two languages. The eight measures were:

[7] W. E. Lambert, J. Havelka, and R. C. Gardner, "Linguistic manifestations of bilingualism," *American Journal of Psychology, 72* (1959), 77-82; and P. Kolers, "Read-ing and talking bilingually," *American Journal of Psychology, 79* (1966). 357-376.

[8] T. Kellaghan, and J. Macnamara, pp. 231-340; J. Macnamara, "The effects of instruction in a weaker language," *Journal of Social Issues, 23* (1967),121-135; and J. Macnamara, M. Feltin, M. Hew, and M. Klein, "An analytic comparison of reading in two languages *Irish Journal of Education, 2* (1968), 41-63.

   (i) mean perceptual thresholds for individual words;
  (ii) mean perceptual thresholds for sentences;
 (iii) mean reaction times to words on a screen;
 (iv) mean reaction times to sentences on a screen;
  (v) time taken to read text silently;
 (vi) time taken to read text aloud;
 (vii) time taken to read a scrambled passage silently;
(viii) time taken to read a scrambled passage aloud.

I will presently explain what is meant by these various times, but first let me say something about the materials used. Since the Montreal studies were more complete than the Dublin ones, I will confine the description to the former ones. Eighteen feminine French nouns and their English equivalents were selected, all naming common objects of which pictures could easily be drawn. To these were added two words in each language, *a* and *has,* so that the nouns could be combined in sentences of which half were true and half were false: e.g., *a hen has a wing* and *a hen has a door.* The words and sentences were printed on plain white cards and presented to subjects in a tachistoscope, a device like a camera which enables the experimenter to control the time of exposure. With these cards we obtained the first two measures in each language.

Two filmstrips were also prepared, one with the English words each printed beneath a picture and the other with the French words printed beneath the same set of pictures. In half the combinations the word named the picture and in half it did not. The sentences were also made into filmstrips, one English and one French. The subjects' task was to indicate whether or not the word named the picture, and whether or not the sentence was true. These tests yielded measures (iii) and (iv).

By the addition of the word *and,* the true sentences were combined to form two different English paragraphs and two different French ones. These were printed on plain white cards and placed in subjects' hands to be read. Times taken to read these constitute measures (v) and (vi). In each language one paragraph was read silently and one aloud; in silent reading subjects indicated the words they were reading with a pointer. Finally scrambled versions of each paragraph were also typed on cards and read, two silently, two aloud. These furnished measures (vii) and (viii). Important order effects might be anticipated in the repeated testing of so small a body of material; so as far as possible the order of tests was counterbalanced across subjects. The subjects were twenty-four college girls in Montreal. All were native speakers of English, but all had taken school French throughout their time in high school.

One other feature of the design must be explained before we proceed to the results. Since the same material was used in all eight tests, there is some relationship between the different times. The relationship, however, is not a simple one because the manner in which the material was presented varied. Nevertheless, the change in manner of presentation was constant

across languages. This is the central idea of the design. The absolute numbers obtained, therefore, are of less interest than the increase from one test to the next, and similarly these increases are not of such interest in themselves as their relative sizes in the two languages. The comparison of increases across languages affords a measure of the quantities to be estimated, which is all the more accurate for the fact that each subject was her own control. That is, each subject's performance in English was compared with her performance in French.

No significant difference was found on test (i), i.e., perception of individual words; neither was the increase from (i) to (ii) significantly greater in one language than another. Thus no significant differences were found at the perceptual level either for words or for sentences. However, the increase from (i) to (iii) was significantly larger in French than in English. This means that when times for determining the meanings of individual words were corrected for perceptual thresholds of the same words, the French times were larger than the English ones. The increase from (iii) to (iv) however was not significantly larger in one language than another.

To recapitulate the results of the first four tests, only one significant difference was found: that associated with determining the meanings of words. The absence of a significant difference at the perceptual level is less surprising when one recalls that the order of tests varied from subject to subject and that the body of language was so limited. Thus if there were a tendency for our subjects to perceive English words more rapidly than French ones, it would probably have been obscured by the massed practice at reading the same words. Furthermore, French and English employ the same script. It is not surprising then that Crothers *et al.* [9] found that English-speakers who had learned some Russian reacted more slowly to the Cyrillic characters of Russian than to English letters. The converse of the point about familiarity with the material is that where significant differences were found in our series of tests they must have arisen from factors robust enough to withstand the effect of such familiarity.

The absence of a significant difference in association with the perception of sentences is probably attributable to familiarity also. When subjects had discovered that all sentences had the same syntax they could neglect the syntax and reduce the task to the perception of two key nouns. Remember that all sentences were of the form *a hen has a wing.* Similarly the absence of a significant difference associated with syntax in the fourth task could be attributed to the fact that all sentences were of the same form. All subjects had to do was fix on the two nouns and test them for a part/whole relationship. As some experiments shortly to be described will show, this interpretation is very probably the correct one.

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[9] E. Crothers, P. Suppes, and R. Weir, "Latency phenomena in prolonged learning of visual representations of Russian sounds," *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 2* (1966), 205-217.

In the analysis of times taken to read the continuous texts and scrambled passages (tests v to viii), four components were isolated. We may call these, somewhat loosely: (a) perception of individual words, (b) pronunciation of individual words, (c) use of transition probabilities, (d) concatenation (the ability to string words together when pronouncing them in sequence). These components were determined by a simple arithmetic process the key to which can be represented as follows:

task (vii) — scrambled passage read silently = (a)
task (viii) — scrambled passage read aloud = (a) + (b)
task (v)   — continuous text read silently   = (a) − (c)
task (vi)   — continuous text read aloud   = (a) + (b) − (c) − (d)

Note that (c) and (d) which contribute to a reader's speed are presented as negative quantities.

Significant differences were found only in association with (b) and (c). Subjects took longer to pronounce individual words in French, and they made less use of the transition probabilities in French. The latter finding, which replicates an earlier one described by Kellaghan and Macnamara,[10] means that in reading French sentences subjects were less able to anticipate the order of words.

The absence of a significant difference for (a), perception of individual words, replicates the finding for task (i). The absence of a significant finding for (d) means that there was no reliable difference in speed of reading attributable to differential ability to concatenate.

In order to verify our explanation of the absence of a significant difference associated with syntax in the interpretation of sentences a second experiment was carried out. This time syntax was systematically varied so that subjects would have to pay attention to it. The new sentences were of four types: active affirmative, active negative, passive affirmative, and passive negative. In composing the sentences, however, we did some violence to both English and French syntax. For example, one set might read: *a hen possesses a wing; a hen does not possess a wing; a wing is possessed by a hen; a wing is not possessed by a hen.* The corresponding set of French sentences would be: *une poulle possède une aile; une poulle ne possède une aile; une aile est possedée par une poulle; une aile n'est pas possedée par une poulle.* [11]
In all, thirty such sentences were prepared in each language, fifteen of which were true, and fifteen false. The English sentences in random order were combined in one filmstrip, the French ones in another.

The new filmstrips together with the words and pictures filmstrips (task iii) were presented to twenty-four new subjects similar to those of the first experiment, i.e., native speakers of English with a knowledge of school

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10 T. Kellaghan, and J. Macnamara, pp. 231-240.
11 We were particularly worried by the violence done to French syntax. Nevertheless, as the results indicate, the sentences served our purpose well enough.

French. They were also presented to twenty-four native speakers of French with little more than a knowledge of school English. The reason for including the latter subjects was to find out if the main findings could be replicated in reverse with subjects whose linguistic strengths were the reverse of those of the first experiment, and also to check on the effect of tampering with the syntax, especially the French syntax.

Detailed analyses, which need not detain us here, revealed once again significant differences in the speed with which the meanings of individual words were determined. Subjects responded more rapidly in their stronger language. Further, the increase in time from the words and pictures task to the sentence task was significantly greater for the weaker language. Thus, our hypothesis was verified: subjects interpreted syntax more rapidly in their strong language.

To sum up the results of this series of experiments, significant differences between languages were found in the speed at which subjects interpreted the meaning of individual words and also the meaning of sentences, in the speed at which subjects could pronounce words, and in ability to anticipate the sequence of words in continuous prose.

Conclusion

Turn once again to the questions from which we began: is there a demonstrable difference between grasp of one language and grasp of a second one (apart from ignorance of vocabulary, idiom and syntax); and if there is, in what does the difference consist? We can now answer the first question with an affirmative. At least where the difference in grasp is as marked as it was in our subjects, its effects can be demonstrated in problem-solving ability and also in a series of tests designed to analyze reading skills. We must not push the conclusion too far, however. It does not follow, for instance, that similar results would be obtained with all bilingual; after all we selected our subjects specially to reveal a marked contrast in their grasp of the two languages. Neither does it follow that bilingualism itself is the cause of anything. We have merely shown that when the contrast in grasp of two languages is sufficiently marked, the effect on certain types of problem solving and on certain aspects of reading can be demonstrated.

We have also made some progress towards answering the second question. We have found certain differences between reading in the native language and reading in a second language, — on the "input" side, in the rate at which individual words are interpreted, in the rate at which syntactic structures are interpreted, and in ability to anticipate the sequence of words; on the "output" side in the rate at which individual words are pronounced. while we cannot be sure that we have located all relative weaknesses in reading a second language, or that such weaknesses are characteristic of all persons who read a second language, we have found these weaknesses in the average reading scores of seventy-two bilingual. We can with some confidence say, then, that when a person reads one language more slowly

than another, the factors identified are very likely to be among those which cause the slowing down.

Throughout this paper I have laid a great deal of stress on time measures. It is necessary to say a word about the value of such measures and in particular about their relevance to the whole business of reading. After all, some might counter, what does it matter if a man reads French a little more slowly than he reads English (or whatever the pair of languages may be) ? It would be quite outside the scope of this paper to attempt to answer this question as it might relate to reading for pleasure or to the creative response of a person reading a literary work. In so far as an answer emerges from the evidence I have cited it must be related to reading for understanding, and here, unless I'm greatly mistaken, speed of reading has an importance of its own.

I assume that educated people generally read at a rate which enables them to digest comfortably what they read. The rate varies from person to person, and even the same person will vary his rate depending on the nature of what he reads and pressures on his time. But I assume that if he is set a written problem in a relaxed manner and without an explicit time limit, he will read it at a rate which is close to optimal for his purpose. The idea of an optimal rate comes from the fact that human nature places certain constraints on all human performance, among them the span of short-term memory. This span is not more than a few seconds and can embrace no more than about eight or nine separate units.[12] If a person is to function within these constraints and solve the problem, he has to reduce the total information to manageable proportions and hold it firmly in that little span of awareness which we call short-term memory. If he reads too quickly, he may miss some relevant points of information; if he reads too slowly and does not employ the extra time for processing the information, some relevant points may slip his mind. An optimal rate would lie somewhere between the two. Now we have seen that if a person has to read the problem in a weaker language, he must of necessity read it more slowly. What I suggest is that the slower rate in the weaker language does not allow him any added leisure for thinking about what he has read; the extra time is fully employed on the task of decoding the language. Consequently some important points may slip his mind. In fact he may have added difficulty in determining what it is that is important, since *to* do so presupposes some idea of the problem as a whole. As a result, the difficulty of the problem is increased; and if the problem is a taxing one, even in the native language, a man is more likely to fail. I have a suspicion that the increase in difficulty of which I speak is even more upsetting for primary school children, many of whom convey the impression that they give up and consider themselves lost if after one or two readings they have not discovered what the whole thing is about.

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12 See G. A. Miller, "The magical number seven, plus one minus two: some limits on our capacity for processing information," *Psychological Review, 63* (1956), 81-97.

Admittedly there is a good deal of speculation involved in this reasoning, but it does tie all the findings together and it would explain why problems presented in the weaker language were more difficult to solve. Taking one thing with another it seems to me at the moment the most parsimonious way to interpret a considerable body of evidence.

Physiological Responses to Different Modes of Feedback in Pronunciation Training*

Richard R. Lee, Linetta McCune, Layne Patton

Physiological measures of anatomical arousal can offer insight into the learning process independently of pre-post test measures. Some arousal is necessary for learning. Students seem to routinize pattern drills; the question is: what causes the phenomenon, the drill format or the presence or absence of a human interlocutor? Different feedback conditions were rotated to test the effect on arousal of different feedback styles, and the presence of a human interlocutor. Drill format, whether presented by tape or an instructor, resulted in uniformly depressed levels of arousal. Free conversation produces arousal and, one assumes, learning of a different order of magnitude. Implications are drawn for the instruction of intermediate and advanced students.

Pattern drill has become a popular weapon in the language teacher's arsenal. It is widely used for several reasons: it is compatible with some theories of learning; it can be routinized and recorded on magnetic tape; and it allows language practice without making special demands on the instructor. Phonological pattern drills are open to question, however, on two counts: whether they are valid and whether they are effective.

It is unclear whether pattern practice is genuine language behavior. It seems to have no counterpart in natural language behavior. Too, intermediate and advanced students seem to tire of it quickly. It can be reasoned that drill-stimulated oral performance is language behavior minus the semantic component, visual cues, and speaker intent.

The clearest way to evaluate training is to make a performance measure before and after instruction. In phonological training, this is extremely difficult. Past the phonemic level (distinguishing "ship" from "sheep") inter-rater reliability is hard to achieve and maintain.[1] An externally valid test must adjust for phonological variations caused by differences in the topic of discourse.[2] The phonology of spontaneous speech also differs from oral reading and words spoken in isolation.[3] A more manageable measure is needed.

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[1] George A. C. Scherer and Michael Wertheimer, *A Psycholinguistic Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching* (New York McGraw-Hill), 1966.

[2] Einar Haugen, "Linguistics and Language Planning," *Sociolinguistics: Proceedings of the UCLA Sociolinguistics Conference, 1964,* ed. William Bright (The Hague: Mouton and Company), 1966.

[3] William Labov, *The Social Stratification of English in New York City,* (Washington, D. C.: Center for Applied Linguistics), 1966.

Past the first few months of instruction, learners of English seem to reach a plateau where additional phonological practice produces little transfer to real discourse. (It is a common experience with many of us to have the student return a "th" tape after a half hour's practice only to say "sank you.") The rational management of instruction requires that inefficient training procedures be replaced or eliminated.

The polygraph, more commonly known as a lie detector, can provide inferential evidence about the effectiveness of training and about the psychological nature of drill-generated oral performance. The cardinal principle is this: some physiological arousal is necessary for learning to occur.[4] It seems to make little difference whether the arousing stimulus is pleasant or otherwise.[5]

Arousal is most often measured by heart rate, galvanic skin response, (GSR) and breathing rate. All three measures tend to co-vary; increased heart rate is generally accompanied by increased GSR and breathing. Of these measures, heart rate is the most robust. Physiological arousal must be substantial to cause changes in heart rate. Put another way, statistically significant differences in heart rate point to differences of arousal large enough to influence receptivity to learning.

The first question is whether pattern drills produce arousal similar to that of free conversation. Receptive tasks such as reading and listening produce less arousal than writing. Speaking produces the most.[6] Two analogous activities should produce analogous arousal. The results should speak to the question of the validity of drill as language behavior.

The next set of questions deals with the components of the pattern drill itself. Typically they are composed of three parts, a stimulus string, a pause for student response, and then a model answer. First, what would happen if a human being were to give the model answer, supplanting the model on the tape? Under this condition, there is at least face-to-face contact and the formal rudiments of communication. Second, what would be the effect if a human being punished errors by uttering a correct model sentence only when the subject made an error? This is the familiar situation of the teacher correcting errors, but in a drill context. This should produce high arousal since it is technically punishment.

Finally, how much arousal is produced when a human being corrects errors in conversation? In this condition, the subject is trying to communicate, whereas in the preceding condition, he is performing a drill.

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[4] Edward Levonian, "Retention of Information in Relation to Arousal during Continuously-Presented Material; *American Educational Research Journal, IV* (March 1967), 103-116.

[5] Edward Levonian, "Auditory and Visual Retention in Relation to Arousal," *AV Communication Review, XVI* (July 1968), 57-62.

[6] Loren D. Crane, Charles T. Brown, and Richard J. Dieker, *The Measurement of Physiological Arousal Associated with Reading, Listening, Writing, Speaking and Evaluating Responses to Pleasant, Adversive and Personal Words,* Final Report, Project No. 7-E-199, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

The experiment was conducted at the Speech Communication Laboratory. Subjects, ten women and eight men, were foreign students enrolled in ESL classes at Florida State University. All had studied English for at least six months. Their native languages were Portuguese, Spanish, Chinese, Korean, Turkish and Thai. Target phonemes in all three drills were the voiced and voiceless interdentals *eth* and *theta,* as in *these things.* The experimenters were two instructors who knew all of the subjects by name.

Measurement was made on an E & M Physiograph Six with telemetry transmitter and receiver. This arrangement permits the subject complete mobility without the intimidation of being wired to a machine. Each subject was given four treatments, randomized in order of presentation.

1. Taped model. The subject listened to ten model sentences presented by tape recorder. After each stimulus, the subject pronounced the sentence, which was followed by a taped model. This is the format common to language laboratory drills.
2. Human model. The stimulus sentence was presented by tape. The subject responded and then the experimenter said the model. In effect, a human being supplanted the second half of the taped drill.
3. Human feedback. Again the stimulus sentence was presented by tape. If the subject mispronounced the target phoneme, the experimenter said the model sentence. Since the interdental is a troublesome phoneme, all subjects received some punishing feedback.
4. Corrected conversation. The experimenter asked an open-ended question such as, "What was it like growing up in Thailand?" or "What is common sense?" From the volubility of the responses, it was aparent that subjects perceived these questions as real probes for information. During the conversation, the experimenter listened to the message but corrected mispronunciations by repeating the word.

The second experimenter was present but minding the machine.

Physiological arousal dissipates over time in two ways. A novel situation produces high arousal at first, followed by a gradual return to a base level. For this reason, a comparison of treatment effects must be matched for onset of treatment. A discrete stimulus will produce a quick peak, which dissipates in five to ten seconds. Data were sampled from seven time segments, each sample representing an average of the high and low rate during the five seconds from the presentation of the model or correction, and from temporally analogous points in the conversation. Like the drills, corrections during the conversation were spaced out to allow for the dissipation of peaks. Analysis of variance reveals a strong and persistent treatment effect, as shown in Table 1.

A Duncan Multiple Range Test was applied to the results. In all cases, the three drill conditions formed a homogeneous subset of low values. In other words, the drill format overrode any differences caused by variations in feedback, whether the model was provided by tape or by a person, or whether feedback was contingent on learner performance.

TABLE 1
Analysis of Variance

	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F Ratio
First Segment				
Between Treatments	961.34	3	320.44	1.80
Within Individuals	12085.02	68	177.72	
Second Segment				
Between Treatments	2077.51	3	692.50	3.96 *
Within Individuals	11868.98	68	174.54	
Third Segment				
Between Treatments	2919.70	3	973.23	5.69 *
Withing Individuals	11626.04	68	170.97	
Fourth Segment				
Between Treatment	1694.01	3	564.67	3.33 *
Within Individuals	11530.90	68	169.57	
Fifth Segment				
Between Treatments	1678.03	3	559.34	3.59 *
Within Individuals	10584.37	68	155.65	
Sixth Segment				
Between Treatment	1510.41	3	503.47	3.01 *
Within Individuals	11342.36	68	166.79	
Seventh Segment				
Between Treatments	1188.19	3	396.06	2.55
Within Individuals	10561.80	68	155.32	

* $p. < .05$

The mean heart rate values show a clustering of the three drill treatments between 82 and 86 beats per minute. Corrected conversation produced much higher arousal. These mean rates range from 92 to 98, as shown in Table 2.

A display of these values shows that the array of relations for the three drill treatments meet or intersect at several points. Statistically they also form a homogeneous subset. The array of relations for corrected conversation is quite distinct, and much higher, as shown in Figure 1.

The most obvious result of these analyses is the delimiting effect of the drill format on arousal, which seems to override any effect caused by the mode of feedback. This insensitivity to feedback variation is an uncommon finding in physiological research. It does accord, however, with the intuition that the routine, rhythmic quality of drill and the absence of any cognitive demands makes it unlike natural communication. The results also suggest why extended pronunciation drilling seems to produce so

TABLE 2
Mean Heartrate by Treatment

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	Row Means
1. Taped Model	85.9	85.0	84.8	85.0	84.3	83.4	84.1	84.6
2. Human Model	83.8	82.7	84.0	81.3	82.0	82.6	82.6	82.7
3. Human Feedback	83.8	85.1	83.7	82.5	84.0	83.0	82.5	83.5
4. Conversation	92.7	96.5	98.8	93.7	94.4	93.6	92.3	94.6

Figure I
Mean Heartrate by Treatment
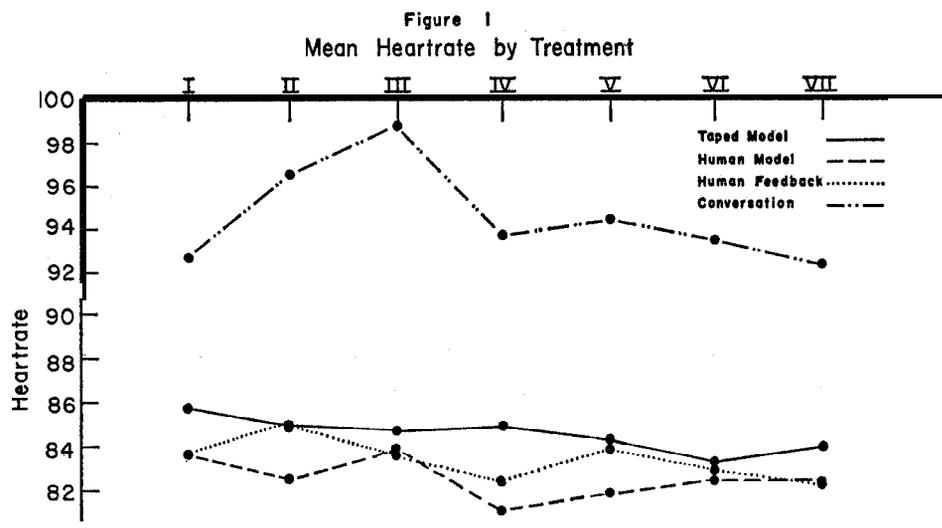
little transfer to natural speech; arousal may be insufficient to optimize learning. Some learning may occur at these depressed levels, but the mean values suggest an organism at rest. The interpretation of the difference between arousal levels for drill and conversation can proceed no further until it is determined how much of the arousal is caused by mode of feedback in this treatment, and how much is caused by the verbalization requirement itself. This has been established as a factor in arousal.[7] The matter is the subject of current research.

There may be little reason why pattern practice *should* produce a physiological state like that of ordinary speech. As a method of instruction, pattern practice is based on a theory of learning that is more descriptive than explanatory. Lenneberg's explication of the biological process of language production has shown the explanatory limitations of the notions of stimuli, unitary responses, habit strength, and reinforcement.[8]
Over ten years ago, Chomsky dismantled the theoretical underpinnings of operant conditioning as an explanation of linguistic behavior.[9] More recently, Crothers' application of S-R theory to phonology learning, certainly the most rigorous to date, failed to account for a large part of learner behavior.[10] Brière has had about the same results.[11]

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[7] Harold Johnson and Joseph Campus, "The Effect of Cognitive Tasks and Verbalization Instructions on Heart Rate and Skin Conductance: *Psychophysiology,* IV (March 1967), 143-150.

[8] Eric Lenneberg, *Biological Foundations of Language,* (New York: John Wiley and Sons), 1967.

[9] Noam Chomsky, "Review of Skinner's Verbal Behavior," *Language* XXXV (1959), 26-58.

[10] Edward Cothers and Patrick Suppes, *Experiments in Second-Language Learning* (New York: Academic Press), 1967.

[11] Eugène J. Brière, *A Psycholinguistic Study of Phonological Interference* (The Hague: Mouton), 1968.

Physiographic data by itself permits only second-level inferences about the efficiency of pattern practice, but coupled with other, independent evidence, and in the absence of evidence to the contrary, an interpretation can be made that is relevant to the rational management of instruction. No doubt pronunciation pattern drill has its place in elementary language instruction, but at the point where its effectiveness seems to decline, we are professionally obligated either to demonstrate its effectiveness or take it off the market, just like the pharmaceutical industry. The important thing is that the evaluation of language training need not be limited to pre- and post-test performance measures. The state of the organism during learning can also provide information about the effectiveness of one method over another. The polygraph sheds a little light into the black box.

*The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis**

Ronald Wardhaugh

The claim that the best language-teaching materials are baaed on a contrast of the two competing linguistic systems has long been a popular one in language teaching. It exists in strong and weak versions, the strong one arising from evidence from the availability of some kind of metatheory of contrastive analysis and the weak from evidence from language interference. The strong version of the hypothesis is untenable and even the weak version creates difficulties for the linguist. Recent advances in linguistic theory have led some people to claim that the hypothesis is no longer useful in either the strong or the weak version. Such a claim is perhaps unwarranted, but a period of quiescence is probable for contrastive analysis itself.

During the course of their reading, students of linguistics encounter a number of very interesting hypotheses concerning different aspects of language and language function. One long-lived hypothesis which has attracted considerable attention from time to time—but more, it must be added, from psychologists and anthropologists than from linguistics-is the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis with its claim that the structure of a language subtly influences the cognitive processes of the speakers of that language.

A much more recent hypothesis, and one much more intriguing to linguists today than the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, is the language-acquisition device hypothesis proposed by the generative-transformationalists. This hypothesis is that infants are innately endowed with the ability to acquire a natural language and all they need to set the process of language acqui- sition going are natural language data. Only by postulating such a language- acquisition device can a generative-transformationalist account for certain linguistic universals, including, of course, not only one very important uni- versal, the ability to learn a first language with ease, but also, apparently, another universal, the inability to learn a second language after childhood without difficulty. Like the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, the language-acquisition device hypothesis is extremely intriguing, but it too presents seemingly insurmountable difficulties to anyone seeking to devise a critical test to prove its truth or falsity. A linguist may accept the hypotheses because they usefully and economically explain certain language data that he wants to explain in terms of a set of axioms he can accept; or he may reject the hypotheses because they reek of mentalism or subjectivity, or because he prefers a different set of axioms on which to base his work.

Still a third hypothesis, and the one which is of special interest in this paper, is the contrastive analysis hypothesis, a hypothesis of particular

interest to those linguists who are engaged in language teaching and in writing language-teaching materials. However, the contrastive analysis hypothesis also raises many difficulties in practice, so many in fact that one may be tempted to ask whether it is really possible to make contrastive analyses. And even if the answer to that question is a more or less hesitant affirmative, then one may well question the value to teachers and curriculum workers of the results of such analyses.

Actually the contrastive analysis hypothesis may be stated in two versions, a *strong* version and a *weak* version. In this paper the claim will be made that the strong version is quite unrealistic and impracticable, even though it is the one on which those who write contrastive analyses usually claim to base their work. On the other hand, the weak version does have certain possibilities for usefulness. However, even the weak version is suspect in some linguistic circles.

It is possible to quote several representative statements of what has just been referred to as the strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. First of all, Lado in the preface to *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957) writes as follows:

> The plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student. (p. vii)

Lado goes on to cite Fries in support of this proposition. Here is the appropriate quotation from Fries's *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (1945):

> The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. (p. 9)

More recently, in a book edited by Valdman, entitled *Trends in Language Teaching* (1966), Banathy, Trager, and Waddle state the strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis as follows:

> . . . the change that has to take place in the language behavior of a foreign language student can be equated with the differences between the structure of the student's native language and culture and that of the target language and culture. The task of the linguist, the cultural anthropologist, and the sociologist is to identify these differences. The task of the writer of a foreign language teaching program is to develop materials which will be based on a statement of these differences; the task of the foreign language teacher is to be aware of these differences and to be prepared to teach them; the task of the student is to learn them. (p. 37)

The same idea is presented in each of these three statements, the idea that it is possible to contrast the system of one language—the grammar, phonology and lexicon—with the system of a second language in order to *predict* those difficulties which a speaker of the second language will have in learning the first language and to construct teaching materials to help him learn that language.

An evaluation of this strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis suggests that it makes demands of linguistic theory, and, therefore, of linguists, that they are in no position to meet. At the very least this version demands of linguists that they have available a set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals adequately with syntax, semantics, and phonology. Furthermore, it requires that they have a theory of contrastive linguistics into which they can plug complete linguistic descriptions of the two languages being contrasted so as to produce the correct set of contrasts between the two languages. Ideally, linguists should not have to refer at all to speakers of the two languages under contrast for either confirmation or disconfirmation of the set of contrasts generated by any such theory of contrastive linguistics. They should actually be able to carry out their contrastive studies quite far removed from speakers of the two languages, possibly without even knowing anything about the two languages in question except what is recorded in the grammars they are using. Such seems to be the procedure which the strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis demands of linguists. Stated in this way, the strong version doubtless sounds quite unrealistic, but it should be emphasized that *most writers of contrastive analyses try to create the impression that this is the version of the hypothesis on which they have based their work*— or at least could base their work if absolutely necessary. Here is yet another instance of a "pseudo-procedure" in linguistics, a pseudo-procedure being a procedure which linguists claim they could follow in order to achieve definitive results if only there were enough time.

If one looks specifically at how phonological problems have been dealt with in this strong version, he can easily find evidence to support the assertions just made. Many a linguist has presented contrastive statements of the phonemic systems of two languages without asking whether it is possible to contrast the phonemic systems of two languages by procedures which attempt to relate an English *p* to a French *p,* because linguists have chosen to symbolize some not well-defined similarity between the two languages in the same way, in this case by the letter *p,* or because both *p's* are associated with certain movements of the glottis and lips. The use of the similarity of the symbols is more deceiving than the use of the similarity of phonetic features. The latter may be justified to some extent in terms of what will be referred to later as the weak version of the hypothesis, but statements about a language *lacking* certain phonemes or two languages having the *same* phonemes are possibly even more dangerous than they are naive. Any such statements must ultimately rest on phonetic evidence, and, if they do, the strong version of the hypothesis is being disregarded in favor of the weak version. As Weinreich (1953) points out, phonemes are not commensurable across languages; phones, individual sounds, are much more manageable, because they do have some connection with events in the world, in this case articulatory and acoustic events.

Let us suppose that a linguist contrasts the allophonic variants described in accounts he finds of the phonological system of two languages. Could he then meet the demands of the strong version? Once again the answer must be negative, at least within the present state of linguistic knowledge. Ideally, a linguist interested in making a contrastive analysis would like to be able to take a statement of the allophones of Language A and say for each one exactly what difficulties a speaker of Language B would have in producing that allophone. However, the difficulties in the way of doing this are formidable. Are the phonetic statements the linguist finds sufficiently detailed and of the right kind to be of use: that is, what is the adequacy of the *phonetic theory* and the particular phonetic information at his disposal? Do the descriptions take into account all the phonological variables that should be taken into account, such as segmentation, stress, tone, pitch and juncture, and syllable, morpheme, word and sentence structures: that is, what is the state of the *phonological theory* he is using? Does the linguist have available to him an over-all contrastive system within which he can relate the two languages in terms of mergers, splits, zeroes, over-differentiations, under-differentiations, reinterpretations, and so on: that is, what is the state of the *contrastive theory* he is employing? In this age of linguistic uncertainty the answer to all of these questions is obvious.

It seems, therefore, not a little strange, given all the problems which the strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis creates, that so many linguists claim to use it in their work. None of them has actually conformed to its requirements in such work. However, there have been attempts, some more successful and some less successful, to use what may be called the weak version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. In this case, one must offer his own definition of the weak version, because the literature contains little or no reference to what linguists have actually done in practice, in contrast to what they have claimed they were doing or could do.

The weak version requires of the linguist only that he use the best linguistic knowledge available to him in order to account for observed difficulties in second language learning. It does not require what the strong version requires, the prediction of those difficulties and, conversely, of those learning points which do not create any difficulties at all. The weak version leads to an approach which makes fewer demands of contrastive theory than does the strong version. It starts with the evidence provided by linguistic interference and uses such evidence to explain the similarities and differences between systems. There should be no mistake about the emphasis on systems. In this version systems *are* important, because there is no regression to any pre-systemic view of language, nor does the approach result in merely classifying errors in any way that occurs to the investigator. However, the starting point in the contrast is provided by actual evidence from such phenomena as faulty translation, learning difficulties,

residual foreign accents, and so on, and reference is made to the two systems only in order to explain actually observed interference phenomena.

A close reading of most of the contrastive analyses which are available shows them to conform to some of the demands made by the weak version of the theory and not at all to the demands of the strong version. Even the two highly regarded texts on English and Spanish by Stockwell and Bowen, *The Sounds of English and Spanish* (1965) and *The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish* (1965), fall into this category. It appears that Stockwell and Bowen use their linguistic knowledge to explain what they know from experience to be problems English speakers have in learning Spanish. The linguistic theory they use is actually extremely eclectic and contains insights from generative-transformational, structural, and paradigmatic grammars; nowhere in the texts is there an obvious attempt to predict errors using an over-riding contrastive theory of any power. Even the hierarchy of difficulty which Stockwell and Bowen establish in the second chapter of the *Sounds* volume is based more on their experience and intuition than on an explicit theory for predicting difficulties.

In recent years there have been two still different approaches taken to the problems of contrastive analysis, both resulting from the current enthusiasm for generative-transformational theory. One of these approaches dismisses the hypothesis from any consideration at all. This dismissal stems from a strong negative reaction to contrastive analysis, as, for example, in recent articles by Ritchie (1967) and Wolfe (1967) in *Language Learning.* The second approach attempts to use the generative-transformational model in order to provide some of the necessary over-riding theory to meet either the demands of prediction in the strong version or of explanation in the weak version.

The case for dismissal may be stated as follows: Languages do not differ from each other without limit in unpredictable ways, statements to the contrary notwithstanding. All natural languages have a great deal in common so that anyone who has learned one language already *knows* a great deal about any other language he must learn. Not only does he know a great deal about that other language even before he begins to learn it, but the deep structures of both languages are very much alike, so that the actual differences between the two languages are really quite superficial. However, to learn the second language—and this is the important point—one must learn the precise way in which that second language relates the deep structures to its surface structures and their phonetic representations. Since this way is unique for each language, contrastive analysis can be of little or no help at all in the learning task because the rules to be internalized are, of course, unique. Even though the form and some of the content of the rules to be acquired might be identical for both languages, the combinations of these for individual languages are quite idiosyncratic

so that superficial contrastive statements can in no way help the learner in his task.

Now there is obviously some merit in the above argument. If the underlying vowel system of French is something like the one Schane outlines in *French Phonology and Morphology* (1968), and the underlying vowel system of English is something like the one Chomsky and Halle outline in *The Sound Pattern of English* (1968), and if the speaker of English must somehow internalize the underlying vowel system of French and the fifty or so phonetic realization rules which Schane gives in order to speak acceptable French, then one may easily be tempted in reject the whole notion of contrastive analysis, claiming that it has nothing at all to contribute to an understanding of the learning task that is involved.

Uncertainty is obviously piled upon uncertainty in making contrastive analyses. Such uncertainties arise from inadequacies in existing linguistic theories. As an example of theoretical inadequacy, one may observe that the notion of deep structure itself is extremely uncertain. Chomsky (1968), McCawley (1968) and Fillmore (1968) all mean somewhat different things by it, but all at least agree that it has something to do with meaning. However, for the purposes of contrastive analysis any claim that all languages are very much the same at the level of deep structure seems to be little more than a claim that it is possible to talk about the same things in all languages, which is surely not a very interesting claim, except perhaps in that it seems to contradict the one made by Sapir and Whorf. The preceding statement is not meant to be a criticism of generative-transformational theory; it is meant to show how acceptance of that theory can fairly easily lead one to reject the idea that it is possible to make contrastive analyses, or, put less strongly, to reject the idea that generative-transformational theory has something to contribute to a theory of contrastive analysis, given the present state of the art,

Many experienced teachers find themselves unable to accept such reasons for rejection of the hypothesis. Their experience tells them that a Frenchman is likely to pronounce English *think* as *sink* and a Russian likely to pronounce it as *tink,* that a Spaniard will almost certainly fail to differentiate English *bit* from *beat,* and that an Englishman learning French will tend to pronounce the French word *plume* as *pleem* or *ploom.* They admit that in each case they must be prepared to teach the whole of the second language to a learner, but also insist that some parts of that second language are easier to learn than others, for no one ever must learn *everything* about the second language.   However, many also admit that they do not know in what order learners should try to overcome the various difficulties they are observed to have. Should a Spaniard learning English learn to differentiate *bit* from *beat* and *bet* from *bait* because of the important surface contrasts which he does not make in Spanish? Or should he learn to associate the vowels in such pairs of words as *weep* and *wept, pale* and *pallid, type* and *typical, tone* and *tonic, deduce* and *deduction*

so that he can somehow internalize the underlying phonological system of English? The mind boggles at this last possibility! But it is one which descriptions of Spanish and English based on generative-transformational theory would seem to hold out for teachers.

Some recent suggestions for using generative-transformational theory in contrastive analysis have actually been attempts to bring powerful theoretical insights to bear within the weaker version of the hypothesis in order to explain observed interference phenomena, for example some interesting work by Ritchie (1968) and by Carter (unpublished). In their work, Ritchie and Carter have used distinctive feature hierarchies in attempts to explain such problems as why a Russian is likely to say *tink* and a Frenchman *sink* for English *think.* Such work using the notions of feature hierarchy, rule-cycIing, and morpheme and word structure rules has considerable possibilities. Certainly this kind of work seems more promising than some being done by others in an attempt to show gross similarities between deep structures in an assortment of languages.

In conclusion, it is fair to say that teachers of second or foreign languages are living in very uncertain times. A decade or so ago contrastive analysis was still a fairly new and exciting idea apparently holding great promise for teaching and curriculum construction. Now, one is not so sure—and not solely as a result of the Chomskyan revolution in linguistics. The contrastive analysis hypothesis has not proved to be workable, at least not in the strong version in which it was originally expressed. This version can work only for one who is prepared to be quite naive in linguistic matters. In its weak version, however, it has proved to be helpful and undoubtedly will continue to be so as linguistic theory develops. However, the hypothesis probably will have less influence on second language teaching and on course construction in the next decade that it apparently has had in the last decade. One cannot predict whether that diminishing influence will have a good or bad effect on second language teaching. Today contrastive analysis is only one of many uncertain variables which one must re-evaluate in second language teaching. No longer does it seem to be as important as it once was. Perhaps like the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, it too is due for a period of quiescence.

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*The Relative Clause in Three Languages**

Robert P. Fox

This paper continues the kind of contrastive analysis of relative clauses presented at the 1966 NAFSA Conference by Paul Schachter, Robert D. Wilson and Lois McIntosh based upon a transformational model and contrasting English and Tagalog. The author contrasts the restrictive relative clause in English Hindi, and Baghdad Arabic. Working from these contrastive statements, he points out differences in emphasis when teaching the English restrictive relative clause to these two kinds of speakers.

The purpose of this paper is to present a contrastive analysis of the restrictive relative clause in English, Hindi, and Baghdad Arabic. The value of contrastive analysis—the analysis of the similarities and differences between languages—to language teachers has long been recognized. The language learner tends to transfer the features of his native language to the language he is learning. Hence, it follows that the language learner will not have to give special attention to those features of the foreign language that are similar to those of the native language, while the features of the foreign language which are different from those of the native language will require the special attention of the language teacher. Thus, by specifying which features the languages have in common and which they do not, a contrastive analysis alerts the language teacher to possible problem areas in the foreign language.

At the 1966 Conference of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs held in Chicago, Illinois, a panel was devoted to contrastive analysis. Paul Schachter delivered a paper on the implications of transformational theory for contrastive analysis, Robert D. Wilson presented a contrastive analysis of relative clauses in English and Tagalog, and Lois McIntosh presented language lessons based on Mr. Wilson's analysis.[1] These three papers by the UCLA staff members demonstrate the value of cooperation between linguists and language teachers, and the value of contrastive analysis for the language teacher.

In this paper, which is in a way a continuation of those presented at the 1966 NAFSA Conference, the restrictive relative clause in English, Hindi, and Arabic will be analysed in an attempt to show the areas where problems can be expected to arise when a speaker of Hindi or Arabic is trying to master the relative clause in English.

The analysis of the relative clause to be presented here will be trans-

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1 These papers were published in *Selected Conference Papers of the Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language,* ed. Robert B. Kaplan (1966), pp. 1849.

formational following the approach presented by Noam Chomsky in *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax.* Since the writer is not familiar with Arabic, he is indebted to Latif H. Ali of the University of Illinois for the analysis of Arabic, which is that spoken in Baghdad. For the Hindi, the writer used Yamuna Kachru's *Introduction to Hindi Syntax* and his own analysis. Any mistakes in the analyses or misinterpretations of the data are the writer's errors and not those of his informants.

In line with Paul Schachter's 1966 paper we will examine the structural description: the structures which trigger the relative transformation, first, and then the structural change, that is, the ways in which the transformed structures differ from the structures specified in the structural description.

In comparing the structural descriptions of the languages in question, we find that they are remarkably similar, and in the case of English and Arabic they are identical. A noun phrase composed of a *determiner,* a *head noun* and an *embedded sentence is* specified by the structural description of each language. The determiner must be marked [+ specific] in each case and [+ definite] in Hindi. It may be marked [+/-definite] in English and Arabic. A further restriction is that a noun in the embedded sentence must be identical to the head noun. There is no restriction on which noun in the embedded sentence is identical to the head noun. It may be the subject or object of the embedded sentence or the object of a preposition. One further point about the embedded sentence is that it is derived from the determiner; that is, the determiner is rewritten as *article* in English and its equivalent in Hindi and Arabic, and *sentence:* Det —> ART + S. The embedded sentence is derived from the determiner because the relative clause determines or limits the head noun in some way. The important point here is that the structural descriptions of Hindi, Arabic, and English differ only in that the determiner must be marked [+ definite] in Hindi while it may be marked [+/-definite] in English and Arabic.

Having set the stage for the relative transformation to apply, it is time to examine the effects of the transformation on the basic structure, that is, the structural change.

It is here in the area of the structural change or the surface structure of the relative clause that the differences arise in the three languages. Three points will have to be considered here: the linking element, alternation of the identical noun, and the position of the relative clause.

The linking element is the explicit marker of the relative clause. In English it is the *wh-* of *who, whom* or *which,* which is always present and always at (or near, in the case of a prepositional phrase) the beginning of the relative clause.

The linking element in Hindi is *J,* which is realized as *jo* or *jis* in the surface structure. If the identical noun is not followed by a postposition, it is *jo;* if it is followed by a postposition, the form *jis,* the oblique case

of *jo,* appears.   The linking element in Hindi is always at the beginning of the relative clause.

The linking element in Arabic is *illi,* which may or may not be realized in the surface structure depending on whether the determiner is marked [+ definite] or [- definite]. If the determiner is [+ definite] then *illi* will be realized on the surface, but if the determiner is [- definite] then *illi* is obligatorily deleted. The linking element in Arabic is always at the beginning of the relative clause.

There is a linking element, then, in each of the languages which occurs at or near the beginning of the relative clause. This element is a more or less independent word in Hindi and Arabic but only part of a word in English.

The second point to be considered is the alternation of the identical noun, the noun in the embedded sentence. In English, the identical noun is pronominalized using a special set of forms, the relative pronouns. The pronominal replacement of the identical noun is then joined to the linking element *wh-,* producing *who, whom* or *which.* After the *wh-* and pronoun have been joined, the resulting form is fronted; that is, it is moved to a position at or near the beginning of the relative clause. This combined element of linker and pronoun may be replaced by *that* or be deleted if it is not the realization of the subject of the embedded sentence or preceded by a preposition.

The handling of the alternation of the identical noun in Hindi is somewhat more complex than in English. In Hindi, if the head noun is also the subject of the matrix sentence, then because of the position of the relative clause, the identical noun is kept, and the head noun, which in this case is the repeated noun, is deleted.

Embedded Sentence

jo	lərka	pətr	likh	rəha	hɛ
linking element	boy identical noun	letter	write	ing	is

Matrix Sentence

r

vəh	(lərka)	kəlkətte	se	aya	hɛ
definite determiner "that"	boy head noun deleted	Calcutta	from	come	has
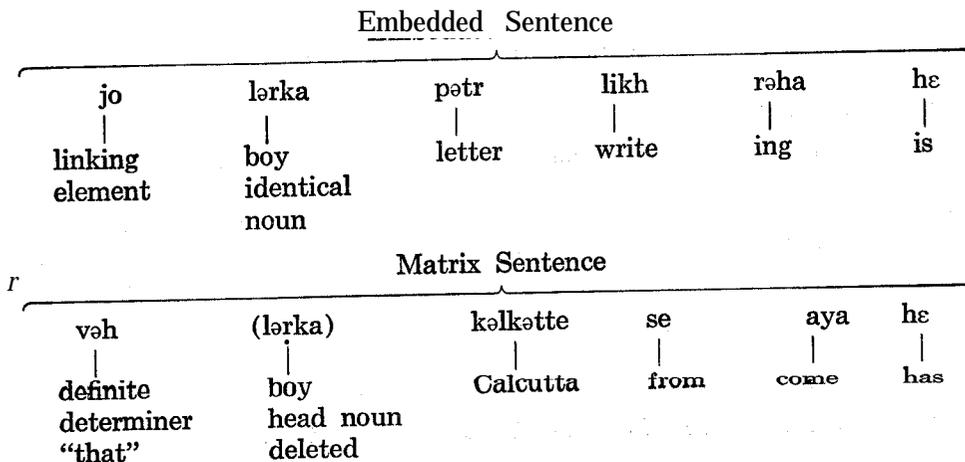
"The boy who is writing a letter has come from Calcutta."

When the head noun is not the subject of the matrix sentence, the identical noun becomes the repeated noun and is therefore deleted.

usne	ek	jhil	dekhi	jisme	kəməl	khile	the
he	one	lake	saw	linking	in lotuses	bloomed	had
		head noun		element			

"He saw a lake in which lotuses had bloomed."

and

...rog	səməjhti hu	jo	mənusy...
disease	consider	linking	man
head noun		element	

"I consider that knowledge a *disease which* turns a man into a gorilla."

In Hindi, then, the determining factor in the alternation of the identical noun depends on whether it is the repeated noun or not. The repeated noun is always deleted.

Arabic is like English in that the identical noun is always pronominalized. This pronominal form, however, is suffixed to the verb of the embedded sentence.

Indefinite determiner—linking element obligatorily deleted

ištəret	ø	dūwə	wisəfə		ili	il	tabib
I bought	indefinite determiner	medicine head noun	prescribed	it identical noun	for me	the	doctor

"I bought (some) medicine which the doctor prescribed for me."

Definite determiner—

ištərət	il	dūwa	illi	wisəfə		
I bought	the definite determiner	medicine head noun	linking element	prescribed	it identical noun	

	ili	il	tabib
	for me	the	doctor

"I bought the medicine which the doctor prescribed for me."

We have then pronominalization of the identical noun in English and Arabic, but either the deletion or retention of it in Hindi depending upon whether it is the repeated noun or not.

The last point to be considered is that of the position of the relative clause in the three languages.   English and Arabic are identical in this matter as both move the relative clause from a pre-head noun position in the deep structure to a position immediately following the head noun in the surface structure.

In Hindi the position of the relative clause depends on the function of the head noun. If the head noun is the subject of the matrix sentence then the relative clause is moved to the beginning of the sentence and the definite determiner is placed before the head noun which is then deleted since it is the repeated noun. The definite determiner in Hindi is usually *vəh* or *yəh*, which are frequently translated into English as *that (one)* or *this* (one) or the third person singular pronoun. This may account for some Hindi speakers using sentences like **The student who fails an exam he must take it over.** Here we have the head noun after the relative clause as well as before it. If the head noun in Hindi is not the subject of the matrix sentence, then the relative clause is placed at the end of the matrix sentence.

This completes the examination of the relative clause in English, Arabic and Hindi. Now what can we learn from it about the problems that may arise when a Hindi or Arabic speaker is trying to master the relative in English? The Arabic speaker should have less difficulty than the Hindi speaker. The Arabic speaker may want to drop the linking element and relative pronoun in English if the determiner is not definite and substitute an equivalent personal pronoun form for the combined form. When the determiner is definite in English, the Arabic speaker may equate *who, whom* or *which* with the Arabic linking element *illi* and add a second pronoun form to match the one in Arabic.

When there is a preposition plus *whom* or *which* in English, the Arabic speaker may say *which in* or *whom to* instead of *in which* or *to whom* since the linking element in Arabic is always at the beginning of the relative clause. Other than these problems, the writer can foresee no other areas of difficulty for the Arabic student of English.

The Hindi speaker studying the relative clause in English may have difficulty in learning where to place the relative clause. He might also, as noted above, place the head noun before the relative clause and a pronominalized form of the head noun after it. He may also encounter a problem similar to that of the Arabic speaker and say *which in* for *in which* since Hindi has a system of post positions as opposed to the prepositional system of English. The Hindi speaker may also have difficulty with the relative clause when the determiner is indefinite since this is not allowed in Hindi.

With the areas of possible difficulty defined by contrastive analysis,

the teacher can then devote his time and energy to preparing materials
specifically directed to overcoming the difficulties that may arise. It is
very unlikely that all of the areas of possible difficulty will cause problems
for the language learner, but the teacher will be able to determine the
areas of actual difficulty in a short time and concentrate on them. It
must be kept in mind, however, that other problems not predicted by
contrastive analysis may arise as the result of the student's previous ex-
posure to English. Contrastive analysis is not the panacea of the language
teacher, but it can be a useful tool.

*Linguistics, Spelling, and Pronunciation**

Sanford Schane

Recent linguistic research reveals that English orthography is much more regular than what has hitherto been thought. The rationale behind English spelling is to be found in the phonological and morphological structure of the language. What is crucial phonologically is that English distinguishes long from short vowels, as in bite, bit; rate, rat; etc. This phonological distinction interacts with the morphology, where related words, such as line, linear; sane, sanity; etc., exhibit the alternation of long and short vowels. These principles underlying English orthography can be set forth for the first time. Such a systematic treatment of spelling suggests a new approach for teaching non-English speakers how to derive correct pronunciation from the standard written forms.

It is a well known fact of life that English orthography is far from perfect, that it is full of inconsistencies, irregularities, and out-and-out oddities. What this means is that spellings are often not phonetic, that the relation between letter and sound is much less direct in English than it is in languages such as Spanish or Italian.

One of the classic examples of aberrant English spelling is OUGH, which can be variously pronounced as [aw], [ɔf], [ow], [əf], or [uw] as in the words **bough, cough, dough, rough,** and **through.** Yet even these forms are not totally irregular since **bough** does in fact begin with B, **cough** with C, **dough** with D, **rough** with R, and **through** with THR. In spite of certain irregularities most of English spelling is still phonetic. After all, our writing system is alphabetic and the very notion of an alphabet implies that there are correspondences between letters and sounds.

Because English is rich in both the irregular and the regular, it is often not clear what approach is best suited for teaching reading and spelling to English-speaking children. Some would advocate the whole word method because of the many irregularities; others would profess phonics since there are so many regularities. Both approaches are justified; and if we look at how reading has been taught, we find sometimes one method has been in vogue, while at other times the other approach is popular, or else as more recently, a combination of both enjoys favor.

Where there is no apparent correlation between letters and sounds, spelling reformists would like to introduce orthographic changes which

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would result in a closer relationship—f or example, THRU for **through** or NITE for **night.** There is no question that the original spellings of these words no longer reflect their pronunciations and for such words a phonetically based spelling would be desirable. Yet we know that only a small number of spelling changes will ever be accepted due to the conservative forces acting on the written language. But let us fantasize a bit. Assume we could pass spelling reforms. Would we then want to make all spellings phonetic? I shall argue no, that for a significant aspect of the vocabulary phonetic spellings would be a disservice to English speakers. To see this we shall examine words whose spellings are not phonetic. Yet these spellings happen to be the correct ones. They are correct because the standard orthography explicitly shows how these words are related to others which are pronounced differently. These relationships would not be apparent if phonetic spellings were substituted for the present ones.

Consider the words **sign, paradigm, phlegm,** and **diaphragm,** which contain a superfluous written G preceding the final consonant. The G appears to contribute nothing to these words except to confuse those learning how to read and to spell them. But now if we consider the words **signal, paradigmatic, phlegmatic,** and **diaphragmatic,** we see that they too contain a G, but this time the G is pronounced. Examining corresponding pairs it is evident that **sign** and **signal** are related, as are **paradigm** and **paradigmatic, phlegm** and **phlegmatic,** and **diaphragm** and **diaphragmatic.** Thus, the standard orthography, unlike the pronunciation, directly shows that the root for each pair is the same. In each case the root has a unique spelling regardless of its pronunciation. If **sign** or **paradigm** were to be spelled phonetically, it would be less obvious that **sign** is related to **signal,** or **paradigm** to **paradigmatic.** The advantage, then, of the present spelling system is that priority is given to the etymological relationships of words, relationships which speakers need to recognize and which are significant within the language. That the G in **sign** or **paradigm** is not pronounced is easily explained. In the spoken language G followed by a consonant is an inadmissible cluster unless a vowel follows. Hence, the G can be pronounced in **signal, paradigmatic,** etc. However, if there is no vowel after the G and following consonant, then G will not be pronounced, simply because [sign] or [pærədigm] are not possible English pronunciations. In addition to the G not being pronounced the vowel will be made long, if it is I, as in **sign** and **paradigm.** Knowing this pronunciation rule for deleting G and lengthening certain vowels will enable one to pronounce correctly any of these words.

Let us turn to a second example. There is a well known spelling rule pertaining to C and G. According to this rule C and G are generally soft—pronunced as [s] and [j] before E, I, or Y, but they are hard—pronunced as [k] and [g] elsewhere. This rule interacts in an interest

ing way with families of related words. Consider the forms **electric, electrical, electricity** and **analogue, analogous, analogy.** The stem final C is pronounced as [k] in **electric** and **electrical,** but as [s] in **electricity.** Similarly, the stem final G is pronounced as [g] in **analogue** and **analogous,** but as [j] in **analogy.** In both cases the same letter has different pronunciations; yet the orthography treats the related words in the same way.

Let us consider some examples involving vowels. English is phonetically rich in vowels, containing no less than fifteen different type vowel sounds: [iy] as in **beet,** [i] as in **bit,** [ey] as in **bait,** [e] as in **bet,** [æ] as in **bat,** [uw] as in **boot,** [u] as in **book,** [ow] as in **boat,** [o] as in **bought,** [a] as in **pot,** [a] as in **but,** [yuw] as in **cute,** [ay] as in **bite,** [aw] as in **bout,** and [oy] as in **boy.** Phoneticians classify these into long vowels, short vowels, and diphthongs. Since the alphabet contains only five vowel letters, various devices are employed for representing all these different vowel sounds. One orthographic device used with monosyllabic words is the final silent E for indicating that the preceding vowel is long, so that there are minimal spelling pairs such as **cane, can; mete, met; bite, bit; rote, rot; cute, cut.** Looking at these long and short pairs, we see that the orthography relates [ey] and [a], [iy] and [e,] [ay] and [i], [ow] and [a], and [yuw] and [o]. These pairings are in fact the correct ones for English. This can be seen with pairs of related words: sane, sanity; grateful, gratitude; serene, serenity; meter, metric; derive, derivative; line, linear; phone, phonics; cone, conical. Although the vowel sounds have different pronunciations in each pair, the members of each pair are obviously related. If they were not spelled with the same vowel letter, the orthography would no longer show this etymological relationship. Even though the orthography is not phonetic, the correct pronunciations still can be deduced since there are rules for predicting when the vowel will be pronounced long and when it will be pronounced short. It will be pronounced long, for example, whenever the next syllable contains a silent E, whereas vowels are generally short in the third syllable from the end of the word or before the suffix IC.

As a final example of the correctness of English spelling in spite of pronunciation differences, there is the problem of reduced vowels. Vowels which are not stressed are often pronounced weak—that is, as [ə]. Consider the word **photography.** In normal pronunciation the vowels of the first and third syllables are both pronounced [a]. Yet they are spelled with different vowel letters—O for the first, and A for the third. However, if we look at the related word **photograph** the first and third syllables no longer contain reduced vowels but instead full vowels, [ow] and [a], and these vowel sounds are spelled with their appropriate vowel letters, O and A. Again there can be no question that **photograph** and **photography** are related in spite of differing pronunciations and again

the spelling system clearly shows this. Or consider the pair **Canada, Canadian.** In **Canada** the first syllable, which bears the main stress, has the vowel sound [æ], and the second syllable the reduced vowel [ə] ; on the other hand, in **Canadian** the first vowel is the reduced one and the second syllable, because it is stressed, has the full vowel [ey]. The word **Canada** shows that the reduced first vowel in **Canadian** must be spelled with A, whereas the word **Canadian** shows that the second reduced vowel in **Canada** must also be spelled with A.

A final example of reduced vowels involves the endings ANT and ENT, which invariably cause spelling problems. Consider the words **continent** and **consonant,** both of whose final syllables are pronounced [ant]. Yet the first word is spelled with ENT and the second with ANT. That these are the appropriate spellings can be determined from the. related words **continental** and **consonantal,** where the full vowel emerges since it bears the main stress. The lesson to be drawn from these examples is that to determine the spelling of reduced vowels one should look for related words where the vowels are full.

We have cited various examples where in related words the same spelling has different pronunciations. What are the consequences of these observations for the teaching of reading and spelling? It should be evident that an important aspect of English orthography so far has been neglected in language teaching. Teachers have concentrated on irregular spellings and on phonics. What has not been taught systematically are the families of related words, nor has there been work with the rules for deriving different pronunciations from the same spelling. These gaps are not the fault of those teaching reading and spelling. These insights involving related words have only recently been uncovered by linguists. Much of the work pertaining to English is due to Noam Chomsky and Morris Halle and can be found in their book *The Sound Pattern of English* (Harper and Row). As this book was published in 1968 it is not surprising that their findings are virtually unknown outside of professional linguistic circles. On the basis of their research, Chomsky and Halle have concluded that, by and large, the present English orthography is quite good for large segments of the vocabulary. My own work in French has revealed that the same thing is true for that language. Much of French spelling, like English, has traditionally been claimed to be nonphonetic. In *French Phonology and Morphology* (M.I.T. Press, 1968), I have tried to show the appropriateness of the standard French orthography.

I think that these new insights about English have exciting consequences for teaching reading and spelling to English-speaking children. I also believe that there are useful applications for teaching English as a second language to adults. First of all, it should be noted that these families of related words constitute the learned vocabulary of English— that is, primarily the Latin and Greek strata rather than the Anglo-

Saxon—precisely the type of vocabulary which educated adults encounter in their reading and use in their speaking. The relationships which I have shown and the rules which predict the pronunciation from the spelling work beautifully for the technical vocabulary of different disciplines since such terms are so often drawn from the Greek and Latin.

One who learns English as a second language often intends to use it in his field of specialization. In the classroom he has probably been exposed to the ordinary, the less technical, language. He has learned the irregular spellings and he has learned the pronunciation of common words. However, in reading outside the classroom he may encounter a whole new vocabulary. He may have no difficulty in recognizing the new words since, if they are technical or learned items, there are likely to be cognates in his own language, particularly if he speaks a European one. Yet he may be at a loss knowing how to pronounce these words since in all likelihood he may never have heard an English speaker say any of them. But if he has been taught the principles underlying English orthography—rules for predicting where the stress fails, the alternations between long and short vowels, between full and reduced vowels, what the consonant alternations are—he will be able to use words in his spoken English which he may never have heard previously.

The current research on English is new and exciting. Unfortunately, the publications which exist on the subject are technical treatises, available only to those with a background in linguistics. What we now need is to make this information available to language specialists, and, happily, they could cleverly apply the principles underlying English orthography to the practical language-learning situation.

A Study Skills Course for Foreign College Students*

Richard Yorkey

This paper discusses attitudes which influence study habits and the specific skills needed for successful study. A description of a class designed to develop study skills is given including such topics as the use of a dictionary, outlining, textbook reading, note-taking, and the library. Appendices provide sample exercises of note-taking and a micro-lecture for the laboratory with electronic note-taking cues.

An increasing number of foreign students are coming to the United States each year to study at the undergraduate and graduate level. Also, an increasing number of countries are using English as a language of instruction in at least some courses, especially sciences and professional subjects. Whatever the original purpose of teaching English as a foreign language may have been, the present purpose of an increasing number of students is to use English as the medium of their academic studies. It is not surprising that this purpose is seldom reflected in the English syllabus of secondary schools and colleges overseas; after all, only a small minority actually will ever use English for study purposes. It is surprising, however, that this specialized use of English is so often neglected in intensive English courses and orientation programs in this country; after all, each of these students needs to use English as the only language of his future education. Clearly, there is a need to add a fifth skill to the traditional four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing: that of studying.

When a foreign student comes to this country for higher education, he faces two interrelated, equally serious study problems. The first involves the attitudes which influence his study habits, the second involves the skills he will need for successful studying.

Study Habits

The educational programs from which many foreign students come can be generally, though with obvious oversimplification, characterized as administratively authoritarian, academically traditional, and examination-oriented. The curricula, textbooks, and course syllabi are more or less rigorously prescribed. Those who continue into college are the survivors of a filtering process that eliminates students at two or three, and in some cases four, points during the educational ladder. Although it is a survival-of-the-fittest system, the fittest are not necessarily those who have learned to think, or to analyze, relate, evaluate, or interpret information for themselves. They have survived by the force of rate memory, by agreeing with the teachers, and by regurgitating facts on government exams. This does

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not at all mean that they are unintelligent or incapable students. They represent the top 5 or 10 per cent of their age group. But it does mean that they will face serious problems of adjustment to the educational aims and practices in this country.

Study Skills

By study skills, I refer to such activities as outlining, note-making, text-book reading, and use of a dictionary and library. It is possible, of course, that some of these skills can be, and should be, taught in conjunction with the regular language skills. Outlining, for example, is a useful if artificial approach to composition; the organization of writing is related to comprehension in reading; and surely a foreign student should regularly use a dictionary. On the other hand, it is an unhappy truth that very few foreign teachers of English teach any of these skills at any level of instruction.

For the purpose of teaching study skills in English, we must accept the fact that the English syllabus in foreign countries is woefully artificial. Students have little chance to speak or to write English, or to hear it spoken by a native speaker. Reading is the most often emphasized of the four skills. Rather than the rhetorical forms of non-fiction, however, students generally read English novels, first in simplified form, then in abridgements. The ultimate goal seems to be a survey of Literature from Beowulf to Virginia Woolf, including a superficial line-by-line "read-trans-late-explain" appreciation of a Shakespeare play.

Furthermore, whether in their native language or in English, students have little opportunity in class to discuss or debate. They are seldom asked to assemble and interpret information from library sources. What few papers they write are often poorly selected, naively paraphrased ideas from books, usually unacknowledged. If notes of lectures are required, the professor himself prepares and distributes them.

In other words, in the majority of cases, foreign students in this country are facing for the first time the need for the study skills that most American students are introduced to in their secondary classes.

The Study Skills Course

The most practical way to handle study skills is to teach them in the same way as other language skills, directly and separately in a special class. There are at least two reasons why this is preferred to including them in the syllabus of other English classes, for example, reading or writing. In the first place, one daily period assigned especially to study skills convinces the student that the course is academically respectable, and that learning how to study is as important as learning how to speak, read, or write. In the second place, it assures that the skills will be taught. One reason why so few students know how to make maximum use of a dictionary

is that each of his teachers has assumed that some other teacher has taught him.

Class size can be larger than pronunciation or oral drill classes, but 25 is about maximum for effective teaching. Although the class requires time for practice, there should also be opportunity for discussion. By-products of teaching study skills are the development of a practical, working vocabulary and the give-and-take of classroom conversations. Coming as most of them do from teacher-dominated classes, foreign students need to develop a readiness to ask questions and a willingness to participate in discussions.

The syllabus might include several introductory periods on cultural orientation. The first several periods of the study skills class can be a warm-up, acquainting students with the educational program and class-room routine, and also accustoming them to spoken English.

The main thrust of the course, however, should be the instruction and practice of study skills. Let me emphasize *practice.* Like other language skills, study skills cannot be learned by lecturing or by talking about them. For each skill, the methods and materials must be clearly defined: the model, examples, practice, correction, and additional practice. Teaching of this kind can be, but need not be, dull and uninspiring. The teacher must be stimulating and the material must be made meaningful and not mere busy work.

Here is a brief description of what a study skills class might include, with suggestions for some methods and materials that are especially relevant to the needs of foreign students.

The Use of a Dictionary

Because the study skills class is an excellent place to make vocabulary learning relevant, the use of a dictionary should probably be taught first. Three warnings are appropriate to students. (1) In college, they should no longer need simplified or special dictionaries for foreign students (for example, West's New *Method Dictionary* or Hornby's *Advanced Learner's Dictionary).* (2) They should not use native-language-English dictionaries. These are not only inadequate for their study purposes, but they wrongly give the impression that there is a one-for-one word correspondence between English and their own language. (3) They should not be satisfied with out-of-date, paperback reprints of dictionaries.

We are so accustomed to requiring students to have the same textbook that it may seem obvious that they should all have the same dictionary for instruction and exercises. I would argue, however, that there are two disadvantages to insisting upon one particular dictionary, The practical reason is that many students come with a perfectly adequate standard desk dictionary; they shouldn't be required to buy another. The pedagogical reason is that, although instruction is made easier, the class is made far less interesting and realistic.   Some of the most valuable insights into

language in general, and English in particular, result from the differences that dictionaries reflect.*

Instructional material needs to be systematically presented, with graded exercises that focus directly on each aspect of the skill. Study of this kind can be made interesting by tiding words derived from the students' native languages, by using their future fields of study, the campus news-paper or current events as a source of vocabulary, by discussing curious etymologies, and by relating the grammatical usage reported in a dictionary to the actual practice of the grammar classes.

Outlining

The skill of outlining may or may not be new to students. In either case, instruction should probably not be lengthy or detailed.

An outline can be used both as a synthesis and an analysis of organiza-tion. Insofar as an outline contributes to the planning and writing of compositions, it should be taught in a writing class.   (Teaching this purpose of outlining, incidentally, is more difficult because of the ways in which the native culture and language usually influence the organiza-tional logic of the student's writing.)

In the study skills class, the emphasis should be on analysis. In this sense, outlining is useful for uncovering the organization of written ma-terial, recognizing paragraph patterns in reading, marking the main ideas and supporting details in a textbook, and making notes. What is important then is primarily the form of an outline. This can be introduced briefly, with many examples, and without much worry about the formal niceties and whether every A has a B. Focus should be on the classification and interrelationships of ideas.

Textbook Reading

Reading is a complicated and extremely serious problem, but little research or experimentation has been reported in the area of reading English as a foreign language. In any case, the study skills class is not the proper place to teach this general skill. The aim of this class should be to teach the specialized techniques of reading that students will need for successful college work.

The first special reading skill is that of skimming. A college student needs to skim for two purposes: either to get an overall impression of some material (e.g., to decide if a particular article is relevant to his research), or to locate specific information (e.g., to find a name in a directory or a reference in an index). At the beginning, instructional material for this purpose should use simple structures and a controlled

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* Editor's note: For a discussion of various desk dictionaries, see the reviews in *TESOL. Quarterly* by Mr. Yorkey (September, 1969) and Barbara Matthies (Decem-ber, 1969).

vocabulary so that the only problem is one of moving the eyes rapidly down the page of familiar language. Students take some time to develop this skill. They are so used to close, careful reading and stopping at every new word that psychologically they are unprepared to overlook whole sentences and paragraphs. Skimming also introduces students to the idea of varying their reading speed with the difficulty of the material and their purpose of reading it.

The second special skill is that of study-type reading. For this purpose, the old SQ3R technique is useful.[1] If students would take time to survey their textbook assignments first, and use the boldface headings and other typographical signals, they could read more purposely. After each section, they should recapitulate the main points, then go on to the next section, steadily accumulating information rather than reading only sentences strung one after the other.

This is the third reading skill: to recognize paragraph patterns and to identify the main ideas and supporting details. As tired as teachers may be of this traditional approach to rhetoric, it is surprisingly new to most foreign students. The logic of organization and the fact that paragraphs have structure and movement seems entirely novel. At the beginning, again the practice materials must eliminate all problems but that which is being taught. It is helpful to provide paragraphs of exposition with the main ideas in capital letters, the supporting details in italics. As the student becomes familiar with what kind of language cues he is looking for, the typographical cues can be diminished.

The next specific skill is then underlining the main ideas and otherwise marking the book. There are two good reasons for teaching students how to mark a book: (1) it demands an active, responsive reading, and (2) the important points stand out during review.

A final special skill is the ability to read and interpret the many aids that a textbook provides: the table of contents and index, graphs, charts, diagrams, pictures and tables. This kind of instruction probably does not differ from that for native speakers of English, and it is equally necessary.

Note-Making

The skills of outlining and of textbook marking contribute to the skill of making lecture notes.   Let me first explain the distinction between making notes and taking notes. To *take* notes suggests the passive recording of information in much the way a secretary takes dictation verbatim. A student cannot be passive while writing notes. To *make* notes suggests an active process, one that involves listening comprehension and the identifica-

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[1] First recommended by Francis P. Robinson in *Effective Study* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946). S means to survey, then Question, Read, Recite, and Review.

tion of main and subordinate ideas. This is a purposeful activity that requires full attention and careful discrimination.

There are two separate problems that foreign students face when making notes: (1) how to write rapidly and accurately, and (2) what to write down and what not to. Both of these problems need instructional materials that are carefully sequenced and graded. My personal preference is to use a combined workbook-language lab approach.

To teach students how to write rapidly and accurately is less a problem of handwriting than of teaching abbreviations and selective writing. Foreign students are familiar with only a few of the common abbreviations in English; e.g., &, $, %. They need to know about symbols that can be used for *therefore, since* or *because, greater* or *less than, century, similar to,* and so on. Furthermore, they need practice in developing a personal, practical shorthand for the recurring words and ideas in their special fields: N = Napoleon, Ag = agronomy, la = language, LSD = Law of Supply and Demand.

Once these simple techniques have been presented, students are ready to make notes of single-sentence statements in isolation. For example, in the lab they will hear a typical introductory statement from a lecture: "This morning I want to analyse recent political problems of European unity by starting with the importance of the European Economic Community." A ten-second pause allows time for students to make a note, something like this: I. Importance of EEC. After a series of practice statements, they check their notes with the sample notes in the back of their workbook.

The next series introduces statements in order. For example, students hear "The first reason for so many automobile accidents can be blamed on mechanical failures." A sshort pause allows them time to write: 1. Mechanical failures. Then they hear "In the second place, far too many accidents are caused by inadequate driving skills." They write: 2. Inadequate driving skills. Then they hear "Finally, many automobile accidents are caused by faulty highway construction." They write: 3. Faulty highway construction.

Exercises of this kind not only provide practice in abbreviations and ellipsis, they also accustom the students to listening for cues that signal the relative importance and sequence of ideas. There are many verbal cues that can be classified, presented visually, and practiced aurally. (See Appendix A for a representative selection.)

The next step is to provide practice in listening and looking for delivery cues. Pause, pace, volume, and gestures are used by a good lecturer to signal different degrees of emphasis and importance. Although a student will eventually face the problem of each lecturer's individual characteristics, to start with he needs clearly defined practice that focuses on each cue separately.

Once a student has been trained to respond to lecture cues, to reduce

statements to essential words, and to use abbreviations and special symbols, he is ready to practice with language lab micro-lectures. These are tightly controlled, carefully developed paragraphs in which the organization is clearly signaled both grammatically and electronically.

The student first hears single-paragraph examples with the major topic signaled by an electronic beep. For example: "(BEEP) To start with, let's look at some of the things we know about language." He responds to beeps by writing a Roman numeral and making a short note of the topic.

The next series of exercises presents spoken paragraphs with the main idea signaled by a buzz. For example: "(BUZZ) First, we know that all human beings have language of some sort." The student responds to buzzes by writing a capital letter and making a note of the main idea.

He then practices hearing paragraphs in which the supporting detail is signaled by a bell. For example: "(BELL) A corollary of this fact is that languages are not really comparable." He responds to bells by writing an Arabic numeral and making a note of the statement.

The final series of exercises presents material in which examples are signaled by two short rings of a bell. Thus: "(BELL-BELL) For example, which is the better language, French or Navajo. French is an excellent language for expressing French culture, but it would be a poor language for expressing the culture of a Navajo lndian. The best language for his purpose would be Navajo." The student responds to two bell rings by writing a lower case letter and making a note of the example.

The culminating series of taped exercises presents the student with a micro-lecture, of perhaps five or ten minutes duration, complete with beeps, buzzes, and bells. As practice continues, the electronic cues are gradually diminished until the student responds to only the verbal cues, completely on his own.

The Library

Because few students overseas have had the opportunity to use a library of the size and complexity of university libraries here, this should be the final subject of the study skills class. There are three major areas in which students generally need instruction: the card catalog, the reference room, and the periodicals room. An orientation visit to the library is necessary but certainly not sufficient. In order to learn about the range of information that is available and the intricacies of locating it, students need several periods of class instruction and a great deal of actual experience in the library itself.

One way to stimulate interest may be to ask students to locate and recommend particular references to their country in English. It might be the description of a tea ceremony, a marriage feast, a religious celebration, or a discussion about their language or recent political events. Some students might use the Readers Guide or indexes to find recent articles about their fields of study. Others might team up to prepare a bibliography of

information about the nationalities or languages represented in the class. There are numerous ways to create learning situations in which students discover the vast resources of a library at the same time that they practice the skills of locating and evaluating them.

A regularly scheduled class, devoted entirely to the instruction and practice of study skills, can be made practical, relevant and stimulating. When foreign students realize that their future academic success depends upon their ability to use English effectively as a language of instruction, and once they recognize the need to overcome their handicap, they are generally ready and willing. It is our responsibility to make them able.

Appendix A

NOTE-MAKING CUES

INTRODUCTION OF AN IDEA

Numerical Statements

		two	reasons	
	are	three	causes	
There		four	results	
			consequences	
	were	several		looking at . . .
			ways of	interpreting . ..
		many		deciding . .

Rhetorical Questions

Now, why should the Greeks have considered the city-state in this way?
How does the copper react when a catalyst is added to the solution?

Introductory Statements

		explain	
Let me first	describe	the background . . .
	talk about	

| The | topic subject idea story fact formula | which I intend to | discuss explain talk about describe recount define | is | important valuable significant useful interesting necessary | because . . . |

DEVELOPMENT OF AN IDEA

	first		reason	
In the	second place . . .	Another	cause	is
	third	An additional	explanation	was · · ·
			development	

CONTRAST OF SEVERAL IDEAS

On the one hand . . . On the other(hand) . . .
But . . .   However . . .   Although . . .

RESULTS OF IDEAS

therefore . . .   consequently . . .

As a result/consequence of . . . If/Since/Because | this | is/was/were | so, | (then) . . .

TRANSITION OF IDEAS

Now let us | think about / look at / consider for a moment . . . " / turn our attention to

If | what I have said / this / these | facts / ideas | is / are | true, / possible, / what happened, / justified, | (then) . . .

CHRONOLOGY OF IDEAS

First . . .	Following . . .	Heretofore . . .
In the beginning . . .	The former . . .	Subsequently . . .
Then . . .	The latter . . .	Finally . . .
The next . . .	Prior to . . .	At last...
Another . . .	Before . . .	ultimately . . .
Again . . .	Hitherto . . .	

EMPHASIS OF IDEAS

This | is/was | important because . . .

The | important / obvious / significant | results | are / were . . . / would be

Let me repeat . . .

I'll say | this / that | again . . .

SUMMARY OF IDEAS

In summary . . .	As a summary . . .
To sum up...	
In conclusion . . .	As a conclusion . . .
Briefly then . . .	
For all these reasons . . .	As we have seen . . .
Let me review quickly . . .	As I have shown...

Appendix B

MICRO-LECTURE FOR THE LABORATORY
WITH ELECTRONIC NOTE-MAKING CUES*

(BEEP) = Major topic: I, II, III . . .
(BUZZ) = Main idea: A, B, C . . .
(BELL) = Supporting detail: 1, 2, 3. . .
(BELL-BELL) = Examples: a, b, c . . .

Before we look at the historical development of the English language, it may be useful to discuss language in general, and especially to consider some of the facts that we do and do not know about language.

(BEEP) To start with, let's look at some of the things we do know about language. (BUZZ) First, we know that all human beings have language of some sort. There is no race of men anywhere on earth so backward that it has no language, no set of speech sounds by which the people communicate with one another.

(BUZZ) Second, there is no such thing as a primitive language. There are many people whose cultures are undeveloped, but the languages they speak are not primitive. (BELL) For example, many people have assumed that the Indians communicated with a very primitive system of noises: "ugh," "how:' and miscellaneous grunts. This is nonsense. (BELL) There are hundreds of American Indian languages, and all of them turn out to be very complicated, very elaborate, and very old.

(BUZZ) A third thing that we know about language is that all languages are perfectly adequate. That is, each one is a perfect means of expressing the culture of the people who speak the language. (BELL) A corollary of this is that languages are not really comparable. (BELL-BELL) For example, which is the better language, French or Navajo? French is an excellent language for expressing French culture, but it would be a poor language for expressing the culture of a Navajo Indian. The best language for his purpose is Navajo.

(BUZZ) Finally, we know that languages change. It is natural and normal for language to change; the only languages which do not change are the dead ones.

(BEEP) Now let us turn our attention to some of the things that we still do not know about language. Several questions are unanswerable and may always remain so.

(BUZZ) First, we do not know how language began. Men have wondered for a long time, and many theories have been proposed. But the problem is that there is no evidence through which we can study the origin of language. We can guess all we like, but we shall never know for sure.

(BUZZ) Neither shall we ever know when it originated. Writing began about six thousand years ago, but all we know about the beginning of language is that it must have been long before that. Fifty thousand, eighty thousand, a hundred and fifty thousand-pick any number you like.

(BUZZ) Finally, we do not know where language developed. The exact spot isn't of much importance. It wouldn't matter much now whether the great event took place on the steppes of Asia or on the banks of the Congo. (BELL) But there is one question which would be interesting to know. It would be interesting to know whether language began in one place and then spread over the earth or whether it was developed independently in several places. (BELL-

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* Content adapted from Paul Roberts, *Understanding English (New* York: Harpers and Brothers, 1958), pp. 20-22.

BELL) If language developed among one group of men and spread from them to all others, then it would be true that all the present languages of the world are related; they would have a common ancestor.

In summary then, what we don't know about language is how, when, and where it began. Moreover, we will probably never know.

HO HO HO: Cartoons in the Language Class

Jib Fowles

This paper explores the use of cartoons in the classroom as a means of introducing and teaching American culture. Discussion of a cartoon can be approached by the use of these questions: (1) What is the factual situation? (2) What is the incongruity that could make an American laugh? (3) What is the cultural anxiety which laughter helps to reduce? Examples are given of the presentation of cartoons in the regular classroom.

There is nothing novel about the proposition that cultural training has an important role in language teaching. A quarter of a century ago Charles C. Fries wrote, "Every language is inextricably bound up with the whole life experience of the native users of that language. . . . The so-called 'knowledge of the life of the people' must not be just an adjunct of a practical language course-something alien and apart from its main purpose, and therefore casual and haphazard."[1] These thoughts are widely saluted, yet in point of fact most attempts at facilitating cultural adaption are "casual and haphazard" and to little avail.

In class we often present a picture of the American household which resembles that of a family in a TV situation comedy. Should the students take us and their textbooks at face value, the members of an American family are keen, respectful, willing, and perhaps a bit prissy. If we work with dialogues, the postman is the Platonic image of public servant, the waiter a paragon of servility. Feeling that all this is not really being swallowed, we recommend newspapers. The straight news results in the furious turning of dictionary pages, while human interest stories lead to a lot of head scratching. The teacher may be pleased that he is bringing culture into the classroom, but for the student the essentials of American life are still beyond his grasp.

In order to work, a program for increasing foreign students' understanding of American culture cannot lack realism (or it will insure disbelief) and cannot be unsystematized (or it will deny incremental learning and abet floundering). The unqualified thrusting of newspapers at the student may well be self-defeating. As a foreigner, he most likely does not have the experience to sort out what is significant from what is not, what is commonplace from what is a one-shot deal, what exists in a continuum from what exists in a vacuum. His reading is done from the vantage point of his own culture, and the result may be not enlightenment but the stiffening of biases. An unrealistic view of American life can also be of

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[1] Charles C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language,* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945), p. 57.

little value. The student cannot help knowing that the Americans outside the classroom are nothing like the figurines put forth in his textbooks and dialogues. If those portrayals were true, then what about the high-voltage salesman, the brusque adviser, the smelly long-haired classmate, or the stumblebum he avoids on the way back to his room? Rather than being bland and static, American life is patently rich in dynamics. An over-whelming main course of newsprint and a dessert of syrup does not lead to the fullness of cultural understanding. What then?

The humor of a culture is one of its most idiosyncratic attributes; it can serve to distinguish that culture from any other. Arising as it does from the very psyche of a people, it can also reveal much about their make-up. Understanding a culture's humor is tantamount to understanding the culture itself. But the complexity of humor is such that it cannot be 'taught' in the sense of instructing someone how to be a wit in English. Humor can only be created with any regularity by those who are intimate with all the linguistic and psychological patterns of a culture. What can be taught, however, is how to analyze humor so as to extract a knowledge of its makers. This goal might be exemplified by the foreign student who says, "I don't think this is funny, but the reason Americans do is that . . . ." and who then goes on to say what it is about the specimen at hand that makes Americans laugh.

One mode of humor that is particularly well suited to the classroom is cartoons—not political cartoons or cartoon strips or animated films, but the one panel drawings that appear in *Look, The New Yorker, Playboy,* and other magazines. They can be had fairly cheaply, for the price of a magazine. They can be easily mounted on cardboard for class use. Not being ephemeral like a joke or a sight gag, they can be studied closely. They usually have a line of dialogue which can be learned, and a picture which goes some little way towards showing the conditions under which the language is used. And like all humor, they are innately intriguing, or at least diverting. We Americans are fortunate in having cartoonists of such talent—even genius—and cartoon editors of such discrimination that most cartoons are genuinely funny. Systematic study of cartoons which do their intended job can unearth much about the culture that relishes them.

There are three basic questions which can give shape to the discussion of a cartoon in the classroom: (1) What is the factual situation? (2) What is the incongruity that would make an American laugh? (3) What is the cultural anxiety treated here which laughter helps to reduce?

What is the factual situation?

Here we are concerned not with humor but with the facts. The dialogue may need rephrasing or grammatical analysis. The speaker and the listener must be found. Students should be led to an understanding of the setting. A toll booth, a lumber camp, a commuter train may demand explanation.

Understanding might be furthered if a student who knows were to explain this to the others, rather than the teacher giving a pronouncement from on high.

What is the incongruity that would make an American laugh?

Broadly speaking, humor depends on something unexpected. It is the shock of seeing something you would not normally expect to see that brings on laughter. The incongruity may appear in the dialogue line, or in the picture, or from the juxtaposition of the two. Looking for the incongruity leads to statements about what indeed would be expected, what would be the norm in American culture. The members of most cultures would recognize the incongruity in a cartoon which shows a strange man in the husband's bed, but would a foreign student readily see the incongruity of a grandmotherly face appearing behind the apple-pie slot of what is obviously (to us) an Automat, or the incongruity of a clearly recognizable (to us) psychiatrist using an electric chair instead of a couch?

**What is the cultural anxiety lurking behind this cartoon
which is mitigated by laughter?**

This last question, sometimes so difficult to answer, is often so productive that it leads to truly significant insights into the constitution of the American personality. In learning what Americans worry about, what the dilemmas and stresses of American life are, the foreign student is beginning to see why Americans act as they do.

By 'cultural anxiety' is meant a particular uneasiness which is widespread among Americans, or at least among the readers of the magazine that the cartoon appeared in. The relationship between cultural anxieties and cartoons derives from the assumption that a major function of laughter is to relieve tension. The sequence supposed here is this: a reader comes to a magazine with a set of tensions, some of which he shares with other members of his culture; he sees a cartoon which is concerned with one of these prevailing anxieties; he laughs as the skillfully presented incongruity nips at the heels of this anxiety; he feels better because the anxiety has been somewhat chastened. The problem, then, is to uncover and label the anxiety which the cartoon mollifies.

There is no easy way to do this. It takes a while for a class to comprehend what sort of information this question is really designed to elicit, and the first few cartoons analyzed go painfully slowly at this point. But in time the list on the blackboard of 'Anxieties in American Culture' begins to grow rapidly.

We learn, for instance, that *Playboy* readers are still profoundly troubled about sexual behavior. (This often comes as a revelation to foreign students, who assume that Americans' only problems about sex have to do with a surfeit of it.) We learn that the readers of *The New Yorker* are

worried about social unrest. One such cartoon had the director of a zoo arriving at work to discover that the animals were having a sit-in in his office. The number of cartoons about desert isles indicates that loneliness is a concern in American life. Mental health is usually the cultural anxiety behind cartoons which feature psychiatrists. Rube Goldberg creations and humanoid computers would seem to reveal our uneasiness about technology. Other cartoons point up the essential dilemma in American behavior between altruism and competitiveness-for example, a sweet old lady sitting peaceably below a needlepoint sign that reads, 'Watch Out for Number One'.

A word of warning: not every cartoon reveals a cultural anxiety. Some few, especially from *The New Yorker,* are sophisticatedly witty rather than incisively humorous. The way to identify this rarefied brand of humor is to note your own initial reaction. If you laugh, a cultural anxiety is present. If you can raise nothing more than a Mona Lisa smile, then the cartoon is probably only wry or urbanely clever, and there may not be a discoverable cultural anxiety.

As for those cartoons that result in teacher and class drawing a blank, the best solution is to forget them and race on to the next. In a way it is beneficial for students to realize that they are not alone, that all Americans do not 'get' all cartoons.

The format outlined above is designed for fairly advanced classes. It can be easily tailored for others. If the third question is too taxing, its appearance can be restricted; although, since it is the real substance of the exercise, this should be done reluctantly.

One possible procedure for using the format begins with the teacher presenting cartoons to the class, one or two the first day, three or four the second. Then the students are sent forth to find two cartoons of their own which they will present to the class in turn. They are told to bring in one cartoon which they think they understand and another which they do not. They present both according to the format, but for the second they elicit the help of their classmates. It is probably best if the cartoons to be presented at one class meeting (six or eight; three or four students' worth) are first looked over by everyone during a break, as it is sometimes hard to make out a small cartoon from a seat in the back row. The six or eight cartoons could be spread out on the teacher's desk and the class invited up for a preview.

Or, *The Best Cartoons of 19—* could be used as a textbook. Each class meeting might end with the treatment of several cartoons which the teacher has selected.

The first experiments I saw with cartoons in a language class were by Virginia French Allen at Teachers College. One cartoon she used showed a man in robes holding an ice cream cone behind his back as he opened the door of his well-panelled room and said in response to the knock of the uniformed man standing outside, "Just a minute." A Chinese student seemed to get more pleasure from the cartoon than any of the Americans

or foreigners present. He laughed uproariously. When asked to explain the cartoon to the rest of us, the student (whose English was barely comprehensible) said that the man in robes was a "big man;' the other a servant, and that the "big man" was about to bean the servant with that thing, whatever it was, that he was holding behind his back. Another paroxysm of laughter. The expression on the student's face when he finally discovered that no one else agreed with him was one of shock. It had all been so clear. Perhaps at that moment his cultural education began.

In any case, going back to that cartoon-the judge, the ice cream cone, the bailiff. What was the factual setting? Who was speaking to whom? Who's the man in robes? A hippie? Who's the man in uniform? A truant officer? What kind of room is that? ("It's called 'the judge's chambers'.") What does 'Just a minute' mean? Imply? When would an American use that expression? Which Americans? Any and all, or just a certain group?

What is there about this cartoon that is unexpected? Would it be incongruous in other cultures too? When you want some ice cream in an edible container, what do you ask for?

And what, oh what, is the doggone cultural anxiety?

The Display Board in Language Teaching

Alun L. W. Rees

The display board is a serviceable though often neglected adjunct to the language lesson. It can extend classwork by engaging the students' interest in a variety of themes connected with the target language, as well as providing the means for presenting the language as a genuine form of communication. Among more incidental benefits may be mentioned training in paying heed to noticeboards, supplying a handy focus for brief spells of conversation practice, and contributing to a community spirit. Best use is made of the display board if it is treated as a regular magazine with the teacher acting as editor and the learners being encouraged to enter their own contributions, particularly those of an original or personal nature whose public display increases student motivation. A number of suggestions are offered for appropriate contributions, together with sources to which the weaker student may be directed for guidance.

In her article "Providing for ESL Pupils During the Total School Day" *(TESOL Quarterly,* Vol. III, 2, June 1969), Professor Klebaner indirectly refers to the use of the bulletin board as one of the supplements to the integration of second language learners in classes of native speakers. We here wish to elaborate on this by drawing attention to its often-neglected role with EFL learners in their native environment. Indeed, the 'display board,' the term we prefer to the more restricted 'bulletin board,' is such a serviceable adjunct to the language lesson that one might claim with some justification that no institution where English is taught as a foreign language should be without one.

The board itself need not be a sophisticated piece of equipment. Herein lies one of its strengths. It may take the form of a plain sheet of thick cardboard affixed to the wall at a convenient height in a corridor or some well-lit area of easy access to students. At the other end of the scale is the illuminated, cork-coated, flannel-covered background, guarded from direct sunlight to prevent fading or discoloring of the material on display, and proudly announcing its wares under the neatly printed heading, 'ENGLISH DISPLAY BOARD.' This rather superior model will be encased in glass and wood to protect it from the elements, and kept under lock and key to frustrate compulsive scribblers or drawing-pin pilferers.*

Even poor relations of the display board family can nevertheless perform the same beneficial service as the more refined members. They all supple-

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* British *drawing-pin=* American *thumbtack—* Editor.

ment classwork by entertaining the learner and thereby engaging his interest in a variety of themes connected with the target language. They also provide a means of presenting the language being learnt as a source of genuine communication—a process that we cannot consistently guarantee in the unavoidably artificial classroom setting.

The display board may offer some incidental benefits too. If wisely handled it can persuade the students to accustom themselves to reading public newsboards in the first place! This essential habit is often lacking in newcomers to large institutions abroad where many announcements are made only through their appearance on notice boards. A way of ensuring the effectiveness of this training, so that the display board is at least being read even if all its purposes are not fulfilled, is for the teacher to devote an occasional few minutes of the English class to discussion of one or two items currently appearing there. This check, in its turn, provides a handy focus for brief periods of English conversation in class whenever there is a little time to spare. Furthermore, a display board directed at all the English learners of any one center, as opposed to the individual class board, tends to make learners aware of their common purpose and identity, thereby to some extent contributing to community spirit.

Despite these decided advantages, we have not yet really touched upon the main feature and merit of the display board: it should not be regarded primarily as a convenient vehicle for disseminating official or semi-official information in the same way as its more sober partner, the noticeboard (implied also by the terms 'bulletin board' and 'newsboard') but should truly belong to the learners themselves. Thus, not only will they see here something of popular interest, but will find themselves encouraged to make their own contributions, however modest.

In fact, the display board is best treated as a one-issue, regular magazine, the contributors being the learners, with a teacher acting as editor and proofreader to control the quality, suitability of content, and general layout of the material handed in for his evaluation. In his capacity as editor, he might profitably nominate a different class or smaller groups to be responsible for each 'edition' in its entirety, or for various sections of it. As reporters, the learners will write or compile items ready for display, thereby affording the stimulus for extra reading and writing practice in the language. Most important of all, they will subsequently experience the personal satisfaction gained from seeing their own names appended to their separate contributions. This rewarding procedure is highly conducive to the motivation that would be denied if entries appeared under the guise of depersonalized anonymity.

An important consideration, of course, is that the material on display should be attractive—not only eye-catching in layout, but varied and interesting in content. Attractiveness to the eye can be partly achieved by the use of colored lettering with felt pens, though this should not be overdone or it tends to lose point. A nice balance between the pictorial

and graphic will add further life. Ease of reading will be facilitated and a professional touch lent to each display if most items are clearly written on good quality white paper. With a little enquiry, one discovers several students able to type speedily and efficiently, and they might be invited to volunteer their services or be assigned the task on a rotating system.. This work is not greatly time-consuming, especially if the editor ensures that items are characterized by brevity. The prevalent tone should perhaps be light without being pervaded by trivia, serious without being heavily weighted down with overly edifying pieces. The aim must be to appeal to a wide range of tastes and interests, with a bias toward the popular.

Material left too long on the display board will soon cease to hold interest. Old items must therefore be replaced by new, either piecemeal or wholesale after a fixed period, say of two weeks or a month. A stock of drawing-pins set aside for this purpose, as well as a strip of metal to help prise off those already pressed in, will greatly save patience and fingernails, and result in a neat and even presentation. If the board is left blank for a day or two before pinning up the new contributions, this will effectively herald the forthcoming 'issue' and so stimulate continued attention. This will be furthered where complete changes are on a four-week basis, by including the current month as a general caption. Particularly interesting and non-topical entries need not be discarded after removal from the board, but may be set aside to re-appear on some future occasion, or for inclusion in a scrapbook compiled by the learners.

One of the reasons to explain the absence of the display board where it should otherwise merit a rightful place is perhaps the foreboding that it might become a liability rather than an asset by demanding the constant search for fresh material. This fear is quite unfounded. Often the ingenuity of the learners themselves will perpetuate lively displays, but in any case, depletion is offset by the large number of possibilities available, among which we may list the following: regular features entitled, 'English is also spoken in . . .' with a brief description each time of one such country, its people and their way of life and customs, or 'Did you know that . . . ?' stating striking facts, particularly those concerning English-speaking countries; a summary or concise critical review of any book that has recently been added to the library shelves or read as extensive work by a student; forthcoming events in the English section or a report on a recent outing, class visit, or other activity; cuttings in English from magazines or newspapers; appraisal of a current film, play, sporting event, television or radio program; information on the local, national or international scene; a poem, perhaps accompanied by a biographical sketch of the author and a glossary in English; the words of a song; a proverb or apt quotation; examples of English usage or turns of phrase; instructions on how to make or do specific things—recipes for foreign dishes are particularly well-received by women students where the ingredients are available locally;

jokes, cartoons or anecdotes (though these should be kept to a minimum); a crossword puzzle, riddle, or other such diversion, perhaps inviting competition and offering a token prize to the winner; extracts from students' classwork, such as a short essay, story, letter, piece of description, or personal comment—these should not be drawn from the best students only, and may even include the occasional 'howler' (anonymous!); an outline of an absorbing topic that is currently being studied in some other subject area; and so on. These are just a few random hints gathered from those that have proved successful in practice. They will naturally be illustrated by maps, photographs, postcards, pictures, and drawings where appropriate to enliven the written presentation.

Most students soon develop the knack of ferreting for their own information, though the more original their contributions and personal in tone, the better. Those who lack the ability, initiative, or imagination necessary to produce acceptable contributions may be directed to a number of sources for guidance, apart from those implicit in the foregoing list of suggestions. Encyclopedias will often be helpful, as will digests, and particularly journals for the English teacher which often contain fascinating snippets that may be copied out, concerning not only the language but also the countries where English is spoken. Used magazines are a handy source for pictures, and the supplements of Sunday newspapers in the mother tongue offer a wide range of interesting items, any of which might be rendered in English. Almanacs serve the same purpose admirably. A visit to embassies or the library of any local bi-national center often pays dividends in furnishing informative leaflets, newspapers, and books that might be consulted. Of course, information in English gleaned this way may be displayed in the original form but will more often demand prior abbreviation or simplification.

There is in fact a wealth of material and sources at our disposal to counter any excuse for snubbing the display board as a worthy complement in the everyday business of language teaching and learning.

The English-as-a-Second-Language Trip:
Its Structure and Value

Jay Wissot

The English-as-a-second-language trip serves both a linguistic and an experiential function. From a linguistic standpoint it extends the classroom practice of target patterns to more realistic atmospheres. As an experiential function of language learning, the ESL trip stimulates the student's awareness of himself in a second culture and acts as a foundation for succeeding in-school and out-of-school experiences. Specific prototypes for possible ESL trips are presented and explicated in detail. The criteria used in determining the appropriateness of a given trip for particular groups of students are analyzed, and space is devoted to reasons why ESL trips should be structured in the first place.

The very nature of an English-as-as-second-language trip separates it from the average excursions taken by other academic classes. For the most part, the trips taken by the latter classes are enrichment-centered in nature and supplemental to the rest of the curriculum in practice. Except in those instances where the trip is reinforcing or expanding upon some definite experience formerly shared by the whole class, there is very little relationship between what goes on during the trip and what has gone on daily in the classroom. The English-as-a-second-language trip, by its very nature, is not supplemental to or enrichment of the daily learning activities but rather a direct extension of the classroom.

The essence of the ESL trip is to perform the same drills, practices, and reinforcement activities, which normally go on in the classroom, in a more realistic atmosphere and in a manner which is more conducive to actually using learned skills. More specifically, let's use a grammatical pattern as illustration: the progressive tense form in English. This is a pattern often introduced in beginning classes as the basis for early pattern formations and variations. The progressive tense form of *buy* can easily be utilized on a class trip to a local supermarket. The teacher could point out assorted food forms practiced previously in class and ask: *What are you buying?* The student would then respond: *I'm buying bread.* Or with pronoun expansion: *What is she buying? She's buying bread.* Practice with the *What's this? What's that? What are these? What are those?* question forms could also be accomplished on the same trip.

A trip to a local department or clothing store could expressively bring out practice of the *What are you looking at?* progressive tense form. The tangentially related introduction to American buying or shopping habits

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and practice with the American currency exchange system would also serve as excellent objectives to such curriculum-centered class outings. Drug stores, banks, furniture stores, and sporting goods concerns all furnish realistic experiences which easily lend themselves to a course of study based on functional usage with the most initially important of language forms.

Occurring and future needs should also affect selection as in the case of boys with a mechanical bent who could profit from a walk through a hardware store filled with tools and accessories, or older girls whose visit to an appliance store would certainly prove valuable in the coming domestic years.

Two criteria for selection should precede each excursion: the applicability and relationship of each trip to the language development taking place in the classroom and the relevancy of the trip to the individual age, social, and economic needs of the participating class group. The trip should not be viewed as a relief from the daily classroom pattern, but rather an extending of the four walls of the classroom to the less restrictive atmosphere of the societal environment.

ESL trips don't necessarily have to go as far as the community at all. There are a multitude of correlated learning patterns and experiences to be gained from the school building alone. Questions with *where* and *when* forms correlate perfectly with a walk around the various components of the school building: the general office, the guidance office, the principal's office, the nurse's office, the library, the gymnasium, and the auditorium. Tours to check to see if the students know their individual schedules of rooms and classes can serve as an additional function of trips. The actual running through of normally expected school practices and rules, such as fire drills, medical passes, absentee procedures and homeroom (if one exists) regulations can help make the adjustment period and the learning process that much easier.

The question often arises as to whether trips of any variety and for all curriculum levels should be structured. The alternative would be to eliminate teacher interference entirely and allow the student to derive whatever benefits possible on his or her own terms. There are, I believe, many sound reasons for the structured trip. The most important reason relates to the purpose of the ESL trip: to continue the practices and patterns learned in the language classroom. Since all language classes must be structured to some extent to be successful, an unstructured class trip would violate the daily precedents already established and seine in an artificial relationship to the program's development as a whole. Second, since many language observers believe that overlearning is the key to language proficiency, a trip that paid very little attention to the previously practiced materials could hardly live up to this guideline. Third, any student can tell you that a trip which is not being directed or ordered in any particular way is a signal for the class to associate license with free

play. The students see the purpose of excursion in terms of a recess period or a break in the daily tension which serves no real educational ends. For the most part, trips that are structured eliminate the need to follow student movements so strictly.

The question now becomes, "How structured is structured?" Also, "What organizing criteria should be utilized in determining structure?" Any procedure that focuses on methods to attain a specifiable learning objective can be deemed desirable structure. Any procedure that sees structure as an end in itself, or views it as a means of minimizing discipline problems and over-emphasizing group control should be deemed over-structure or undesirable structure.

Criteria for structuring an ESL trip are as varied as the types of trips themselves. The first criterion should be a specific learning goal which has been measured prior to the trip or will be measured during the aftermath of the trip. Whether the goal be sentence pattern, sound structure, vocabulary, or cultural involvement is not especially important. What is important is that the teacher have a set method of organizing questions and answers at the trip's locale, that the class be divided into the most workable of groups, that the teacher have a variety of things planned to see and practice, and that the students realize participation in the trip is as important as participation in class. In fact, the ESL trip should act as a lead-in to the language class the following day, just as successful achievement at any interval in learning acts as a basis or a foundation for greater achievements and individual development at a later date.

Other factors in determining structure would have to include class size (the larger the class, the less effective the trip; age (younger students have immaturity drawbacks; older students sometimes view the trip as beneath their sophistication level); ethnic backgrounds (newly arrived or community-isolated ethnic groups profit more from the trips than their more assimilated counterparts); gender make-up (some trips, as has been mentioned, are specifically for boys, others specifically for girls); language level (the more advanced the class, the more important cultural learning, as opposed to strict language learning, becomes on a trip); time lengths (some trips are only successful if the teacher doesn't try to "milk it" beyond a saturation point); desirability of environment (when the trip affects the normal operation of the store or school, it loses it naturalness and desirability).

The last element to be discussed in conjunction with the ESL trip is its experiential value because of the amorphous range of definitions attached to the term experience and because the inherent value of an experience can be subjective and objective without contradiction. The inherent value of any experience should be that it lead to individual growth and to succeeding experiences of equally beneficial individual growth.

The ESL trip should, first of all, then be of benefit. If it does little to stimulate or to create a desire for further introspection of the individual student's knowledge, then it serves no function as an experience. Second,

the ESL trip, like language learning and experience itself, should act as a building pattern for increased self awareness. It should be valued as an experience unto itself and as a foundation for other experiences to follow. While subjective experiences cannot be classified or discussed in terms of group development, the mere fact that some inner needs are possibly being satisfied concurrently with group needs is enough to establish their essential worth. Objective experiences can be more readily discussed from an educational viewpoint without fear of making generalizations unbefitting individual student differences. I think it safe to state that the ESL trip embodies learning in the most realistic of contexts. It replaces the artificiality of the classroom walls with the reality of the environments in which the language being taught actually exists. Such trips provide a reason for future learning, the possibility of really using a new form of communication as a complement to the native language. It equates school with life, practice with self achievement, and learning a language with its social function. While learning is difficult to measure, it can sometimes be charted on the faces of those on an ESL trip who have just discovered a connection between their own minds and the outside world.

TESOL Journals in Japan

Kenneth L. Jackson

Because of the tremendous size of the English language program in Japan, it seems worthwhile to have some knowledge of the ideas and practices currently being explored there. One source of information about ESL as practiced in Japan is the professional journals published in Japanese. This paper explores the types, production, and content of these Japanese journals.

If it is true that the English language program in Japan "ranks as the largest, single modern foreign language program in the world,"[1] it would seem important for any person in the TESOL profession who claims to be up-to-date in his field to have some knowledge of the ideas and practices currently being explored in that country. One source of information about the current situation of TESOL in Japan is, of course, the TESOL journals published there. These journals, however, have for the most part remained closed to the rest of the world because they are printed in Japanese. Therefore, this paper will explore the types, production and content of some of the TESOL journals published in Japanese in Japan in hopes of providing the non-Japanese-speaking teacher of English with some insights into what the Japanese teacher of English reads.

The Types of TESOL Journals in Japan

There are some 111 magazines in Japan which contain something of potential interest to the Japanese English teacher. While there are problems of overlapping and over-generalization, it is perhaps possible to group these magazines according to the size of audience for which they are intended: those intended for a mass audience, those intended only for a small group of specialists, and those intended for a segment of the academic community.

1. *General interest magazines:* Sixteen mass circulation magazines dominate this group. About half of these are aimed at the entire population of 66,000 English teachers in Japan and are generally edited to appeal to the interests of all of them—university professors, senior high school teachers, and junior high school teachers. The other half represents texts for use with radio and television programs which teach English and are aimed at the several thousand listeners to these programs.

This number, sixteen, does not include some forty-three mass circulation publications which concentrate on critical reviews of literature, nor

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1 John A. BrownelI, *Japan's Second Language* (Champaign, Ill.: NCTE, 1967), p10.

does it include the large number of English language periodicals which are sold in Japan like *Mad, Playboy, Muscle Boy, Beatles Monthly,* etc. However, when someone in Japan does mention TESOL journals, it is usually one of these sixteen mass circulation mixtures of information and service materials with their heavy volume of advertising which is mentioned first.

These mass circulation journals are concentrated in the hands of six large publishers located in Tokyo. Seven of the journals, all of them texts for radio or television programs, are published by the Japan Broadcasting Corporation which was founded in 1948 and has a capital investment of $12,000. It employs ten people who put together, in addition to the texts for the Japan Broadcasting Corporation radio and television programs for learning English, several other texts for similar programs for learning French, German, Chinese, and Russian.

The publisher of five of the other mass circulation magazines is Kenkyusha, Ltd., one of the oldest publishing houses in Japan. It was founded in 1908 and has a capital investment of $41,305. Kenkyusha employs sixty people and publishes in addition to five TESOL journals, books on language and literature, academic reference books, and textbooks as well as diaries and travel journals.

Each of the other four publishers put out only one TESOL journal apiece. They are comparatively smaller operations, but also specialize in the publication of books on language and literature, academic reference books and textbooks.

2. *Special interest magazines:* Eight magazines of potential interest to the Japanese English teacher are aimed at special audiences. Except for *Eigo Kyooiku Tsuushin* "News on English Education" published by the Institute for Research on English Language Teaching and *Language Laboratory* published by the Language Laboratory Association, many of these special interest magazines are little known to many English teachers. There is, however, hardly an area of linguistic endeavor or interest which does not have some research institute or association developing around it in Japan. As a sample of the fields covered, there are societies which publish magazines on phonology, semantics, dialectology, language engineering, mathematical linguistics, shorthand, and rhetoric.

These special interest magazines are edited and produced by a national committee of scholars widely experienced in the particular field. Their publications, however, lack the slick paper professional polish found in the mass circulation periodical. Articles from the *Bulletin of the Phonetic Society of Japan, Study of Sounds, Keiryo Kokugogaku* and *Mathematical Linguistics* are regularly abstracted in *Language and Language Behavior Abstracts,* while articles from the *Journal of English Teaching are regularly* abstracted in *Language Teaching Abstracts.* Articles from some of these special interest magazines have been entered in the ERIC System and noted in the *Bulletin* of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics.

3. *Academic journals:* English departments of colleges and universities, university research institutes, local and national academic societies as well as even a few college seminars publish some eighty-seven magazines directly or indirectly related to TESOL. These magazines are distributed to the faculty and students of a college or to members of an academic society. Their purpose is to present the research of the faculty and promising students, and to provide information about the activities of the English department or academic society. Some groups publish several journals which fall into this category. For example, the English Literary Society of Nihon University, the largest university in Japan, publishes three such academic journals,

Only thirteen of these eighty-seven journals, however, are devoted exclusively to linguistic or English language studies. The remainder include articles on both English literature and language. The emphasis in this latter group of magazines, in terms of number of articles published, is on literature.

These academic journals are edited and produced by a committee of faculty members and sometimes students. Some, but not all, of these magazines lack the quality of the general interest and special interest journals discussed earlier. This is understandable. The funds available to a magazine which is national in scope are often lacking to a local endeavour. In addition, the editors of the academic journal often have a full-time teaching load plus a part-time teaching position as well as their responsibilities on the publication committee. Then, it is always difficult to refuse an article written by a senior professor or a promising student.

Articles from the *Bulletin of the Institute for Research on Language Teaching* [2] and *Gengo Kenhyuu,* the journal of the Linguistic Society of Japan, are regularly abstracted in *Language and Language Behavior Abstracts. Language Teaching Abstracts* regularly includes abstracts of articles from the *ELEC Bulletin.* [3] Like the special interest magazines, articles from some of these academic journals have been entered in the ERIC System and noted in the *Bulletin* of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Linguistics.

The Production of TESOL Journals in Japan

Very few, if any, of the writers for the TESOL journals in Japan are full-time writers employed by the publisher. Most of the articles are unsolicited and contributed primarily by university professors. However,

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[2] The Institute for Research on Language Teaching is the oldest language-teaching research institute in Japan. It was founded in 1923 by the Ministry of Education with Harold E. Palmer as its first director. It now has about 1000 members and in its research and publication, is the major proponent of Palmer's "Oral Method" in Japan.

[3] ELEC or the English Language Education Council, Inc., continues the work of the English Language Exploratory Committee founded in 1956. In addition to a research program studying the application of structural linguistics to language-teaching and developing materials based on their findings, ELEC maintains an outstanding teacher-retraining program and one of Tokyo's largest English schools.

there are also articles written by junior and senior high school English teachers and, in the case of academic journals, by students as well. Since the editors of the mass circulation magazines cannot depend on unsolicited materials to fit their individual needs or to fill the regular features of their journal, they sometimes assign ideas to scholars who then write up the article to fit the specifications of the editor. Although most of these articles are written in Japanese, manuscripts in English are welcomed by all of the magazines.   Many of them have an editorial policy of including at least one article written in English in each issue of the magazine.

It seems to be relatively easy to get an article published in the academic or special interest magazines if you are a member of the particular group which publishes them.   To get an article published in one of the mass circulation magazines, however, is more difficult. It is often necessary to be introduced to the editor of the magazine by some well-known scholar.

Advertising plays a significant role only in the sixteen mass circulation magazines.   In these, the average ratio is ten to fifteen pages of advertising to sixty or seventy pages of text. That 20% of the magazine is devoted to advertising is not surprising since these magazines are the products of major textbook publishers. The TESOL journals function for them as advertising outlets for introducing new textbooks, research materials, dictionaries, and other company publications. Although over 50% of the advertisements are those of the magazine publisher, space is also purchased by competing book publishers.   Oxford University Press and Linguaphone are the only non-Japanese companies which regularly advertise in these Japanese journals.   In addition to advertisements for books, there are also advertisements by manufacturers of stationery products and by producers of tapes and recording equipment.

Most of the TESOL journals are monthlies. Others, particularly academic journals, appear quarterly, while only a few appear two or three times a year.

The mass circulation monthlies cost from thirty to fifty-five cents an issue while the radio-television texts generally cost about fourteen cents a copy. All of these popular magazines are sold by two principal methods: single copy sales on newsstands or by mail delivery of copies to subscribers. Magazines for single copy sale are distributed to the newsstands nationwide about one month before the date of issue. Unsold copies are rare and most of a newsstand's supply is gone by the middle of the month. Circulation figures are not available, but each magazine editor knows how many copies of his magazine can be sold and that is all he has produced. Even back issues are difficult to obtain except through used book stores.

The special interest magazines are available for the most part only through subscription which forms a part of the membership fee of the society publishing the magazine.   This is also true for the magazines of

national academic societies which operate on a subscription basis like that of special interest magazines.

Academic journals of colleges and universities are often distributed to faculty, students, and other members of the local academic society without charge. This is possible only because the cost of publishing these journals comes out of the budget of the college or university.

The Content of TESOL Journals in Japan

The content of Japanese TESOL journals is predominantly of a theoretical nature. About three-fourths of the material printed in the mass circulation magazines, for example, deals with literary criticism, philology, linguistics, and theories of language teaching. This percentage is even higher in the special interest and academic publications. Many of these latter journals carry no practical articles at all.

The specific number of articles devoted to literature, language, or language teaching varies so greatly that it is impossible to make any valid generalizations about the composition of all of the 111 TESOL journals. However, the difference in composition of the magazines can perhaps be made clearer by examining two representative examples of the general interest magazines.

The oldest mass circulation TESOL magazine in Japan still in circulation is *Eigo Seinen* which has been published by Kenkyusha, Ltd., since 1898. *Eigo Seinen,* literally translated, means 'English Language Youth,' but Kenkyusha has given it the curious English subtitle *The Rising Generation.* This magazine enjoys the reputation of being a scholarly magazine and is, therefore, widely read by university teachers of English and high school teachers just out of college. It includes in each issue about fourteen articles on English and American literature as well as at least one article on English language, one on English usage and style, and one general article dealing with the problems of English education in Japan. Regular features include book reviews, news of TESOL in Japan and abroad, and two Japanese-to-English translation exercises.

One of Kenkyusha's major competitors in the publication of books on language and literature, academic reference books, and textbooks is the Taishukan Publishing Company, Ltd., which was founded in 1918 and has a capital investment about half that of Kenkyusha. Taishukan is the publisher of *The English Teachers Magazine* "Eigo Kyooiku," which is edited by the English Language Teaching Research Society of Tokyo University of Education. Since its beginning in 1952, the magazine has met with great success and now enjoys the reputation of being the most popular magazine of its kind in Japan. Although a high school English teacher just out of college may read *Eigo Seinen* because of its scholarly appeal, he often finds it not too helpful in his work and early switches to *The English Teachers Magazine.*

In contrast to *Eigo Seinen,* each issue of *The English Teachers Mag-*

azine includes about four articles on language teaching, two on English language, two general articles on problems of current interest to English teachers, and only one on literature. Regular features include book reviews, news of English education in Japan, techniques of language teaching, a question-answer column, plus exercises in Japanese-English translation, English-Japanese translation, and composition. Some of these articles are abstracted in both *Language Teaching Abstracts* and *Language and Language Behauior Abstracts* and a number have also been entered in the ERIC System. In fact, it is the only Japanese magazine included in all of these abstracts.

A review of the composition of the other fourteen mass circulation magazines, not to mention the special interest and academic publications, would exhibit equally substantial differences in the kinds of materials published and the layouts of the magazines.

About 80% of the TESOL magazines come out in a 7x10 inch format with about seventy pages of text. Just looking at the cover of each magazine, one can get a feeling for the philosophy of its editors. The cover of *The English Teachers Magazine,* for example, always bears a full color photograph of some beautiful place in the United States or Europe. *Eigo Seinen,* on the other hand, features a washed-out print of some classical piece of British art. In contrast to these, special interest and academic journals generally have only a white or colored paper binding with the table of contents printed on the front cover.

Although the format and composition of the magazines vary widely, the content of the articles printed varies only a little from magazine to magazine. For example, the articles on English and American literature tend to be general literary criticisms expounding the greatness of the favorite authors of Japanese teachers—Shakespeare, Faulkner, Maugham, Pound, Chesterton, Lamb, and others. But there are also more substantial theoretical articles such as those discussing the problem of God in Shakespeare, the relationship of history and literature, the phoenix and the turtledove in Middle English literature. In addition, there are philological articles such as one discussing the English of Lewis Carroll. While these theoretical articles are more scholarly in tone than the literary criticisms cited earlier, one has the feeling he is reading a cleverly integrated *Pastiche* of the ideas of British and American scholars. At the same time, one finds some intrinsically Japanese flourishes to literary studies like the interesting study of literature in pictures which appears in *The English Teachers Magazine* as a regular feature. This article is a discussion of some theme in literature—Venus, the grotesque, Arthurian legends, etc.—illustrated with a portfolio of pictures of the same theme in art. Another distinctive flourish is the poems found in *Modern English Teaching,* another Kenkyusha publication. In this feature, three to four lines of several poems which reflect the feeling of a particular season, like Edmund Blunden's "October Comes" and Stevenson's "Autumn Fires" for

an October issue, are chosen each month and presented with a paraphrase and explanatory notes in Japanese.

The articles on language center around the usage of specific vocabulary items or grammatical structures such as *see a person off.* These structures and vocabulary items are drawn from reading textbooks or English literature and are usually difficult to translate into Japanese. This same concern for translation is reflected in the articles called "contrastive studies" which tend to be analyses of Japanese with ways of expressing in English the forms discussed. There are, however, more substantial theoretical articles on the English language such as those dealing with the nature of IC analysis and its importance for understanding sentence meaning or a generative grammar of Japanese. Most of these latter articles are written by Japanese scholars who have studied in the United States or Great Britain.

In addition to these general articles on language and linguistics, there are regular features devoted to language. In *Modern English Teaching,* for example, we find the following two regular features:

Understanding New English Phonology
Generally a contrast of Jones' phonology with some newer analyses, primarily those of British scholars.
Understanding New English Grammar
A discussion of how the analyses of structuralists, transformationalists, and others differ from the analyses of Jespersen, Curme, Onions, and other classical or prescriptive grammarians.

The general tone of articles of this kind is that of an apologetic for the English linguistic studies accepted as being valid by Japanese scholars together with some attempt to indicate the weaknesses of other modern linguistic descriptions and methods of analysis. Still another type of common article are those with descriptive titles like "Hard Facts About English" or "Idle Chats on English Grammar." In spite of the flowery titles, these articles deal with problems of usage and translation—the meaning and use of *no mean trick* and *No!* (in the sense of 'not really'), or the translation of *but me no buts* and *have* when used as a causative.

The articles on language teaching tend to be practical, almost recipes, and include among several other topics discussions on how to use a language laboratory, pattern practice, aural comprehension testing, rapid reading, points in teaching composition. Articles on the psychology of language teaching and learning appear only occasionally.

Some of the magazines include a lesson plan each month, and it is from these lesson plans that one becomes aware that the periodical is directed to a specific audience. *Eigo Seinen,* for example, usually includes a chapter selected from some university textbook, generally some piece of literature like George Meredith's *Diana of the Crossways,* with a translation and notes explaining vocabulary or grammatical items. Other magazines include a chapter from a junior or senior high school textbook followed by a translation and annotations. In *The English Teachers Magazine,* on the other hand,

we find a lesson plan written by a junior high school teacher which includes an oral introduction of the pattern to be taught, an explanation of the pattern in Japanese, followed by translation, tape-listening, and consolidation exercises. This lesson plan is then criticized and commented upon by a university professor.

There are also regular features in the magazines which focus on critical discussions of textbooks like "Studies of New English Textbooks" which is found in *Modern English Teaching.* Other articles on materials development like "Studies in Programming the English Lesson" found in *The English Teachers Magazine,* include an analysis of the language items to be taught in junior and senior high school together with methods for programming these into textbooks.

The articles of general interest include reports on English-teaching programs in other countries, travelogues and discussions of American and British culture as well as discussions of the various professional organizations related to the field of English studies and how these organizations might be improved.

As in other professional magazines, one finds short reports on professional meetings, lectures, literary prizes, changes being studied by the Ministry of Education, and news of Japanese leaders in the field. Some of the journals also report each month on professional meetings and events which have taken place in the United States and Great Britain. Others report on the teaching methods and research being undertaken by junior and senior high school English teachers as well as the activities of a local English Teachers Association in one selected prefecture of Japan.

Important new Japanese and foreign books are extensively reviewed in two distinct categories—one devoted to reviews of newly published books in Japan and the other devoted to reviews of books published in Great Britain and the United States, with books by British authors being more often reviewed than those by American authors, In addition to general book reviews, some editors also choose each month a book of particular interest to their readers and provide them with a two-page abstract of its contents under such headings as "Modern English Teaching Library," "Guide to Linguistic Books," etc. The books discussed under these headings are generally those which have received good reviews in American or British professional journals. Other types of reviews found in the Japanese TESOL journals include those of British and American movies currently showing in Japan and those of new audio-visual materials. It is not surprising that a large amount of space, particularly in the mass circulation magazines, is devoted to book reviews since the publishers of the journals are primarily academic and textbook publishers who have a keen interest in developing the publication industry.

Of particular interest to this writer are the articles in the popular magazines which invite contributions by the readers or which give them what might be called a "correspondence course" in English. Under the ambiguous

title "Corners," *Eigo Seinen* gives teachers an outlet for questions which they are unable to answer such as "Why did Katherine Mansfield use *tomato cans* instead of *tomato tins* in the Garden Party?" or "What is the meaning of 'that's Chinese to me'?" Persons who are able to provide answers to the questions are invited to direct them to the correspondent. Other reader contributions take the form of 400 word reports of research. These are printed under such titles as "English Club," "Comments on New English Studies," "Occasional Thoughts," "Forum," "Reports," "Reader's Research," etc. Some of them are reports of philological research on such topics as the etymology of the expression 'as different as chalk and cheese' or a catalog of the nautical terms in *Treasure Island.* Others are reports of research on language teaching and include such topics as "Portrait of the Desired English Teacher" and "How to Utilize Tape Recordings." Similar reports are made of literary studies.

The most popular of all of these reader contribution columns is found in *The English Teachers Magazine* and is entitled "Question Box." The magazine devotes about ten pages each issue to this feature which is obviously patterned after the same feature in the British Council's *English Language Teaching.* In the twelve years since its inception, the Japanese "Question Box" column has generated so much interest that in 1964 Taishukan, the publisher of the magazine, collected and collated the column into fifteen 150-page volumes. Each volume is devoted to one feature of the English language such as pronunciation, nouns and pronouns, etc. Typical of the questions and answers in this column is the following example which I have translated:

> Is the American pronunciation of *dog* [dag]?
> Ans: Since the British [ɔ] is heard in American English as [a], it follows that *dog* is pronounced [dag]. However, if we listen closely to Americans, we will hear [dɔ:g]. Why is this so?

The editor then goes into a rather lengthy explanation citing Jespersen's *Modern English Grammar* and Kenyon and Knott's *A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English.*

The "correspondence courses" provided for the readers generally take the form of translation exercises of various levels of difficulty, *Eigo Seinen,* for example, offers its readers the opportunity to translate from Japanese to English on two levels-a general level including two Japanese sentences or an advanced level with nine or ten sentences. About 150 readers attempt the general level while only about twenty-five try the advanced level. The editor chooses and corrects two translations from among those sent in. These are printed and then the problems and mistakes made in the translations are explained. He also grades all of the translations with an A, B, or C. Most people seem to get C on the general level and B on the advanced level. Readers of *The English Teachers Magazine,* on the other hand, are given a choice of translating from Japanese to English, from English to Japanese, or of doing a composition exercise. Of these, translation from Japanese to

English is the most popular with about 125 participants each month. The format is the same as that in *Eigo Seinen,* but with a five-point grading system, A, A', B, B', and C, with most people making B. About seventy-five people attempt the translation of an English paragraph into Japanese and most of them receive a B' grade. Only about twenty-five people work on composition. These composition exercises are in English and usually take the form of retelling exercises or completion of a story.

Perhaps the most interesting feature of these "correspondence courses" is that the participants use pseudonyms and not their real names. A random sample of the pseudonyms used includes Deadmouth, Grub, and Honest Monkey, on the one hand, and Peony, Lovebird, l'amour, and Aphrodite on the other.

Summary

From this discussion of the content on the articles in Japanese TESOL journals, it should now be possible to make some generalizations about what the Japanese teacher reads.

It should be clear that in the popular TESOL magazines, much space is devoted to the selling of books. As to the other articles, one gets the feeling of having read a popular magazine like *Better Homes and Gardens* rather than a journal discussing the patterns of current thinking in a professional field. It can be said that the mass circulation TESOL journal in Japan is primarily concerned with the practical problems of what to do in the classroom and how to do it in order that the unstated but obvious (at least to this writer) ultimate goal of English in Japan, i.e., the reading of British and American literature, may be obtained. In the pursuit of this goal, teachers seem to find that grammar and vocabulary present the greatest problems to themselves and to their students. Therefore, much space is devoted to a thorough discussion of the usage of specific words and expressions and their translational equivalents in Japanese. The standard basis for this discussion of usage is Jespersen, Jones, Onions, and other classical or prescriptive grammarians. However, with the development of modern linguistics, some of these older analyses have been questioned so the journals nearly always include a number of articles interested in defending the classical analyses and, at the same time, showing how structuralists, transformationalists, generativists, and others explain what has already seemingly been "well-explained."

Changes in the nature of English language education by the Ministry of Education in Japan have focused more attention on audio-lingual methods of teaching. The journals reflect this change in the number of articles dealing with pronunciation and the "oral approach." It should be noted here that the term *oral approach* appears quite often in Japanese journals generally as a modern term for the Oral or Direct Methods, but most often in a sense different from that intended by Fries. While much of what appears in the popular TESOL journals reflects an earlier period of modern language

teaching, at the same time, the journals indicate a ferment in English language education in Japan and genuine concern by Japanese English teachers for improving the quality of their teaching.

The other TESOL journals-those published by special interest groups and by colleges—tend to be more concerned with theoretical issues and less with the practical problems of teaching. Yet even in these the focus is primarily on usage and literary criticism. The articles on usage emphasize specific language items and classical or prescriptive grammatical roles, while the articles on literature seem to be primarily *pastiches* of the ideas of other scholars of literature.

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Where indicated, hard copies (HC) and microfiche (MF) of the full text are available through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, The National Cash Register Company, 4936 Fairmont Avenue, Bethesda, Maryland, 20014. Copies of documents must be ordered by the individual ED numbers. Prices are given for microfiche (MF) and hard copy (HC). Payment must accompany orders totaling less than $5.00. For orders totaling less than $3.00, add $ .50 for handling. In the U.S. add sales tax as applicable. Foreign orders must be accompanied by a 25 per cent service charge, calculated to the nearest cent.

ED 032 517 *ESOL and the Adult Learner.* Timothy F. Regan. Paper given at the Third Annual TESOL Convention, Chicago, Illinois. 7 p. March 1969. MF $0.25 HC $0.45.

Problems of adult basic education in the United States, symptomatic of the connection between poverty, poor education, and unemployment, have forged for the disadvantaged adult most of the links in the unbreakable chain of deprivation, frustration, and despair. The problem of ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) instruction is complicated by the changing relationship between education and the ability to obtain employment. The treatment of the Mexican-American particularly, in trying to achieve acculturation rather than assimilation, has resulted in the wholesale dropout of two generations of students, now adults, who must be molded into functioning members of society. Compared to children, adults have *a* much larger native language vocabulary and have already developed abstract concepts in their first language. Also, if they are literate in their own language, they can usually make conscious and deliberate use of grammatical generalizations and apply them to new language experiences. Because of these two factors, the following features of the audiolingual method represent a conflict of learning theory and are pedagogically inappropriate for the adult education student in ESOL: (1) dialog-centered lessons; (2) inductive learning of grammatical patterns; (3) avoidance of the native language; (4) withholding the written form; and (5) natural speed of presentation.

ED 032 525 *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.* Series III Betty Wallace Robinett, ed. 186 P. Mar 1967. MF $0.75 HC $9.40.

This series (a compilation of papers read at the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference, New York City, March 17–19, 1966) is grouped according to general subject and authors— (1) TESOL as a Professional Field, by S. Ohannessian, A. H. Marckwardt, G. Capelle, D. Glicksberg; (2) Reports on Special Programs, by C. H. Prator, P. W. Bell, L. H. Salisbury, J. B. King, M. Finocchiaro, G. S. Nutley; (3) Some Key Concepts and Current Concerns, by R. B. Long, J. D. Bowen, S. C. Lin, N. Greis, C. C. Fries, E. M. Anthony, R. N. Campbell, E. Ott, B. Reifel, C. Senior;

(4) Materials, Their Preparation and Use, by W. N. Francis, R. J. DiPietro, A. MacLeish, C. B. Paulston; (5) What to Do in the Classroom, Devices and Techniques, by C. J. Kriedler, R. Brande, R. J. Schwartz; and (6) The TESOL Conference at New York, by G. L. Anderson. [This document previously announced as ED 012 460.]

ED 033 327 *A Preliminary Bibliography of American English Dialects.* Mary Jo Moore, Comp. 61 P. Nov 1969. MF $0.50 HC $3.15.
　　The 804 entries in this bibliography are divided into four major categories. The first category, regional dialects, is concerned with those varieties of English which are confined within specific areas of the continental United States. The second, social dialects, is concerned with varieties of English which have features that tend to be indicators of social class. This category thus included studies of non-standard English and the language of the "disadvantaged," The third category is divided into two subcategories: Negro English of the continental United States and Negro English of the Caribbean. It was felt that any study of American Negro English would be incomplete without reference to the historical significance of the creoles and pidgins spoken in the Caribbean. The fourth category, applications to teaching and learning, is concerned primarily with teaching standard English to speakers of non-standard dialects. However, as the cultural and socioeconomic aspects of the "disadvantaged" are significantly related to the linguistic aspects, some of the literature of the cultural and socioeconomic aspects of poverty and the urban ghetto has been included in so far as it relates to education. Some of the entries in this bibliography are available through ERIC and have been listed with their ERIC Document numbers and prices.

ED 033 335 *A Handbook for Teachers of English to Non-English Speaking Adults.* Patricia Heffernan-Cabrera. 69 p. Ott 1969. MF $0.50 HC $3.55.
　　In this practical handbook for teachers of English to adult speakers of other languages, the author stresses the TESOL teacher's need to know about various teaching methods and techniques and how to evaluate materials in order to be able to select and develop a style of teaching compatible with the expectations and needs of his students. Such topics as second language learning, variation in teachers and students of English as a second language, TESOL methodology and materials, and evaluation of TESOL materials, students, and teachers are discussed, and detailed suggestions are presented for the classroom teacher. A selected bibliography of TESOL materials, prepared by the author for the Bureau of Adult Education of the California State Department of Education, is appended.

ED 033 355 *American English, An Integrated Series for International Students. Guided Composition Writing.* Florence Baskoff. 251 p. 1969. Preliminary Edition.
　　This text is the fifth of a comprehensive series of materials designed for teaching English to international students in the American Language Institute of New York University. The series constitutes the Institute's Elementary Program; mastery of its contents is requisite for undertaking all subsequent work in English at the intermediate and advanced levels. The 30 model compositions in this text are topic-oriented, representing aspects of American culture of particular interest to university-level foreign students. Each composition topic is developed by means of familiar quotations and common expressions pertinent to the topic, various types of discussion questions, and a wide range of oral and written exercises. Concluding the volume is a special section on paragraphs, compositions, and letters (business and social.) Chilton Books, P.O. Box 7271, Philadelphia, Penn. 19101 ($5.53).

ED 033 369 *American English Dialogues; Exercises in Colloquial Idiom.* 121 p. June 1969.

The material in this volume is designed especially for university-level, adult Japanese speakers studying upper-intermediate or advanced conversational English. Each of the 60 lessons presents several common American and English idioms in a set of three dialogs. Each idiom appears in various contexts, which are of particular interest to Japanese students. (Footnotes, grammatical notes, and preface are in Japanese.) Tape recordings accompany the text. Kenkyusha Publishing Company Ltd., No. 2, l-chrome, Kagurazaka, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo, Japan.

ED 033 370 *Sociolinguistic Premises and the Nature of Nonstandard Dialects.* Walter Wolfram. 16 p. Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D. C., Sociolinguistics Program. Nov 1969. MF $0.25 HC $0.90.

The relativistic viewpoint of the sociolinguist emphasizes the fully systematic but different nature of nonstandard dialects. In this paper, the author takes issue with various views that currently enjoy popularity in a number of disciplines but which violate basic linguistic and sociolinguistic premises about the nature of language. These views are often communicated to and adopted by those in a position which directly affects the lives of many ghetto children. Furthermore, these views have a direct bearing on the attitude of both white and black middle class teachers toward Black English. The attitudinal problem towards this intricate and unique language system is probably the biggest problem faced. But there is also a practical reason for understanding some linguistic and sociolinguistic premises about the nature of language with reference to nonstandard dialects. An understanding of systematic differences between nonstandard dialects and standard English must serve as a basis for the most effective teaching of standard English. See related document ED 029 280 (Abstracted in *TESOL Quarterly,* III, 4, Dec. 1969).

ED 034 174 *A Recent Development in English Language Education in Japan: Materials Analysis.* Jeris E. Strain. Paper given at the Second AILA Congress (Association International de Linguistique Appliquee), Cambridge, England. 10 p. Sep 1969. MF $0.25 HC $0.60.

Described here is a pilot development of a method for analyzing the structural content of a set of teaching materials, underwritten by the Committee for Cooperation on English in Japan and conducted in cooperation with the Fulbright Program in Japan and the English Language Education Department of the Faculty of Education at Hiroshima University. A basic assumption underlying the study was that teaching materials have a direct influence on learning and that some root causes of inefficiency in the teaching-learning process could be identified by rigorous and detailed analysis of the teaching materials. The most basic guideline of the study was intelligibility by those involved in teaching English and training teachers in Japan. The set of teaching materials examined was the three-volume junior high school English language textbook *New Horizon.* The first part of the study concentrated mainly on the overall plan for the selection, sequencing and textual presentation of a set of teaching points. Pattern analysis was made on the basis of the verb "be" and four sentence patterns. The utterances were examined in terms of their grammatical usage and distribution, and verb structures. This method of analysis was then applied to another set of materials and the results were compared. The second project analyzed the structural content of the practice exercises in the first set of materials.

W 034 197 *Language Research in Progress: Report No. 9, December 1969; A Cross-Referenced List of Documented Language Research Projects Current June-December 1969.* Alfred S. Hayes; Joan Vis. 68 p. Dec. 1969. MF $0.50 HC $3.50.

This document is the ninth report in the Language Research in Progress (LRIP) series, and lists a wide variety of language-related research projects current between June and December 1969. Research projects terminated in the six months prior to publication are included as well. Approximately 420 projects in the United States and abroad are cross-indexed by subject, investigator, and institution and LRIP file number. Copies of this report and abstracts of particular projects are available on request from Joan Vis, Language in Education Program, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

ED 034 201 *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. Series I.* Virginia French Allen, ed. Papers read at the TESOL Conference, Tucson, Arizona, May 6-9, 1964. 167 p. 1965. MF $0.75 HC $8.45.

The contents of this volume, a compilation of papers read at the first conference of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), are grouped according to general subject and authors: (1) TESOL as a Professional Field—A. H. Marckwardt, F. J. Colligan, W. F. Marquardt; (2) Reports on Special Programs—J. E. Officer, R. B. Long, M. C. Streiff, D. Saunders, B. T. Estrada, J. Morris, D. I. Dickinson, E. M. Anthony, F. Ingemann (3) Some Key Concepts and Current Concerns—H. B. Allen, J. D. Bowen, N. Greis, A. L. Davis, K. Aston, R. Strang, E. P. Dozier, L. McIntosh, E. Haugen, R. Roberts, S. Levenson, F. L. Bumpass, P. W. Bell, M. Finocchiaro, D. P. Harris, P.D. Holtzman, R. E. Spencer; (4) Materials: Their Preparation and Use—V. Komives, J. Jacobs, W. P. Allen, W. B. Van Syoc, W. R. Slager; (5) What to Do in the Classroom: Devices and Techniques—B. W. Robinett, J. O. Sawyer, R. C. Yarbrough, D. W. Danielson, J. Praninskas, D. Knapp, J. Ashmead. A Foreword by J. R. Squire, and an introductory address by S. Ohannessian preface the papers. See ED 034 202 for Series II and ED 032 525 for Series III. Papers from TESOL Conferences held after 1966 have appeared in the *TESOL Quarterly.*

ED 034 202 *On Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. Series 11.* Carol J. Kreidler, ed. Papers read at the TESOL Conference, San Diego, California, March 12-13, 1965. 169 P. 1966. MF $0.75 HC $8.55.

The papers in this volume, read at the second national TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) conference, are grouped by general subjects as follows: (1) TESOL as a Professional Feld—C. H. Prator, J. M. Cowan, T. W. Russell, J. E. Alatis; (2) Reports on Special Programs—H. Thompson, A. D. Nance, D. Pantell, P. Rojas, R. F. Robinett, B. E. Robinson, E. Ott, S. Hill, M. Finocchiaro; (3) Some Key Concepts and Current Concerns—W. F. Twaddell, R. Lado, V. F. Allen, B. W. Robinett, C. W. Kreidler, P. Strevens, J. D. Bowen, R. B. Lees, M. Joos, A. L. Becker, J. A. Fishman; and (4) Materials and Aids: Their Preparation and Use—K. Croft, F. C. Johnson, S. Ohannessian. The Conference Program is appended. See ED 034 201 for Series I and ED 034 525 for Series HL Papers from TESOL Conferences held after 1966 have appeared in the *TESOL Quarterly.*

ED 034 967 *Contrastive Analysis and the Notions of Deep and Surface Grammar.* Robert J. DiPietro. Article in Report of the 19th Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies, Contrastive Analysis and Its Pedagogical Implications. 16 p. 1968.

Seeking out inter-language differences in the execution of a contrastive analysis is given priority over looking for manifestations of language universals. But unless a contrastive study is based upon an understanding of language universals and contains a set of instructions for how each language realizes them, the common ground for contrast can only be arbitrarily decided for each set of languages, and the contrasts themselves remain largely on the surface. In evaluating observed transfer and interference in language learning, the final step of error prediction is possible only with a general linguistic model that operates within the framework of deep and surface grammar. Taxonomic studies, ignoring the theoretical problem of determining inter-linguistic correspondences, established phoneme classes, morphemes, and grammatical categories separately for each language; no justification other than the anticipation of probable learning errors was required for contrasting the specific units and arrangements of one language with those of another. The present paper discusses the theoretical orientation of current contrastive studies and proposes to incorporate the notions of deep and surface grammar in contrastive analysis. Illustrations of the operations of deep categories, surface realization rules and contrastive statements are given. Publications Department, School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20007 (Monograph Series No. 21, $2.95).

ED 034 970 *Psycholinguistics Oral Language Program: A Bi-dialetal Approach. Experimental Edition, Part I.* Lloyd Leaverton; and others. 188 p. 1968. MF $0.75.

This oral language program for Afro-American children in grades 1 to 3 who speak nonstandard English is designed to emphasize and utilize the child's existing language competency, gradually and systematically introducing standard English as an additional dialect. Priority has been given to the aspects of the child's language which identify him as a nonstandard speaker, particularly in grammar, as it was felt that there is less social toleration of grammatical differences than other differences (in pronunciation or vocabulary). The lessons in this manual focus on the absence of forms of the verb "be," "were" as the past plural of "be," and the third person singular ending "-s" or "es." The instructional sequence begins with the teacher telling a story or asking questions to elicit the desired sentence patterns. Sentences are described as "Everyday Talk" or "School Talk," depending on the verb pattern used. After the activities stemming from the children's own statements are concluded, pre-written sentences and stories in "Everyday Talk" are introduced for practice in changing from one form to the other. These activities are followed by pattern practice drills and dialogs as well as written exercises in "School Talk." Each child is asked to give an informal oral presentation using "School Talk" at the end of each unit. Detailed teaching suggestions are given. Psycholinguistics Project, Chicago Board of Education, 228 North LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill. 60601. (See ED 034 981.)

ED 034 971 *English Language Testing Project for the Bureau of Indian Affairs.* Eugène J. Brière. 15 p. 1969. MF $0.25 HC $0.85.

This brochure contains a summary of an English language testing project being developed by the University of Southern California under the aegis of the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). Previous attempts (Stanford Achievement Test, California Achievement Test) have failed to test American Indian children's performance in reading, vocabulary, and language because these tests are not designed to measure linguistic skills. The norms and standards of such tests are derived from populations far different from the American

Indian children in BIA schools, many of whom are either non-English speaking or seriously deficient in English. The major objectives of this Project are to develop a battery of tests consisting of three parts: (1) three oral-aural techniques to measure proficiency in perception and production of spoken English, (2) two techniques for testing proficiency in listening comprehension, and (3) a paper and pencil test designed to measure the level of proficiency in written English grammar. Although not specifically within the scope of this three-year project, it is felt that the testing instruments being developed will be of great use in assessing proficiency in English for other non-English-speaking groups. Direct inquiries to Author, English Language Testing Project, 2140 Westwood Blvd., Los Angeles, California 90024, or to Assistant Commissioner for Education, BIA, 1951 Constitution Ave. NW, Washington, D.C. 20242.

ED 034 980 *Regional Seminar on New Developments in the Theory and Methods of Teaching and Learning English. Report.* 119 p. June 1969. MF $0.50 HC $6.05.

This Seminar, held in Singapore June 9–14, 1969, brought together some of the leading scholars in the field of language teaching, from both within and outside the Southeast Asian region, for the following purposes: (1) to review some of the more significant developments of the past two decades in language teaching; (2) to consider some of the newer concepts, particularly those developed out of transformational grammar; (3) to provide a platform for the exchange of ideas stemming from the various schools of Linguistics and methodology; and (4) to stimulate critical thinking among the language teaching professionals of the SEAMEO (Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization) countries. A noteworthy feature of the Seminar was emphasis of most speakers on the need for eclecticism; there was agreement among the theoretical linguists and the practicing teachers present that the best results in language teaching were likely to be achieved by taking insights into language and teaching strategies of proven value from every available source. Summaries of all the 35 papers, with some account of the subsequent discussions, are presented in this Report. A number of the papers will be published in full in a forthcoming first issue of the RELC (Regional English Language Centre) Journal.

ED 034 981 *The Psycholinguistics Reading Series: A Bi-dialectal Approach. Teacher's Manual.* Lloyd Leaverton; and others. 185 p. 1969. MF $0.75.

The Introduction to this Teacher's Manual describes the objectives of the "Psycholinguistics Reading Series" as being twofold: (1) to provide an effective approach to the teaching of beginning reading to Afro-American children whose language patterns differ in some basic aspects from those employed in traditional basal readers, and (2) to help the child maintain and further develop positive attitudes toward himself, his school, and his community through reading materials. The focus is on differences in verb usage existing between the children's oral speech and the standardized dialect; each of the units in the Series places emphasis on only one verb pattern. Each unit (book) contains two versions of the emphasis on only one verb pattern. Each unit (book) contains two versions of the same story— the "Everyday Talk" story and the corresponding "School Talk" story. Books 1-3 appear as one edition, Books 4-7 are in two sets. Book 8 has only one set of stories, which serve as a review of standard verb forms introduced in the Series. The stories are about the child himself, his community, and his ethnic group. The books are illustrated and contain blank pages for the

child's own sentences, stories, and drawings. These books, as well as the present Teacher's Manual which provides teaching suggestions and an explanation of the methodology, are available from the Psycholinguistics Project of the Chicago Board of Education. Psycholinguistics Project, Chicago Board of Education, 228 North LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois 60601. (See ED 034 970)

ED 034 934 *Linguistics and English Linguistics. Goldentree Bibliographies in Language and Literature.* Harold B. Allen. 117 p. 1966.
    This bibliography is intended for graduate and advanced undergraduate students who desire a convenient guide to linguistic scholarship in English, education, linguistics, and related areas. The listing is selective, but the compiler has tried to provide ample coverage of the major fields and topics, with emphasis on works published in the twentieth century. Areas included are: (1) Bibliographies, (2) Dictionaries and Glossaries, (3) Festschriften and Miscellaneous Collections, (4) Linguistics, (5) English Language and English Linguistics, (6) Language Instruction, and (7) Special Topics. Addenda to each of the sections and an author index conclude the bibliography. Appleton-Century-Crofts, Educational Division, Meredith Corporation, 440 Park Avenue South, New York, New York 10016 ($1.65)

ED 034 986 *Listen and Guess! Listen and Guess Series.* Robert L. Allen; Virginia F. Allen. 566 p.; 4 vols. 1965.
    These supplementary materials for students of English as a second or foreign language consist of 48 recorded conversations in the form of short question-and-answer dialogs. (The vocabulary range is 800-1,000 basic words.) The exercises are designed to develop aural skills; students listen to conversations between a native and a non-native speaker, make appropriate responses, and then receive the correct answers. The laboratory workbooks which accompany each of the three tapes contain short notes on each conversation, questions, and a place for answers. The Teacher's Manual contains directions for the use of each type of conversation, scripts of all conversations, and answers. Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Manchester Road, Manchester, Missouri 63011.

ED 034 987 *Word Function and Dictionary Use; A Work-Book for Advanced Learners of English.* Neile Osman. 187 p. 1965.
    The present volume is designed as a workbook for advanced learners of English as a second or foreign language which will train them through instruction and exercises to use an all-English dictionary. The contents are based on the second edition of Hornby, Gatenby, and Wakefield's *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English,* 1963, Oxford University Press. Sections cover the identification of a word according to its class and function; verb forms, their meanings and usage; other parts of speech; collocations, idiomatic word groups, and compounds. Various types of dictionary entries are dealt with, and detailed instructions in the actual use of a dictionary are given. Numerous examples and exercises are provided; answers are appended. Oxford University Press, Inc., 16-00 Pollitt Drive, Fair Lawn, New Jersey 07410 ($1.15).

ED 034 988 *Simple Audio-Visual Aids to Foreign-Language Teaching.* W. R. Lee; Helen Coppen. 122 p. 1964.
    This handbook is an introduction to the use of aids in foreign language and second language teaching. The first section discusses using aids in oral work and in reading and writing. The second section provides practical sugges-

tions for making various types of pictures, flannel boards and plastiboards, material for reading, and puppets. Appendices include a listing of books, wall pictures, charts, filmstrips, and films. Oxford University Press, Inc., 16-00 Polliti Drive, Fair Lawn, N.J. ($1.15).

ED 034 989 *When People Talk . . . On the Telephone.* Richard H. Turner. 136 p.; 5 vols. 1966.

Books A and B in this set of materials designed to develop reading skills each contain fourteen dialogs on everyday social and business situations that require use of the telephone. The correlated exercises contained in the accompanying Workbooks A and B test comprehension, mastery of patterns, and understanding of the use of the telephone and directory for finding out different kinds of information. The Manual for the teacher suggests ways of introducing and using the dialogs in class and provides answers to the exercises. (Although these dialogs have been prepared specifically for teaching reading in the regular classroom, they may also be used in teaching remedial reading and English as a second language on the upper-intermediate and advanced levels.) Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 West 120th Street, New York, New York 10027. ($2.65 per set)

ED 034 990 *Teaching English Pronunciation; A Guide for Teachers of English as a Second Language for French-Speaking Students.* Agop Hacikyan; Jack Cochrane. 106 p. 1969.

This book, a pedagogical rather than a scientific study of the French and English sound systems, is specifically designed for the French-Canadian student of English. Together with its companion volumes, *Teaching English Pronunciation: Exercises, Part 1 and Part 2,* and their accompanying phonograph records, the series may be used separately or as a supplement to an English course given at the elementary, secondary or collegiate levels. Chapters deal with the following: (1) Pronunciation and Language Learning—the teaching of pronunciation, the teacher, the book (2) Speech Sounds—the speech mechanism, the classification of speech sounds, consonants, and vowels; (3) Connected Speech—stress, intonation, assimilation, liaison, and elision; and (4) Techniques and Procedures for Teaching Pronunciation—diagrams of the speech organs, minimal pairs, pictures and objects, dialogs, phonetic alphabets, rhymes and songs, language Laboratories and recordings, techniques for specific sounds, stress and intonation, and recommendations. Chapters II, III, and IV conclude with a bibliographical listing of references. Librairie Beauchemin Limitee, 450 Avenue Beaumont, Montreal 15, Quebec, Canada ($3.50).

ED 034 991 *An Appraisal of ERIC Documents on the Manner and Extent of Nonstandard Dialect Divergence.* Walt Wolfram. 23p. Dec 1969. MF $0.25 HC $1.25.

This paper examines and evaluates 11 ERIC documents dealing with the manner and extent to which nonstandard dialects differ from standard English. The relative importance of each document to the issue is implicit in the comments concerning that article. The author presents and explains the deficit and difference models of explicating language varieties. Before actually evaluating the ERIC articles he discusses briefly the basic assumptions about the nature of language with which the deficit model is in conflict. Special notation is made of the articles which the author feel are of crucial importance.

ED 034 997 *Eng'lish Lan'guage and O'ri.en.ta'tion Pro'grams in the United States; Including a List of Programs for Training Teachers of English as a Second Language.* 117 p. 1969.

The present report on courses in English for speakers of other languages lists 301 academic-year offerings including separate orientation programs at 114 institutions. Also listed are degree and certificate programs in English for speakers of other languages offered at 44 institutions and 29 other institutions offering one or more courses in the field, The listings in each section are in alphabetical order by state and provide, in addition to the name and address of the institution and the person to whom inquiries should be addressed, a description of the course; prerequisites, if any; information on the cost of fees and housing; availability of housing; registration procedures; visa eligibility; and other data pertinent to the selection of, and enrollment in, these courses. (Cost figures in the listings are based on the 1966-69 academic year and are subject to change.) Institute of International Education, 609 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017 ($1.00 single copy; reduced rate for multiple copies).

Announcements

CALL FOR PAPERS FOR 1971 TESOL CONVENTION

Again in 1971 the Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages will include a special Plenary Session devoted to the reading of papers voluntarily submitted by members. The TESOL Research Committee will select the papers to be presented.

Members who wish to present papers at this session at the TESOL Convention in New Orleans, March 3-7, 1971, should submit a descriptive title, time desired (20 minutes maximum), and a one-page typewritten, double-spaced abstract no later than October 1, 1970. Nine copies of the abstract should be sent to:

> Professor Bradford Arthur
> Department of English
> University of California
> Los Angeles, California 90024

Abstracts should be *informative* rather than *indicative.* The informative abstract is an abbreviated version of the conceptual content of the paper, including a statement of the thesis, the development of the argument and main hypotheses, the nature of proofs or evidence, and the conclusions. The abstract of each paper selected for presentation, along with a selected bibliography (to be supplied by the speaker), will appear in the Convention Program.

MANUSCRIPT FORMAT FOR *TESOL QUARTERLY*

All manuscripts submitted to *TESOL Quarterly* for possible publication should be double-spaced with each footnote typed directly below the line to which it refers.

An abstract of two hundred words or less should accompany all manuscripts submitted. The abstracts of papers which are published will be forwarded to the Modern Language Association for inclusion in the MLA Abstract System.