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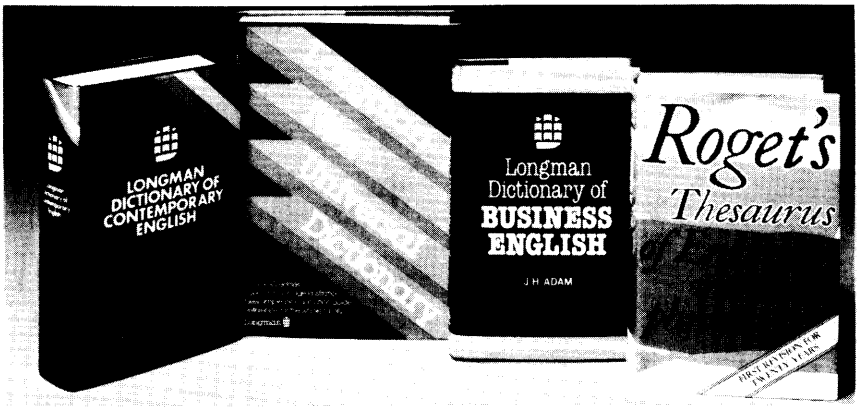

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CROSS 言語 CURRENTS

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Volume X, Number 1, Spring 1983

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Joe D. Palmer

Cohesion is how a text "hangs together" by means of grammatical, lexical, and logical links. In this article, cohesive devices are identified, classified, and examined in the contexts in which they occur. The author also describes techniques for making students aware of cohesion in order to increase their global understanding of the language.

"No" Means "No," Doesn't It? Or Does It?

Dorothy S. Messerschmitt

This article explores some of the apparent contradictions in English negation which can be troublesome for advanced students. It examines hidden negatives, negative questions, utterances containing two negatives, the scope of the negative, and "not" transportation. For each area of negation discussed, classroom activities are suggested. These explanations and activities are intended to help students understand the presuppositions and cultural considerations associated with negation in English.

Teaching Reading

Harvey M. Taylor

This article describes good reading as a series of guesses based on seeing only part of a sentence at a time. The author discusses the kinds of background knowledge that will help an EFL reader make more accurate guesses and explains the importance of skimming, scanning, and guessing from context. He concludes with a step-by-step description of a reading activity designed to integrate and develop the reading skills discussed in the article.

Pronunciation and Listening Comprehension

Judy B. Gilbert

This article presents six premises based on a synthesis of research in the fields of discourse analysis, acoustic phonetics, and cognitive psychology. The general conclusion of these six premises is that pronunciation can be taught effectively as an aid to listening comprehension if approached from the perspective of discourse intonation: the way an English speaker uses pitch changes and timing to make clear the structure of discourse. The two primary functions of intonation are 1) highlighting the distinction between old and new information and 2) delimiting thought-groups. The paper concludes with excerpts from a lesson on thought-group marking.

Interpretative Oral Reading

Walter A. Matreyek

Interpretative oral reading can be a very beneficial and enjoyable learning activity for ESL students. It can be used to improve listening and reading comprehension, as well as to develop intelligibility, fluency, and expressiveness in speaking. This article presents a four-step procedure for introducing interpretative oral reading in the class. In addition, some important do's and don'ts to keep in mind are given.

TOEIC and In-Company Training

Yukio Saegusa

This is an interim report on in-company English training in Japan as measured by TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), a sister program to TOEFL developed by the Educational Testing Service. This report demonstrates how TOEIC's consistency in evaluation enables the teacher to accurately measure the student's progress in linguistic proficiency after instruction. The test also makes it possible for the personnel manager to calculate how much time is needed to train company workers for overseas assignments.

Bright Ideas

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

A tenth anniversary might be a time for looking back, for reviewing past accomplishments–and disappointments. But instead, let's look at where we stand now, and to the future. Around the world today, there are many journals serving the needs of language teachers and curriculum designers. Unfortunately, a number of journals have recently been forced to suspend publication, due solely to financial pressures. As Lance Knowles explains in his note below, *Cross Currents* has been able to survive only with the continued support of the Zaidan Hojin M.R.A. House, for whom the publication of *Cross Currents* is only one of many activities on behalf of international cooperation and communication.

Of course, without the Language Institute of Japan, there would be no *Cross Currents*. The journal is sponsored by LIOJ; our editorial board is composed of members of the LIOJ faculty; and the LIOJ office staff, in particular Nobuhito Seto, our Business Manager; are all essential to the ongoing operation of *Cross Currents*. Since we are all full-time teachers, our choice of articles tends towards those which present research and theory in light of the needs and interests of the classroom teacher and curriculum designer. In this tenth anniversary issue, we are pleased to publish a selection of articles whose insights relate directly to the situation of the classroom teacher. We assume that there will always be a need for such articles, combining theoretical insights with suggestions for practical applications in the classroom.

Our lead article, "Getting Into Texts: Cohesion" by Dr. Joe Palmer, explains why an understanding of sentence grammar is not enough to appreciate the meaning of written English texts. Rather, students must be trained to recognize and use the grammatical, logical, and lexical devices which link sentences to one another. The article is intended to broaden the reader's understanding of the function of cohesion in English, while offering a number of practical exercises for classroom use. The second part of Dr. Palmer's study of the "grammar of text"–a discussion of rhetorical devices (coherence)–will be published in the next issue of *Cross Currents*.

Whereas Palmer looks at reading from the point of view of the text itself, Harvey Taylor examines the *process* of reading–what good readers do when they read. In his article, "Teaching Reading," Taylor looks at the function of guessing, skimming, scanning, and

long-term and short-term memory in the reading process and then suggests classroom exercises through which ESL students can learn to read quickly and efficiently in the manner of a first-language reader.

Reading is also the focus of Walter Matreyek's article, "Interpretative Oral Reading"; but in this case, reading comprehension is not the end in itself, but rather a means for building speaking and listening skills. Although oral reading exercises have fallen out of favor recently among ESL teachers, Matreyek shows how such exercises can serve to increase students' awareness of the communicative function of breath groups in English, while developing their ability to speak English with expression.

To a certain extent, an empirical and theoretical foundation for Matreyek's article is provided by Judy Gilbert's study, "Pronunciation and Listening Comprehension." Gilbert surveys recent studies in pronunciation and presents her findings in the form of six premises linking accurate pronunciation to communicative competence. Like Matreyek, Gilbert sees an awareness of intonation and breath groups as essential to clear communication in English.

For many advanced students, the area of negation presents many potential pitfalls. Dorothy Messerschmitt's article, " 'No' Means 'No,' Doesn't It? Or Does It?" surveys some of these problem areas and suggests classroom exercises to teach and practice those grammatical forms and conversational patterns which do not seem to conform to the basic rules of negation in English.

Our final article, "TOEIC and In-Company English Training" by Yukio Saegusa, looks at English teaching in light of the needs and expectations of the Japanese company. In particular, Saegusa considers the question of how to set goals and assess progress for students who will need to use English in their work. For an insight into Japanese attitudes towards language training, this article is highly recommended.

In our Bright Ideas section, Robert O'Neill provides a simple listening comprehension exercise which is suitable for large classes and which does not require a tape recorder. The technique, Jigsaw Storytelling, develops the skills of general listening comprehension while encouraging students to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words.

The issue also contains three Book Reviews discussing a variety of resource and classroom materials, including the recently published listening-based course, *Yoshi Goes to New York*.

Our next issue will include, in addition to the second part of Dr. Palmer's article, a case study by Robert Ruud of "Rod City," a semi-structured program which combines a concept-based syllabus with the dynamics of a student-centered classroom. The deadline for receipt of manuscripts for that issue is October 1.

During the past two years, *Cross Currents* has benefited from the editorial talents and leadership skills of Thomas W. Smith. With this issue, Tom is stepping down from his position as editor to return to full-time teaching and to other pursuits more closely related to his interests and training in international relations. The gold (colored) watch was only a small token of our appreciation—and we are still looking for a mint copy of *The Chicago Manual of Style*, first edition.

Ten years is a long time. During that time, the ESL profession has grown tremendously, and *Cross Currents* has grown with it. With your continued support, we hope that *Cross Currents* will continue to be able to serve you, the ESL community, in your work as teachers and as facilitators of cross-cultural communication.

Cross Currents
Andrew Blasky
Lori B. Brooks

A Note from the Director of LIOJ

This issue marks ten years of continuous publication of our journal, *Cross Currents*. When it started, nobody really expected it to last so long, and at that time it was mostly an in-house journal. Yet *Cross Currents* has continued to grow, both in quality and in circulation, despite periodic changes in the editorial staff and the moments of anxiety which accompany such changes.

The classroom-centered, practical focus of the journal has remained a constant, and we have been gratified by the many nice compliments we have received, both from our readership, and from the publishers and distributors who have chosen to support us. The credit for such success goes to present and past editorial staff members who worked many hours for little more than the sense of working on a project they enjoyed and cared about. Such team

effort is remarkable, especially considering the heavy teaching responsibilities that had to take precedence over the journal.

Perhaps the main reason for our continued existence, however, is the Zaidan Hojin M.R.A. House, the educational foundation which supports both LIOJ and *Cross Currents*. Their no-strings-attached support has encouraged our staff to see the journal as an opportunity to grow professionally and to contribute something to the fields of language and communication training. Their faith in us is most appreciated, and on behalf of all the staff, both present and past, I would like to thank them at this time.

P. Lance Knowles
Director
Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ)

YOSHI GOES TO NEW YORK

Authentic discourse for listening comprehension

John Battaglia and Marilyn Fisher

Twelve recorded conversations and an accompanying workbook tell the story of a young Japanese businessman's stay in New York City. The conversations, being unrehearsed and spoken at natural speed, preserve all the features of authentic discourse.

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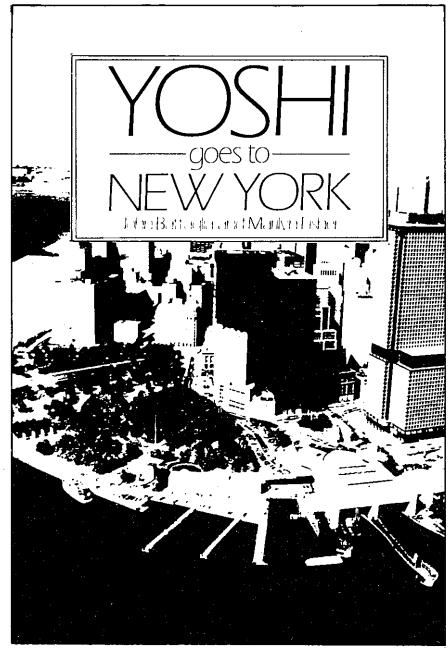
John Battaglia has an MA from the University of Iowa, has taught in Malaysia and currently teaches at the Language Institute of Japan.

Marilyn C Fisher has a J.D. (Juris Doctorate) from Duquesne University School of Law, Pittsburgh. She taught a course entitled "The Legal Environment of Business" for three years at Gannon University, Erie and has taught at the Language Institute of Japan.



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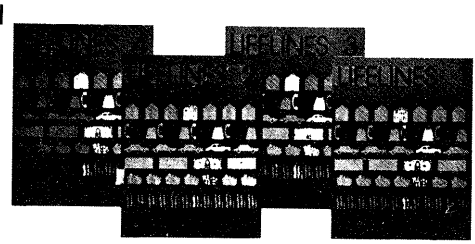

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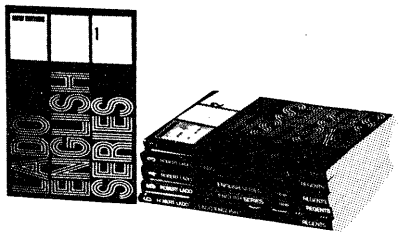

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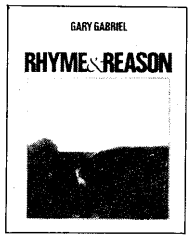

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Getting Into Texts: Cohesion

Joe D. Palmer

> The materials we use for teaching comprehension at the higher stages tend to be linguistically uninformed. Our students lack *instruction* in the grammar of text. . . . What they do learn about textual cohesion is the by-product rather than the direct result of systematic teaching. (Mackay, 1979)

A *discourse* is an interchange of ideas or attitudes in which the participants use words among other communication devices, as in a conversation or in connected writing. A discourse is a unitary piece of the world of language in use that we all participate in. It is unitary in that we can generally tell when it begins and when it ends. We often can see it as a whole thing that consists of parts that we can discern. Sometimes we may be able to outline the parts of a discourse in order to reveal its logical structure. In creating certain sorts of discourses we may begin with an outline to guide us in expressing the language necessary to our purpose. Thus a discourse is a piece of language in use that has a beginning, a middle, and an end.

A discourse is contained in a situation, or in a set of situations. The relationship between discourse and situation is called context. The context of a discourse may be one or several, depending upon the structure of the experience of the participants in the discourse. Human experience is a formal matter that yields different subjective realities to every individual. These subjective realities may be similar insofar as individuals share similar experiences. It follows that culture and society are the main determinants of the possibility that the meaning of a discourse may be shared.

Dr. Joe D. Palmer is a professor at the TESL Centre, Concordia University. He is the co-author of *Languages for Specific Purposes: Program Design and Evaluation* and has served on the faculties of universities in Somalia, Thailand, Egypt, Canada, and the U.S.A.

Discourses are expounded as *texts*. Texts consist of utterances, sentences, clauses, groups, and words. We call types of texts by different names depending on how the discourse that each expounds fits into situations. For example, we may identify many types of text: stories, poems, editorials, letters, vignettes, jokes, songs, parodies, rituals, sermons, warnings, commencement addresses, lectures, news broadcasts, advertising messages, circulars, flyers, billboards, slogans, petitions, technical papers, tax forms, recipes, novels, phone calls, and on, and on.

Discourse, the abstract noun, used to be a synonym of *rationality*, that is, the ability to produce orderly thoughts or schemes. It would be foolish to assert, of course, that all our thought and schemes are rational, but it is surely accurate to maintain that whatever we *mean* must be expounded in a structured way, that is, in the form of text. To M.A.K. Halliday, a text is a "semantic edifice," a framework that is relatively logical and general such that the interpreter of a text may approach the meaning that the producer intends.

Teaching the Grammar of Text

The structure of text is becoming a principal focus of attention in language teaching. It now appears wrong-headed to begin foreign language instruction with attention to the most atomistic pieces of language such as the morphological peculiarities of the target language. This sort of approach treats language as a reified thing that exists outside its users. But language is something shared by its users, not something outside them. Language is used in carrying out the many tasks of production and social control that daily life demands. It seems that it would be more useful and efficient to approach the teaching of the foreign language holistically by creating situations in which appropriate discourses are expounded as texts.

I assume in this paper that the preliminary stages of teaching may be taken for granted. Vocabulary and sentence grammar are of course the indispensable bases of comprehension. I assume that the reader is familiar with techniques for teaching vocabulary and sentence structure, for example, with glossing, translating, explaining, practicing, etc., and with yes/no questions, true/false exercises, and other visual techniques for assuring that factual information is comprehended. Most trained teachers are quite expert in the basic techniques at the level of the word and the sentence. What is often lacking is an awareness of the fact that a word or sentence that is taken

out of context is meaningless. Meaning resides in the text. It is the grammar of text that teachers must now become expert in.

Given that a text is a structure that carries meaning, more or less elegantly and effectively put together, what, we may ask, is the nature of this structure? This question is not easy to answer. We can assume that all the units of language from sentence down to word have structure that can be fairly easily demonstrated through the rules of syntax and morphology. But sentences do not enter into a limited number of classes of structure in order to form larger units of text in the way that the other units of language combine to form larger units. That is: A sentence consists of one or more clauses. A clause consists of one or more groups (phrases). A group (phrase) consists of one or more words. A word consists of one or more morphemes. A morpheme is the minimal unit of meaning.

However, there do not exist any grammatical units of language higher than the sentence. That is, we cannot analyze a paragraph, for example, in grammatical terms. There are no rewrite rules for paragraphs or sections or chapters.

Of course there exist conventions of composition. We expect a letter, for example, to contain a salutation, a body, and a closing. We expect an editorial to be about a single topic. Whenever we encounter a deviant text we hold our judgment in abeyance, hoping that the deviation is intentional and produced for a particular effect: in order to amuse, or edify, or convince. For example, George L. Herter's *Bull-Cook Book* contains recipes for Prairie Dog Bat Masterson and Eggs Mendel, which include notes on the personal preferences of the frontier sheriff and the renowned botanist. The deviation from what we normally expect produces pleasure for the reader in that the text is unusual. It contains probably apocryphal historical notes on the origins of unusual recipes.

It could be maintained that most creative use of language is deviant or abnormal. Certainly most advertising copy is deviant in this sense, and poetry, and humor. The point here is to demonstrate that we share learned expectations about the forms of text. If we are reading a report on a laboratory experiment, we expect to be told the results of the experiment. We hope that a short story after its rising action will come to a satisfactory climax and denouement. We trust that a pro-forma invoice will contain all the information necessary for us to base a decision on. Yet none of these types of text can be entirely predicted except in general terms; that is, in *rhetorical* terms, not in *grammatical* terms. We could say that a

paragraph consists of one or more sentences, but that would be saying something trivial, for a paragraph is not well-formed by virtue of its consisting of sentences. It is well-formed when it is an effective unit of *meaning*. Or, on the other hand, the unit of meaning may be a section that contains several paragraphs, none of which could stand alone as a unit of meaning. In the real world writers do not perform according to the rules laid down by their composition teachers. Of course, some paragraphs do contain topic sentences and such tropes as development, illustration, definition, description, and conclusion. But, like as not, paragraphy is merely a typographical accident.

Cohesion and Coherence

What are we left with then on which to base an analysis of text? There are two general approaches. We may look at textual *cohesion* and textual *coherence*. We will use these terms technically to mean very different kinds of linguistic relationships. *Cohesion* refers to devices that cause texts to cohere, to stick together. It refers to grammatical, logical, and lexical relationships found among the grammatical units in and between the sentences of a text. *Coherence* refers to rhetorical devices, to ways of writing and speaking that bring about order and unity and emphasis.

In order to demonstrate cohesion devices at work in a text, let us look closely at a story that served as the text of a comic strip. The humor of the story comes from its lack of rhetorical coherence, which will be obvious to anyone who can read it. What is not so obvious is the set of cohesion devices without which the story would be completely formless. The story contains enough cohesion devices to give it the appearance of a text that is a meaning framework or "semantic edifice." But the story is rhetorically incoherent. It doesn't stick to any of the topics in it long enough to show any development. Topical development is a matter of rhetoric, that is, of coherence. Cohesion, on the other hand, is a matter of having certain kinds of grammatical, logical, and lexical signals in the text so that the parts of it refer to each other.

In this example the brackets that connect words and phrases above the line are grammar signals (reference); those below are vocabulary (lexical) signals (repetition and superordination).[1]

---

[1] The author wishes to thank Professor G.S. Newsham for calling Broom Hilda to his attention. This story and the explanation that follows was published previously in *English Teaching Forum* (Palmer, 1980).

A SHORT STORY
from "Broom Hilda," by Russell Myers

Once upon a time there was a lovely young princess who lived in a castle in a far-off mythical kingdom.

The castle was designed by her uncle Hernando, who was an architect in a nearby city. He was also a fine family man and was once an excellent swimmer.

He competed against Johnny Weissmuller many times during the late 1920s. This was the time of the great depression during which many huge fortunes were lost.

Next door to Hernando's office was a tattoo parlor. Many of our country's brave young fighting men went there for tattoos of their mothers, Barney Google, and Eleanor Roosevelt.

It was these same young men who displayed such courage on Bataan and Iwo Jima. The courage that made this country safe for you, me, our children, zoo animals, and restoring old Hudsons as a hobby.

The End

Cohesion devices

1. castle: repetition
2. her: reference to *princess*
3. He: reference to *Hernando*
4. Johnny Weissmuller: superordination? (Weissmuller won gold medals for swimming in the Olympics in the 1920s, so the name of Johnny Weissmuller is a member of a lexical set defined by the word *swimmer*.)
5. This: reference to *the late 1920s*
6. Hernando's: repetition of *Hernando* and reference to *he*
7. there: reference to *tattoo parlor*
8. tattoos: repetition of *tattoo*
9. these: reference to *brave young fighting men*
10. men: repetition
11. courage: repetition

You will see that we have not pointed out the cohesion devices that work inside of sentences. Sentences have internal cohesion whenever they are grammatically correct. Our main interest here is to show how textual cohesion is achieved.

Reference: Grammatical Cohesion

Rationale: Reference signals are cohesion devices that directly refer backwards or forwards to other items in the text. Personal pronouns are reference signals familiar to all teachers and most students. The existence of a pronoun entails the existence of a noun phrase to which it refers. Similarly, quantifiers can refer to nouns elsewhere in the text. Quantifiers are words like *some*, *any*, *all*, *few*, *a lot*, *a little*, etc. Whenever they are used without the nouns they are attached to, they call up the nouns in the reader or listener's memory, or cause him to anticipate what is to come. For example:

> Manfred proposed that we purchase a word processor. After due deliberation the committee decided that we did not want *one*.

In this example, the use of the quantifier *one* calls up the nominal *word processor* from the previous sentence. *One* refers to *word processor*.

Other substitute words work in similar ways. They call up in memory something understood, and thus cause parts of the text to belong together.

Techniques: The teacher has the students identify each pronoun and headless quantifier in the text. They then must replace each pronoun by its referent and add the omitted head to each quantifier. This technique will cause students to learn inductively how pronouns and quantifiers are used to achieve economy of statement by helping eliminate the repetition of given information. They will also learn that pronouns often replace more than nouns alone, for pronouns often replace noun phrases that can be quite complex nominals. For example:

> At that point Manfred rose to dispute the committee's decision. He maintained that *it* was a case of sacrificing long-term gain for short-term profit.

Here *it* refers to the immediate noun phrase *the committee's decision* in the preceding sentence. However, to understand *the committee's decision*, the student must realize that as a noun phrase it is the nominalization of the sentence ". . . the committee decided that we did not want one."

Furthermore, in supplying referents students will induce knowledge about substitution classes based on number, gender, case, reflexivization, and possessives, both genitives and of-phrases (Berman, 1975). The teacher will not have to bring up these categories by name, nor will he feel that he must base any part of the lesson on these classes of items. Rather, the knowledge will come naturally with the manipulation of the textual exercise of identifying and replacing referents.

A few of the other more important classes of cohesion devices that depend on grammatical items to create reference are as follows:

1. Pro-verbs: forms of *be* or *do* or *have* that refer to other verb phrases. For example:

> Reginald averred that their word processor had saved his division the salaries of two secretaries over the previous six months. Algernon doubted whether it *had*. [. . . had saved his division the salaries of two secretaries over the previous six months.]

2. Modals: that class of words that accompanies lexical verbs and shows the writer or speaker's attitude toward the content of the clause. For example:

> Manfred urged the comptroller to approve the purchase of word processors for each division of the head office. Mr. Featherstonehaugh replied characteristically, "I *would* if I *could* but I *can't*." [. . . would approve the purchase of word processors for each division of the head office . . . could approve the purchase of word processors for each division of the head office . . . can't approve the purchase of word processors for each division of the head office.]

3. Clause substitutes: words that replace entire clauses, such as *so* and *not*. For example:

> Manfred asked whether the committee should pursue the subject of word processors further. Mr. Featherstonehaugh said he thought *not*. [. . . that the committee should not pursue the subject of word processors further.]

4. Deictic words: pointing words other than pronouns; articles; demonstratives. For example:

> Algernon pointed out that the strongest argument in favor of word processors was that of economy of scale. Mr. Featherstonehaugh replied that *that* was a fallacious argument. [. . . the strongest argument in favor of word processors is economy of scale.]

5. Comparisons: the comparative or superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs make reference to that which is compared. Any comparative word relates two or more items. Such words are *same*, *identical*, *like*, *such*, *similar*, *different*, *other*, *else*, *more*. For example:

> Algernon spoke at length on the virtues of the Cranshaw machine. Manfred argued that the features of the Wong were *similar* [to those of the Cranshaw] and that it cost *less* [than the Cranshaw cost]. Algernon maintained nonetheless that the Cranshaw was *better* [than the Wong].

In all of the preceding examples we have seen how grammatical cohesion devices provide reference to other parts of the text and so cause cohesion to occur. Sometimes, however, the same sort of cohesion occurs without any overt grammatical signal.

6. Ellipsis: parts of the text are simply left out, omitted, or understood. For example:

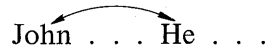
> Algernon said that he preferred the large format. Several reasons for preferring the small [format] were presented by Miss Fidditch. Algernon continued to defend the large [format]. While conceding that the small [format] has its good points, he felt that they were outweighed by the bad [points]. Invited to continue the discussion, Miss Fidditch declined [the invitation to continue the discussion].

Techniques: The teacher has the students identify each of the cohesion devices (as in 1–6 above) as it occurs in the text. As it is identified the teacher asks the students "What . . . ?" For example:

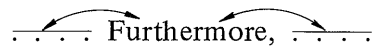
1. Had *what?*
2. Would do *what?*
   Could do *what?*
   Can't do *what?*
3. Not *what?*
4. *What* was a fallacious argument?
5. Similar to *what?*
   Less than *what?*
   Better than *what?*
6. Small *what?*
   Large *what?*
   Bad *what?*
   Declined *what?*

Conjunction: Logical Cohesion

Rationale: We may call a conjunction that connects sentences a sentence connector. Sentence connectors are different from other cohesion devices. They are used on a linguistic level that is higher than the level of the sentences of the text. They give logical structure to the text. They do not work the same way as grammatical and lexical cohesion devices. A grammar or vocabulary signal links two items together directly, as in:



But a sentence connector stands between two items and links them together, as in:



That is, a grammar or vocabulary signal is an instance of repetition or reference. The signal itself repeats an item in some form or refers to an item in some form. The sentence connector, however, stands between two items and connects them in a way that is logically meaningful. Furthermore, the items so connected may be of any size—from single words to almost complete discourses. For example:

A. Socrates is a man.

And all men are mortal.

Therefore,

Socrates is mortal.

B. The entire process of a jury trial including the defense lawyer's final arguments

So,

"I ask you to acquit my client."

It appears that any two contiguous sentences in a well-formed text can be related by a sentence connector, whether or not it is actually present in the text. A good reader can very easily supply an appropriate connector. It may be that the nature of written discourse is such that the writer unconsciously expects the reader to interact with him at the end of each sentence in the text. Good writing is in this sense like conversation. It follows that good reading is a creative act in which the reader must put mental energy into his interaction with the text. The successful reader reconstructs the logical framework of the text as he reads. And so he can supply missing sentence connectors from his understanding of the writer's purpose. This being true, we should be able to categorize the sentence connectors according to a scheme of ordinary logic. Several writers have attempted to present such schemes rather exhaustively (see, for example, Mackay, 1979). What follows here is another attempt to categorize the sentence connectors, not exhaustively, but according to a simple logical scheme that describes the connectors as belonging to one of six types:

1. AND (+): those that cause union, that are additive, that reinforce a point made or show similarity or transition.
2. BUT (-): those that show opposition, that go against a point just made, that are adversative, replacive, antithetic, or concessive.
3. SO (∴): those that show logical sequence or conclusion, that are summative or resultative.
4. THEN: those that show temporal order or series, that are enumerative or continuative.
5. I.E.: those that are explicative, that state more precisely the identity or condition or process just mentioned.
6. E.G.: those that are illustrative, that present examples.

To illustrate, here are two paragraphs from the *Language Planning Newsletter* (Vol. 8, No. 1). If the sentence connectors have been added, they are printed in capital letters. Connectors that were in the text originally are underlined.

> An examination of recent language-related development in American Samoa reveals two distinct types of sociolinguistic pressures for change. I.E., There has been the wish to maintain, and in some cases regain, the use of the traditional Samoan language. AND There has also been a desire to acquire native-like English language skills to be able to compete on an equal basis with non-Samoans in American society for educational and employment opportunities. AND These two linguistic pressures have grown and developed out of nearly eighty years of colonial contact between American and Samoan cultures. . . .
>
> Most of the permanent residents living in American Samoa today are to some degree bilingual in Samoan and English and are able to attend to the media in either language. BUT English is, however, the major vehicle for media communication. E.G., For example, an examination of a television schedule for a week in August 1981 revealed 97 hours of evening English language programming, while only 13 hours, mainly local news, were broadcast in Samoan. AND Anderson (1977) reports that viewers of Samoan language programs tend to be older than those for English language ones. SO These figures suggest the growing importance of English as the broadcast medium of communication.

Techniques: Students are asked to supply an appropriate connector for each pair of contiguous sentences in the text, as in the example above, even if an appropriate sentence connector is already present in the text. This exercise causes the students to understand the logical framework that supports the purpose of the text, and leads him to see that often such logical connectors are left out of texts because their meanings are so obvious to the native speaker or reader that they do not have to be included. Understanding the logical framework entails knowing which of the six categories of connector is appropriate to be inserted between each pair of sentences. Knowing the appropriate category of connector depends upon understanding each sentence and how it is related to the preceding and following sentences.

Of course these six types are only indicative of a general component of meaning that the ideal connector in each case would have. More precise connectors that share the general logical meanings are as follows:

1. AND: Furthermore, Incidentally, Again, Likewise, Similarly, In the same way, In addition, What is more, Now, Well, etc.
2. BUT: On the other hand, By contrast, Alternatively, Conversely, However, Nonetheless, Yet, In spite of that, etc.
3. SO: Thus, Therefore, As a result, Consequently, Hence, Altogether, In short, To summarize, To conclude, etc.
4. THEN: First, Next, Finally, Subsequently, Lastly, 1., 2., 3., . . . , a, b, c, d, . . . , etc.
5. I.E.: Namely, Precisely, That is, In other words, By this I mean . . . , etc.
6. E.G.: For example, For instance, By means of illustration, etc.

To illustrate further, here is a set of three paragraphs, taken from Mackay (1979), that concern the very topic of this section of this paper–conjunctive cohesion. Sentence connectors are underlined. A space is left between sentences. Supply an appropriate connector from the six types above for each pair of sentences.

Third, there are logical relationships holding between sentences or stretches of text, marked by the use of logical connectors. 1 In the sample text "Hence" (line 5) introduces a deduction which may be deduced logically from the information given in the previous sentence. 2 "Therefore" (line 14) introduces the logical conclusion to be drawn from the information presented so far.

3 It is clear, at this point, that we are now dealing with a different kind of cohesion from the lexical and syntactic relationships holding between sentences or larger units. 4 We are not now primarily concerned with the linguistic properties of the excerpt as text but with "the communicative function of the sample as discourse" (Widdowson 1974). 5 That is, in addition to reacting to the formal devices used to combine sentences into continuous text, we are now reacting to the linguistic signals, or "discourse markers" (Wijasuriya 1971), which tell us whether to interpret a stretch of text as an observation, a reinforcement, a conclusion, or some other act of communication.

6 These discourse markers, usually adverbs or prepositional phrases, can be grouped in notional or semantic categories in the following way: . . . .

Note that the first paragraph begins with "Third," suggesting that the following text is part of a larger text that contains at least the first and second sections. Try the following connectors between the pairs:

1. E.G.: For example,
2. AND: Furthermore,
3. SO: Therefore,
4. AND: What is more,
5. I.E.: In other words,
6. AND: Moreover,

Lexical Cohesion

Rationale: In addition to grammatical and conjunctive cohesion devices providing texture to texts, the vocabulary used in each register also provides cohesion. Vocabulary consists of words and lexical items. The distinction between *word* and *lexical item* is a simple yet crucial one for language teachers. A word is a unit of language that we separate out from the stream of speech by proportional analogy. That is, we regard a word as belonging to a set of similar items paradigmatically, so that when we write it we leave spaces on either side of it. A word may be a lexical item, that is, a unit of language looked at as a unit of meaning. For example, *door knob* is one lexical item but two words, *put up with* is one lexical item but three words.

There are at least four kinds of meaning relationships which can be shown to exist between pairs of lexical items–synonymy, repetition, superordination, and collocation.

1. Synonymy: If two lexical items mean the same, they are synonyms. For example:

> Pathogenic organisms can be found nearly everywhere. These *disease-causing* organisms usually do no harm.

2. Repetition: An obvious source of cohesion is the repetition of lexical items. For example:

> The *Gross National Product* fell in 1948. This surprised those economists who had put great faith in the rise of the *Gross National Product*.

3. Superordination: A less obvious source of cohesion is the relationship between a superordinate lexical item and a hyponym, or a member of a class of items all of which belong together by virtue of their meanings. For example:

Mammal	superordinate
Dog	hyponyms
Fox	
Bat	
Seal	
Whale	
etc.	

Any sentence that contains a hyponym entails another sentence that contains a superordinate lexical item. Thus, *I picked a tulip* entails *I picked a flower.*

What is particularly interesting about this mental process is that a student may not know either the superordinate or subordinate items in any given case. He may, for example, know *car*, *bus*, *bicycle*, but be ignorant of *vehicle*. Or he may know *carcinogen*, but be ignorant of *finnan haddie*, *Lucky Strike*, or *asbestos*. Consequently, it may fall to the teacher the task of preparing an outline of a reading assignment that relates those lexical items necessary to the themes or topics of the text. In order to practice becoming aware of the vast store of knowledge that the language user must have, try matching the hyponyms on the left with the superordinate items on the right:

Scarlet	entails	Wood
Mahogany	"	Cut
Capybara	"	Red
Hew	"	Paleozoic
Permian	"	Innominate Bone
Pubis	"	Variola
Smallpox	"	Rodent
Clutch	"	Seashore
Coast	"	Take

4. Collocation: Hyponymy is one sort of collocation. Words that mean together tend to occur together. We can divide collocation into two types—conceptual and notional. The difference between the two is that we can name the relationship between items that belong to the same conceptual field. They get their meanings from their position relative to other items. Just as *tulip–flower* is an example of hyponymy, *boy–girl* is an example of complementarity, *love-hate* an example of antonymy, and *Monday–Friday* an exam-

ple of series. Some examples: Complementarity is a relationship that may be a simple opposition as in *man–woman* or *try–succeed*, or it may be a position on a scale, as in *always–usually–frequently–seldom–never*. Furthermore, the relationship may be one of a part to a whole, or vice-versa, as in *lid–box*, or *student–school*. Try to explain how these pairs that follow are examples of hyponymy or complementarity. Note that the two types are not exclusive; two items may share both relationships.

1. *red-green* (color)
2. *face-mouth* (body)
3. *mouth-forehead* (face)
4. *dollar-dime* (money)
5. *walk-drive* (go)
6. *up-down* (direction)
7. *soft-hard* (quality)
8. *June–July* (month)

Notional collocation is less easy to describe. Though words that mean together tend to occur together, it is often a matter of common experience and culture that explains their appearance in the same text. The complexity of notional collocation can be illustrated with a word association game. *Technique*: Give a student a word. Tell him to give a related word and explain how it is related to the word you gave. Then ask a second, third, etc. student to continue in the same notional field. Often a student will give an item in the conceptual field. For example:

> *Doctor*, Patient, Nurse, Hospital, Hypodermic, Surgery, Bandage, Ambulance, etc.

More specialized and sophisticated–and thereby more difficult–fields may be used:

> *Candle*, Dinner, Church, Flame, Wick, Wax, Flicker, Match, Smoke, etc.
>
> *Hair*, Comb, Wave, Cut, Wash, Singe, Bleach, Color, Curl, Black, etc.
>
> *Literature*, Poetry, Novel, Biography, Writer, Publisher, Bookstore, Library, Short Story, etc.

Techniques: When learning the vocabulary of a text the student is asked to relate the content lexical items to each other and to determine whether each pair or set of lexical items is an example of synonymy, repetition, superordination (hyponymy), or collocation.

Pointing out these relationships will add a necessary dimension to the students' knowledge of the meanings of lexical items: a knowledge of the complex relationships obtaining between and among the items. Knowing the meaning is useless knowledge unless one knows how the item is related to other items.

When asking the students to relate lexical items to each other, one does not use the technical terminology of this paper. The teacher asks:

Does this word recur in the text?
Which word means the same as this word?
Which word covers two (or more) other words in the text?
How does it differ in meaning from them?
Which words are usually found together in a text?
What are some other words that are often found in a text with this word?
What word can you substitute for this one?
What word complements this one?

Practice

In order to practice identifying cohesion devices, let us look at two sample texts. In Text One, we point out several of the lexical devices that give it cohesion. In Text Two, we point out several of the grammatical devices that give it cohesion.

Text One: Lexical Cohesion

The Gas Mileage Fairytale

Everybody wants to save money by cutting down on gas consumption. Congress has passed regulations forcing car manufacturers to make smaller and more fuel-efficient cars and the oil companies are helping us (?) by making gasoline more expensive.

Naturally, car manufacturers are using the gas-mileage estimates for different models as selling tools in their advertising. The only problem, though, is that few motorists will actually get the same fantastic number of miles per gallon of gas as promoted in the new car ads. The manufacturers explain this anomaly by usually putting small asterisks on all gas mileage printed ads saying that individual gas mileage may vary widely depending upon such variables as driving habits, atmospheric conditions, passenger weight, and even, perhaps, one's Zodiac sign.

Nevertheless, a good general rule for computing the estimated gas mileage of an advertised new car is to take the Environmental Protection Agency's listed mileage and subtract about 20 percent from that figure. This should be the gas mileage that one can realistically expect to have. The EPA's gas-mileage figures are not intentionally inflated through some government-industry conspiracy. Actually, the answer is much simpler. When the EPA does its gas mileage testing on new cars, the automobile manufacturers supply the agency with the best tuned and maintained cars money can buy. Of course, these are not the same cars that the average citizen can expect to purchase. But, the EPA does its testing, anyway, and publishes the test results each year. Sometimes the auto makers are not satisfied with just a normally inflated gas mileage rating of about 20 percent. Occasionally, they will tamper with the cars' engines illegally, hoping to slip by the EPA inspectors. Ford, Chrysler, and American Motors have all got caught by the EPA trying similar schemes.

So, don't place too much faith in gas-mileage claims. Remember, if the gas mileage is way off sue the auto maker in small-claims court for the difference. Some motorists have won!

(Edmunston, 1979)

The purpose of this exercise is to understand how lexical items, that is, words and names, provide cohesion in a text. The three most often seen types of vocabulary signals are synonymy, repetition, and superordination. Let us look again at "The Gas Mileage Fairytale." Several identities may be found in this short text. For example, the name "Environmental Protection Agency," or "EPA," occurs six times. This repetition provides cohesion.

Read the text again, noting how the identity called "automobile manufacturer" is treated in the text.

1. car manufacturers 2. car manufacturers	repetition
3. manufacturers 4. automobile manufacturers 5. auto makers	synonymy
6. Ford 7. Chrysler 8. American Motors	superordination
9. auto maker	synonymy

If a teacher of reading is using this text, he must make sure that students understand that the nine lexical items, for example, that

we identified above, are all semantically related to each other. The learner may not know that an automobile manufacturer and an auto maker are the same. Or he may not know that Chrysler, like Ford and American Motors, is a member of the set of auto makers.

In "The Gas Mileage Fairytale," for the item "gas mileage" there are thirteen instances of repetition ("gas mileage") or synonymy ("gas consumption") or paraphrase ("miles per gallon of gas"). Furthermore, two other items are semantically related to "gas mileage" in less direct ways. They are "gasoline" and "oil companies." These two items belong to the same notional field as "gas mileage." "Gasoline" belongs as the more precise or restricted term for "gas." "Oil companies" belongs because "gas" in this sense is manufactured from "oil." Students may not recognize the cohesive effects of these items if their general knowledge is lacking.

A case could be made for tracing the three identities that we have discussed above (EPA, auto makers, gas mileage) through the text as a guide to understanding the topic.

Text Two: Grammatical Cohesion

> (1) In the mountains too, sometimes, the snow fell on the dead outside the dressing station on the side that was protected by the mountain from any shelling. (2) They carried them into a cave that had been dug into the mountainside before the earth froze. (3) It was in this cave that a man whose head was broken as a flower-pot may be broken, although it was all held together by membranes and a skillfully applied bandage now soaked and hardened, with the structure of his brain disturbed by a piece of broken steel in it, lay a day, a night, and a day. (4) The stretcher-bearers asked the doctor to go in and have a look at him. (5) They saw him each time they made a trip and even when they did not look at him they heard him breathing. (6) The doctor's eyes were red and the lids swollen, almost shut from tear gas. (7) He looked at the man twice; once in daylight, once with a flashlight. (8) That too would have made a good etching for Goya, the visit with the flashlight, I mean. (9) After looking at him the second time the doctor believed the stretcher-bearers when they said the soldier was still alive.
>
> (Hemingway, 1961)

Text Two was chosen to illustrate how important it is to be able to see how grammatical reference works in giving cohesion to a text. This text is somewhat difficult to read. It is difficult because

the reader must search for the references of the pronouns and pointing words. He must look forwards and backwards in the text in order to figure out just what the author means. Second language teachers should note that native readers face the same problems as second language learners when they read such texts. They too have to double back and look ahead to try to guess at the references.

The major problem that the teacher of reading faces in getting students to understand Text Two is not the vocabulary and sentence grammar. The problem is that some of the references of the grammatical cohesion devices are obscure. Writing of high literary quality is not necessarily easy to read.

In sentence (2) the words "they" and "them" refer to items outside of sentence (2). "They" refers to "stretcher-bearers" in sentence (4), but the very complex sentence (3) lies between "they" and "stretcher-bearers." The teacher must depend upon the students' knowledge of the real world to get them to understand sentence (2). That which is carried in sentence (2) can only be something from sentence (1): the mountains or the dead. One does not carry mountains into a cave. So the reference of "them" must be "the dead." But who are "they"? Students can answer this question, since "dressing station" and "shelling" yield a military context of situation. Students will answer, according to their experience and memory, with words that mean *soldiers*, *nurses*, *orderlies*, *corpsmen*, *doctors*, and so on. They will give an imprecise but meaningful answer. When they meet "stretcher-bearers" in sentence (4) they will have induced the meaning of "stretcher-bearers," if they don't already know the term.

It follows that the teacher must know the text very well in order to be able to anticipate the problems of reference in it. He must retrace in his mind the hypotheses that a reader makes in understanding a text. Then he can guide the students to make correct and productive hypotheses themselves. He must ask such questions as these:

Sentence (2) Who are "they"?
(2) Who does "them" refer to? How?
(4, 5, 9) Who does "him" refer to?
(7) Who does "he" refer to?
(9) Who is "the soldier"? (Note the hyponymy.)

Of particular interest in Text Two is the use of the demonstrative "that" in sentence (8). It is usually considered bad writing style to use *this* or *that* in this manner. Composition teachers often make a student rewrite a composition that contains this structure. This structure is sometimes called a metatheme; that is, a very comprehensive theme. As such, its reference is often obscure, as in sentence (8). The author of Text Two intentionally committed this error because he was in the process of developing a personal style of writing that is apparently linguistically naive but really philosophically profound. That is a matter of art.

In sentence (8) the author knew that the reference of "that" was not clear, so he added a childishly candid clause to the sentence: "the visit with the flashlight, I mean."

In the larger text of which Text Two is a part there is already a mention of Goya. The additive conjunction "too" in sentence (8) connects the previous mention of Goya to the mention of Goya in sentence (8). To understand this reference the reader must have the knowledge that Goya, a graphic artist, produced a series of etchings, *Los Desastres de la Guerra* (1808–14), about cruelty and suffering in war.

Given knowledge about Goya, the textual problem of reference in sentence (8) is that "the visit" is not overtly presented previously in the text. There is no lexical cohesion here. But the determiner "the" in sentence (8) very strongly points to *a visit*.

The teacher must ask students to explain how looking at a man in the sense of checking up on him, when the man is in a cave and the looker is working outside the cave, requires *a visit* in the sense of going somewhere to be with someone.

The clue to solving this pragmatic mystery is the cohesion signal "the." *The* always entails *a* or *some*. In Text Two "the stretcher-bearers" and "the doctor" were introduced with the definite article, with *the* instead of *a* or *some,* because the author made an assumption about the presence of some stretcher-bearers and a doctor at a military dressing station, and he expected the reader to do the same.

Summary

Grammatical meaning, logical meaning, and lexical meaning are complex. All three of these kinds of meaning are expressed through sentences and texts. Cohesion devices that relate sentences one to

the other make use of grammar, logic, and vocabulary signals to give texture to texts and to cause them to hang together. Looking at language in use globally, we see that discourse, the function of language in social situations, necessitates texts, which have structure rather more complex and different from the structure of sentences. A knowledge of how texts are made and how they stick together is a necessity for the language teacher.

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"No" Means "No", Doesn't It? Or Does It?

Dorothy S. Messerschmitt

Introduction

In beginning linguistics courses, future ESL/EFL teachers are told that language is systematic. It is not a random, haphazard human creation, but a rule-governed phenomenon (see, for example, Wardhaugh, 1974: 7). This systematic nature of language is reflected in teaching materials which are ordered and which proceed from the simple to the complex. For beginning and intermediate students the rules fall into place. Advanced students, however, soon become confronted with seemingly endless rules as they study the fine points of the language. They may well view each addition as a mindless exception rather than as a further refinement of a previous generalization. From the learner's point of view there are contradictions and inconsistencies in the system. Even linguists with strong backgrounds in generative transformational grammar acknowledge the problems of the second language teacher in dealing with apparent language contradictions. As Lakoff and Newman (1982: 11) point out, "A language teacher must often grapple with the question of whether a particular aspect of grammar is best taught by presenting a list to memorize or by giving a predictive rule."

Difficulties arise from problems of surface structure which do not appear to be consistent with grammatical function. As Messerschmitt and Zhao (1982: vii) state, "There is not necessarily a one-to-one relationship between grammatical form and function in

Dorothy S. Messerschmitt is currently an associate professor and chairperson of the Multicultural Program at the University of San Francisco. She is the author of *Listening for Structural Cues* and the co-author with Zhi-wen Zhao of *Notional Functional Exercises.*

communication. Often one linguistic form may fulfill a variety of functions and, on the other hand, one function may be fulfilled by a variety of forms." In English the area of negation has numerous contradictions which can cause problems for learners, particularly Asians. It is often said about this group of students that "no" means "yes" and "yes" means "no."

Beginning students have little difficulty understanding the basic principles of negation in English, even though it may take weeks, or even months, to internalize these rules, including contracted forms. The basic principles of negation can be summarized as follows:

1. In a sentence containing an auxiliary, add the word *not* after the auxiliary (*have eaten → have not eaten; is eating → is not eating*).
2. In sentences with a main verb and no auxiliary (present and past tenses), add the appropriate auxiliary with time and number agreement and the word *not*. Remove the time and number indicators from the main verb (*He eats → He does not eat*).

Unfortunately, these generalizations do not account for all aspects of the concept of negation. The following discussion will explore some of the apparent contradictions in English negation which can be troublesome for advanced students. For each area of negation discussed—hidden negatives, negative questions, utterances containing two negatives, the scope of the negative, and "not" transportation—classroom activities are suggested. These explanations and activities are intended to help students understand the presuppositions and cultural considerations associated with negation in English.

Hidden Negatives

Not all negatives are necessarily encoded into the surface structure of the language. Some negatively intended utterances have no overt negative markers.

An obvious example of this is found in the responses to questions incorporating the idiom "Do you mind. . . ." In the conversation below, two possible responses are given.

Do you mind if I take the day off?
(1) Yes, I really do.
(2) No, I don't.

Response (1) with no overt negative marker really means "You may not take the day off." Response (2), although negative in form, actually gives permission for the speaker to take the requested day off. The contradiction between form and meaning is apparent.

In working with this verbal exchange, students must understand the question itself. "Do you mind . . ." has to be paraphrased as "Will it be a problem for you if . . . ." In this sense the question might be construed as having negative overtones. For other examples of hidden semantic negation, see page

After explaining how the question "Do you mind . . ." operates grammatically, it is important to give the students practice in using this common utterance. A straightforward exercise can be developed using the colored Cuisinaire Rods associated with Gattegno's Silent Way®. The exercise itself is a variation of the well-known "construction engineer" activity described in Judy Winn-Bell Olsen's *Communication-Starters* (1977: 35). To begin, the instructor asks a student to build a simple figure (a house, a boat) from the rods. The instructor then randomly scatters a few extra rods nearby. Next s/he asks the student questions such as, "Do you mind if I move the red rod?" If the red rod is a part of the construction, the answer must necessarily be yes. If the rod is one of those randomly placed nearby, the answer is no.

This particular activity is an excellent opportunity for students to refine their conversational skills. As Dobson (1974: 28) states, "When someone asks a question, the interlocuter often replies with more than one statement. . . . Unfortunately, if students are left to their own devices, they frequently attempt to respond as briefly as possible." In the construction exercise with the rods, students can be asked to answer the question and then add a second utterance of explanation. In fact, a "yes" answer to "Do you mind . . ." requires further explanation lest the respondent be considered rude. Thus, the exchange in this exercise might proceed as follows:

Instructor: Do you mind if I move the red rod?
Student: Yes, I do. You see, you'll wreck the roof of my house.

or

Instructor: Do you mind if I move the red rod?
Student: No, not at all. It won't make a bit of difference.

Hidden negation becomes even more complex in the case of evasive replies. In the example below there is again no overt negative marker but the response is clearly negative in intent:

Q: Do you mind if I take the day off?
A: Well, we're really behind in filling out last month's orders.

To understand this response students must know the culture as well as the grammar. The respondent, for reasons unknown, did not give a straightforward answer. To soften the blow of a blunt response, an evasion was selected. The intent, however, was still negative.

Advanced students need to practice responding with evasions in appropriate cultural contexts. Such contexts are often those which might be considered socially delicate. One common, often delicate, social situation involves borrowing and lending. The question "Do you mind if I borrow your pen?" might elicit the response "No, not at all," whereas the question "Do you mind if I borrow $50?" might easily elicit an evasion. In order to provide conversational practice in developing evasions the instructor can direct the students to ask each other questions using the following substitution exercise:

Do you mind if I borrow _____?

a. a pencil
b. a piece of paper
c. a dime
d. a dollar
e. $50.00
f. your car
g. your notes from last week's class

Some of the requests can be answered with "No, not at all." Others can best be handled most tactfully with an evasion. After an evasion is elicited from a student, it is important for both conversation partners to understand the exchange. Students should be asked to verbalize their reasons for using an evasion. ("You are my classmate, and I don't want to insult you, but I don't know you very well, and I don't like to let anyone else drive my car.") They also need to discuss the extent of the need for truthfulness in the evasive utterances.

Another problem area with hidden negation is semantic in nature. Individual lexical items or idiomatic expressions themselves may be negative in intent but have no negative marker. For example, "This radio is beyond repair" clearly means the radio cannot be repaired. Likewise, "I'm reluctant to grant your request" implies that the speaker does not plan to grant the request. Meaning here is further complicated in that there is room for negotiation. It is not an absolute negative. The term "reluctant" indicates to the listener that there is a possibility of bargaining. Therefore, in this situation students must understand just how firm the negative implication actually is.

Two Negatives

A different problem arises in those sentences which contain two negative markers. Although students are taught that double negatives are prohibited in English, there are instances where two negatives can appear in the same sentence. One case is when the negative markers are found in complex sentences in two separate clauses, as in the example below:

Q: Could I file these under "accounts closed?"
A: I don't see why you couldn't.

Despite the two negative forms, the sentence is affirmative in meaning.

A similar situation involving simple sentences can be found in an utterance such as "I can't disobey." Here one negative is clearly expressed while the other is hidden in the semantic sense of the word "disobey." The sentence means, "I have to obey." Again, the double negative yields an affirmative meaning.

A good classroom activity to accompany the explanation of the appropriateness of two negatives in a single sentence involves an adaptation of the type of exercise developed by Lauri Fried-Lee in *This is English* (1982). Fried-Lee's exercises provide students with a list of utterances both standard and nonstandard, preceded by the question, "Is this English?" Although Fried-Lee's exercises are designed for low level adults, the same principles can be used with advanced language learners. For a list of utterances, each containing two negative markers, the appropriate question is, "Is this standard English?" The utterances might include the following:

1. I don't think he'll say "no."
2. I can't hardly understand him when he talks.
3. I can't afford not to take the job.
4. We didn't have no reason to do it.

An exercise of this type leads to a class discussion in two areas. The first deals with the topic of nonstandard English—what it is, whether it is acceptable or not. The second concerns those utterances where two negatives are used in standard English. Students need to paraphrase the meaning of such utterances and then discuss their appropriateness as a stylistic device.

Scope of Negation

English also contains utterances where the scope of the negation is in question. In the pairs of sentences which follow, the meaning of the utterances differs dramatically.

John didn't kill his brother.
John didn't kill his brother for the money.

He didn't read the book.
He didn't read the book carefully enough.

In the first sentence of each pair, the verb is simply negated—the action itself did not occur. In contrast, the second sentence in each pair contains a negative form, yet in both cases the action *did* occur. Something else, namely an adverbial element, is what is really being negated. (He *did* kill his brother but *not* for the money. He *did* read the book, but *not* carefully enough.) In the second utterance in both examples, the negation might appear to students to be in the wrong place.

In teaching these points instructors need to help advanced students recognize the kinds of phrases which change the scope of the negation. An interesting exercise is to ask students to write out several pairs of sentences in which this phenomenon occurs and list the kinds of utterances which, when coupled with a negative, cause a shift in meaning. Conceptually, such a list would include:

1. Adverbs and adverbials of manner

   He didn't do the work. He didn't do the work alone.
   She didn't study. She didn't study long.

2. Adverbs and adverbials of intent or purpose

   He didn't come. He didn't come (in order) to ask for help.
   He didn't do it. He didn't do it for nothing.

Negative Questions

Although teachers most frequently attribute errors with negative questions to Japanese students, the problem is almost universal. A quick way to help beginning students respond to the question "Don't you like pizza?" is to tell them to change the question to an affirmative one and answer it truthfully with a short answer. This solution works well, but it in no way explains the underlying sense of negative questions. Advanced students need to be told that the function of negative markers in questions is to indicate some kind of presupposition or surprise on the part of the speaker. A paraphrase of the above question could be, "It is my belief that you don't like pizza." One cannot, however, assume that the presupposition is always a negative one. In the utterance "Wasn't Kennedy the first Catholic President?" the presupposition is that the statement is true. Respondents to negative questions do not necessarily have to know the nature of the presupposition. What they need to realize is that the native speaker of English expects a response that will either confirm or contradict that presupposition. That response must therefore include a short form for emphasis, namely, "Yes, I do" or "No, I don't." It is inappropriate to answer a negative question with a simple "Yes" or "No." Furthermore, an additional explanatory utterance is often necessary.

One activity for helping students practice responding to negative questions involves the use of a timeline written on the blackboard. Such a timeline might appear as follows:

Presidential Visit to Tokyo

9:15	9:25	9:45	11:45	11:45–12:30	12:30–2:30	2:30–5:30	7:00
Arrival on Air Force One	Official Airport Welcome	Motorcade to Hotel	Arrival at Hotel	Rest	Luncheon	Conferences with Government Leaders	Formal Banquet

Working from the timeline, the instructor can then formulate negative questions to which the students respond. For example:

Q: Didn't the President arrive at 9:15?
A: Yes, he did.
Q: Didn't it take about three hours for him to get from the airport to the hotel?
A: No, it didn't. It only took two hours.

Q: Wasn't the luncheon scheduled to end at 2:30?
A: Yes, it was.
Q: Wasn't the dinner a small, informal meal?
A: No, it wasn't. It was a formal banquet.

When students give a "no" response, it is important for them to add the information needed to clarify their contradiction.[1]

"Not" Transportation

Finally, "not" transportation is almost always a problem for students. Faced with the utterance "I don't think he's home," students are apt to wonder why the speaker does not think. On the surface the negation appears to be in the wrong place. Orally, students try to say, "I think he's not home." Although this is an acceptable utterance, it is a little awkward for the native speaker. Thus, advanced students need to internalize the rule which allows the negative marker to be moved from the embedded construction to the main verb of the sentence. This phenomenon of "not" transportation, however, only works on a few verbs such as *think*, *believe*, and *suppose*. These simply must be memorized.

Classroom activities as well homework in this area of negation can involve examining pairs of sentences in order to determine whether their meaning is the same or different. Where the meaning is different, students should be prepared to paraphrase each utterance to make the distinction between the two clear. Some example pairs of utterances might include:

I don't think you should say that.
I think you shouldn't say that.

He said he didn't want to come.
He didn't say that he wanted to come.

John asked Bill not to do it.
John didn't ask Bill to do it.

I don't believe she'll come tomorrow.
I believe she won't come tomorrow.

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[1] In German (and in some other languages) there is a distinction between affirmative answers to affirmative questions and affirmative answers to negative questions. Two different affirmative particles are used. For example:
Q: Haben Sie gegessen? ("Did you eat?")
A: Ja. ("Yes.")
Q: Haben Sie nicht gegessen? ("Didn't you eat?") – negative presupposition
A: Doch. ("Yes, I did.")

Conclusion

In conclusion, although the basic rules for English negation are straightforward, there are troublesome areas. Not every aspect of the concept can be taught by rule, particularly when negative forms appear in the surface structure where they seem illogical. Contradictions must be acknowledged. Advanced students need to be made aware of semantic negation, when negative markers are not overt. They also need to know about cultural considerations and presuppositions connected with evasive replies and with negative questions. They should learn when two negatives in an utterance can be appropriate and how meaning can change with the scope of negation. Finally, they need to understand "not" transportation, especially where changes in meaning can occur. These features of English must be explained in addition to the basic rules so that students can master the subtleties of the language and become more proficient in its use. "No" doesn't always mean "no."

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Teaching Reading

Harvey M. Taylor

Introduction: What Is "Reading"?

In order to discuss what reading is, we need to begin with what reading is not—or may only partly be.

What Reading Is Not

1. Reading is not passive—it is not the absorbing of information through the eyes by looking sequentially at each word on a page of text.

2. Reading is not an addition process—it is not the adding up of the individual sounds of each letter to pronounce words; not the adding up of those words to pronounce phrases; not the adding up of those phrases to pronounce sentences; not the adding up of those sentences to pronounce paragraphs; and so on. Nor is reading the adding up of the meaning of every word in a sentence before the meaning of that sentence can be known.

3. Reading is not speaking aloud what is printed on a page.

4. Reading is not finding out the complete meaning of every word, idiom, and phrase in a text.

5. Reading is not the analysis of the grammar structures in a sentence or paragraph.

Efficient, effective reading is not any one of these things, nor is it the sum of all of these. Back in 1967, Kenneth S. Goodman

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Dr. Harvey M. Taylor is the former American Director of the Business English program at the UCLA-Institute of International Economic Management in Beijing, China. He is presently an EFL consultant in Colorado and is also associated with the Jian Hua Foundation, Hong Kong.

wrote in the *Journal of the Reading Specialist* that the common sense notion of reading held by most parents and first language reading teachers is wrong; reading is not "a precise process. It does not involve exact detailed, sequential perception and identification of letters, words, spelling patterns and larger language units" (1967: 126).

What Good Readers Do When They Read

If, then, reading is not these things, what does it mean to read something–what do good readers do in any language? What do good readers do when they read a newspaper, a magazine, an advertisement, a novel, a textbook, or whatever?

1. They read silently. They do not read the words aloud. Any readers who whisper the words they see are considered "poor readers" partly because when they say the words, their reading is slowed down.
2. They read for some purpose–maybe for news (a newspaper), or for some specific fact (a telephone directory for a number or address), or for guidance (a map or instructions on how to operate a new tape recorder), or for pleasure (cartoons, comics, jokes, fiction), or for information on a specific topic (tourist information, school homework assignments, magazine articles, traffic signs), and so on. They read for the information contained on the page.
3. They look at any pictures first.
4. They read any larger, darker words before they read other words.
5. They quickly notice any chapter or section titles.
6. They read selectively, not totally.
7. They skip uninteresting parts of a text. (Some people even skip to the last few pages of a mystery novel to find out the ending of the story before they read the book.)
8. They read many more pages of the language per day than they write.
9. They read much more difficult language than they can write themselves–more complex grammar, more unusual vocabulary, and words or characters which they may not be able to spell or write from memory.
10. They almost never use a dictionary. Instead they guess at new words or read further to find contextual clues for the meaning of any unfamiliar words.

Good readers do these and other things when they read their own first language. "Reading is not a passive process, in which a reader takes something out of a text without any effort or merely recognizes what is in the text. . . . Reading is instead an active process, in which the reader must make an active contribution by drawing upon and using concurrently various abilities that he has acquired" (Wardhaugh, 1969: 133). And good readers of a second language do the same general things, though they will probably use a dictionary more often—but more on the use of dictionaries later.

So far we have discussed what reading is not, and also what readers do when they read. Now we'll look at the act of reading itself—how readers get meaning from what is written.

How Readers Get Meaning From What They See

All good readers do certain things as they read:

1. Their *eyes focus* on something on the page—a picture, a chapter title, a newspaper headline, some words in darker print, even someone's dirty fingerprints on the page. Only a small part of any page can be in focus at any one time.

2. Once the eyes have focused, the reader becomes *mentally* very *active.* Decisions begin to be made: What is this I'm looking at? Do I want to read more, or can I just skip to something else now?

How is a reader able to make these decisions after just focusing on a very small part of what is on the page? It all begins with *guesses* about the information represented by what is seen—in photos, in designs and patterns, in cartoons, and from *printed words.* If I, for example, look at Arabic or Korean or Thai, I can't even tell if I have the words right side up. With Japanese and Chinese I can tell that much, but sometimes not much more. I can, however, usually tell whether it is Japanese or Chinese. How am I able to make these very basic decisions about printed words and characters—that something I see is Japanese, not Chinese, not Korean, not Arabic, and definitely not English? I use my memory, drawing from it all the things I know that are somehow related to what I'm looking at. I have this knowledge before I start to read anything. Once these basic decisions have been made, I begin to make guesses to try to find out what something means; these guesses are based on things I remember combined with what I see on the paper.

How Guessing Works: An Example

Let's look more closely at how guessing is a part of reading, using an English example. Let's suppose I've just read the heading of a newspaper article which is "Spring Weather in Beijing, China." I read this and decide that I'm interested. As I look down the page, my eyes happen to focus on two words toward the end of a sentence: ". . . wind around. . . ."

As soon as my eyes focus on these words, I recognize them as words that I know, and I start to guess what they refer to here. My first guess might be that they mean something like: "the wind around Beijing does something." What have my eyes and brain done to produce this idea?

First, my eyes have seen the graphic (or printed) information—the two words. My memory has recalled the meanings of these two words. And I've used my memory of what I just read a bit earlier about the general topic, as well as grammar, to guess that the letters *W-I-N-D* are the weather noun *wind,* and the *A-R-O-U-N-D* is the location preposition *around.* From my knowledge of English grammar I've added the definite article "the" even without seeing it, since it is grammatically logical for "the" to precede the noun "wind." I've also added "Beijing," since "around" as a preposition ought to be followed by a location noun—and "Beijing" seems logical here. I'm only guessing, of course, about both "the" and "Beijing."

Now, before we go any further, let's notice a few other related things which have occurred as I focus on these two words. First, in my reading of the words I used some information which I've known for a number of years—that these two words are English, that they spell the words "wind" and "around," that they are used in certain grammatical ways, that they each have certain meanings. All of this knowledge has been built up over many years because of my experience in reading English. This background helps me make my guesses quickly and usually quite accurately. We should note here that less proficient English language learners will not have all of this experience with English to draw on, so they may not be able to guess as quickly or as accurately as a native reader can.

All of this information which I used to identify these words as being "wind" and "around" has been stored in what we call my *long-term memory.* The new fact that this particular newspaper article is about spring weather in Beijing is something I have just

now picked up from the heading of the article, so it is much more recent information than is my knowledge of the two words. To make my guesses, I have combined my long-term memory of these words with what is called *short-term memory* information.

Now in order to read further, I will need to get this guess into my short-term memory; that will leave my mind free to think about whatever words I see next. But I cannot store just two words very easily as separate words. It is much more efficient (and common) to store an idea, and so I put the complete phrase, "the wind around Beijing," into short-term memory. In normal reading, of course, I might have decided that I wasn't interested in the wind around Beijing, and I might have just dropped the idea completely and turned to another article completely.

But let's look on to see whether my guess about the wind was correct. The next two words I see follow the first ones to give ". . . wind around as they. . . ." I obviously guessed wrong, since "Beijing" is not the word just after "around," as I had guessed. So I immediately revise my guess so that I get something like: "some wind is blowing around, or near, some people while they are doing something." I again have used my long-term memory with its knowledge of these two *new* words—their meanings, their probable grammatical uses here, the general context of the spring weather, and so on, to make this new guess. I have had to revise my original guess because these next words have shown that my first guess was wrong. So I have dropped my first idea, "the wind around Beijing," from my short-term memory and have replaced it with a new idea, "the wind around some people as they do something."

Let's now go to the end of the sentence and see what else is there: ". . . wind around as they grow." My knowledge of the uses of punctuation in English tells me to stop at the period, since normally the meaning of this group of words would be complete in this one sentence. How good was my second guess? It still seems to be O.K. grammatically—the wind is near someone as they grow from children to adults. But my knowledge of the world tells me that it is strange to write about this subject in a newspaper article about the weather in Beijing.

So what do I do next? I back up and look for clues earlier in the sentence—and this of course will slow down my reading speed. But it is the most logical way to check the accuracy of this new guess about people growing up, unless I want to take a chance that the

next sentence will clear everything up. Let's look back. What I find is ". . . to wind around as they grow."

That causes real trouble with my guessing. My knowledge of English grammar tells me that, yes, the preposition "to" can occur before a noun (as it does in *go to town*), but that it can't occur before the noun "wind"—it would have to be "to *the* wind."

Let's stop again. A reader whose knowledge of English does not include the rule that requires "the" between "to" and "wind" may not notice this problem, and would continue to guess about ". . . to wind around. . . ." Those who have a broader general knowledge of English would immediately do what most readers have already done—they would now make a very different guess. By now they would have realized that this "to" cannot be the preposition *to*, since "the" is missing. What else could this "to" be? An infinitive marker—and that's what is here. This makes us start all over in our guessing at how to read the two words we began with: ". . . wind around. . . ." We find that we don't have the noun *wind*, but rather the infinitive form of the verb *wind*. We could go on, but you have been patient enough with my guesses. The complete sentence reads: "Because of the strong, spring winds this year, farmers outside the city have had to use very sturdy bamboo poles for their beans to wind around as they grow."

Summary of the Introduction

Let me summarize what we have covered so far. Notice how active the reader has been in each of these steps; the reader is not just a passive mental sponge soaking up information from a printed page. In reading, the following happens:

1. The eyes focus on something.
2. The reader decides either to skip what is seen or to think more about it. This is part of what is called *scanning* a piece of text to see whether we are interested or not in actually reading it in greater detail.
3. If the reader *is* interested, then the guessing begins, and a single idea is assigned to the words focused on.
4. This idea is stored in short-term memory, while more words are looked at. The first guess may be confirmed, modified a bit, or thrown out because of what is next discovered.
5. As each guess is made, the reader draws information from long-term memory about English grammar, about each word seen,

about the real world, about the general topic, and about what has already been read in the previous sentences–all in order to see if this idea, this current best guess which is not in short-term memory is acceptable here to represent the meaning of what is being read.

6. If the meaning is acceptable, this new information is added to other information already picked up from this passage, and reading can continue–but only as an ongoing, sometimes systematic guessing process. "The process might best be described not as haphazard guessing, but as a kind of prediction based on very poorly understood [by researchers] rapid-fire sampling techniques of some kind" (Eskey, 1973: 172).

While we were working through the example, there were some things which did *not* occur and they should also be summarized here. Our eyes did not–could not–focus on the entire sentence at one time, even when we finally saw it. We did not wait to think about meaning until after we had read a lot of words. We did not limit our guessing to just the words we actually saw, but we added words each time to what we saw in order to give us a single idea to remember in our short-term memory. We did not read word-by-word, either, but rather idea-by-idea. And we *did* guess, and guess, and guess again.

Implications for the Teaching of EFL Reading

Now that we have described and illustrated what reading is thought to be, let's see what this analysis of reading could mean to us as teachers of reading to someone who is learning English as a foreign language. I am going to suggest ways to develop our students' skills in reading English as a foreign language. The most skillful EFL reader will, of course, read the way a skillful native speaker of English reads. But the native English reader brings to each reading task a brain full of long-term memory knowledge which often helps quick and correct guessing. The EFL student, unfortunately, may lack one or many areas of knowledge which would help make him or her a better reading guesser in English.

Areas of Background Knowledge Which Help Readers

A good reader uses many important knowledge areas to facilitate guessing while reading:

1. The *rhetorical devices* by which American and British writers develop a topic. As Eskey writes, "The writer of English . . .

assumes a particular world view and a knowledge of certain 'logical' ways of organizing a piece of writing" (1973: 180). For example, any cause which is stated will normally be followed by an explanation of its effects; a hypothesis or theory will be given with its supporting evidence together with a concluding statement; two sides of an argument will be stated with each bit of evidence evaluated; time sequencing will be used to describe events, but with occasional flashbacks within a narrative; and so on. The proficient native reader is able to limit his or her guessing strategies to what is appropriate to each type of topic development–he or she often knows what kind of ideas to expect next just from knowing what sort of development pattern is being used by the author.

2. The *style* of a given type of writing and that of a single author. Novels and short stories are written differently from college textbooks, and each novelist has a unique style. The experienced reader of English will be able to recognize these special styles and can use this knowledge to make more efficient guesses at meaning as he or she reads.

3. Any English language material which is written by an American, by a Britisher, by a Filipino, or by a Pakastani will almost always reflect the home *culture* of that writer. Thus an American reader is normally able to make more accurate guesses when reading an American author from a similar cultural background than when reading other writers' works. (For instance, I make more wrong guesses–and thus read less quickly–when I read some articles from the *Far Eastern Economic Review* than when I read *Business Week*, since the *Review* generally reflects Hong Kong/British culture, and *Business Week* reflects American.) If native readers have these problems, what can we expect from non-native English readers, who may have had little exposure to the culture of the authors being read?

> If reading is to lead to understanding, the reader must have at least a minimum access to the writer's underlying assumptions about his subject, and, perhaps, the larger world of which that subject forms a part. To provide it, the cultural subcomponent must include . . . information about the writer's conceptual universe–what he questions, what he values, and what he takes for granted. . . . The relevant concepts depend on the cultural background of the students themselves and on their interests and needs. The more unlike the cultures, the more likely it is that cultural misunderstandings will occur. (Eskey, 1973: 180).

4. One situation which may not be peculiar to China, but which has proven to be a formidable problem for readers of modern American and British English in EFL programs in China is of another sort. Chinese students have until quite recently been trained in a single fairly narrow field—true specialists. Thus when they read English outside of that single field, or when their specialized materials include examples or other information of a more general nature, they often lack the necessary *general knowledge of the world* to make even reasonable reading guesses. Many students find it next to impossible to make even a close guess at the meaning of a phrase such as "he put it on his charge card" because they are not aware of the credit card economies of more industrialized countries. A general lack of world history and geography training in the past causes other problems—novels with an American setting in the late 1800s up through the 1920s or so, generally are assumed by many Chinese readers of English to reflect current American social and economic conditions.

What these four points mean, then, is that EFL reading teachers need to be aware of gaps in their students' knowledge of rhetorical devices, of an author's style, of the culture represented by the text, and of general world knowledge which the author refers to. "Rhetoric varies from culture to culture. The foreign reader of English . . . may miss or misinterpret the rhetorical signals which, for example, establish the writer's purpose . . . , his attitude toward his subject . . . , and the logical strategy . . . by which he structures his text" (Eskey, 1973: 181).

Many EFL programs avoid teaching rhetoric or culture except in literature courses. However, with the movement now in EFL toward the use of more natural, authentic, and original materials for reading practice, our students' lack of these sorts of knowledge may become an increasingly greater problem. Any students who can learn these sorts of knowledge will be able to read at least the reading comprehension passages on the TOEFL and similar tests much faster and with greater accuracy than those with the same knowledge of grammar and vocabulary but who lack this background knowledge.

General English Proficiency

This brings us to the importance of general English language

proficiency as it relates to the ability to make quick and accurate guesses at the meaning of what is seen on a page.

First of all, obviously a good sense of the limitations which English *grammar* places on possible meanings will improve the reader's ability to make accurate guesses. As we saw earlier, a reader who thinks that "to wind" is a grammatically correct prepositional phrase is more apt to make a wrong guess at the meaning of that phrase than the reader who knows that "to the wind" is possible but that "to wind" is impossible. This principle holds true for all readers. Whoever has a good sense of what is grammatically possible will have an advantage over those who do not. However, I do not believe that a knowledge of grammatical rules necessarily produces this "sense of grammatical possibilities." The two do probably overlap, but I am certain that there are good readers of EFL who cannot state many of the rules of grammar that produce the sentences they read so well—and I'm equally certain that there are poor readers of EFL who could analyze the grammar of almost every sentence they manage to read.

Probably more important than grammar knowledge for reading is a general knowledge of English *vocabulary*. As with grammar, a good reader has more than a textbook or dictionary knowledge of vocabulary items. A good reader has a sense of what words work together under normal conditions, and uses this sense to guess the combined meaning of the words seen on the page. "Word meanings do not exist in isolation in the reader's mind like so many entries in a dictionary. What a word means to the reader depends upon what he is reading and what he expects to read, the phrase, clause, or sentence in which the words appear. The meaning of a word, that is to say, depends upon the thought that it is being used to express and the context of its expression" (Kolers, 1968: xxx).

Some interesting research has been done on the ways language learners always take any group of words and try to put them together to fit the context in which they occur—regardless of the grammar they know is already there.[1] This partly supports the observation that most EFL students feel their big problem in reading is the new vocabulary they encounter. Often the reason they feel that vocabulary is so important is because we teachers have

[1] Higgins has shown that when exposed to a bit of language, in his case by hearing it, the language learner invents a meaning that seems logical for the context, often in spite of some of the vocabulary items he has clearly recognized (Higgins, 1975).

required that they learn every new word (and recognize every old one) before we expect them to read a passage through. They rarely learn by doing it that they might be able to get a general meaning of a passage even if they don't know all the words.

What happens is that instead of guessing about the meaning of what they are looking at, these readers see a new word—and they reach for their bilingual dictionary. They are certain that there is no chance that they could understand the sentence if they just read on without learning what that new word means.

Recapitulation

Now let's pause and see what we've said so far about what this "guessing" view of reading should mean to us as teachers of reading.

First, we need to include somewhere in our EFL program an analysis of how native English writers organize what they write—a course in at least the recognition of the major rhetorical devices used by good writers. It is unlikely that students can learn to recognize these devices just by having them listed or pointed out. They need practice looking at selections and then identifying how they have been organized by the author.

Second, the students need to be shown how the author whose work they are about to read generally writes. What is there about that author's particular style that may cause misunderstanding or faulty guessing as the students read?

Third, students need exposure to the culture of the authors they read. This can best be done before the students begin to read a selection and can probably be done in the students' native language more efficiently than in English. (After all, in this case the purpose is to teach the necessary information about the culture, not the language which implies or explains that culture.) Later on as a passage is read, the student will be able to draw from memory this information and make a better guess at what the passage means; thus the students will read better.

Fourth, and similarly, if there is a general world knowledge that is lacking (such as what the Gold Rush of 1849 was), then this, too, can be taught before the students read the passage where this knowledge is needed. Often this type of information is mentioned after the students have tried to read the passage, as if such culturally-bound references were part of the proper study of literature alone. Again, there is no reason why this information must be presented in English rather than in the students' native language.

Fifth, we have the problem of developing sufficient general grammatical competence in the students so that they can use that competence as an aid in guessing the meaning of each phrase of the language they read. Some authors, including myself, have tried at times to provide reading materials which contain only grammatical constructions which the textbook has already explained and taught the students to recognize, to say, and to write. (In actuality, just because a certain grammar point is presented in the book and practiced in class, students do not all master this point at that time, even for recognition, much less for production. Yet these same students often do surprise us by being able to read and comprehend grammatical constructions they have not been taught. This ability should help us realize that readers often use non-grammar clues to discover the meaning of a sentence which contains a grammar structure they have never seen before.)

My suggestion, then, is that reading never be taught as an analysis of the grammar in the sentences. Rarely is an understanding of a grammar point crucial for general reading comprehension of a passage, though it may be if we as teachers are focusing only on sentence-by-sentence comprehension. (In cases where the antecedent of a pronoun or the use of a passive verb must be understood in order to get the meaning of a passage, then of course that will need to be pointed out.)

And sixth, this brings us back to vocabulary. In any reading, there is a limit to how many unfamiliar words a reader can encounter and still make reasonable guesses at meaning. Many foreign language readers, unfortunately, have been conditioned by us teachers to feel guilty if even one new or forgotten word appears in any sentence. In a test situation this guilt often is replaced by sheer panic. "The foreign student frequently suffers from a kind of mental block in his reading of English, a conviction that he must correctly process every word if he is to understand anything at all. Since good reading entails doing exactly the opposite, no student can make normal progress in this way" (Eskey, 1973: 177).

A couple of things are at fault here. Much in-class reading focuses on understanding a passage sentence-by-sentence. Yet normal reading in the world outside the language classroom almost always involves finding information from a paragraph or longer passage. Only rarely does the main idea of a paragraph depend entirely on knowing a given word—and even if it does appear to, the

writer of a well-written passage will probably define, restate, or illustrate that word somewhere within that passage. Thus, practice in getting the sense of new words from context needs to be supplied in our classrooms if we are to teach effective reading.

Suggestions for Classroom Reading Activities

There are some other things we teachers can do to help students tolerate unknown vocabulary as they do their reading-by-guessing.

General Comprehension Questions

First, we can stop insisting on total understanding at the sentence level. We can ask comprehension questions which have their answers in the general flow of the paragraph or passage, rather than questions that depend on single vocabulary items for their answers. Since the normal purpose of reading is to get some general understanding of a passage, then our classroom activities should encourage the development of skills that will produce this type of reading.

Skimming

We can also divert our students' attention and concern away from separate vocabulary items to general content by helping them practice skimming and scanning. Skimming can involve looking through a passage for the answers to certain questions. This is superior to the usual type of comprehension questions for students to answer after they have read through a passage, not knowing what to try to remember. Many comprehension questions really test memory along with reading comprehension. For many of the TOEFL-type reading comprehension exercises, we can get our students to look at the questions first, and then skim the passage for the answers. It is a waste of time to read the entire passage when only a few items in it provide the correct answers. If our classroom activities have regularly included skimming for answers, our students should perform better on the reading comprehension part of standardized tests which provide a passage to read, with comprehension questions printed immediately below the passage.

Skimming also may involve a quick look at a passage or newspaper article just to see if it is of interest. How often do we provide students with any reading material to look over just to see if they really want to read it later in more detail? It is relatively easy to

help students develop this ability–just have them skim the titles of chapters, the headings of articles in an English-language newspaper, the first sentences of paragraphs, and so on, before they decide what they want to read.

Scanning and Marking

We have referred to scanning before, in which the eye just moves quickly across a page, catching anything that stands out–darker or larger print, pictures, charts, numbers, prices, underlined words, and so on. We can give students practice in this, but we can also have them produce their own scanning materials. As students study a textbook on any subject, have them mark main ideas or words when they first read a passage. Then when it comes time for them to review for a test, they can save many hours of reading by just scanning each page for those words to see if they can mentally discuss or explain what they have previously highlighted. This is scanning for an academic purpose, rather than just scanning for practice, and it makes a greater impact on the student since it is an immediately useful exercise. Have we taught this short-cut to our students?

Look back now at the first part of this article, at the section titled, "What Good Readers Do When They Read." Certain words have already been marked for you. Quickly look over that section and see how much easier it is to recall its main points now than it is to look over other unmarked sections and get their main points.

In addition to student-marked material for scanning, many kinds of reading materials include visually attractive items which summarize main facts or concepts in different parts of the passage. Readers can quickly scan across a page before reading and pick up a general idea of its content. Such a preview helps immensely in the process of reading-by-guessing.

Since both skimming and scanning offer so much potential help to EFL readers, we need to provide frequent practice for our students. Such practice will help break the word-by-word and sentence-by-sentence bad reading habits most of our students seem to develop. In addition, our students will have realized (if we teachers have told them) what an amazing lot of information can be learned without carefully reading every word in a passage.

Knowing vocabulary is important to EFL readers first of all because they think it is–because they don't believe they can read

and understand anything that has even a few new words in it. Our task as teachers of reading, then, is to provide our students with the techniques and enough practice to convince them that they can read by guessing even when they encounter unknown vocabulary.

Now let's go back to where we started from in talking about the role of vocabulary in reading. Many of our students are too vocabulary conscious to read groups of words. They feel their eyes must look at (and often at least quietly voice) each word on the page. They also fear forgetting the meaning of a new word once they have looked it up in a dictionary or word list.

Vocabulary Translations

Many of my students have the habit of writing a translation of new words immediately over or under or beside any they fear they might not recall in class tomorrow or when they read that passage again a few weeks later before an examination. The problem with having these translations written right next to the new word is that the student never really finds out if he has learned to read that word in its context. As he looks over a sentence, his eyes will always look at what is written in his native language before they will look at the English. As teachers we'll probably never be able to stop our students from writing such translations in their English readers. Maybe we can get them to agree to a compromise which will help improve their reading and which will still allow them to write their translations of difficult words. Allow them to write these, but explain how it hampers their ability to use that passage again for true reading practice if they write the translations close to the new words. Instead, they can write in the margin, but not in the actual text area itself. That way, when they reread the passage, they can cover the margins with their hands and really find out if they have learned to recognize the meaning of each word or not–if that is their reading goal. If they do forget one word, they can quickly move their hand, see the translation, and go on reading. Also, if this limitation has been implemented, it will be easy for us teachers to walk around the room and see if any writing has been done between the lines in anyone's book.

Contextual Clues

Before we leave this discussion of vocabulary, we need to say a bit more about training our students to look for vocabulary mean-

ing clues from the context. Often these clues will help the reader pick up the general, and sometimes even the exact meaning of new words just from the context. There are exercises of this sort in most reading improvement books; yet students do not—at least in my experience—automatically learn to look first for contextual clues. They still too often go to the dictionary and waste a lot of time that could be spent in actual reading. It is interesting that if you ask any native speakers of English—no matter how poor their reading ability may be—if they use a dictionary when they read, they will almost always say they never use one except to check the spelling of a word when they are *writing.* Most of the time when reading nontechnical material, we first-language readers just ignore any new word completely, and keep on reading for the general idea and never even think about that word again. We fully expect to pick up a general impression of the meaning of that word as we read further—and if not, we feel we probably haven't missed any important idea anyway.

This ability to tolerate unknown words and still make reasonable guesses while reading is an attitude and skill all EFL readers need to develop if they are ever to be efficient readers. But often it is the teacher's insistence on learning every vocabulary item which makes the student so fearful of letting any new word go by without getting something written down about it from a dictionary—even if what is written down happens to be a definition which does not fit that particular context.

An Integrated Reading Activity

If our view of good reading as a series of guesses is correct, readers should move through a passage faster if they read by guessing, and slower if they read each word and then try to add up the meanings of each separate word. But readers who feel they must be able to tell the meaning of every unknown word before they can move to the next sentence will not only be poor guessers but will also be slow readers.

There is something we as teachers can do that will pressure our students to read by guessing, that will force them to read on and look for the meanings of unknown words from the context, that will also help them increase the size of their reading vocabulary, and that will also increase their reading speed. But in order for us to produce these highly desirable results, we teachers must be con-

vinced of its value, and our students must be willing to cooperate in a strange, new activity.

This "magic" activity begins as *timed skimming* and gradually becomes *timed reading.* Each student has a copy of the same book or passage. The teacher selects a page which the students have not yet studied–and preferably have not seen before. It can be a page from an as yet unstudied part of the regular EFL text; it can be from any other English language book which all the students have–even one for another course; it can be back-issues of a locally available magazine in English; or it can be a page of a newspaper or other duplicated material of any kind as long as it is in English. All that is needed is a minimum of one paragraph of prose–though at the start, even charts, graphs, or pictures with captions can be used.

The technique used is the following:

1. The teacher prepares by selecting the passage and writing out from one to three questions which can be easily answered by just a quick glance at a heading title, first or last sentence, underlined words, numbers, and so on.
2. Students are told to open their books to the page selected.
3. Set an unreasonably short time limit (10 seconds); you will ask at the end of that time who has the answer. If the answer is in the title, even two seconds may be long enough to wait for an answer.
4. Read one question and ask for hands to be raised (but no one should call out the answer) as soon as someone finds the answer. For example, a question could be, "What is this about, a man, a car or an animal?" The answer may be in the title or in a photo or other obvious place for the eye to catch.
5. Call out the time limit when it has been reached, but wait until about half the class has raised their hands before calling for an oral answer.
6. Ask first where the answer was found, and then have just the words which give the answer read or said; no whole sentences should be read for the answer, since the purpose is to help students focus on just the words needed to get the correct answer.
7. Ask a second question which has its answer in a different part of the passage–preferably in a later part from where the first answer was found so that students will have to look further and not just remember something they read while looking for the first answer.

8. Follow the same answering procedure as for the first question.

9. Normally a maximum of three questions should be used; otherwise the students become too well acquainted with the passage.

10. Do not discuss the passage any further. Instead move on to a new page and different questions. Even five minutes of such practice a few times a week will be a beneficial sort of contest, which students seem to enjoy.

Benefits

The benefits of this sort of activity include training in skimming, in scanning, in guessing at meaning from seeing just a few words, and in making a reading class more fun. Because of the time limits set, it will be impossible for any student to find the answer by trying to read the entire passage word-by-word or even sentence-by-sentence. The task can be made as simple as necessary for even beginning readers, with questions such as, "What is the third word in the second sentence?"

The students learn that they can get information without reading every word. Reading speed will increase as they become comfortable in skipping over unknown vocabulary that is not needed in order to find the answers. Eventually they will realize that they have begun to pick up at least a vague meaning for some of the new vocabulary, just from the context.

As the students' skills develop, they can be asked to move on from just finding answers to finding the general topic of a certain paragraph on the page. Later this can be expanded to finding the general topic of an article and one example, illustration, or explanation given on that page to support that general topic. This will involve skimming for the general topic and then skimming again to find the supporting material. They will probably need to read most of the sentence which states the topic and also a couple of the sentences which contain the supporting material. This will be perfectly all right, since the purpose of the exercise is to have them learn to skip over any sentences which do not contain what they are looking for. They may find themselves starting to read quite a few sentences, but deciding that none of those has the information they want. This sort of sophisticated reading skill is what this activity is aiming to develop.

This is selective reading, which is the result of using skimming to find the place where necessary information is, and then reading just what is going to provide the information. This is the ultimate skill we want the students to learn from this practice—a skill which we all use whenever we look for specific information when reading in our own language.

You will undoubtedly find ways to modify this activity to suit the needs of your own students, but there are two things to remember. You will need a very large quantity of material for your students to practice on, and you will need to keep the students reading under a time pressure. Never wait for all the slower students to find the answers; call on someone to give the answer as soon as about half of the class has their hands raised.

Conclusion

Now, what have we said? We have discussed *good* reading as a series of guesses based on seeing only part of a sentence at a time. We have mentioned some of the kinds of background knowledge that will help an EFL reader make more accurate guesses—and to make them faster. We have talked about developing the reader's ability to skim, to scan, and to get the meaning of new vocabulary from contextual clues. We have suggested ways to reduce the student's dependence on a bilingual dictionary. And we have ended with a suggested activity which has for many students produced a new attitude toward reading in English for information.

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Pronunciation and Listening Comprehension

Judy B. Gilbert

The growing interest in listening comprehension suggests a need for deciding what aspects of speech are most important to understand spoken English. In a review of recent theory in the areas of speech perception and discourse analysis, six premises emerge on which effective lessons can be based, using aspects of pronunciation to increase listening comprehension. A sample lesson for one of these aspects, thought-group marking, is presented at the end of the paper.

Premise One: Pronunciation is important because students need to understand and to be understood.

This statement would seem too obvious to mention, if it were not for the fact that the teaching of pronunciation has been virtually abandoned in many ESL programs. In a related decline, there have been relatively few research papers on this subject for some years, which has had the grave effect of causing teacher-trainers to give the subject little attention. Nevertheless, it is a fact that many ESL students have such poor pronunciation that they are simply not understandable. Since this lack of speech clarity tends to cut these students off from meaningful use of spoken English, it seems paradoxical that any program director would think pronunciation is

Judy Gilbert, an instructor in the American Language Program at California State University, Hayward, has presented papers at CATESOL, TESOL and NAFSA meetings and chaired the Colloquium on Intonation, TESOL '83. She has published articles in phonology journals as well as practical articles for classroom application. Her book, *Clear Speech* (Cambridge University Press, forthcoming) teaches American English pronunciation and listening comprehension. The author would like to thank Virginia French Allen, Dwight Bolinger, and Tippy Schwabe for their comments on this paper.

not worthy of classroom time. As Leahy (1980: 217) has observed, "If teachers are truly concerned with the well-being of their students, pronunciation should be one of their prime concerns."

The neglect of pronunciation may be the result of a reaction to the excessive reliance in the past on audiolingual methods of language teaching. Three tenets of the audiolingual approach, which may now seem quaint, but which were at one time almost universally accepted, are: a) a striving to achieve native-like performance; b) a belief that each item must be perfected before moving on; and c) a belief that the most important part of pronunciation is the individual sounds. When these three beliefs were combined, they produced the minimal pair drill (ship/sheep) which, if continued long enough, is apt to reduce the most eager student to listless compliance, if not outright rebellion. Furthermore, minimal pair drills often produce minimal results. Many teachers have had the disheartening experience of teaching a minimal pair lesson on two contrastive sounds (/r/ and /l/) only to hear students who had been perfect in class, make precisely that error as they leave the room: "So rong, Teacher!"

Since for so many program directors, the word *pronunciation* calls to mind this kind of unsatisfying emphasis on individual sound practice, it is not surprising that the subject has been neglected. Now, however, there is a counter-current to this ebbing interest in pronunciation: the new wave of interest in the functions of intonation. Brazil, Coulthard, and Johns, writing about the discourse function of intonation, observe:

> At a time when communicative competence has emerged as a goal for the language learner, it would seem that the time is ripe for considering ways of integrating the teaching of intonation . . . into the language syllabus. (Brazil et al., 1980: 117)

Concurrent with the development of an interest in discourse intonation, studies in the fields of acoustic phonetics and cognitive psychology have combined to develop systematic ways to study the specific markers of intonation (Gilbert, 1980).

When all of these research developments are considered according to their bearing on the ESL classroom, it becomes reasonable to present the truism expressed in Premise One as not only true, but newly true. Pronunciation should be taught, and can be taught,

provided we approach it not in the old ways, but from the new direction of discourse function.

Premise Two: The most important part of pronunciation is prosody, *the intonation and rhythm.*

The sometimes disappointing results from the drilling of segmental differences (the contrasts between individual sounds) may be because placing a narrow emphasis on segmentals is too limited an approach, since it ignores the great prosodic differences between languages (Ohala and Gilbert, 1981; see also Abberton, 1978; Darwin, 1975; Nash, 1971). In his introduction to *Forms of English*, Bolinger says:

> Part One [of *Forms of English*] looks at those components of speech that come first for the child but last for the analyst: intonation, accent and stress, and rhythm. If the child could paint the picture, these would be the wave on which the other components ride up and down; but the linguist is older and stronger, and has his way—he calls them suprasegmentals, and makes the wave ride on top of the ship. (Bolinger, 1961: 1)

Every language uses prosody to convey meaning, but not all in the same ways. In English, if the rhythm is so wrong that the listener cannot identify the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables, the sentence may be unintelligible even though the individual sounds can be clearly identified. There is some evidence to suggest that, in English, words are stored in memory by their stress patterns (Brown, 1977: 48). The effect on the listener of an incorrectly stressed word has been described by Huggins: "If the listener perceives a stress/rhythmic pattern that is different . . . he is 'garden-pathed' away from the correct utterance, and is not able to recode the individual phonemes into the words they represent before they fade from auditory short-term memory" (Huggins, 1979: 283).

The Test for Spoken English, sponsored by the TOEFL Program, places a major emphasis on prosody. It diagnoses three score areas: pronunciation, grammar, and fluency. The pronunciation score is based on "phonemic errors and foreign stress and intonation patterns." The fluency score is based on "nonnative pauses and/or a nonnative flow that interferes with intelligibility" (TSE, 1982: 13).

Premise Three: The primary purposes of prosody in English are to a) mark the focus of new information and b) delimit thought-groups.

In the past a great deal of attention has been given to the relationship between grammar and intonation, but each form of analysis has its detractors and, furthermore, seems quite difficult to teach. There has also been a considerable attempt to equate intonation with attitude, but this approach lends itself to vagueness. Every teacher who has worked with prosodic ways of conveying emotion is aware that the approach has limited use, perhaps because of the complexity of setting the attitudinal stage in a classroom, and also because the relationship of intonation to emotion is itself endlessly complex and debatable. Current interest in discourse analysis suggests a more productive approach, based on the discourse function of intonation (de Bot and Mailfert, 1982; Brazil et al., 1980). Discourse functions include, among other things, both the focus of meaning (new information) and the separation of words into thought-groups (Daneš, 1960; Brown, 1977; Ladd, 1980).

New Information

Every language has a way to show the difference between old information (ideas already discussed or mutually understood) and new information (the new thought to which the speaker wishes to call attention). In English, word order and intonation play a major role in showing this distinction.

> What linguists often call *old information*, or *given information*, is actually information which a speaker assumes is in the consciousness of the listener at the moment of speaking. Words whose referents have this property are pronounced with weak stress and low pitch. (Chafe, 1980: 10)

This principle was explained in a practical manner by Allen (1971), who gave a number of examples of shifting focus of attention, such as the following:

X: I've lost an umBRELLa.
Y: A LAdy's umbrella?
X: Yes. A lady's umbrella with STARS on it.
GREEN stars. (Allen, 1971: 77)

Thought-Groups

The stream of talk does not flow along smoothly but is composed of a series of brief spurts. When we listen to speech we do not generally notice this intermittent quality, but get an impression of smooth continuity. These spurts of speech are the organization of the speaker's thoughts into groups: phrases, clauses, and larger utterances, which are "linguistic expressions of focuses of consciousness" (Chafe, 1970: 15). This aspect of speech has been called *chunking* by some researchers.

> By tone grouping, or utterance chunking, a speaker organizes information into groups. . . . Prosody therefore becomes an integral part of the linguistic processes by which we signal information about thematic cohesion, perspective, message prominence, and distinctions such as those between shared and nonshared, main and subsidiary information. (Gumperz and Kaltman, 1980: 32, 62)

Premise Four: The demarcation of thought-groups is an important aid to comprehension.

One way to understand the importance of chunking is to think about a telephone or credit card number. If the number is read over the phone without the proper grouping of the numbers, the number sequence will be much more difficult to comprehend.

In written English, punctuation is used to help the reader separate thought-groups. Not only does written English have punctuation as an aid, but the reader can always reread if there is some confusion. For example:

1a. "Alfred," said the boss, "is stupid."
1b. Alfred said, "The boss is stupid."

In spoken language, on the other hand, there is neither punctuation nor the opportunity to recheck the words. Therefore all languages have some kind of markers to help the listener be sure of the groupings. These markers are necessary because chunking is an essential processing mechanism for the listener (Pribam, 1980).

O'Malley, Kloker, and Dara-Abrams (1973) demonstrated that algebraic equations, when read aloud, are made clear to the listener by the use of prosodic markers for the thought-groups: in this case, the grouping of algebraic terms. For example:

2a. X times (Y plus Z) = A
2b. (X times Y) plus Z = A

The term *A* will have a different value in each case, just as the meanings of the two sentences in the previous example are different, even though the words, or terms, are the same. The punctuation is a written reflection of the spoken markers. Even when English is spoken at a rapid rate, the prosodic markers are preserved because they are so important for conveying meaning.

Premise Five: The signals for marking English thought-groups in speech are a) pause, b) a drop in pitch, and c) lengthening of the syllable preceding the end.

In slow speech, the pause in the most obvious marker of *end-of-the-thought*. But during speech which is too rapid for pauses, pitch drop and lengthening are essential signals. In general, pitch-fall means *end*, and there is a relationship between the degree of finality and the amount of the fall. For instance, a fall at the end of a sentence is likely to be greater than a fall at the end of a clause; the end of an entire speech is apt to be marked as decisively final by a decisive fall in pitch. More subtle, but equally systematic in spoken English, is the lengthening of the final syllable. This lengthening may exist in order to give time for the pitch fall (see O'Malley et al., 1973; Klatt, 1975; Lehiste, 1977).

Premise Six: The English prosodic markers for thought-groups must be taught along with the language, because other languages do not necessarily have the same marking system, or the same grouping.

Ballmer (1980) says that typically pauses are used to demarcate thought-groups in Indo-European languages. However, many languages (Cantonese, Korean, Lisu, Laku, and Caucasic languages) have clause-final particles or special morphemes to show the end of main and subordinate clauses, and therefore do not need to rely so much on prosodic markers to indicate group boundaries. Meara (1980) suggests that Spanish, Japanese, Turkish, and other languages may have different grouping concepts than English, because of syntactic differences. Grosjean (1980) shows a striking difference between French and English placement of pauses: twenty-three per cent of all pauses in English in his sample were located inside the

Verb Phrase, as compared to only nine per cent in French. "Each language [distributes] the pause time in such a way that it reflects the linguistic structure of the language" (Grosjean, 1980: 307).

Gumperz has written extensively about the cross-cultural confusions resulting from the mismatch between Indian English and Western English prosody. The prosodic markers are used differently and the subdivision of utterances into chunks is different. After describing these differences, he and Kaltman conclude:

> One important point is that while affect and information are always present together, what happens when we misinterpret each other is that we head for extreme judgements in these areas—make them into categories. Indians and Westerners make differing use of signalling options—their baselines are different. . . . This is why we get recurrent confusions about attitude and why difficulties in exchanging information so inevitably become conflicts between personalities. (Gumperz and Kaltman, 1980: 61)

Lesson for Thought-Groups

The following sample lesson for thought-group markers is composed of excerpts from a text for pronunciation and listening comprehension (Gilbert, forthcoming). Other major functions of intonation, such as indicating the shift of focus, can be presented in an equally practical manner. The lesson is based on the six premises discussed above, which can be summarized as follows: 1) pronunciation is important; 2) prosody is the most important element of pronunciation; 3) prosody marks the focus of thought and delimits thought-groups; 4) thought-group marking aids comprehension; 5) English markers are pause, pitch drop, and length of the final syllable; and 6) these markers should be taught.

A. Numbers

When you read numbers aloud over the telephone (addresses, telephone numbers, passport numbers, etc.), it is important to group terms correctly. Practice using pauses to mark the end of each group. Take turns testing the class. Did you read *a* or *b*?

1a. 5282. . . 0149	2a. 95. . . 616	3a. 916. . . 756. . . 5186
1b. 52. . . 82. . . 01. . . 49	2b. 95. . . 61. . . 6	3b. 916. . . 7565. . . 186

B. Speaking Algebra

Practice saying the following equations, using pauses and a fall in pitch to show the end of each group. Test the class as above.

1a. (A + B) x C = Y
1b. A + (B x C) = Y

2a. (X – Y) x C = A
2b. X – (Y x C) = A

C. Speaking Arithmetic

Practice saying these problems. The correct answer depends on correct grouping.

1a. (2 + 3) x 5 = _____
1b. 2 + (3 x 5) = _____

2a. 3 x (3 + 5) = _____
2b. (3 x 3) + 5 = _____

3. Invent your own.

D. Speaking English

Practice the difference between these sentences. You must exaggerate the thought-group endings in order to distinguish these sentences, which are easily confused in speech.

1a. She likes pie and apples.
1b. She likes pineapples.

2a. Do you want Super Salad?
2b. Do you want soup or salad?

3a. "Alfred," said the boss, "is stupid."
3b. Alfred said, "The boss is stupid."

Conclusion

Pronunciation is inherently linked to listening comprehension, and a minimum level of clarity in both is essential to clear communication. Pronunciation and listening comprehension can and should be taught together. If lessons are based on prosody as a carrier of discourse signals and as an aid to communication, the pronunciation class can return to its rightful place in the ESL curriculum.

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Interpretative Oral Reading

Walter A. Matreyek

Oral reading has gotten a bad reputation as a language classroom activity. It is true that the way in which it has often been used—the teacher asking a student to read something from a text, the student stumbling through it with frequent corrections by the teacher, with perhaps a few comprehension questions afterwards, all this while the other students are minimally involved in what's happening—leaves much to be desired. Used in this way, it is no wonder that no one is getting very much out of it, and certainly no one is having a good time. It is a nightmare situation, brought on by a lack of clarity on the potential uses and the limitations of oral reading. However, as with many other things in life, it does not have to be this way. The bad reputation which oral reading has gotten is largely undeserved.

A Different Way

Oral reading can be a very beneficial and enjoyable learning activity when it is used in a different way. There are two important benefits obtainable:

1. Students work on reading with appropriate *breath groups*. Breath groups are short groups of words, two to ten words in length, between which the reader pauses. The pauses vary in length, from long ones at major punctuation points to shorter ones at various other points. We will see later that these breath groups are determined by the phrase/clause structure of the sentences in the

Mr. Matreyek currently teaches in the Sumitomo Metals Industries, Ltd. English Program in Osaka. He has an M.A. in Speech Communication with an emphasis in ESL from The Pennsylvania State University. He has taught in a number of countries in the Peace Corps and is a past Academic Supervisor at the Language Institute of Japan.

reading. The phrase/clause boundaries are important points in both the predictive analysis and segmentational analysis models of speech perception, although the two models differ in what happens at these boundaries. Pauses at these boundaries seem to not only provide perceptual markings but also processing time important for both the hearer and speaker (Reich, 1980: 387). Attuning students to the pausing that native speakers use when speaking (and, to a certain extent, in their punctuation when writing) can be very helpful in improving listening and reading comprehension. At the same time, working on pausing while speaking helps to improve intelligibility and fluency.

2. Students also work on reading with *expressiveness*. They learn to use intonation, volume, speed, and emotional quality of voice as important parts of what they are reading. This slowly begins to carry over into their conversational speaking, making it sound more natural and interesting.

Introducing interpretative oral reading into the classroom is fairly easy. A four-step procedure can be used:

The *first step* involves doing a little interpretative reading yourself. You need to choose a reading passage which is within your students' capabilities of understanding as they listen and which lends itself to expressive reading. Here is an example of a passage, a visualization, which might be used at a beginning level:

> It's Sunday, January 25th. It's a cold, rainy winter day. It's about 3:30 in the afternoon.
>
> You're at home because you don't want to go outside. You're sitting in your favorite chair in the living room and reading the Sunday newspaper. You're also listening to some quiet classical music on the radio. You're tired, and a little sleepy.
>
> Suddenly, you hear a loud knock at the door. You get up slowly and walk over to the door.
>
> "Who is it?" you ask.
>
> There's no answer. You open the small peep-hole in the door and look outside. You don't see anyone. You close the peep-hole, and you slowly go back to your chair.
>
> Then there's another knock on the door. You go back to the door, and this time you open it. You look down. There's an old man lying on the ground in front of your door. . . .

It is important not to make the oral reading into a comprehension activity or a production activity on the part of students at this

phase of the exercise. Students should understand the passage quite well if you have chosen well, so you do not need to test them. In addition, they are not in any position to produce it as you have, so you want to avoid putting them into that difficult situation. The objective of this first step is simply to bring the "spirit" of interpretative reading as something to enjoy into the classroom. You can use the reading as a step-off point for other activities you may be doing, for example, a story continuation activity as with this passage. If appropriate, you can begin daily readings from a storybook or novel, which later students can begin taking over.

In the *second step*, students begin working on breath groups. First, after you have read the passage once, you provide students with a copy of the passage, and, as you read it again, they mark the pause places they hear with a mark like this /. Next, you can write some of the sentences on the chalkboard and ask students to go to the chalkboard and mark the pause places they heard. If they seem to be hearing the pause places pretty well, you can then give them a copy of a passage before you read it and ask them to mark what they think will be the pause places. You can then read it aloud and have them listen and confirm their markings, after which you can write selected sentences on the chalkboard and check their markings. At this point, if appropriate, you can talk about some of the punctuation and grammatical structure reasons why the pause places are where they are. Finally, you can ask two or three students to read the passage. In this step, they are working on breath groups, so expressiveness is not important and should not be asked for. Do not correct them as they read. Save any correction until the end. Avoid providing help while they are reading. In most cases they will figure out most things for themselves if left alone and if they are using good phrasing. The objective of this step is to move students toward better phrasing—pauses at the ends of breath groups—as they read aloud.

Here are the first few sentences of the above passage as they might be marked. The marking in this or any passage largely reflects individual interpretation. There are other acceptable ways to mark them.

It's Sunday,/ January 25th./ It's a cold,/ rainy/ winter day./ It's about/ 3:30 in the afternoon./

You're at home/ because you don't want/ to go outside./ You're

sitting in your favorite chair/ in the living room/ and reading the Sunday newspaper./ You're also listening to/ some quiet classical music/ on the radio./ You're tired/ and a little sleepy./

As is suggested above, the work which you are doing in this second step may tie in very nicely with other grammar work which you are doing. The breath groups that students mark reflect the phrase/clause boundary points that very neatly reflect the grammatical functions of the sentences. For example, in long clauses, the phrases within the clauses are marked by pauses. To illustrate, some of the sentences from the above passage have the following grammatical structure:

1. S Vb Comp-N
   It's Sunday,/ | January 25th. /|
2. S Vb Comp-Adv Adv S V Ob V Adv
   You're at home /[because you don't want/{ to go outside./}]
3. Adv S V DO Adv
   Suddenly,/ you hear a loud knock/ at the door./
4. S V DO Adv Conj V Adv
   You open/ the peep-hole in the door/ (and) look outside./
5. S V Adv Conj Adv S V DO
   You go back to the door,/ [and] this time/ you open it./

Because the breath group markings reflect the grammatical functions of the sentence, there are certain places where even the many possibilities allowed by individual interpretation do not permit marking. For example, sentence 5 could not be marked:

5[1] You go/ back to the/ door,/ and this/ time you open/ it./

The above reading was prepared for a beginning level class. Higher-level students would need to work with more sophisticated material, comprised of longer, more complicated sentences. In such a case, good phrasing becomes particularly important. Here is an example:

The other night,/ as I was taking the crowded,/ steamy/ commuter train home from work,/ it struck me/ that/ what my life had become/ was something/ that I had always hoped it wouldn't/—the life of a tiny,/ insignificant cog/ in an immense,/ impersonal,/ grind-

it-out everyday machine./ I had always thought/ I was too special a person/ to let that sort of thing/ happen to me./. . .

The *third step* has students begin working on expressiveness. Once they have learned to mark passages into breath groups (and have understood the passage in the process), students are able to begin thinking about how to read it: the intonation to use for statements, questions, exclamations; the words or phrases or sentences to stress through volume, speed, or pausing; and the emotional quality of voice. This is something that they can first work on individually, then in pairs or small groups, and finally for presentation to the class. There will often be differences—coming from different understandings of the passage—and these differences can also provide interesting discussion. The objective of this third step is to have students use their understanding of the passage in order to read it as expressively as possible.

The *last step* is to begin integrating interpretative oral reading into other classroom activities. It can be used in a number of comprehension-related activities. For example, you can begin using passages with comprehension questions, with one student reading the passage, another student reading the questions, and the remaining students listening to the passage and then answering the questions.

Interpretative oral reading also lends itself to a number of performance activities as well; for example, very entertaining dramatic reading performances or plays. Once you begin using it, you will find lots of ways in which you can go with it.

Some Do's and Don'ts

There are four important things to keep in mind as you begin working with interpretative oral reading:

1. *Don't correct pronunciation or other mistakes while the person is reading.* The person who is reading gets essentially nothing out of correction while he or she is reading. Stopping and correcting the reader also interferes with the flow of what the listeners are hearing and trying to understand. Instead, save the correction until the end, and correct only the five or six most important things (most people won't remember any more than five or six corrections at any one time, anyway). In addition, avoid helping the reader too quickly: give him or her time to figure out the problem for him or

herself. Once students begin reading with better phrasing, a lot of things begin to spontaneously clear up.

2. *Don't make the oral reading into a comprehension task for the reader.* We generally comprehend very little of what we read aloud. Nor is interpretative oral reading a reading comprehension development task, at least not directly. These are two purposes with which oral reading has been misused in the past, contributing to its bad reputation. Reading comprehension tasks and reading comprehension improvement work should be done using silent reading, as a completely separate activity. However, some of the insights that students will gain from interpretative oral reading–especially that of phrasing–will be carried over into comprehension-oriented activities.

There are two other things to keep in mind related to this point. First, don't expect people to read something expressively without reading and understanding it first. Most people need to read the passage through silently in order to understand it before they can do a decent job of oral reading. From their understanding, they can make the necessary decisions related to intonation, emphasis, voice quality, and so on. Second, don't make the oral reading into a comprehension task for the listeners until the fourth step, the integrating step. While they might be able to answer the questions, the negative feelings about being "tested" on something they are supposed to be "enjoying" work against the whole procedure.

3. *Do be judicious in the selection of materials that you use.* Select materials that students can understand in terms of vocabulary and grammatical structure. Sometimes it is not very easy to find linguistically suitable materials that lend themselves to interesting interpretative reading at the level you are teaching. Sometimes you will need to do adaptations, either to simplify or to add interest. In addition, select a variety of materials: prose, plays, poetry, letters, advertisements, and so on.

4. *Do take a long term view.* It takes a while to move students through the first three steps, especially the third. Expressiveness in the language is something that we all want from our students, and it is not always an easy thing. It requires a good understanding of the reading, and you can take heart that, while it may be taking some time to do it, students are using the language to understand the reading to its depths.

Results

The bottom line question, then, is: What changes in communicative performance in the language can you expect to see?

Directly, we see people who can read aloud well. In everyday life, this is a skill which has limited use: in public speaking or convention presentations; in reading something aloud for colleagues, friends, or family; in reading a bedtime story for children.

Indirectly, however, you begin to see improvement in a number of areas: in listening comprehension, as students become more attuned to pausing and expressiveness as useful and meaningful; in silent reading, as students begin to read with more attention to phrase/clause boundaries; and in intelligibility and fluency, as students begin to transfer the phrasing and expressiveness into their own speaking.

In conclusion, interpretative oral reading can be a very beneficial and enjoyable activity in the language classroom. Introducing it as a class activity involves four steps: modeling, working on breath groups, working on expressiveness, and incorporating it into other classroom activities. You will also need to be careful about such things as correcting students, using it as a comprehension activity, selecting materials, and expecting too much too soon. There are, however, a number of direct and indirect benefits to be obtained. Interpretative oral reading is a technique well worth trying. Don't let an undeserved bad reputation keep you from at least giving it a chance.

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TOEIC and In-Company English Training

Yukio Saegusa

Establishing and defining goals for an in-company English language training program has always been difficult. One of the main reasons for this has been the lack of an effective way of defining and measuring language proficiency, especially as language proficiency relates to a wide variety of job-related tasks such as technical training, negotiation, sales, and day-to-day administration.

For many companies, evaluation of language training has been conducted by outside language agencies. This has obvious difficulties, however, as would a government body monopolizing the three powers of administration, legislation, and judicature. It is not surprising that injustice and corruption could take place in such a system. Similarly, if an outside language agency handles both instruction and evaluation, it is very likely that injustice will take place. In fact, such agencies may even attempt to increase test scores or otherwise misrepresent the progress of its students, even if no progress has been made. Moreover, since each outside language agency is apt to have its own rating system, it is extremely difficult to obtain standardized information that can be crosschecked.

It is therefore of some concern for companies with large in-house programs to address the question of the relationship between instruction and evaluation. In particular, establishment of a reliable standardized test, independent of instruction, would be desirable. Such a test would aid the development of better instruction.

Mr. Saegusa has been an editor of bilingual dictionaries and textbooks at Sanseido Publishing Co.; an editor of English language programs at Time Inc., Tokyo; and a Japanese instructor at the University of Washington and Stanford University. He is now Managing Editor at Kokusai Communications Inc. and a lecturer at Ochanomizu University and Waseda University.

Requirements of a Test for In-Company English Training

Every good test must have at least two qualities: validity and reliability. Validity means that the test results are accurate in predicting actual performance in nontest situations; for example, the ability to actually use English to train foreign technicians. A student receiving a high score should perform in the field at a higher level than a student receiving a lower score. Reliability simply means that the test is consistent, that the same student taking the test on different days would test at about the same level.

In addition, for in-company English training, a test should be business-related, but not overly specific concerning small details characteristic of a particular field, say accounting or steel-making. A test focusing on such points would be suitable for only a small group of examinees, and the requirement for standardized results would not be met.

Business-Related, but Not Too Specific

TOEIC is a business-related test designed with the above-mentioned goals in mind. Because TOEIC test-takers may be salesmen, accountants, administrators, electrical engineers, or laboratory researchers, the test was designed not to be too specific. As shown in Table 1, three Japanese junior high school students who had lived in the United States scored very well. Though they knew very little about business, their TOEIC scores of 685, 930, and 935 (TOEFL 534, 619, 621[1]) clearly indicated an important feature of TOEIC: that it is a general language proficiency test even though it is business-related.

Table 1: Scores of Non-Businessmen Who Have Stayed Long in the U.S.

AGE	SEX	YEARS IN THE U.S.	LISTENING	READING	TOTAL
13	Female	10	395	290	685
14	Male	8	485	445	930
17	Female	8	495	440	935

Consistency of Evaluation

Another important feature of TOEIC is its consistency. To my knowledge, no other language proficiency test has been developed

[1] The Educational Testing Service has published a conversion formula from TOEIC scores to TOEFL scores. As an approximation, TOEIC Score x 0.348 = TOEFL Score.

in Japan that evaluates as consistently. Table 2 shows the scores of an examinee who took five TOEIC tests over a period of one year and four months. (TOEIC is administered once every four months.) During this period, he claims he did not study English very much, so we would expect that no real gain should be noted.

Table 2: Scores of a Man Who Took Five TOEIC Tests

TOEIC	LISTENING	READING	TOTAL
1st Test	355	315	670
2nd Test	235	300	535
3rd Test	305	330	635
4th Test	365	300	665
5th Test	360	335	695

In the table, the listening scores 235 and 305 of the second and third tests are low compared to the others. In particular, 235 is too low to believe that the score accurately represented the examinee's listening ability. He might have been nervous at the time of that test, or perhaps there was some mechanical or acoustical problem with the public address system. In any case, it seems that we should not count the second test result.

After eliminating the second score, we can compare the remaining total scores: 670, 635, 665, and 695. Since every test has a margin of error and TOEIC's is plus or minus 25 points, the difference between the highest score (695) and the lowest score (635) is only slightly more than the 50-point margin of error. This means that, if we take the 50-point margin of error into consideration, the examinee made virtually no progress in his English ability as measured by the test, which is what a reliable test should show given the fact that the examinee did not study English during the interval, though he did take the test several times and was probably able to familiarize himself with the system of the test itself.

TOEIC Results and Setting Goals

Generally, an efficient language study curriculum must be based on an accurate assessment of students' initial proficiency level. Using TOEIC both before and after instruction allows teachers to set feasible goals, design a curriculum with those goals in mind, and develop effective teaching strategies to bring the trainees' starting test scores up to the desired level of proficiency.

All company workers who are to take company-subsidized English instruction should therefore be tested before instruction begins. This is especially true for newcomers fresh from college. As a result of the lifetime employment system in most Japanese companies, very few workers quit their jobs before retirement age. This makes in-company language training very important for newcomers who will stay with the company for thirty to thirty-five years. For a company seeking international markets, the efficient utilization of its employees' language abilities is crucial, and since the language level of most college graduates is below working proficiency, company instruction is therefore an important issue.

Table 3 shows the TOEIC scores of recent college graduates entering various companies. The mean score of the fourteen companies is 364, which can be considered the average Japanese college graduate's proficiency in English—or the average starting score. The highest total score average (440) is of a trading company (Trading H) and the lowest total score average (286) is of a chemical company (Chemical E). It is natural that scores are quite different from company to company, since the nature of business varies

Table 3: Scores of College-graduate Newcomers

COMPANY	Number of examinees	MEAN SCORES			SCORE DISTRIBUTION					
		L	R	TOTAL	Below 220	220 -470	470 -600	600 -730	Over 730	TOTAL
Construction A	125	160	169	329	14	100	9	2		125
Textile B	45	181	217	398	1	32	12			45
Metals C	46	160	197	357	0	41	4	1		46
Metals D	107	188	209	397	9	69	25	3	1	107
Chemistry E	113	137	148	286	22	90	1			113
Fine Machinery F	104	177	183	360	14	73	12	5		104
Fine Machinery G	102	162	181	343	7	90	3	0	2	102
Trading H	14	207	233	440	0	9	2	2	1	14
Trading I	11	191	207	398	0	9	1	0	1	11
Retail J	62	151	137	288	13	46	3			62
Securities K	75	174	214	388	4	55	6	10		75
Advertising L	118	210	215	425	0	85	24	6	3	118
Electricity M	70	207	228	435	1	46	18	2	3	70
Gas Supply N	45	174	207	381	1	37	5	2		45
TOTAL	1,037	174	190	364	86	782	125	33	11	1,037
					8%	75%	12%	3%	1%	100%

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considerably. A trading company, for example, will generally demand a higher level of English proficiency than most manufacturing companies.

Now the question is, "How can we raise these scores to the level required by the company?" First, let us examine two cases:

Case 1: An overseas department manager of a fishery trading company who scored 490 on TOEIC makes business trips at least once a year to Canada or the U.S. to purchase salmon and trout. Every time he visits these countries, he feels an urgent need to study English harder so that he can do business more smoothly. When at home he studies on and off, on his own, with an English tape program. Since the manager always has difficulty communicating in English, it is apparent that his proficiency is not high enough. His company should set a goal of well over 500 on TOEIC for a man in his position.

Case 2: At a leading construction company, two of the overseas department salesmen scored 530 and 625 on TOEIC. They both make frequent business trips overseas, and have no trouble doing business using English. The department head, based on his experience dealing with foreign companies, is saying that probably 500 on TOEIC would be high enough for the people working in his department. His standard is a little doubtful, but he seems to have set his own proficiency goal—at least for the time being.

As in the above cases, each company or department should decide on its own goal, considering fully the proficiency levels of those workers who are doing business successfully in an English-speaking environment.

The following is my suggestion on the levels of English proficiency that would normally be demanded for different jobs. The scores may seem higher than those accepted as goals in reality, but the more extensive business activities abroad become, the higher the level of English proficiency that will be demanded.

Engineering	590 (TOEFL 500)
Sales/Administration	730 (TOEFL 550)
Highly complex job	875 (TOEFL 600)

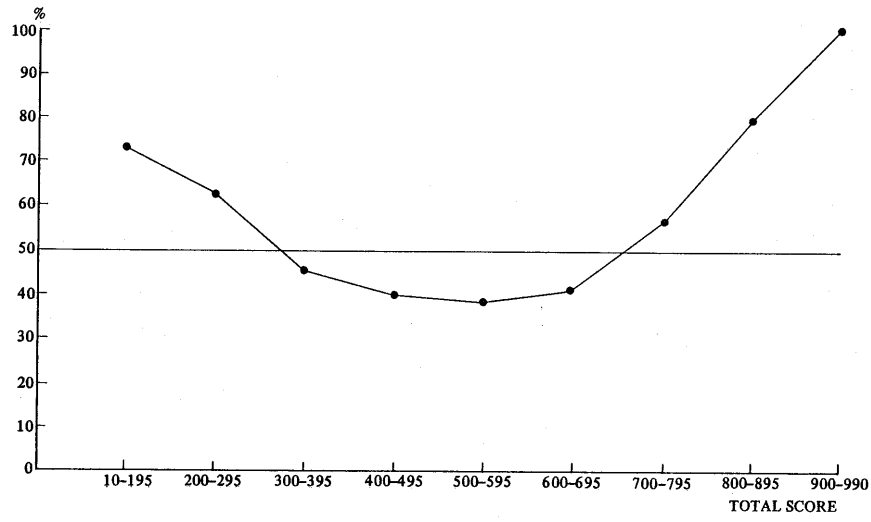
The figures within the parentheses are converted TOEFL scores. Guidelines for American colleges, issued by the Educational Testing Service, say that 500 on TOEFL is admissible at the graduate level if the candidate stands out in areas like engineering, where English is less important. A score of 550 is admissible at both undergraduate and graduate levels; and 600 is the minimum score to actively participate in discussions with other American students at the graduate level in complex areas such as journalism.

How to Use the Part Scores

The TOEIC Score is divided into two parts: listening and reading. These part scores are apt to be neglected compared to the total score, but they are, in fact, indispensable in understanding the student's strengths and weaknesses. This is to say that the part scores can be used as diagnostic test results upon which a curriculum of study can be based.

It is often said that the Japanese are rather strong in the written aspect of English but weak in the spoken aspect. The part scores in Figure 1 give support to this belief.

Figure 1: Distribution of Examinees Whose Listening Scores are Higher Than Those of Reading (L>R) in Terms of Percentages (From the results of the 1st through the 4th TOEIC test.)



The graph shows the relationship between the number of examinees whose listening scores are higher than their reading scores, and the total number of examinees within segmented total score ranges (10–195, 200–295, 300–395, etc.). The horizontal line at 50% divides the graph into two sections. Above this line, between 10 and 300 and between 700 and 990, the majority of examinees scored higher on listening than on reading. Below the line, between 300 and 700, the majority of examinees scored lower on listening than on reading.

It is also important to note that 70% of the total population falls within the 300 to 700 range, in accord with what one might expect since the English education in Japanese schools emphasizes reading and writing and places almost no emphasis at all on listening and speaking.

From Figure 1 we can classify Japanese learners of English into three groups:

Group 1 (score range: 10–300) (L higher than R)

The examinees in this group (10%) are "higher listening and lower reading," but this does not mean that their listening ability is high. On the contrary, their listening ability is very poor and their reading ability is still worse. They are supposed to have studied six to ten years of English in school, but they have not even acquired an essential knowledge of grammar or a basic ability in reading comprehension. If they had remembered even half of what they studied in school, their scores would have been much higher, especially in reading.

Group 2 (score range: 300–700) (L lower than R)

These are the majority of Japanese learners of English (70%) and they are strongly affected by their school education. They remember what they studied in school, but they have not made further progress. For example, they cannot read fast enough to enjoy reading, or they have the bad habit of translating English into Japanese whenever they read. It is no wonder that they are poor in listening because they have not learned to listen for comprehension. Those who scored more than 200 on reading, however, must have been above-average students while in school, and probably highly motivated.

Group 3 (score range: 700–990) (L higher than R)

The examinees here (20%) are apparently beyond the level of school English. They have had a considerable amount of exposure

to natural English either in Japan or abroad. (Statistics show that most of them lived in a country where English is spoken.) A striking feature of this group is that the higher the total scores are, the higher the chance of an examinee doing better in listening than in reading. And finally, within the score range 900–990, the listening score is always higher than the reading score. There is not a single exception. From this fact, along with the test results in Table 1, it is assumed that native speakers of English, or natural learners of English, will always show higher listening scores than reading scores, no matter what score they make and regardless of their age and educational background.

All Japanese company employees can be classified into one of these three groups. And more than two-thirds of them belong to the 300–700 group, where Listening is lower than Reading. We should therefore pay special attention to this group and make an effort to normalize it or change it to the point where listening scores become higher than reading scores. This means that effective instruction should place an emphasis on increasing listening comprehension.

Interpreting the Part Scores

Table 4 shows the results of the TOEIC validity study conducted in Japan by the Educational Testing Service before the first official test administration in 1979. It shows the correlation between the listening scores on TOEIC and the results of direct interview evaluation as measured by the Foreign Service Institute scale that is used worldwide to evaluate verbal proficiency in foreign languages.

The Foreign Service Institute scale has six levels:

0 – Unable to function in the language
1 – Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements
2 – Able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements
3 – Able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, and professional topics
4 – Able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs

5 – Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker

Five more divisions (0^+, 1^+, 2^+, 3^+, and 4^+) are often used to describe the proficiency level more accurately. For example, 1^+ indicates a level halfway between 1 and 2.

Table 4: Listening Score and FSI Scale

Group I (5 ~ 100)	0+
Group II (105 ~ 200)	1
Group III (205 ~ 300)	2
Group IV (305 ~ 400)	2+
Group V (405 ~ 495)	3+ –

TOEIC total scores range between 10 and 990, and each of the two part scores between 5 and 495.

According to the descriptions in Table 4, both Groups I and II (TOEIC listening score: 5–200) are far from using English for practical purposes. They are still in the initial stages of learning the language.

People in Group III (scores: 205–300) are in the intermediate learning stages and, in most cases, will find themselves hard-pressed to use English in business situations. They need more exposure to English.

Group IV (scores: 305–400) can usually manage to communicate in English, except in complicated situations.

Group V (scores: 405–495) is at the professional level. These people can do business using English in any situation.

These interpretations are of the listening score, but they can apply to the reading score in exactly the same way. Thus, Groups I and II (TOEIC reading scores: 5–200) are in the initial learning stages, and Group V (scores: 405–495) is at the professional level.

Though the total scores might be the same, the two part scores are different in proportion from examinee to examinee. Table 5 shows the part and total scores of seven examinees, all of whom are fresh from college, and have just started working for their companies. Their total scores are 405 or 410, which are considered to be the same in terms of proficiency level, and, as explained earlier, the general trend is "lower listening and higher reading." The first four examinees represent the majority; E made exactly the same part scores, and the last two examinees show the opposite pattern–a

native speaker's pattern. For the convenience of illustration, let us compare the two extreme cases, A and G, and see what their characteristics are.

Table 5: Distributions of the Listening and the Reading Scores Within the Same Total Score Range

COMPANY NEWCOMERS	LISTENING	READING	TOTAL
A	115	290	405
B	170	240	410
C	185	225	410
D	200	210	410
E	205	205	410
F	225	185	410
G	250	155	405

A is an obedient-student type, strongly influenced by his school education. He studied English (written English) hard in school and was one of the top students. Now, he reads English rather extensively. He may even subscribe to an English newspaper. But speaking is another story. He has not learned to listen to or speak English. Consequently, every time he is placed in a situation where he has to talk to an English speaker, he loses confidence and wants to go away, because he is fully aware of his language mistakes. He is a timid speaker and a careful watcher of his language.

G is poles apart. He is the practical type, and dislikes making steady efforts. Thus, he prefers to learn from people rather than from books. If an English speaker is there, he will not hesitate to talk to him. He makes lots of mistakes, and the same mistakes over and over again, but he does not care at all. He just talks, talks, talks; and he learns little by little from talking.

Generally speaking, A-type students win the race in the long run, as far as mastery of spoken English goes—if they are exposed to enough spoken English. They are late and slow starters, but as the amount of exposure increases, they gain speed with the help of their dormant competence, that is, the knowledge of written English they have acquired. They will catch up with the G-type students, pass them, and break the tape far ahead of them.

Listening Improves Faster than Reading

When the before and after part scores of college graduate trainees are compared, the listening score increase is, in almost all cases,

higher than the reading score increase after instruction. Table 6 shows the progress by a trainee who received 200 hours of instruction. His score increase in listening (+120) was much more than his increase in reading (+30).

Table 6: Score Comparison Before and After Class

BEFORE CLASS			AFTER CLASS			SCORE INCREASE		
L	R	TOTAL	L	R	TOTAL	L	R	TOTAL
130	220	350	250	250	500	120(+92%)	30(+14%)	150(+43%)

His before-class reading score (220) is, so to speak, a reflection of his education and is fairly good for a recent college graduate. He had had almost no experience speaking with native speakers before he took the class, so it was virtually the first time for him to be exposed to natural English. For the first few weeks in class he must have been embarrassed by the differences between spoken and written English, both because of his inability to recognize the sounds and also because of his unfamiliarity with commonly used colloquial expressions. Another problem was speaking. At first he was irritated at his own childish way of speaking; in fact, he was disgusted with himself. But, after a certain amount of time, he got used to speaking and came to feel more relaxed. He could gradually concentrate more on the ideas he was conveying than on the language. This was a transfer of his dormant competence to practical skills. In terms of TOEIC scores, which only deal with overt competence, he made a tremendous improvement from 130 to 250.

Compared to listening, his reading score increase is very small, almost negligible, from 220 to 250. The reason would be that he has already done his utmost to study written English and has reached a relatively high level—within the framework of a Japanese school education. To raise this score still higher, more exposure to written English would be needed. Probably the 200 hours of instruction with emphasis on spoken English were not enough for him. He needed more time to improve his reading score.

Although his listening score increase is large, the result is far from satisfactory because the listening score is exactly the same as the reading score: both are 250. This is especially true when the total score is not very high.

As mentioned earlier, it is assumed that native or near-native speakers' listening scores will generally be much higher than their

reading scores, especially if their total scores are low. If this assumption is correct, the aforementioned trainee's listening score should at least be higher than the 250 he made.

Needed Time for Instruction

It is often said that the Japanese are poor foreign language learners. Is that true? The answer is "No." They are not poor learners. Table 7 contains a list of TOEFL total scores of examinees during the period 1978–80, classified by native language and arranged in order of closeness to the English language.

Table 7: Examinees' Native Languages and Their TOEFL Total Score Means (1978–1980)

GERMANIC LANGUAGES (Closest to English)		
Dutch	583	
German	575	
Danish	585	
Norwegian	563	
Swedish	582	MEAN 578 (=TOEIC 810)
ROMANCE LANGUAGES (Less related to English)		
French	546	
Italian	550	
Spanish	541	
Portugese	531	MEAN 542 (=TOEIC 705)
SLAVIC LANGUAGES (Least related European languages)		
Russian	520	
Polish	528	
Czech	548	MEAN 532 (=TOEIC 680)
MOST DIFFICULT LANGUAGES FOR ENGLISH SPEAKERS		
Japanese	483	
Chinese	496	
Korean	504	
Arabic	464	MEAN 487 (=TOEIC 550)

As is clear from the table, examinees whose native languages are the closest to English made the highest scores, whereas those whose native languages are the farthest from English made the lowest. That is to say, the Japanese are not poor English learners; but the fact

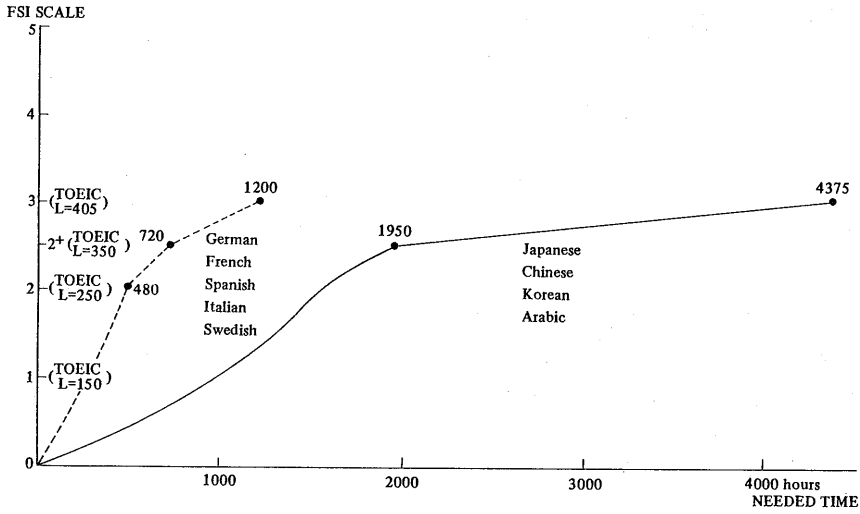
that their language is so dissimilar to English means that it takes a relatively longer time for a native Japanese speaker to learn English.

Japanese is as difficult for Americans as English is for Japanese. However, the Japanese have an advantage. Their language has in its vocabulary a large number of loan words from English, such as *pen*, *apron*, *cake*, *radio*, *typewriter*, *bike*, *car*, *pitcher*, *skate*, *tape*, *tape recorder*, *cassette*, *engineer*, and so on (though the pronunciation is very different from the original). Another advantage is that Japanese know a lot more about the U.S. than Americans know about Japan. Taking this into account, English seems to be easier for Japanese to learn than Japanese is for Americans.

How Much Time is Needed to Attain Goals?

The Foreign Service Institute has published guidelines on the time needed for Americans to attain a variety of proficiency levels in foreign languages (Diller, 1978). Figure 2 is a graph based on figures that appear in Professor Diller's book, with references to the TOEIC listening scores taken from Table 4.

Figure 2: Class Goals and Needed Time (Intensive Course for Americans)



Easy European languages such as German, French, Spanish, Italian, and Swedish require 720 hours of study for Americans to attain 2^+ on the FSI scale. However, the most difficult languages, such as Japanese, Chinese, Korean, and Arabic require 1950 hours

of study—2.7 times as much. To reach a little higher level, 3 on the FSI scale, the easy languages require 1200 hours, whereas the most difficult languages require 4375 hours—3.6 times as much!

The Japanese college graduate is officially supposed to be exposed to 1100 hours of English in ten years, beginning in junior high school. However, the actual class hours would total around 900 hours. If the needed time suggested by FSI applies here, the Japanese college graduate would need about 1000 more hours to reach 2^+ and about 3500 more hours to attain level 3 on the FSI scale.

Strictly speaking, the FSI time cannot be compared with the time required for studying English in Japanese schools, because the former represents intensive class hours and the latter regular class hours. It is generally said that the intensive class is 30% to 40% more effective than regular classes. However, the previously mentioned advantages Japanese have over Americans will make the difference minimal.

Table 8 shows four actual cases of after-class progress as measured by TOEIC.

One thing we have to note here is the difference in beginning total scores. Specifically, the scores of the second class are exceptionally low compared to the others. However, the table will help explain the general trend. Several important facts are obvious.

Table 8: Class Hours and TOEIC Score Progress

TIME (PERIOD)	BEFORE CLASS			AFTER CLASS			TOTAL SCORE INCREASE	INCREASE RATE	
	L	R	TOTAL	L	R	TOTAL		L	R
120 hrs (6 mo.)	290	275	565	315	300	615	+50	+8.6%	+9.1%
200 hrs (8 mo.)	165	180	345	225	210	435	+90	+36.4%	+16.7%
250 hrs (8 mo.)	230	260	490	290	310	600	+110	+26.1%	+19.2%
INTENSIVE									
250 hrs (10 wks)	205	280	485	310	335	645	+160	+51.2%	+19.6%

The first important fact is that 200 to 250 hours of instruction seem to be necessary to raise TOEIC scores by 100 points.

We have previously seen the case in Table 2 of a man who took five TOEIC tests in a row with no significant progress in score values. The same can be said of the first class in Table 8. It showed only a 50-point increase in scores after 120 hours of instruction in six months, which is insignificant if the margin of error is considered.

(The first score plus 25 exactly equals the second score minus 25.) Of course the instruction helped the students improve their ability in English, but it did not surface in terms of significant test results. More instruction time was needed for progress to be reflected in their TOEIC scores.

The other three classes made undeniable progress—increases of 90 and 160 points in the total TOEIC scores. This suggests that 120 hours of instruction are not enough to improve scores by more than 50 points. The general rule of thumb should be that it takes between 200 and 250 class hours to appreciably raise TOEIC scores.

A second important fact is that the listening score increase is larger than the reading score increase. This tendency is strengthened as the class time increases. For example, the increase rates of the listening and reading scores of the first class (120 class hours) are both a little less than 10%. For the last class (250 hours, intensive), however, the listening score increase is 51.2% and the reading score increase is only 19.6%. Comparison of all four classes gives the impression that there is no ceiling for increase in listening scores, whereas the reading score increases are lingering somewhere around 20%.

A third important fact is that beyond the beginning of introductory stages of language acquisition the number of class hours, or the amount of exposure to the target language, seems to be the largest factor in determining the rate of progress, regardless of the teaching method. Though many teaching methods and strategies have been developed, some claiming to be more effective than others, almost all of them deal with introductory or beginning levels of language acquisition. Beyond these stages, however, methods and strategies become less and less powerful. Instead, the amount of exposure gradually comes to play a more important role. Exposure is, in fact, crucial to the success of language instruction.

There are also some who would suggest that class time can be replaced by self-study time. Even supposing this to be true, self-study demands an extraordinarily strong will power on the part of students. Companies cannot and should not let overseas policies be decided by depending almost entirely upon the will power of its employees. In addition, the greatest difficulty in self-study lies in not having the opportunity to have direct exposure to English. It follows that companies should give employees exposure to English through classroom instruction.

A fourth important fact is that intensive classes are far more effective than regular classes. Compare the last two classes in the table. Here the class time is exactly the same (250 hours), and the starting total scores are also the same (490 versus 485), but the after-class scores are different (600 versus 645). Though there may be other contributing factors, the main reason for the difference is the type of class, whether the class is regular or intensive. Though intensive classes are usually 30% to 40% more effective, in this case the intensive class was 45% more effective. In other words, the intensive classes are more economical.

In terms of proficiency goals for in-company English training, my suggestion is that 2 on the FSI scale be set as the basic proficiency level, and 2^+ as intermediate proficiency. In terms of TOEIC total scores, this is approximately 600 and 730 respectively. Proficiency over 2^+ should be acquired through work in actual business situations. In most cases it is neither practical nor economical to train employees in class beyond 2^+ because it takes too much time.

As is known from Table 3, the most probable proficiency level of college graduates in Japan is either 1 (about 300 on TOEIC) or 1^+ (about 450). The following table shows the needed exposure time for graduates to attain either 2 or 2^+. (The times are calculated based on Figure 2 and Table 8.)

Table 9: Class Goals and Needed Time

FSI SCALE CURRENT LEVEL→GOAL	TOEIC TOTAL SCORE CURRENT LEVEL→GOAL	NEEDED TIME
1 → 2	300 → 600	700 hours
1 → 2^+	300 → 730	1000 hours
1^+ → 2	450 → 600	350 hours
1^+ → 2^+	450 → 730	650 hours

The time needed to achieve the proficiency goals in the chart above is in terms of regular class hours. For example, if a student's current level is 1, and a 200 hours/year instruction program is planned, then it will take three and a half years to attain level 2; and to attain 2^+ it will take as long as five years! However, as the intensity of instruction increases, the necessary time is gradually reduced. In the most effective programs, where intensive classes are employed, it is possible to save up to 30% or 40% of the indicated times. In any case, English training cannot be completed in only a few months, as is often believed. It often takes years.

How to Plan an In-Company English Training Program

Table 10 shows the proficiency of workers from four companies who have been with their companies for a long time. Each company selected their workers for the test in their own way, so the distribution of scores does not necessarily represent the English proficiency levels of the companies as a whole. The suggested levels on the FSI scale in the second column are of my own device, calculated on the basis of the TOEIC validity study in Table 4.

Table 10: English Proficiency of Company Workers

TOEIC TOTAL SCORE RANGE	SUGGESTED FSI LEVEL	ELECTRICITY A	FINE MACHINERY B	SECURITIES C	ADVERTISING D
10~200	0+	16(6%) ┐	9(8%) ┐	6(3%) ┐	1(1%) ┐
		28%	31%	25%	6%
205~300	1	60(22%) ┘	24(23%) ┘	40(22%) ┘	5(5%) ┘
305~400	1	72(26%)	33(31%)	78(43%)	16(16%)
405~500	1+	74(27%)	23(22%)	36(20%)	10(11%)
505~600	2	35(13%) ┐	10(9%) ┐	10(5%) ┐	21(23%) ┐
		17%	13%	7%	45%
605~700	2	12(4%) ┘	4(4%) ┘	4(2%) ┘	20(22%) ┘
705~800	2+	5(2%)	1(1%)	4(2%)	14(15%)
805~900		–	1(1%)	2(1%)	4(4%)
	3+				
905~990		–	1(1%)	2(1%)	–

The total scores are divided into three groups: Group I ranges between 10 and 300, Group II between 305 and 700, and Group III between 705 and 990.

Group I is too low to receive company-subsidized instruction. They should study on their own until they get scores over 300. I assume that college-graduate newcomers whose English grades in school were above average can score over 300. What Group I has to do is take some kind of refresher course; they should start out with the fundamentals.

Group II is just right for in-company instruction. This group could be further divided into three groups: Group II-A ranges between 305 and 400, Group II-B between 405 and 500, and Group II-C between 505 and 700. For Group II-A, emphasis should be placed on basic verbal practice with exercises much lower in level than the students' written proficiency. If they are allowed to read

the text, they will too easily understand the materials. However, if written material is used, the emphasis should be on fast reading, and reading for comprehension. For Group II-B, slightly more difficult materials should be prepared. For Group II-C, an intensive class is the most appropriate. Fewer students at this level will drop out, and the cost performance is generally superb.

Group III is usually beyond the level of in-company instruction. They should learn by accumulating experience in using English in real work situations. It is much better if they work with more experienced people in their offices.

The Necessity of Long-Term Thinking for English Training

It is a well-known fact among Japanese companies that newcomers take three years to get acquainted with their jobs, five years to become experts, and ten years to become especially valuable to the company, and perhaps be selected for overseas assignments.

Before being sent abroad, employees might be encouraged to attend classes at night to brush-up their English at company expense. Such classes might continue for six months, or sometimes even for one year. However, in most cases, this does not work. It is too late. The employees' English has gotten rusty in the ten years since graduation from college. If their level is, say, 1 on the FSI scale, they would require 1000 hours of instruction to boost them to a 2^{+} proficiency—but they do not have the time. As a result, they fail to attain the expected goal and leave Japan with anxiety and frustration weighing heavily on their minds.

All these problems come from the fallacy that English training does not take much time. However, the truth is that it takes at least three to five years to enable workers to use English effectively for their jobs. Fortunately, the company has ten years before it sends workers overseas, which is more than enough time for English training.

There is one more thing companies are concerned with—probably the biggest concern—the cost of the training. Companies can save money by selecting only the most qualified people for English training at every possible stage. Qualified people are those who have a talent for English as well as an excellent knowledge of their own jobs. As the years pass, these qualified people in the company diminish in number. Thus, more money can be spent for those most qualified. For example, little or no subsidy should be paid to low

proficiency workers who should study on their own to reach a certain level, more subsidy for workers eligible for a regular class, and the highest subsidy or full payment for workers suitable for an intensive class. Those who drop out of class or do not achieve the required goals could be required to reimburse the company.

In conclusion, English training for companies should be considered in a long-range perspective. My suggestion is that it should be incorporated into the productivity-improvement program every company has, in some form or another. If foreign trading is considered important, English training should also be treated as such, which means that an accurate evaluation system will be required to determine optimum language training needs, measure employees' English proficiency levels, and monitor instruction programs with the aim of improving overall efficiency.

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University Park, PA 16802 U.S.A.

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Folktales: A Bibliography

Sandra McKay

(The following reference section was inadvertently omitted from Sandra McKay's article, "Folktales: A Context for Developing Communicative Competence," in *Cross Currents 9*, 2: 37-44.)

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An excellent source of folktales for beginning level classes is available through the Macalester College Department of Linguistics. They have collected a series of Hmong folktales retold for ESL use. Information for these materials can be obtained by writing to:

Charles Johnson
Hmong Project
Macalester College
Linguistic Department
1600 Grand Avenue
St. Paul, Minnesota 55105

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Bright Ideas

Jigsaw Storytelling: A Simple Listening Comprehension Technique

Robert O'Neill

I was recently teaching in a fairly typical secondary school in Spain. One of my purposes was to discover, through talking to the teachers and through directly sharing their everyday experiences, what kinds of materials a textbook writer such as myself could supply them and what they would find most useful. And what I discovered was that there is a tremendous need for simple listening comprehension materials which they could use in their large classes of forty or so rather restless fourteen- and fifteen-year-olds.

Let me explain briefly. Recorded materials were often of little or no use in these classes for several reasons. First of all, there was often no power point in the classroom, or if there was, it was very inconveniently placed. Naturally, the teachers had tried battery-powered cassette recorders, but these tended to have rather poor sound quality, made even worse by the cavernous, echoing acoustics of the large classrooms. And when the batteries wore down, the voices slowed grotesquely. Furthermore, pre-recorded materials could not be varied sufficiently to catch and keep the interest of classes of that size, where the attention spans were necessarily more limited than in small classes.

How, then, can effective listening materials be designed for these circumstances? One answer, I believe, is the Jigsaw Story. Jigsaw Storytelling is a simple technique designed to capture the interest and attention of students in large classes. The technique promotes the skill of general or "gist" listening comprehension, while encouraging students to discover the meanings of unfamiliar words from their context.

The first step is to choose two stories, neither of which should be longer than twelve sentences—or twenty-four sentences altogether. The stories can be taken from the newspaper or some other

Robert O'Neill is author of *Kernel Series* and *English in Situations*. He has been active in the ESL field for the past twenty-five years as a teacher and lecturer.

source. If necessary, the teacher can simplify the grammatical structure or vocabulary of the stories. The teacher then thinks of a short headline or title for each of the two stories and writes these on the blackboard. Next, the teacher discusses with the class what kind of story might lie behind each headline. The teacher then begins to read the stories, line by line, but mixing the lines of one story with those of the other. As each line is read, the class says which headline the line belongs to.

There are several more steps involved, but first here is an example of two stories as they might be presented to the class–jigsaw-fashion. Which headline (A or B) does each sentence belong to?

A: CHIMP LEARNS ENGLISH
B: BEGGAR INHERITS FORTUNE

1. Until yesterday, Leo Jackson was a very poor man.
2. Two psychologists at Boston University have a very unusual student.
3. He was living in an old car without wheels near a rubbish dump.
4. But then a lawyer visited him with some important documents.
5. His name is Bozo and he is much shorter and younger than the other undergrads.
6. One of these was the copy of the will of Mrs. Eileen Markham, a rich widow who died last month.
7. He also has a short tail and, unlike the other students, doesn't wear clothes.
8. Leo was her only relative.
9. He didn't even know this.
10. He is a three-year-old chimpanzee and he is learning English.
11. The lawyer calmly told him that she had left him over a million dollars.
12. His first reaction was to say, "Now, at last, I can afford to have a bath."
13. He has already learned more than ten words or phrases.
14. But instead of saying these things, he has learned to make signs that mean the same thing.
15. "It's something I've always wanted to do but it just hasn't been possible," he added.
16. This is much easier for him than to make the sounds themselves.

As noted previously, the class listens to each sentence separately. All they have to do in the first listening stage is to say "A" or "B," indicating which headline they believe the sentence belongs to. In other words, in the first listening phase, only a very general or gist comprehension is required. It does not matter if the class does not understand every word or even, in this first phase, the general meaning of the sentence. And it is interesting that even if they cannot grasp the general meaning, they can usually assign it correctly to its headline.

This is the first advantage of the technique: it promotes gist comprehension of the broadest, even crudest kind. And this is a great advantage, not to be underrated. Far too frequently, teachers begin biting and snapping at their classes over the meanings of individual, often far from important words long before the class has had a chance to understand the general sense of what they are reading. And so the skill of general comprehension—which I believe is the first, key skill without which language acquisition is severely inhibited—is never developed. The Jigsaw Storytelling promotes this skill.

In the second phase of the exercise, the sentences are read out again, exactly as before. Then the class is invited to answer four or five true/false questions. For example:

True or False?

a. Leo is so poor he cannot afford clothes.
b. Bozo has never had a bath.
c. Bozo is learning how to talk by making signs.
d. Leo did not know he had a rich relative who was going to leave him a lot of money.
e. Life is going to be more comfortable for Leo from now on.

After the class has done these questions, the teacher reads each sentence aloud a second time, pausing after each one to ask questions:

"Until yesterday, Leo Jackson was a very poor man."

Is Leo still a poor man?

Why not?

"Two psychologists at Boston University have a very unusual student."

Who is this student?

What do you remember about him?

And so on.

In other words, the teacher asks the class to anticipate sentences that are going to come next and which they have heard in the first reading. One advantage of this technique is the simple but powerful fact that students listen a second time with more motivation and interest than they would have had the teacher simply read the two stories in sequence the first time. Another primary advantage is that the class now has a general context to assign the story to and which will help explain the meaning of individual words. In practice, I have found time and time again that many of the words which the class seemed not to understand in the first reading become clear to them through knowledge of the general context in which they occur.

Even in this second reading, the teacher should not try to explain individual words that are still unclear. Instead, at the end of the second reading, it is usually better to offer short explanations of words but not tell the class which word is being explained. It is for the class to guess. For example: "Which word am I explaining? 'A woman whose husband is dead.' (widow) 'A document in which you say who will get your money when you die.' (will)" Getting the class to listen to these explanations is also a good, additional form of listening practice.

Finally, the teacher divides the class into pairs. If there is an odd number of students, the teacher forms a pair with the odd student. One student in each pair is told to listen again, concentrating only on story A. The other student in each pair is to listen only to story B. The sentences are then read out a third time in the same sequence as in the first reading. After this, the student who listened to story A tells it to the other student in the pair and vice-versa. In this way the class is motivated to listen three times altogether.

Perhaps the most important advantage of all is the simplicity of the technique. Even non-native teachers, often rather unsure of their own competence in English, can find short news stories in the papers and use them in this jigsaw fashion, simplifying the stories if necessary. Jigsaw Storytelling is a simple technique for developing listening comprehension suitable for large classes. According to my experience, there is a great need for such materials.

Cross Currents
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Book Reviews

YOSHI GOES TO NEW YORK. John Battaglia and Marilyn Fisher. Oxford: Pergamon Press, and San Francisco: Alemany Press, 1982, pp. 127.

Yoshi Goes to New York represents a breakthrough in tape and textbook listening programs for intermediate students. At its heart is the tape, which features twelve conversations of two to four minutes each, spoken by a total of eight native speakers. For thematic interest, the conversations loosely follow the story of a young Japanese businessman's move to New York City. The outstanding feature of the program is the realism and spontaneity of the conversations. As the authors explain in their introduction, the conversations sound natural because they *are* natural:

> Unlike most recorded materials, the conversations represent authentic discourse. To insure that specific language functions were generated, scenarios were prepared in advance, though the conversations themselves were unrehearsed. No prepared transcripts were used, no lines memorized. All participants were native speakers who spoke spontaneously at normal speed. As a result, the conversations contain all the elements that make up everyday speech: hesitations, reductions, false starts, grammatical errors, and a full range of speaking speeds and intonation patterns.

The key to making these unrehearsed conversations effective for systematic language study is the use of a functional syllabus. The story line has been designed to introduce a wide variety of language functions into a natural context. The early units present such common functions as self-introduction, recommendation, suggestion, invitation, and so on, while the later units deal with more complex functions, such as describing a procedure, discussing possibilities, and speculating. The more important language functions are repeated in later units, offering a natural review.

Each unit has a set of multiple-choice and true/false questions for general comprehension, a set of multiple-choice or matching questions that focus on words or expressions, and a section where students write sentences related to the unit's primary function. An intensive listening section requires students to fill in missing pas-

sages of the text. Finally, a set of inference questions encourages students to draw conclusions from the conversations. There are also suggestions for optional role-plays for practice using the language brought up in the unit. While the main point of the exercises, indeed of the whole program, is to build listening skills, the focus on functions draws students' attention to practical expressions which they can themselves use in conversation. And it introduces these expressions within the context of actual conversations, instead of through contrived drills.

One advantage of *Yoshi* is its versatility. It works very well as a language laboratory text where students may listen closely and answer at their own pace. It can also be used with good results in an adult education or high-school course which meets once or twice a week. Students can work in pairs to discuss and solve the questions between replays of the tape. Intermediate students find it challenging, but can answer enough of the questions correctly so that they aren't frustrated. *Yoshi* should also work well as a text for independent study, both for students who have never used it and for students who have worked on it in class without really mastering it. Because the dialogues are long and rich in a variety of accents and usage choices, a student can still learn from *Yoshi* after having used it in class.

Yoshi is also versatile in that the functional outline allows teachers to select units to coordinate with other lessons they might be teaching. Using the units out of order does interrupt the story line, but this does not necessarily reduce the effectiveness of the program.

The plot itself is rather simple. Yoshi meets an American woman and gradually gets to know her better. This permits an increase in speaking speed and a gradual shift in register from the formality of strangers to the intimacy of friends. Yoshi has his new friend help him find an apartment and they go on a few outings. There is minor character development, but no turning point or dramatic climax. In this sense, the nonvital nature of the story line might be considered a weak point. It seems that there would be an opportunity here for exploring more uses of language than *Yoshi* undertakes. A greater variety of characters would offer a wider range of language registers, and a more dramatic plot would offer the potential for exploring the language of emotional situations, such as anger and surprise.

Another minor shortcoming in *Yoshi* is the occasional question and answer that do not seem to match. Sometimes it was obviously a case of a typographical error; but in other cases, the authors appeared to be making judgments on word usage or inference that seemed debatable. Teachers are advised to check over the answers for each section to correct typographical errors and to anticipate controversies.

Overall, *Yoshi Goes to New York* is a very useful program for intermediate students wanting to listen to fresh, uncontrived American conversations. It can be easily adapted to different classroom situations, and is well designed to review the functions that it teaches. Although the main character has a Japanese name, his character is spoken by a native speaker, the adventures occur in New York City, and ESL students around the world should be interested in this story. This tape and workbook should be welcomed by teachers wanting listening materials that are authentic, yet controlled enough to be useful.

Thomas Walter Smith

Thomas Walter Smith earned an MALD degree from the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, Medford, Massachusetts. He is currently an instructor at the Language Institute of Japan.

BUSINESS CONTACTS. N. Brieger, J. Comfort, S. Hughes, and C. West. Leeds: E.J. Arnold, 1981. pp. 128.

After working with a student for several weeks on "How long" questions, I overheard him ask another student "How long company in?" when he wanted to ask "How long have you been working for your company?" Often students can grasp a grammatical function, but fail to make the necessary link between the structure and its applicability for expressing ideas in any wider arena. There is now a text which can help students recognize the usefulness of grammatical structures and immediately give them practice in employing those structures in realistic business contexts. *Business Contacts* is a text and tape that provides good fundamental language practice and serves as a springboard for understanding how that language is used in the business world. As a supplement to a language course, *Business Contacts* can provide a transition between the world of the classroom and the world of business.

The book is divided into thirty units, each focusing on a business topic. Topics range from greeting friends and strangers to giving product descriptions to making end-of-the-year reports. Each unit has the same four-part format: Listening, Presentation, Controlled Practice, and Transfer. Students listen to a description or dialogue in the Listening section. Secondly, the Presentation section provides key vocabulary and an explanation of the more difficult language in the dialogue or description. In the Controlled Practice section, students use new information about a situation similar to the authentic one presented in the Listening section to complete a cloze-type or fill-in-the-blank written exercise. Students do various pair and group exercises in the Transfer section of each unit.

A particulary good unit, which is illustrative of the book's strengths, is the one titled "Inflation." In it, students practice using the past tense and the language of change while they work with graphs. Students first listen to an authentic description of inflationary patterns from 1975 to 1979. The description depicts the changes in inflationary patterns by using business idioms such as "stood at," "leveled off," and "decreased gradually." While listening to the tape, students chart inflationary trends on a blank graph. In the Presentation section, the language and concepts of the listening passage are clearly explained and illustrated by means of charts.

In the Controlled Practice section, a graph representing a company's sales during one period is presented and students are asked in a cloze-type exercise to fill in the appropriate word describing the graph movement. Students learn to distinguish between "by" and "to" when talking about increases and decreases (*rose by 3%* vs. *rose to 3%*), and they are given alternate expressions for the same concepts. The Transfer section in this unit is a pair exercise and it provides excellent practice in actively listening to and accurately using the past tense, idiomatic business terms, and the language of change. Student A has a completed graph of Monthly Ice Cream Sales for a twelve-month period and a blank graph labelled Traffic Density. Student B has the complete Traffic Density graph and a blank Ice Cream Sales graph. In pairs the students describe their completed graph and chart their blank graph. After completing the unit, not only have students practiced grammar and learned terms common in the business world, but they have done so in an immediately recognizable business situation.

Business Contacts does not align itself to a single methodological approach for teaching English. The authors have successfully blended a variety of educational approaches with the presentation of solid business concepts. In the first ten units, such functions as asking for information, apologizing, and giving opinions relevant to business decisions are practiced. Grammar is focused upon in the next ten lessons, with emphasis on simple tenses, modals, conditionals, and contrasts between past perfect and simple past tenses. And, in the last ten lessons, a notional approach is taken, providing practice in sequencing, prediction and certainty, similarities and differences, comparisons and contrasts, and dimensions and size.

The units cover business topics that an educator might include in a management training course for native speakers. Difficult areas to introduce, such as deciding company policy, work routines, market share developments, and office talk are presented. The language is at times more difficult than an intermediate student may be able to understand easily. For example, in a unit on advising and giving suggestions, terms such as "cash flow shortage," "productivity," and "short-term borrowing facilities" might necessitate lengthy and possibly nonproductive explanations by the teacher. Except for an advanced learner, the book would be difficult for a student to use unassisted.

The selection of lessons ranges from easy to difficult and each unit is independent of the others. The teacher can easily select appropriate units (or sections of those units), depending on the depth of coverage desired, the time available, the students' language level, and the students' future needs for particular concepts or functions.

The best recommendation of all is that students enjoy the lessons. They immediately recognize that this is more than "just grammar"; it is English applied to situations they will likely face in the business world. For the teacher searching for a realistic transition book to help students apply their basic knowledge of English to real-world situations, *Business Contacts* is highly recommended.

Vickie Christie

Vickie Christie has a B.A. from the University of Montana and a M.A. from the University of New Mexico. She taught for seven years in the University of Alaska school system, including the Anchorage Community College. She is presently an instructor at the Language Institute of Japan.

LANGUAGE TEACHING TECHNIQUES: Resource Handbook Number 1. Raymond Clark. Brattleboro, Vermont: Pro Lingua Associates, 1980, pp. 120.
THE ESL MISCELLANY: Resource Handbook Number 2. Raymond Clark, Patrick Moran, and Arthur A. Burrows. Brattleboro, Vermont: Pro Lingua Associates, 1981, pp. 275.
INDEX CARD GAMES FOR ESL: Supplementary Materials Handbook One. Revised and edited by Raymond C. Clark. Brattleboro, Vermont: The Experiment Press/Pro Lingua Associates, 1982, pp. 74.

A good case can be made for developing one's own lesson plans, either in total or as a supplement to required materials. The problem is that doing it takes a lot of time and effort. The rewards are usually worth that effort but one is often left with an uneasy sense of not having covered everything that should be covered. It is tempting to leave the decisions of what is to be covered to text writers who have the time and resources to carefully research and prepare their products. The result is usually a course that completely covers the language in terms of the assumptions of the writer.

The problem with leaving those decisions to text writers is that they are not teaching your students. The course books of most major publishers are usually as broadly based as possible. But the individual teacher is better able to make decisions about the needs of a particular class than someone who has never worked with them. There are universals, but these are usually based on the language itself and not on the students, their need for learning the language, and their motivation for doing so.

While most teachers would agree that they feel they can assess the needs of their students better than someone in New York or London, they also often feel that others have a better grasp of the components of the language and how to sequence them in a language course for second language learners, and thus find some security in relying on a commercially prepared text.

Coming to the aid of teachers who would like to be eclectic and, at the same time, have some confidence that they are covering everything that is needed, are Ray Clark, Pat Moran, and Andy Burrows. They have acted as gatherers, collectors, filers, and editors of a great deal of material and techniques developed by themselves and others at The School for International Training in Brattleboro, Vermont, and in the Peace Corps language training programs.

Language Teaching Techniques is a collection of twenty-six techniques for language-learning practice. Thirteen are labelled "Communication Techniques" and the other thirteen are "Grammar Drills and Exercises." The book is a refinement of the *Teacher's Handbook* that the author wrote for the Peace Corps Language Handbook Series.

A look at the table of contents will tell you that no single language teaching philosophy is being promoted. The Communication Techniques will be familiar to anyone who has been involved in the humanistic or student-centered teaching movement. And the Grammar Drills and Exercises will not be new to anyone who has taught with audio-lingual materials.

Under Communication we find titles like Operation, Role-play, and Valuations. For Grammar Drills there are titles such as Substitution Drill, Spontaneous Pattern Practice, and Utterance-Response Drill. Each of the techniques has sections called: Purpose, Brief Description, Procedure, Variations, Suggestions, and Guidelines. There is also a sample or model for each technique. And finally the Notes often contain acknowledgements and sources of further information, as well as suggestions for possible expansion and extension of the exercise.

Aside from the sample or model given for each technique, this book does not contain any content material. It is, rather, a collection of techniques for the teacher to build a lesson around, using his or her own content material. The content material—the vocabulary, the grammatical structures, or the cultural items—can then be tailored to fit the needs of the teacher's own students.

In arguing for an eclectic approach, the author states that there are times when communicative materials, based on authentic language, are called for and times when systematic practice, such as substitution drills, is what is needed. The teacher and students in interaction determine the content of the curriculum.

Most teachers will find this an interesting and useful addition to their professional libraries. Experienced teachers will find a few new techniques and some interesting variations to ones they already know. New teachers will appreciate the clear instructions for each of the techniques; techniques that have been used and proven by many excellent teachers.

Where *Language Teaching Techniques* is "how" to teach, *The ESL Miscellany* is "what" to teach. It is a sort of ESL teacher's

Book of Lists. It contains over 130 lists, in five general categories or "aspects."

The Linguistic Aspect includes a Grammatical Sequence, that is, a list of 139 grammatical items, arranged in order of increasing difficulty, plus an example sentence for each item. The list might serve as a possible teaching sequence. The section also contains twenty-two other grammar lists, including Nationality Words, Prefixes and Suffixes, and Irregular Verbs.

The Communicative Aspect is divided into three sub-aspects: Situations, Topics, and Functions. There are ten Situation lists; each is extensive but not exhaustive. Topics has fifty-three lists, including Food, Human Qualities and Stages, and Medicine and Health. Many of the lists have additional idioms and expressions related to each of the topics. Communicative Functions are similar to, but are not exactly the same as, the functions of a notional-functional syllabus. There are four levels, from Surviving to Integrating, and five types of functions: Basic Needs, Socializing, Metalinguistic, Professional, and Cultural. Each level and type has functions that a learner studying at that level would need and would be capable of doing.

The Cultural Aspect has lists of famous and important people, places, dates, things, and organizations in American history, sports and fiction, including my favorite comic heroes, Shazam and Captain Marvel.

The Metalinguistic Aspect includes lists such as Glossary of Grammatical Terms, and A Brief Guide to Punctuation and Abbreviations.

The Paralinguistic Aspect contains the International Sign Alphabet and forty-two photographs (by Peg Clement) of American gestures such as waving, beckoning, winking, and giving the finger.

The authors suggest four possible uses for the book: first, as a resource for developing materials either for a complete curriculum or to supplement an existing curriculum; second, as a checklist for those eclectic teachers who need a comprehensive way to check what has been done and what still needs to be done; third, as a source of information and vocabulary to be given as handouts to students; and fourth, as a useful resource book and a checklist for advanced students of American English. In an unusually generous, but perhaps realistic view of a world with copy machines in every school, they suggest and encourage the copying of the lists for classroom use.

This is the kind of book that has something for everybody. Obviously not everyone will find everything useful, but I think that most, if not all, teachers will find this a useful book to have as a reference and source of ideas for their classes.

Over many years of attending seminars and meetings I have accumulated an extensive resource file of card games for use in the classroom. The problem is that being a basically disorganized person I could never find the exact game I wanted when I wanted it. Now Ray Clark and Pro Lingua Associates have put many of my favorite card games and several new ones into a handy little book, *Index Card Games For ESL*. As editor, Mr. Clark gives credit to many people, mainly former members of the English Department at The School for International Training, for the development of the card games collected in this book.

The book contains six different types of games: Matched Pairs, Sound and Spell, Scrambled Sentences, Categories, Cocktail Party, and Who's Who. For each game there are sections titled Brief Description, Purpose, Preparation, Procedure, and Variations. In these sections the games and how to use them are clearly described. A Suggestions section, gives examples of the types of language points–vocabulary, pronunciation, grammatical structures–that can be practiced with the game. And finally, for each kind of game there are ready-to-use sample games. All the teacher needs to do is write the information on three-by-five index cards. Each example has a suggested level: beginning, intermediate, or advanced.

Even though there are a number of games that are ready to use in the book, its real value will be in stimulating ideas for teachers to create their own, similar games, designed more specifically for their own classes to practice and review items previously taught.

Taken individually, any one of these books will be found useful for language teachers who do some or all of their own lesson planning. Taken together, they could form the basis for designing a complete course, individualized for each teacher's assumptions about language teaching and learning; with *Language Teaching Techniques* forming the basis on "How" to teach, *The ESL Miscellany* supplying "What" to teach, and *Index Card Games* providing an interesting and effective way to review and practice.

These books are the work of experienced and thoughtful teachers and teacher-trainers. They are full of useful information and stimulating ideas that both experienced and beginning teachers will

find helpful. Whether you plan all of your own lessons or want to find an interesting variation to a familiar drill procedure, these books will find a welcome place in your working library.

Derald Nielson

Derald Nielson holds a B.S. in Business Administration from Southern Utah State College and is a candidate for the M.A.T. (TESOL) degree from The School for International Training. He has taught English in Japan for eight years and is currently an instructor at the Language Institute of Japan.

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Announcements

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

LEXeter '83. INTERNATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY CONFERENCE AT EXETER. September 9-12, 1983. International conference on all aspects of lexicography to take place at the University of Exeter. There will be some keynote lectures on the major general issues in dictionary-making, but the emphasis will be on more specialized topics, discussed in section meetings, on the subjects of: (a) The Historical Dictionary; (b) The Bilingual Dictionary; (c) The Learner's Dictionary; (d) Terminology Standardization; and (e) Computer-Aided Lexicography. For more information, write to: Dr. R.R.K. Hartmann, The Language Centre, University of Exeter, Exeter EX4 4QH, Devon, United Kingdom.

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

The objectives of the seminar are:

(1) to identify and interpret problems which arise when using EIL in business situations;
(2) to clarify the role of ethics in international communication; and
(3) to devise effective communication strategies for the international businessman.

To receive a brochure with complete information, write to Director, Culture Learning Institute, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848, U.S.A. Phone: (808) 944-7608. Cable: EASWESCEN Honolulu, Hawaii. Telex: 7430119; or write to Director, LIOJ, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara 250, Japan. Phone: (0465) 23-1677.

JALT '83 NINTH ANNUAL INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING. September 23-25, 1983; Nagoya, Japan. The conference will be held at the Nagoya University of Commerce. For more information, contact Richard Harris, Programme Chair, Nijigaoka Mansion 1207, Nijigaoka 1-1-1, Meito-ku, Nagoya 465, Japan; or call (052) 782-4927.

CONFERENCE ON THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TRANSLATORS AND INTERPRETERS. October 14-15, 1983; Calexico, California. Call for papers. Sponsored by the Spanish section of San Diego State University-Imperial Valley Campus. Papers are invited on any aspect of pedagogical theory, methodology, and techniques. Topics for workshops, demonstrations, and panel discussions are also solicited. Please submit an abstract or outline as soon as possible to: Dr. Jose Varela-Ibarra, San Diego State University, Imperial Valley Campus, 720 Heber Avenue, Calexico, California 92231, U.S.A.

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