

TESOL QUARTERLY

Volume 13

December, 1979

Number 4

Table of Contents

		To print, select PDF page nos. in parentheses
English Teaching in China: A Recent Survey J. Ronayne Cowan, Richard L. Light, B. Ellen Mathews, and G. Richard Tucker	465	(8-25)
The Silent Way: Panacea or Pipedream? Terry Varvel	483	(26-37)
Introducing the Perfect: An Exercise in Pedagogic Grammar Jack C. Richards	495	(38-43)
Magazine Ads and Logic in the ESL Classroom. Lynne Sandsberry	501	(44-50)
Bridging the Gap Between Controlled and Free Composition: Controlled Rhetoric at the Upper-Intermediate Level. Elaine Dehghanpisheh	509	(51-61)
The Effects of Program Models on Language Acquisition by Spanish Speaking Children. Dorothy Legarreta	521	(62-75)
A Linguistic Analysis of Some English Proficiency Tests. Thomas G. Dieterich, Cecilia Freeman, and Jo Ann Crandall	535	(76-91)
Reading English for Specialized Purposes: Discourse Analysis and the Use of Student Informants Andrew Cohen, Hilary Glasman, Phyllis R. Rosenbaum-Cohen, Jonathan Ferrara, and Jonathan Fine	551	(92-105)
Language and Thought: Effect of Translation Interpretation Robert Lado	565	(106-112)
Age, Rate, and Eventual Attainment in Second Language Acquisition. Stephen D. Krashen, Michael A. Long, and Robin C. Scarcella	573	(113-122)
Reviews		
Mary Todd Trimble, Louis Trimble and Karl Drobic (Eds.): English for Specific Purposes: Science and Technology (R. M. Kaplan).	583	
Linda A. Ferreira and Marjorie Vai: Read On, Speak Out (P. T. Kameen)	586	
Anne V. Martin, Beverley McChesney, Elizabeth Whalley and Edward Devlin: Guide to Language and Study Skills for College Students of English as a Second Language (C. Carpenter)	588	
Max K. Adler: Pidgins, Creoles and Lingua Francas: A Sociolinguistic Study (S. M. Tsuzaki)	591	
Harold S. Madsen and J. Donald Bowen: Adaptation in Language Teaching (L. E. Henrichsen)	593	
Research Notes Diane Larsen-Freeman	597	
Announcements	605	
TESOLQuarterly Style Sheet.	606	
Publications Received	612	
Publications Available from TESOL Central Office	614	

TESOL QUARTERLY

A Journal for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

TESOL OFFICERS 1979-80

President

Ruth Crymes
University of Hawaii
Honolulu, Hawaii

First Vice President

H. Douglas Brown
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

Second Vice President

Janet Fisher
Los Angeles Unified School District
Los Angeles, California

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Officers and

Eugene Briere
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, California

Thomas Buckingham
University of Houston
Houston, Texas

Donna Ilyin
Alemany Community College Center
San Francisco, California

Sadae Iwataki
Los Angeles Unified School District
Los Angeles, California

Donald Knapp
Temple University
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Joan Morley
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

William E. Norris
Georgetown University
Washington, D.C.

Bernard Spolsky
University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico

Carlos Yorio
University of Toronto
Toronto, Canada

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

James E. Alatis
Georgetown University
Washington D.C.

QUARTERLY EDITOR

Jacquelyn Schachter
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, California

REVIEW EDITOR

Brad Arthur
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

Marina Burt
Bloomsbury West
Charles A. Findley
Northeastern University
Sidney Greenbaum
University of Wisconsin
John Haskell
Northeastern Illinois University
Braj Kachru
University of Illinois
Ted Plaister
University of Hawaii
Pat Rigg
Southern Illinois University
Betty Wallace Robinett
University of Minnesota
William Rutherford
University of Southern California
Muriel Saville-Troike
Georgetown University
Tom Scovel
University of Pittsburgh
Earl Stevick
Foreign Service Institute
Barry Taylor
University of Pennsylvania
Richard Tucker
Center for Applied Linguistics
Rebecca Valette
Boston College
Margaret van Naerssen
University of Southern California

ASSISTANT TO EDITOR

Harry Baldwin

Membership in TESOL (\$20.00) includes a subscription to the journal.

TESOL QUARTERLY is published in March, June, September, and December.

Business correspondence should be addressed to James E. Alatis, School of Language and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C.

Copyright © 1979
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
US ISSN 0039-8322

Editorial Policy

The *TESOL Quarterly* encourages submission of articles of general professional significance to teachers of English to speakers of other languages and dialects, especially in the following areas: (1) The definition and scope of our profession; assessment of needs within the profession; teacher education; (2) Instructional methods and techniques; materials needs and developments; testing and evaluation; (3) Language planning; psychology and sociology of language learning; curricular problems and developments; (4) Implications and applications of research from related fields, such as anthropology, communication, education, linguistics, psychology, sociology. The *TESOL Quarterly* also encourages submission of reviews of textbooks and background books of general interest to the profession. Submit articles to the Editor (Jacquelyn Schachter, American Language Institute, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California 90007). Submit reviews to the Review Editor (Bradford Arthur, English Language Institute, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109).

Manuscripts

Articles should usually be no longer than twenty double-spaced typed pages, preferably shorter. References should be cited in parentheses in the text by last name of author, date and page numbers. Footnotes should be reserved for substantive information, kept to a minimum, and each typed directly below the line to which it refers. An abstract of two hundred words or less must accompany all articles submitted. Manuscripts of articles should be submitted in THREE copies. Manuscripts not conforming to the above requirements will be returned without review.

Research Notes

A section devoted to information about current research will appear regularly under the sponsorship of the TESOL Research Committee. Researchers are invited to submit abstracts of completed research or work in progress, notes of interest from conferences, announcements or short research articles. With the exception of short research articles which may be somewhat longer, contributions should be 500 words maximum, double-spaced, and should include author's name, affiliation, address, telephone number and the title of the research project or conference. All bibliographic references should be kept to a bare minimum and conform to *TESOL Quarterly* style. Submit to Ann Fathman, P.O. Box 1141, Rochester, Minn. 55901.

The Forum

The *TESOL Quarterly* welcomes questions from readers regarding specific aspects or practices of our profession. Questions will be answered in *The Forum* section from time to time by members of the profession who have experience related to the questions. Comments on published articles and reviews are also welcome. Comments, rebuttals, and answers should normally be limited to five double-spaced typed pages.

Subscriptions

The *TESOL Quarterly* is published in March, June, September, and December. Individual membership in TESOL (\$20) includes a subscription to the *Quarterly*. Subscriptions are not sold without membership. Dues for student memberships are \$10 per year. Dues for joint husband and wife memberships are \$30. Dues for non-voting institutional memberships (nonprofit institutions and agencies) are \$30. Dues for non-voting commercial organizations are \$100. Postage is prepaid on all orders for the U. S., \$2.00 per year for all foreign countries. Members from such foreign countries who want their *Quarterly* sent air mail should so specify and add \$10 to their annual membership dues. Remittances should be made payable to TESOL by check, money order, or bank draft. Communications regarding orders, subscriptions, single copies and permission to reprint should be addressed to James E. Alatis, Executive Secretary, 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057.

Newsletter

TESOL also publishes a newsletter six times a year (February, April, June, August, October, and December), containing organization news and announcements, affiliate and special interest groups news and information, book reviews, conference reports and short articles on current classroom practices and general information. It is available only through membership in TESOL or by subscription through the affiliates. If you wish to contribute to or communicate with the *TESOL Newsletter*, please write to Dr. John F. Haskell, Editor, *TESOL Newsletter*, Department of Linguistics, Northeastern Illinois University, Chicago, IL 60625.

Advertising

Requests concerning advertising should be directed to Aaron Berman, TESOL Development and Promotions, P.O. Box 14396, San Francisco, CA 94114.

The Executive Committee regretfully announces the death of

RUTH CRYMES

*President of TESOL, former Editor of TESOL Quarterly,
in an airline crash on October 31, 1979.*

*We wish to extend our condolences to her family, her
friends and her colleagues.*

Editor's Note

This issue contains a Style Sheet for the *TESOL Quarterly*. Both new and continuing contributors are encouraged to make full use of the information it contains. While the guidelines enumerated are by no means exhaustive, the editor hopes that answers concerning major questions of style, form and policy can be easily located within its pages. All manuscripts should be checked against *TESOL Quarterly* requirements before submission. The Style Sheet will be reprinted each year in the December issue.

Diane Larsen-Freeman, Research Notes Editor, has resigned in order to take over the editorship of *Language Learning*. I would like to express my gratitude for the dedication and professional responsibility she brought to Research Notes, and wish her well in her new position. I am pleased to announce the new editor of this section will be Ann Fathman. She is the author of numerous articles on second language acquisition research.

Thanks are due also to the following members of the organization who have on occasion contributed reviews of submitted manuscripts:

Eugene Brière
Fraida Dubin
David Eskey
Evelyn Hatch
Steve Krashen
Elite Olshtain
John Schumann

English Teaching in China: A Recent Survey*

J. Ronayne Cowan, Richard L. Light, B. Ellen Mathews, and G. Richard Tucker

For three weeks in 1979, a team of four specialists sponsored by the U.S. International Communication Agency visited China for the purpose of surveying diverse aspects of English teaching there. The authors visited 21 educational institutions in 5 cities. This article describes aspects of language teaching policy in China, English curricula, teaching materials, and teaching methodology used at various levels of English instruction. It also touches upon teacher training and the utilization of foreign experts in China's growing English teaching endeavor. Transcripts of EFL classroom interaction and samples of EFL teaching materials currently used in China are included.

1. Background

In response to a request by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (PRC), the Directorate for Educational and Cultural Affairs of the International Communication Agency appointed a team of specialists to visit the PRC to survey diverse aspects of English teaching and teacher training. We were directed to place particular emphasis on teaching and training at what the Chinese label the tertiary level, that is, our university or college level.

The team began formal work on the evening of their arrival in Beijing on May 14, 1979. During the next 19 days, team members visited 21 educational institutions in five cities, conducting numerous discussions with staff from various sections of the Ministry of Education in Beijing as well as with staff from provincial bureaus of higher education. In addition, team members had the opportunity to talk with British Council specialists, Canadian government-supplied short term experts and numerous other foreign experts.

We observed an impressive commitment to the teaching of English in the PRC, designed to lead to improved access to western science and technology. We noted that, while the conditions under which English teaching programs are being developed in China are similar to those in many developing countries, the large population, the immense size of the country, and the disruption to

* Special thanks are due Mr. Yeh Quiping and Mrs. Zhang Youyun of the Bureau of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Education in Beijing, and Mr. John C. Thompson, First Secretary, Culture and Information, American Embassy, for their unfailing good humor and their untiring efforts on our behalf during our visit to China. Thanks also to Professors Chen Yu shi and Yu li Hua of the Chinese Studies Program, State University of New York at Albany for their assistance with translation of Chinese materials.

Ron Cowan is Associate Professor of Linguistics, Department of Linguistics, University of Illinois, Urbana.

Richard Light is Associate Professor, TESL Teacher Preparation Program, State University of New York at Albany.

B. Ellen Mathews is Program Officer, English Teaching Division, International Communication Agency, Washington, D.C.

Richard Tucker is Director of the Center for Applied Linguistics in Arlington, Virginia.

all levels of higher education caused by the Cultural Revolution pose additional problems. The reader should bear in mind that obvious limitations are imposed on this report by the brevity of our visit and by the selection of educational institutions which we visited.

2. Foreign Language Teaching in the PRC

Foreign language teaching, and English language teaching in particular, occupies a prominent role in Chinese education. The Chinese view English primarily as a necessary tool which can facilitate access to modern scientific and technological advances and secondarily as a vehicle to promote commerce and understanding between the PRC and countries where English is a major language.

Foreign language teaching, in theory, begins in the third primary grade and continues throughout primary and middle school and on through the tertiary level. There is a Division of Foreign Languages within both the Bureau of Higher Education and the Bureau of Universal Education in Beijing. In each, there is a person in charge of English teaching.

In addition to the widespread teaching of English at the primary and middle school levels with a currently estimated 65,000 English teachers, there are approximately 23,000 students majoring in English at tertiary institutions taught by 4,800 teachers. An additional 6,000 staff members teach English for non-major students, especially for those in natural science. We had an opportunity to visit English classes at the primary, middle (secondary) and tertiary (college & university) levels and to visit colleges, institutes or universities preparing English teachers for the various levels, (Institutions visited are listed in Appendix A).

3. English Curricula

Two conferences were held recently (Tientsin in August 1978; Shanghai in December 1978) at which discussions were held concerning the future scope and direction of foreign language teaching. These discussions confirmed the desire of the Ministry of Education to: 1) enhance the quality of foreign language teaching at the middle as well as primary levels; 2) strengthen the foreign language proficiency of natural science students; and 3) provide assistance to workers and peasants as well as students to improve their knowledge of English. In addition, subsequent conferences were convened devoted to the development of teaching materials for the various foreign languages.

At the primary and middle school levels, there exists a draft of a national plan for the teaching of English. At the tertiary level, the Ministry of Education has drafted guidelines that provide a framework within which separate curricula are developed for English majors and non-majors. The team obtained the individual curriculum for English majors at eight institutions of higher learning, including one curriculum for 1978 Entering Graduate Students in English. (See Appendix B). Also, one set of guidelines for non-English majors

was obtained. It appears that institutions are permitted to make adjustments in the Ministry guidelines to meet local needs. We were told that modifications are made at the department level by the leadership, based on comments from faculty members. No major changes in the basic curriculum were noted at any of the institutions we visited.

The basic curriculum was designed for students entering institutions of higher learning on the basis of nationwide competitive examinations instituted in December 1977. Two groups of students have now been enrolled in four year programs. To date, close attention has been paid to the objectives, scope and content of the basic courses for years 1 and 2, but we were unable to learn of specific plans for the objectives and content of third and fourth year courses.

3.1. Curriculum for Majors. Draft guidelines for the two-year basic course for English majors were prepared by the English Section of the Beijing Teachers' University. The objective for the first two years is to provide a solid foundation in English which will allow transition to more advanced work. The paper states that students from middle schools will enter tertiary institutions with a background in English grammar (basic structure, tenses) and pronunciation, ability to read simplified material, a vocabulary of 1500 words, and ability to converse about daily life. The specific goals for the two- year basic course are:

1. *Listening*

- A. Understand material at the level of *The Turners* (British) recorded at normal speed.
- B. Understand "ordinary speech" recorded by native speakers of English as well as foreign news broadcasts in English.
- C. Take dictation (read 3 times) selected from known material with no more than 5% error.

2. *Speaking*

- A. Conduct conversations on daily and political life expressing ideas appropriately.
- B. Hold discussions based on texts used.
- C. Make improvised three minute speeches on text material using correct grammar and pronunciation.

3. *Reading*

- A. Understand articles (of medium difficulty) from foreign language (English) newspapers and magazines.
- B. Understand original texts (of medium difficulty) written by native speakers of English.
- C. Read with 70% comprehension less difficult articles at the rate of 60-70 words per minute.

4. *Writing*

- A. Write a summary of written or spoken material in standard English.
- B. Write a 300-400 word essay within two hours,

While the number of hours per course varied, the basic curriculum for English majors at most tertiary institutions during the first two years consists

of such required courses as Intensive Reading, Extensive Reading and Conversation (Listening & Speaking), as well as such compulsory general courses taught in Chinese as political affairs, Chinese, and physical training.

3.2. Curriculum for Nonmajors. There appeared to be no standard English curriculum for those majoring in the arts or sciences. Generally, 320 hours, four hours per week (as opposed to 14 hours per week for most majors) in the first two years of the undergraduate program are assigned to the study of English by nonmajors. While the primary objective of these courses is reading, increasing attention is now given to oral skill development since many students in the sciences anticipate advanced study in English-medium countries. There is some concern that 320 hours is not sufficient, especially in view of this increasing focus on oral skills. The Medical College in Guangzhou, for example, reported heavy enrollment in elective English courses beyond the 320 hour minimum.

3.3. Post-graduate curriculum. A number of tertiary institutions are developing plans for three-year postgraduate programs to train teachers for the third and fourth university-level years, and to train researchers. Candidates will be examined in the areas of literature and linguistics and will be required to complete a thesis in the final year. To date, programs such as the one at Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute have only one cohort of students now completing their first year.

4. English Teaching Materials

We were able to obtain a representative sample of EFL materials produced in China by requesting copies of texts being used at the institutions visited and by making frequent purchases at the local bookstores. We made a point of visiting the libraries, reference rooms and audio visual aids centers of all the institutions of higher learning on our itinerary and recorded the extent to which these were stocked with reasonably current issues of EFL or applied linguistics journals, as well as films and tapes.

Books in English available to the general public appeared to be limited. Our visits to bookstores in four cities turned up no original works in English and only a few English translations of books written by Chinese authors, primarily the poetry and thoughts of Mao Tse Tung, books on travel in China, and children's stories. Translations of the works of Marx and Lenin were available in English and French as well as in the original German and Russian. Occasionally we discovered copies of in-country-produced EFL textbooks designed for the secondary or tertiary level, and twice we ran across regionally produced special purposes materials—a textbook entitled *Elementary English of Radio Engineering* and a two volume series intended for use by medical students and professionals.

English resource materials in the reference libraries of the universities and foreign language institutes ranged from a few copies of traditional grammars by Poutsma, Jespersen, and Curme to more complete collections com-

prising books on aspects of modern linguistics, e.g., Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* (1976); English teaching, e.g., Strevens *New Orientations in the Teaching of English* (1977) and more modern grammars such as *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972) by Quirk et al. In one institute in Guangzhou (Canton) we found editions of *The Journal of Phonetics*, *American Speech*, *The Journal of Linguistics*, *PMLA*, *English Language Teaching Abstracts* and *English Language Teaching*, with publication dates ranging from 1977 to 1979. But this was an exception. In general, *Language Teaching Abstracts* and *ELT* were the two EFL professional journals most frequently subscribed to. We did find issues of *TESOL Quarterly* and *Language Learning*, but they were rarely current. The continued emphasis on literature as an integral part of all English training in China undoubtedly explains why so many reference libraries had periodicals in English such as *Chinese Literature*, *Soviet Literature*, *College English*, etc. Again, it is worth noting that the issues of these journals were frequently two to three years old. Our overall impression was that for most tertiary institutions, the professional books and periodicals on linguistics, applied linguistics and ELT available to the English teaching staff are scarce and frequently out of date.

4.1. Audio Visual Aids. We saw only two tertiary level institutions which had language labs that were obviously maintained and used regularly. At one of these we witnessed the integration of slides with the language labs in an effective lesson that was part of an audiovisual package obtained from Japan. One foreign language institute allowed us to inspect a rather primitive Chinese language laboratory which we doubted was used with much frequency. Several other institutions claimed to have visual equipment such as overhead projectors, but we neither saw these nor had any indication that they would be used by the teaching staff. The most commonly used pieces of electronic equipment at secondary and tertiary institutions were radios and tape recorders. The former are used to listen to Voice of America broadcasts and the latter to record these broadcasts for use as listening comprehension lessons. Still, many of the tape recorders in classrooms were out of commission and facilities for recording master tapes were often quite primitive. At many institutions expatriate English teachers and visitors are asked to make recordings since professionally produced EFL taped courses are rare. It was clear to us that the Chinese would prefer to make greater use of audio-visual technology in their teaching, but the lack of adequate hardware means that the blackboard and magazine pictures are presently the most sophisticated media that the average teacher can use.

4.2. Secondary School Materials. At the secondary level, unified English textbooks, compiled by teams of writers under the direction of the Ministry of Education, are used in all provinces. Some review texts compiled by provincial groups are used in secondary schools, but these will be phased out when the final version of the unified text appears. We were told this policy will not apply at the primary level. Since in future years the secondary school unified textbooks

will become the basic vehicle by which millions of Chinese will learn English, (provided the commitment to English is continued), it seems appropriate to describe in some detail the provisional version of the unified texts we obtained.

The first six lessons of Volume 1 focus on teaching the English alphabet while simultaneously introducing the WH question: *What's this?* and the answer *It's a/an* — for vocabulary teaching purposes. There are pictures of all new lexical items taught in this manner. Sound-symbol correspondences are taught through exercises similar to those found in phonics textbooks for native speakers of English. Lessons 8 through 15 are organized around WH questions, Yes/No questions, *There-insertion* and Subject-Verb agreement with the verb *be*. Lesson 16 introduces time concepts and Lesson 17 treats the locative prepositions *beside*, *in front of*, *under* and *in* within *there-insertion* sentences. The treatment of the English sound system is adequate, but the marking of stress and intonation is somewhat confusing. Sentence stress is indicated by underlining, and rises and falls in pitch by arrows which apparently preceded the word where such contrasts are to be effected, e.g.:

Comrade Yang is our teacher.
Are ↗ those trucks?

The question example underscores the inadequacy of this system. Clearly a marking system for intonation which provides more accurate visual clues such as the Prater-Robinett (1972) system would be more helpful. The first volume of the unified text contains a number of errors such as the incorrect marking of the point where the pitch rises and the omission of a stress on the last word in second example above.

The format of Volume 2 is used, with slight variations for all secondary and tertiary level EFL materials compiled by Chinese authors. Each unit begins with a section entitled *Drills* which consists of two or three short dialogues of a question-answer type. A short passage with the heading *Text* is then followed by a section entitled *New Words And Expressions*, which provides Chinese glosses and phonemic transcriptions in phonetic brackets of vocabulary items in the previous two sections. A selection of *Everyday Expressions* or *Classroom Expressions* is then followed by exercises intended to provide practice in spelling and/or pronunciation. Next a section entitled *Grammar* describes in Chinese the grammatical teaching point for this unit. Finally a set of *Exercises* practice the grammar taught in this unit and, presumably, review previously presented material. Usually, these exercises exemplify the more mechanical and unimaginative creations of the 1950s and 60s—filling in the blanks with prepositions, adding a given tense morpheme to a verb, transformation drills (change the sentences into their negative form, etc.) and classifying words in sentences according to their part of speech category with the help of a table.

Judged in the light of current perspectives in EFL, the unified texts have two serious flaws, both of which are due to the rigid control of the gram-

mathematical structures introduced. Since the lessons in both books are organized around selected grammatical teaching points, the language, especially in the *Text* sections, is strictly controlled with regard to syntax. This results in passages which often sound unnatural and artificial such as the one below written entirely in the present progressive.

A Geography Lesson

The students are having their geography class now. The teacher is asking them questions. One student is standing. He is answering the teacher's questions. Many students are putting up their hands, (*Unified English Course for Middle School, Book 2: 84-85.*)

The second flaw is that the textbooks rarely, if ever, present opportunities for students to engage in meaningful communication. This fact has immediate consequences in terms of the classroom methodology preferred by the secondary school teachers we saw. Since these teachers have received no training in methodology, they tend to rely upon what has historically become a most salient feature of Chinese education—rote memorization. For homework, students are required to memorize parts of a lesson, and, although we occasionally saw inventive use of simple visual aids, teaching techniques are typically limited to repetition, questioning, and correction, all of which are intended to assist and reinforce total memorization of a given lesson.

It is interesting to speculate on the long term consequences of the interaction of the unified text and a methodology which stresses rote memorization and is practically devoid of opportunities for facilitating the development of communicative competence. Those who subscribe to current views about what should be going on in the EFL classroom would be forced to predict the creation of automatons who can only respond when given one of the stimuli they have learned. On the other hand, it is worth noting that rote memorization fits the Chinese students' stereotypical image of the norm for language training. If, as some recent large-scale studies in Canada suggest (d'Anglejan, personal communication), methodology is not a primary variable in the attainment of fluency in a language, then this second flaw in the materials may not produce any serious consequences.

We were told that among the primary purposes of English language learning in China were access to Western science and technology, and assistance in handling the increased flow of western tourists and businessmen to China. One would therefore have expected to see rather widespread efforts to teach English for technical and practical purposes, with the form and content of China-produced English teaching materials reflecting those purposes. However, in most Chinese EFL textbooks we examined there was more evidence of English taught for political purposes than for practical purposes. In seeking an explanation for this apparent paradox, we note that Munro (1973) suggests:

in view of beliefs about the power of words to change people's attitudes, the Chinese regard it as legitimate for the government to control their use. This is one

factor that accounts for close official attention to the language used in the writing and rewriting of textbooks. (35).

Two years later, Lehman (1975) felt that a primary purpose of English study in China was "to serve the revolution." Further, if political purpose influences textbook content, then recent statements by China's leaders additionally explain political topics in current EFL texts. Chairman Hua, for example, recently urged that "we must correctly carry out the policy of making education serve proletarian politics . . ." (Hua, 1978: 72)

Given this context, the political content we noted in EFL texts in China is not surprising. Examples of proletarian politics in the EFL texts we examined were rather common at both the secondary and tertiary levels, and included such topics as "Study as Lenin Studied" (Jiangsu Compilation Group, 1978:41); "A Lesson in Class Struggle," (English Department, Peking Foreign Languages Institute, 1978:137) and "We Study for the Revolution" (English Department, Peking University, 1978: 54). On the other hand we saw few examples of science or technology-oriented selections in the EFL texts we examined. Our impression was that given China's current emphasis on modernization there may yet be a shift from politically-oriented content to more practically-oriented content in EFL materials. This was predicted by the U.S. Applied Linguistics Delegation that visited China two years ago (1977). But it remains to be seen how extensively any such shift in emphasis might be effected. (See below and Appendix D for further examples of political messages in EFL materials.)

4.3. *Tertiary Level Materials.* English departments at universities, foreign language institutes, and teacher training colleges use a combination of British and American EFL materials, and materials compiled by staff members. The most commonly encountered foreign textbooks in courses for English majors were: *New Concept English* (the series), *Kernel Lessons Plus*, *A First Certificate in English Course for Foreign Students* and *The Turners*. For service English, that is, instruction for students who are not majoring in English, the following foreign textbooks are frequently used: *A Course in Basic Scientific English*, *The Structure of Technical English*, *Scientifically Speaking*, and *Book 4 of English for Today*.

Tertiary level EFL materials produced in China usually carry an "experimental" designation on the cover, and only institutions, not authors, are identified. Such materials are often virtually indistinguishable in format and level of difficulty from the middle school unified series.

Although debate still exists among English teachers in China as to the legitimacy of English for Special Purposes, several universities and polytechnics have acknowledged the obvious fact that the thousands of non-English majors studying natural and social sciences (about 90% of the university population) need special English materials which will enable them to at least read academic publications in their selected fields. The Ministry of Education has recognized the need for developing such materials by designating two universities, Qinghua

in Beijing, and Jiaotong University in Shanghai, as information and research centers for English for Special Purposes.

We discovered that at least five institutions—the Peking Foreign Languages Institute, Peking University (in conjunction with other institutions), Fudan University, Jiaotong Polytechnic University, and South Shanghai Medical College—have produced ESP materials. All of these purport to stress reading skills but they have essentially the same format as the unified texts with a few alterations—slightly longer texts, grammar sections which attempt to treat a bewildering set of syntactic phenomena, and more translation exercises than are usually present in secondary school texts.

We did find two textbooks which were reasonable facsimiles of ESP materials: one two-volume series produced by the Shanghai-Jiaotong foreign language teaching group and another two-volume text with a medical orientation written at South Shanghai Medical College. Although these ESP materials were definitely superior to others we had seen in terms of the appropriateness and level of difficulty of the subject matter, they nevertheless displayed a marked resemblance to all other in-country produced EFL materials we had encountered, thereby underscoring the fact that at present the Chinese do not distinguish any special features that should be taken into consideration when preparing special purposes materials. Language instruction for scientists and technicians is approached within the framework of general EFL training carried out in China; hence ESP materials contain the same elements found in general EFL courses with the exception of subject matter orientation.

5. Methodology

Systematic training in methodology of second language teaching was virtually non-existent in the sixteen colleges and universities we visited. Although several institutions indicated they had plans for courses in methodology in the immediate future, we observed none, and heard of none presently being offered. There is practice teaching available for some prospective English teachers, often at Middle Schools attached to teachers' colleges.

5.1. *Methods in Use.* Due at least in part to this lack of systematic training, the methodology used in second language teaching in China was most commonly described by faculty in the institutions we visited as "eclectic" or "composite." Teaching activities were said to be drawn from "grammar translation," "direct" and "audiolingual" approaches. This was a fair description of the language teaching techniques we observed. We noted activities such as the following in eighteen ESL classes we observed at primary, secondary and tertiary levels: oral repetition exercises, substitution drills and combination drills; oral translation exercises, (English to Chinese and Chinese to English); reading-aloud activities; identification of parts of speech; listening comprehension activities based on taped passages, with follow-up comprehension questions by the teacher, or repetition of taped sentences by students, etc.

The range of seemingly incompatible teaching techniques which we ob-

served is perhaps not surprising, given the conditions and trends we noted in second language teaching in China. The lack of any systematic attention to theory or practice in second language teaching methodology certainly must account in large part for the wide differences observed in both teaching techniques and teacher expertise in the classroom. In addition, there appears to be a move from primary reliance on grammar-translation activities to increased use of techniques associated with audiolingual methodology. However, there still are proponents of grammar-translation activities and rigidly enforced teacher-as-dominant/student-as-submissive role relationships. The curriculum for English majors at the tertiary level is still heavily weighted in favor of reading activities. The cautious movement away from these activities toward wider acceptance of audiolingual activities such as pattern practice probably helps account for the diversity of techniques we observed.

One element which was consistently missing was any opportunity for students to practice communicative use of English. Students were rarely given the opportunity to use language to state their own opinions, express their own feelings, or communicate new information to their classmates. There was a heavy reliance on rote memorization and the reproduction of carefully prepared lessons. When communicative use of language did take place it was generally in the context of discussing a reading selection in an intensive reading class.

Timothy Light (1978:92) reports that, in the view of Chinese educators with whom he spoke, one positive effect of the Cultural Revolution in China was "breaking down the rigid barrier between students and teacher in the classroom." Indeed, in some of the EFL classes in tertiary institutions we visited, there did appear to be somewhat relaxed relationships between students and teachers. At the secondary level however, we observed the maintenance of rather rigid teacher-student relationships (as well as imperfect control of English), as attested by the following transcript of an EFL class we tape-recorded in a Suzhou middle school. A portion of the textbook exercise being studied is reprinted above the transcript.

Textbook Exercise

Exercise 2: Use the appropriate verb form in the blank spaces provided.

- (1) I _ (read) the book. I — (read) it yesterday.
- (2) I — (not hear) from him for a long time.
- he — (write) to you this month?

(from *English*, Jiangsu Compilation Group, 1978:68)

Transcript

TEACHER (T): Exercise two, number one. I /riyd/ the book. I /riyd/ it yesterday. . . I /riyd/ the book. I /riyded/ it yesterday. . . (Student name), try one.

STUDENT 1 (S1): I have /riydəd/ the book. I /riydəd/ it yesterday. I . . .

- T: Say it again. Say it again.
 S1: I /riyd/ it yesterday.
 T: I /red/ it yesterday. What's the sentence? I . . .
 S2: I have /riydəd/. . .
 T: No, /riyd/.
 CLASS: /riyd/.
 T: Past tense? /red/. Past participle is /red/. /riyd/,
 /red/, /red/. Say it again.
 S2: (Silence)
 T: Sit down. Anybody else?

If the universities lead the way in EFL teaching in China, then we may in the future see less of this type of interaction, and more of the less rigid relationships we observed in tertiary level classes.

6. Teacher Training

6.1. Pre-Service Training. Teachers of English for the Middle School or higher levels, in principle, all receive their preparation at what the Chinese label the “tertiary” level of education—at teacher training colleges and universities, at foreign language institutes, or at other colleges and universities. Some practicing Middle School English teachers have, of course, received no training at the tertiary level.

As mentioned earlier, the curriculum for most English majors at the tertiary level emphasizes English language skills development. Chinese educators were divided on the question of the importance of methodology in language teaching. Many older teachers felt that proficiency in English should be the sole prerequisite for holding a teaching position. The emphasis on English language skills in the current curriculum for English majors directly reflects this view-point. However, we met many younger teachers who urgently desired to update their knowledge of current trends in teaching methodology, and in fact, we received more questions on this subject than any other during our visit.

An additional complication in the pre-service training of teachers is the fact that, within the present group of students in years one and two of tertiary institutions who gained admission by competitive examination, those who will become interpreters or translators are not distinguished from those who will become teachers until near or at graduation; hence, no specialized, forced training is possible for either track. Despite the existence of an eight year development plan, we were not able to obtain any precise information concerning the number of teachers to be trained.

6.2. In-Service Training. The need for in-service training is immense. Many practicing English teachers are, in fact, recycled Russian teachers with minimal English proficiency. Other practicing teachers entered the profession between 1973 and 1977 when there were virtually no requirements for admission to or for graduation from tertiary institutions. The main vehicles for in-service training of tertiary-level teachers are: 1) short-term (6-10 week) programs, 2) long-

term (3-10 months) programs, and 3) faculty seminars. We also observed at all levels the limited use of television broadcasts for training English teachers.

The short-and long-term in-service programs are often initiated by the tertiary-level institutions with assistance from the Ministry of Education, which often takes the form of arranging for participation of foreign experts who lecture on a variety of topics for varying periods of time. At one institution in Beijing, for example, we observed classes in a 10-month in-service program for 40 experienced English teachers drawn from universities throughout the country. In addition to English language instruction from Chinese university teachers of English, they had been given a series of lectures by British specialists on topics in English language and literature. Much of the emphasis in this in-service program (as in most we learned about) was on the improvement of English language skills and on formal aspects of language and literature. There appears to be little attention to either methodology or applied linguistics in such in-service programs, although a need for assistance on those topics was expressed at several institutions.

Faculty seminars and discussions appeared to be a common mode of in-service teacher training. For example, at one teacher preparation institution in Beijing we were informed that junior English teachers met with veteran teachers four hours per week to discuss aspects of the English language. Again, the aim of these sessions appeared to be improvement of the English language skills of the junior teachers.

In Shanghai, we observed and discussed in-service teacher training via television broadcasts. Two television series on the topics of English phonology and English grammar had been produced jointly by the Shanghai municipal school board and a tertiary-level institution in that city. The programs attempted to assist English teacher-viewers to improve their English. However, we observed no attempt in this series to translate knowledge about English into effective techniques for teaching English. We were told that the two series reached large numbers of English teachers at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. In fact, we felt that for much of China, the potential of television for both teaching English and for training teachers was enormous. We were told, for example, that there were 242,000 students enrolled in a televised English course produced by the "Chinese Television University" in Beijing.

In addition, radio is potentially a very powerful force both for English teaching and teacher training in the PRC. In many municipalities, special orientation programs are provided for teachers via radio or TV to introduce them to the new unified textbooks that have been produced. English language teaching broadcasts are very popular and widespread in China. For example, in Shanghai we tape-recorded an English-teaching broadcast for well over an hour one afternoon, and such lengthy broadcasts seemed typical in the large cities.

7. The Role of Foreign Experts

There are two classes of expatriate teachers presently working in China.

Short-term foreign experts are recruited by the Ministry of Education usually on a government to government basis to conduct short seminars or symposia at various tertiary institutions. To date such experts have been provided primarily by the British, Canadian and New Zealand governments. It was our impression that these experts were carefully selected and that they provided valuable and focused, albeit brief, assistance in English language teaching.

In addition, there are long-term foreign teachers recruited by the Bureau of Foreign Experts who enter into a contract to teach for one to two year periods. In May, 1979, there were reported to be 50 American EFL teachers, with 10 more expected during June 1979 and 40 others before the end of 1979. The majority of these individuals were ill-prepared to teach English, their only qualification being their native speaker competence. Likewise, the conditions of employment and the nature of their responsibilities were vaguely defined and the salary levels quite low. Nearly all Chinese individuals with whom we talked expressed dissatisfaction with the present system of recruiting and screening experts.

8. Conclusion

We observed an impressive commitment to the teaching of English in the People's Republic of China. Although the practices we observed are not those advocated by all TESOL specialists, there is evidence the Chinese are seeking new viewpoints on English language teaching. During our visit we were continually probed by the Chinese for information on aspects of TESOL in the United States. In addition, two EFL teacher trainers from the PRC were sent, with Chinese and U.S. government support, to attend the first TESOL institute at UCLA in the summer of 1979. It is our hope that such interchanges between the United States and the People's Republic of China will continue to grow, and that the teaching of English in both countries will be richer and stronger as a result.

REFERENCES

- Alexander, L. G. 1967. *New concept English*. New York: Longman.
- British Broadcasting Corporation. 1971. *Scientifically speaking*. London: BBC Publications.
- Ewer, J. R. and G. Latorre. 1969. *A course in basic scientific English*. London: Longman.
- Halliday, M. A. K., and R. Hasan. 1976. *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- Herbert, A. J. 1965. *The structure of technical English*. London: Longman.
- Hua, Kuo Feng. 1968. Unite to build a modern, powerful socialist country! Report on the work of the government delivered at the First Session of the Fifth National People's Congress on February 28, 1978. In *Documents of the First Session of the Fifth National People's Congress of the People's Republic of China*. Peking: Foreign Language Press.
- Jiangsu Compilation Group, 1978. *English: Jiangsu Province middle school text*, Volume 4 (revised). Jiangsu: Jiangsu People's Publishing Co.
- Lehman, Winfred P. 1975. *Language and linguistics in the People's Republic of China*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Light, Timothy. 1978. Foreign language teaching in the People's Republic of China. In Blatchford, Charles and Jacquelyn Schachter (Eds.), *On TESOL '78: EFL policies, programs, practices*. Washington, D. C.: TESOL.

- Munro, Donald. 1973. Man, state and school. In Oksenberg, Michael (Ed.), *China's developmental experience*. New York: Praeger Press.
- O'Neill, R., R. Kingsbury, and T. Yadon. 1974. *Kernel lessons plus*. Hong Kong: Longman.
- Peking Foreign Languages Institute, English Department. 1978. *English, Book 1*. Peking.
- Peking University, Service English Teaching and Research Section. 1978. *Experimental teaching material for institutions of higher learning; English, Book 1*. Peking: University People's Publishing Co.
- Prator, Clifford H., Jr., and Betty Wallace Robinett. 1972. *Manual of American English pronunciation* (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Prator, Clifford, and Betty Wallace Robinett. 1972. *Manual of American English pronunciation*. Third Edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Quirk, R., S. Greenbaum, J. Leech, and J. Svartvik. 1972. *A grammar of contemporary English*. New York and London: Seminar Press.
- Slager, W. R., W. E. Norris, and C. B. Paulston. 1975. *English for today, Second Edition, Book 4: Our changing technology*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Stevens, P. 1977. *New orientations on the teaching of English*. New York: Oxford University Press.

APPENDIX A

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS VISITED

BEIJING (PEKING)

Beijing University
 Beijing Foreign Languages Institute
 Beijing Languages Institute
 Chinese Television University
 Beijing Normal (Teachers) University

NANJING (NANKING)

Nanjing Teachers College
 Nanjing Middle School
 Nanjing University

SUZHOU (SUCHOW)

Jiangsu Teachers College
 Suzhou Middle School #9

SHANGHAI

Shanghai Normal (Teachers) University
 Shanghai Institute of Foreign Languages
 Shanghai Foreign Language Middle School
 Shanghai Foreign Language Primary School
 Shanghai Experimental Primary School
 Jiaotong University
 Fudan University

GUANGZHOU (CANTON)

South China (Hua Nan) Teachers College
 Guangzhou Medical College
 Zhong Chan University
 Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute

APPENDIX B

ENGLISH TEACHING GUIDELINES AND CURRICULA
FROM THE PEOPLES REPUBLIC OF CHINAA. *National English Teaching Guidelines*

- Ten-year Full-Day System Schools General Plan for English Teaching in Middle and Primary Schools (Draft), Ministry of Education, Beijing.
- Tentative Basic Course Curriculum for Practical Courses for English Majors in Institutions of Higher Learning, Ministry of Education, Beijing.
- Draft Document on Curricula Prepared by English Section of Beijing Teachers University Shanghai Conference on English Teaching, November, 1978.
- Review of Commonly Used English Words and Phrases for National Advanced School Entrance Examinations, July, 1979.

B. *Specific School Curricula*

- Beijing*
 - Beijing Foreign Languages Institute
 - English Department Curriculum Guidelines.
 - Central Broadcasting Administration Television University
 - English Teaching Program Outline (Tentative Plan) February, 1979.
 - Institute of Foreign Trade
 - Curriculum for English Majors (Draft) June 10, 1979.
- Nanjing*
 - Nanjing University
 - Curriculum for First and Second Year Students, English Department.
 - Appendix No. 1: Class Hours for English Majors.
 - English Department Guidelines/Curriculum for Non-English Majors (June, 1978)
 - Nanjing Teachers' College
 - Four-year Curriculum for English Majors (April, 1979),
- Suzhou*
 - Jiangsu Teachers' College
 - Four-year English Majors Curriculum.
- Shanghai*
 - Shanghai Foreign Languages Institute
 - Four-Year English Majors Curriculum (December, 1978).
 - Fudan University
 - Foreign Languages Department, Provisional Four-Year English Curriculum.
- Guangzhou*
 - Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute
 - A Tentative Program for Postgraduate Study in the English Department. (See Appendix C).
 - Tentative Curriculum for 1978 Entering Graduate Students in English.

APPENDIX C

A Tentative Program for Postgraduate
Study in the English Department
Guangzhou (Canton) Foreign Language Institute

1. Aims

This program aims at training teachers for the third-and fourth-year students. As they may be asked to teach language, literature, linguistics, education or other courses, they are expected to be versatile and adaptable upon completion of the program rather than expert in a narrow field.

To meet this requirement, each student should have a good grasp of Marxist principles, a ready command of the English language, a general acquaintance with important British and American authors and the essentials of linguistics, both theoretical and applied, and

a working knowledge of a second foreign language. He should also do a short period of teaching work, have some first-hand experience in productive labour and keep himself fit through sports and physical exercise.

2. Period of Study

For regular postgraduate students, three years will be devoted to study. For in-service students, another year will be allowed with all teaching load removed.

3. Arrangements

a. Study hours

Each student will devote 48 hours to study per week, totalling 5,700 hours in three years.

b. Courses to be taken:

- (1) Marxist principles (one year): 160-200 hours
- (2) A second foreign language (one to two years): 500 hours
- (3) Basic theoretical courses (required) and advanced ones (elective): 2,000 hours or more

c. Thesis writing

d. Extramural practice or enquiry as the need arises

e. Class teaching: totalling some two months in three years

f. Productive labour: totalling half a month in three years

4. Requirements

Each student must pass the examination in Marxist principles at the end of the first year and the exam in the second foreign language at the end of the second year.

The required courses are History of English Literature, History of the English Language, Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics and Introduction to Applied Linguistics. The elective courses are English Novel, American Novel, English poetry, English and American Drama, Twentieth-century Prose, Readings in Contemporary Periodicals, lexicology, Lexicography, Phonetics, Grammar, Semantics, the Art of Translation, Chinese Literature, Chinese History, British and American History, Economics, Education, Psychology, Introduction to Science and Technology, etc., out of which each student may take four to six, subject to the approval of the Department Head. He must pass all the course examinations before proceeding to write his thesis. If he fails any of them in the first two years, he will not be allowed to stay on and pursue further studies.

The thesis will be 5,000-10,000 words in length. It should be submitted at the end of the third year (the fourth year in-service students) and defended orally. When it is passed by the examiners, the student will receive a diploma, otherwise he will be certified as having concluded his studies (no diploma granted).

5. Process of Teaching

For Marxist principles and the second foreign language, regular class instruction will be given.

For the required and elective courses, it may be in the form of lectures, lab work, guided oral, written and teaching practice, seminars or tutorials plus fact-finding tours as the teachers concerned see fit.

Reading and writing are essential. For both the required and elective courses, the student is expected to thoroughly digest one or two textbooks and do much collateral reading and write summaries, reports and comments. Group discussion is also necessary.

There must be a specific development plan for each of the students. To develop his potentials, consideration should be taken of his academic attainments, deficiencies, aptitudes and personal preference. The plan should be submitted for approval by the Department Head within three months of enrollment.

The thesis can be a treatise on a chosen topic, a report on literary, historical, linguistic or pedagogical enquiry, an account of experiments in language teaching, a course design, etc. To help in training aspiring scientists for studying abroad, studies of English for Special Purposes are encouraged.

6. Special Cases

If a student has fulfilled all requirements ahead of schedule, he can be granted the diploma as soon as the teachers, examiners and the Department Head are satisfied.

APPENDIX D

(The sections below are taken from pages 73-76 of *English: Book 1*, the first in a four-volume series produced by the Department of English Beijing Foreign Languages Institute. It was printed by Shangwu Publishing House in 1978. Although the book is intended for tertiary level students, it is very similar in format, level, and content to the unified texts.)

Text

Creating a New Chinese Medicine

In 1956 Chairman Mao called on Chinese medical workers to combine their knowledge of both traditional and western medicine and pharmacology and urged them to create a new unified system. Today this too is an important part of China's attempt to modernize science and technology by the end of the century.

Traditional Chinese medicine, with its rich clinical experience and particular theoretical system, has been accumulated by the Chinese people over many centuries of struggle against disease. In old China the ruling class, out of a need for imperialist support to help maintain their rule, went so far as to bar it from hospitals and pass a bill banning its practice. In spite of all this traditional doctors continued to practise and home remedies continued to be passed among the people.

After new China was established in 1949, in order to carry out Chairman Mao's instructions the medical workers of both schools began to learn from each other and try to combine their knowledge and experience. In the past 28 years they have steadily followed Chairman Mao's revolutionary line and constantly fought the interference of the revisionist line. To create a new Chinese medicine has become their common aspiration.

Great numbers of traditional doctors and pharmacologists have been invited to work in hospitals, medical schools and research institutes. Thousands of expert doctors of traditional medicine are now playing a bigger role. More and more western-type doctors have systematically studied one or two years in traditional medicine. It is now almost a daily practice for the doctors of both schools of medicine to come together for joint consultations over difficult cases.

Thus they work together in diagnosis, treatment, observation and summary. New therapies, theories and techniques differing from either traditional Chinese or western medicine have been worked out. These are often simpler, more economical and get quicker, more effective results.

Today the efforts to create a new system of medicine and pharmacology in China through research, medical education and disease prevention and treatment have become ever more widespread. The aim of hospitals in China is to become institutions where the two schools are effectively combined in almost all departments. However, to integrate the theory of the two schools into one unified theoretical system new heights have to be scaled.

Text

Man of Iron

On May 1, when Wang Chin-hsi's team were moving their derrick to a new site, a shifting drill pipe struck Wang in the leg and knocked him unconscious. When he came to and saw the men crowding around him with tears in their eyes, he said, "What are you crying for? I'm not so fragile as things made of clay. A little knock isn't going to break me. Let's get this derrick moving." He got to his feet at once in order that he might direct the work again, though his trouser leg was stained with blood.

Wang was sent to the hospital. But as soon as he was able to get around on crutches, he left the hospital and, in the rain, walked where the second well was.

He went right to work as if he had not been suffering from any wounds, hobbling around on his crutches. Several days later, the well blew with a deafening roar; oil gas, water and mud blasted out. Unless the well was capped, the derrick would be destroyed and fire break out. As there was no barite to use, Wang ordered cement. Quickly bag after bag cement (*sic*) was poured into the mud tank, but it all sank to the bottom, because there was no mixer. As Wang saw this he immediately threw away his crutches, jumped into the waist-deep tank and began mixing the cement with his arms as fast as he could. Several young men also jumped in. The mixture worked and, after a three-hour battle, the well was stopped. When Wang was helped out of the tank, his wounded leg hurt so much that he collapsed.

Wang Chin-hsi seldom left the well site, no matter whether it was time for meal or sleep. He once said, "I'd give twenty years of my life to get this oil field going." His determination and ability to take hardship so moved some nearby peasants that one of them said, "Your team leader must be made of iron!" The name stuck and spread all over the field. Slogans began to appear: "Learn from the Iron Man! Be a man of iron!" Today the name of the Iron Man is still an inspiration to the oil workers and the labouring people in the other fields.

The Silent Way: Panacea or Pipedream?*

Terry Varvel

This paper is a limited but careful observation and criticism of a Silent Way class by a neutral observer. The presentation assumes the reader is familiar with the basic tenets and philosophy of Silent Way, and will focus on specific examples of how the Silent Way uses the rods and charts in teaching pronunciation, intonation and sentence structure. In addition, classroom and student personalities will be viewed through the use of silence and the affective variables of frustration and awareness. Conclusions concerning Silent Way as a methodology and its effectiveness in transferring a student from the classroom to the real world will be discussed.

This paper is a description of my observation of a Silent Way class. I have not studied any specific language as a Silent Way student and I am not a Silent Way teacher. The observed class consisted of a group of thirteen foreign university students at the American Language Institute (ALI) of the University of Southern California (USC). The students had been pre-tested and were determined to be sufficiently below the normal standards required to admit them into the regular English 100 advanced beginning class at ALI. This beginning class then met for approximately five hours each day, five days a week. The class consisted of one Taiwanese, three Japanese and nine Arabs, six males and seven females. Class attendance was particularly high and quite regular. Only one male Japanese student and one male Arab student's attendance was below 50%.

Of the three Silent Way teachers involved, two were experienced in the Silent Way, the third inexperienced. I observed only the classes of the experienced teachers on an alternating two-week schedule, for two hours each week throughout the Fall semester of 1978.

One cannot really teach language but can only present the conditions under which it will develop spontaneously in the mind in its own way (Humbolt 1836, quoted in Chomsky 1965:51).

It is not the purpose of this paper to explain the Silent way philosophy—there are other articles and books that adequately serve this purpose, i.e., Gattegno (1976), Stevick (1976), Newton (1979), Madsen (1979), de Cordoba (unpublished) and Grabe (1979). It is presupposed that the reader already

* A similar version of this paper was presented at the 1979 CAT'ESOL annual meeting, Los Angeles. I am grateful to both Sharon Bode and Clif de Cordoba for allowing me to observe their Silent Way classes and for their Silent Way classes and for their valuable comments. Special thanks too to William Grabe and Jacquelyn Schachter for their help.

Mr. Varvel teaches at the University of Southern California and is in the graduate Linguistics Program. He has previously taught in Japan and Saudi Arabia.

possesses some familiarity with the basic tenets and philosophy of the Silent Way, its use of rods and what the color, fidel and word charts are. This paper will focus on some of the more salient observations and problems not elaborated on in the standard literature of Silent Way, including: 1) the student's development of self-awareness, 2) the aspects of student and classroom personality unique to Silent Way, 3) practical classroom techniques, 4) the frustration level developed in both students and teachers and whether it is needed or useful, 5) whether students do learn through Silent Way methodology, and 6) personal comments and thoughts on Silent Way's effectiveness as compared with other established methodologies.

The Silent Way "cannot be fully presented in writing. The Silent Way must be," as de Cordoba says, "experienced, seen in the classroom and studied again (1978:34)."

1. A Problem: A New Prophet

The new teacher will probably also be struck by the highly individualistic tone of much methodological literature. He will note that great prophets have arisen . . . who have built up large and often blindly enthusiastic groups of followers and who have been able to impose their somewhat closed systems of thought on a generation or more of disciples by their personal prestige and authority. Unlike the prophets of the Bible, however, these spokesmen of the profession have developed no coherent body of doctrine; indeed their dominant ideas are to a considerable extent mutually exclusive . . .

As these facts become clear to him, the neophyte is left with a series of deeply disturbing questions (Prator 1979:6).

Spectators often have negative feelings towards adherents of the Silent Way at conference demonstrations because of the supporters' unswerving faith in the demonstrator and the Silent Way system. Unfortunately, the religious fervor that many, especially new, disciples of the Silent Way display tends to lessen the positive reactions of those first encountering the Silent Way. The question-answer sessions after the demonstrations many times leave the impression that something mysterious has just transpired. Questions are often answered by uncomfortably long "thoughtful" silences, then either a return question or the suggestion that the question was wrong: "The question you should have asked is . . ."

The Silent Way literature exhibits religious overtones also. The novice looking for a clear definition and examples of how the Silent Way works in Caleb Gattegno's *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools the Silent Way* will be given only an indirect philosophical treatise on what the Silent Way is. Gattegno (1972) argues that he has purposefully refrained from writing any text for the Silent Way so that teachers can be free to progress in whatever manner would be the most profitable for the class. But the inquirer, searching for ways to immediately incorporate the Silent Way into teaching methodology, will not find simple, clear answers. The religious tone permeates the Educational Solution's Newsletter too, as shown in the use of words like "in-

spiration,” “enlightenment,” “spiritual energy,” “the spirit of the Silent Way,” “inner motivation” and others like them.

2. Observations and Perspectives: Classroom Procedures

Setting the above drawbacks aside, we must ask what specific techniques does Silent Way incorporate that enhance classroom activity and student learning towards second language acquisition, and do they work?

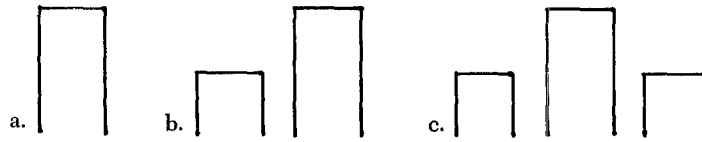
2.1. Pronunciation. The color chart for pronunciation practice was used extensively in the first several weeks of this class. By the end of the second week, the students could associate the English sound system with specific colors very well. Therefore, all the teacher had to do to correct student pronunciation problems was to point out a particular combination of sounds on the color chart with the pointer.

In the first day of the third week of class, the teacher, instead of putting up the word chart, drew a rectangle on the blackboard in approximately the same size and vicinity as the color chart. As the teacher pointed to specific areas within the rectangle, the students quickly picked up the idea that this was the color chart without the color segments and they were soon producing the correct sound [to the approximate area pointed to]. On the next day, one student was having problems distinguishing the sound differences of the two words *pronouns* and *pronunciation*. There was no color chart on the blackboard nor was there a rectangle. The teacher took the pointer and pointed to a specific blank space on the blackboard in the area where the color chart and rectangle had been and to a specific point within that area. Because of the prior tangible evidence of the rectangle and color chart that the student had available to him, he was thus able to formulate a new hypothesis and, after a few attempts, to produce the desired sound. The teacher then pointed to another blank spot on the blackboard in relation to the first and the student then quickly and easily produced the second sound correctly. These two sounds were then transferred back to the target words and a more correct pronunciation was attained.

Not only was a more correct pronunciation of the two words produced—that which most ESL teachers and methodologies would consider the only or primary purpose of the exercise—but a much more important underlying principle of the Silent Way was achieved. The student, unconsciously, became more aware of himself as a learner since he was able to achieve a goal—the correct pronunciation of a word—without the external tangible use of a chart or, for that matter, the need for total reliance on the teacher. The student was able to rely on and trust self-judgment. This development of self-awareness of the student as a learner is one of the major tenets of Silent Way, differentiating it from such standard methodologies as the Grammar-Translation or the Audio-Lingual methods.

2.2. Intonation. On another day, the teacher worked with the students on several stress patterns in English at the word level. She set up three groups of

DIAGRAM A



rods as seen in Diagram A. Without any other information than the rods before them and the word charts, the students were to solve the problem of word stress in one, two and three syllable words in English. She began by pointing to group a. and waited for a response. The students, not knowing what their response should be, began searching for the correct response by saying a word, a phrase or a sentence such as "rod," "a rod," "a red rod" or "It's a red rod." When the correct input was received, she nodded her head once and waited for other input. If the input was incorrect, she pointed to one of the other groups (b. or c.) to indicate that *that* was the pattern the student had generated or did not point at all but shook her head once. As more input was given, the students soon realized that not just any word would do. After working for several minutes with group a., the teacher then pointed to group b. to provide more information for the students. This happened before any student had come to a positive conclusion as to what the teacher wanted in group a. Again, when the input was correct, the teacher nodded approval; but when incorrect, she either pointed to one of the other groups (now a. or c.), or shook her head once. Some of the students gradually learned from this what the teacher was looking for.

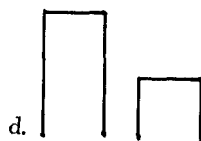
By the time the teacher pointed to group c. the students were aware that the teacher wanted a word and not a phrase or sentence. By this time too, a couple of students had unconsciously come to the conclusion that what was needed was a one, two or three syllable word. Yet, even those who pinpointed the syllable count often were given a shake of the head when they supplied a word for a specific group based on syllable count only. One could easily see the frustration that the students were experiencing through their rapid and random choice of words. Many students had not yet formulated any hypothesis and those who knew part of the solution also knew that they did not possess the entire key.

The tension grew to an almost intolerable point—one student kept asking, "Oh my God, what do you want?" At this point, the teacher broke the class for ten minutes. When they returned, their attention was completely redirected by working on SRA reading material for about thirty minutes.

There was an audible groan from the class when the teacher again set up the above pattern but this time the teacher added one extra group. Group d. was set in between groups b. and c.

In this second and shorter session, the students came to the exercise with data to begin formulating a hypothesis. All knew they were looking for words.

DIAGRAM B



Some knew that they were looking for a specific syllable count, but did not yet relate the height of the rods to a stress pattern. The new group d. provided additional input for them to contrast what they were looking for (specifically, a stress pattern) with what they had before, especially how it differed with group b.

It was not long before those that knew about the syllable count discovered the stress factor. The others soon caught on to the syllable phenomenon. Those who now understood both parts then began to both give a lot more input to the teacher and to help the other students. When the exercise ended, the teacher seemed confident that all were aware of what had happened. (More will be said about this in the discussion of frustration and student personalities.)

2.3. Teacher Talk. The Silent Way asserts that the teacher can keep silent 90% of the time or more—and this is often the case; however there are times, as would be expected, when a word or simple explanation is justified. The major point of the silence is to subordinate the teaching to the learning. This does not mean that a class degenerates to little more than a game of charades. It is not so much a question of whether or not a teacher can or cannot talk in class, but one of effectiveness. An experienced Silent Way teacher finds that talk is not necessary for language learning to take place—just the contrary: It is the teacher's talking that is ineffective and blocks the way to student growth.

2.4. Demands on the Teacher. This seems to be somewhat of a paradox. One teacher supplied the information that the lesson plan was usually written *after* the lesson was completed. Now, most of us would enjoy the luxury of not having to develop lesson plans or think out ahead of time what was to be done on a daily or weekly basis and just letting the lessons happen spontaneously; but at the same time, the Silent Way teacher must be especially alert to the individual needs of each student each day. For example, one day students were working with the sentence type, "Tell me how many rods I have." During the break, the Arab students who were having a difficult time with this structure were having an almost violent discussion, generating sentences of the following type:

- a. How many rods do I have?
- b. How many rods have I?
- c. *How many rods I have?

One student was convinced that the pattern they had been practicing followed the b. example because "That is the way the British form questions." Another

student was equally convinced that they were trying to generate sentences like example a. with *do*, although she could not explain to the others why the sentence they had generated in class contained no *do*.

The teacher, by listening to the students talking, was able to determine their problem. She was able to go back into the classroom and help them clearly distinguish the differences between a question beginning with *How many* and a command beginning with *Tell me*. This is another of Silent Way's strengths. de Cordoba (1978:33) states that a few minutes at the end of a class for feedback can be extremely valuable:

. . . students can express what was happening to them during the class, what they learned or feel they still have problems with, and what revelations they had about themselves as learners. This is another way in which the teacher keeps in contact with where students are.

3. Observations and Perspectives: Affective Factors

3.1. Student Expectations. In his article, *The Silent Way and Teacher Training*, Blatchford (1976:25-26) observed that some students do not respond to the Silent Way because "it does not meet the expectations they are accustomed to." He says further that some students feel uncomfortable without a textbook to measure their progress by. Some were frustrated with no vocabulary lists to memorize and others by the lack of the teacher's willingness to tell them the answer. It is true that Silent Way provides no transition from these traditional crutches in language learning. If a student is unable or unwilling to accept this different way of learning a foreign language, if the more traditional role of the student and teacher is expected, then the lack of adaptation will lead to the student's either being frustrated or dropping the class. All methodologies must deal with this problem of adjustment. Silent Way tries to handle it by placing the responsibility of learning on the student from the very beginning. In this class one male Arabian student, for all practical purposes, dropped out of the class. The reason for his dropping out was not determined, but there is a high probability that it was because he could not adjust to or figure out this new way of teaching. Later, possible reasons will be cited why the male Japanese student's attendance was below 50%.

3.2. Inner Criteria. It was suggested earlier that one of the primary functions of Silent Way is to establish the students' self-awarenesses. These awarenesses, which help one to cope with frustrations and new experiences, Gattegno (1976:50-55) calls "inner criteria." A major role of the Silent Way teacher is to help bring these awarenesses or "inner criteria" to a conscious level of thought in the student and to help the student develop an attitude of responsibility for these processes in language acquisition. In the end, it is these inner criteria that help the student achieve a spontaneous, automatic use of the new language.

3.3. The Crisis Point.

The Silent Way . . . has a "crisis point" which must be experienced by the learners

if they are to succeed in the method. The crisis occurs when the students are frustrated by trying to remember all the new material (Grabe 1979: 16).

Stevick (1976:147), in *Memory, Meaning and Method*, states similarly, "When the Silent Way is used at a fast pace, students commonly feel overwhelmed, abused, and without hope," and that, ". . . if it is taught at full speed, the student must experience the metamorphosis or he will be defeated."

Before a student can fully develop these inner criteria, one must come to a crossroads or turning point in the language learning experience where decisions must be made. In language learning, there are many small decisions of this kind and perhaps more than one major one. These decisions or turning points are what La Forge (1975:67) cites as "crisis situations." These are most commonly exhibited by the student as frustration, and sometimes by the teacher too. Gattegno believes that these moments of crisis are the greatest opportunities for personal awareness and acquisition to take place.

3.4. Frustration Level. The Silent Way not only frequently appears to invite frustration; it in fact considers frustration a healthy factor in the learning of a language, capitalizing on its positive element. Frustration occurs at any time when an introduced unknown element is not understood. Frustration is used to quickly help an individual student become self-aware and to bring a problem to a conscious level where it is easier and more quickly dealt with. Most Silent Way students learn that when an individual is confronted with a crisis, it must first be worked on alone. Only later can another student or teacher offer new input which may help.

In one class, it became quite apparent that one student did not understand the concept being presented ("together-apart"), so the teacher asked her to come to the front and work with the rods. After several more minutes of work, she finally turned to the teacher and said, "I can't." She began to cry and returned to her seat for a few minutes before leaving the class, certainly a crisis point for this student. At break, the teacher, with the help of another student, went out to talk with the student. She came back to class understanding that the teacher was neither her enemy nor just there to supply students with answers. The teacher's job is to direct the students' thinking about the language and themselves as language learners. With this new perspective through a confrontation, this student continued to make satisfactory progress in the class. If a student confronts a challenge such as this as an opportunist for growth, inner criteria will be developed. If a student does not meet the challenge, the metamorphosis that Stevick discussed will not be experienced and the student will be on the road to defeat.

My particular interest in and experience with Japanese students enabled me to observe how three Japanese students responded to the Silent Way methodology. One male student in particular seemed to conform to a classic Japanese language learning pattern: throughout the semester he seemed afraid of the language and uncertain about his abilities as a language learner—he had

no inner criteria for himself as a language learner (but he certainly projected self-confidence and assuredness in other areas of his character). His nose was constantly in his dictionary, even after the teacher requested that all notes, papers, books and pencils be cleared from the desks. There was a minor crisis point at the beginning of the semester when it was debatable whether or not he would continue in the class. It seemed that either the student supposed himself above the level of the class or that the confrontation with Silent Way during the first few days was so exasperating to him that he wanted to drop out. (If for no other reason, the cost of the class probably was a deciding factor in his continuing.) Even at this, his attendance was no better than 50%. In the eleventh week of class, the students were working with and generated the following sentence:

Her favorite kind of party is a kind of party where people do a lot of drinking and a lot of talking.

When asked to repeat this sentence, the Japanese student was not enough a part of the class to even begin the sentence. In eleven weeks, he had not learned to play the game well enough to even try. He had failed to develop any sense of awareness of himself as a language learner.

3.5. Break-Time. Students were welcome at any time during the lesson to get up and leave the class without permission for a few minutes if they felt the need. They just got up and returned quietly without disturbing the class. This is where Silent Way again differs importantly from the conventional classroom where there is a systematic fifty-minute or ninety-minute lesson period with scheduled breaks.

If a teacher saw that the class, in general, was having a difficult time, s/he could dismiss them for a coffee break. If it were the teacher who was frustrated a break could be taken for that reason also. There are times when a unanticipated problem comes up or communication of a certain concept is ineffective; the teacher reaches a breaking point. I observed a teacher become so frustrated she finally just said, "Out! . . . Break!" and had to leave the room herself for a few minutes to think the problem through before coming back to it.

It was observed that this Silent Way class took breaks as early as thirty minutes after the lesson had begun, but lessons also lasted as long as two hours when the class, teacher and material were working extremely well together. The average class period ranged from forty-five minutes to an hour and fifteen minutes.

3.6. The Silent Period. One of the major tenets of the Silent Way is that teaching is subordinated to learning, supported by the fact that the teacher can be silent for upwards to 90% of the classroom time. Much less is mentioned in the literature concerning student silence but it is of equal importance.

There was a woman from Taiwan who after several weeks was still conspicuously silent in class. She never talked, and when called upon would only

answer in a whisper, saying only what was required. It was clear, however, that she was one of the most attentive students in the class, had a clear understanding of what was being done, and seemingly enjoyed the class. She also had a positive attitude towards what and how she was learning. At no time was she coerced into active participation.

Then one day in the ninth week of school she sat in the front row and actively participated throughout the whole hour. From that point on, she continued to participate actively in a more limited way and at times helped others and was helped by others. Again, in the twelfth week, she dominated half the class session trying to find out how a specific word was used in a sentence.

Since student silence in the classroom is a sometimes neglected concept in language acquisition it deserves more careful consideration. Krashen (in press) gives support to this idea:

Our conclusions regarding the importance of input and the relatively minor direct role played by speaking are entirely consistent with the earlier conclusions on the role of the first-language in second-language performance: "Too early" speaking may lead to over-reliance on the first language and what appears to be "interference." Allowing the adult a silent period during which competence is built up via active listening and reading may be the best means for dealing with first language "interference." Of course, this is a luxury that few second-language acquirers in the real world can afford. . . .

Krashen takes the position that this silent period is a positive factor in language acquisition and says that this silence in adult second language learning is the same silence children go through when learning their first language. This Silent Way class illustrates well the benefits of the above hypothesis, at least in the case of the Taiwanese woman.

Gattegno strongly asserts that one learning a second language (or learning anything else for that matter) must have an awareness of self before any real learning takes place. He argues (1972:22) that we have to re-sensitize ourselves to the process innate in each of us. Perhaps one of the best ways of achieving this result is for the student to experience an incubation or silent period before speaking. In the above case, the woman from Taiwan appeared to have made a successful transition towards happily learning/acquiring her second language, English, using this silent period as a trigger in completing her metamorphosis.

3.7. *The Class.* A personality trait developed by the class was that of keeping silent. At first, when a student would be struggling with a problem, other students were quick to help even when the student did not want them to. The facial expressions of the teacher combined with the ultimate gesture of the teacher walking over to the disruptive student and putting the student's hand over the talking mouth helped teach the students to be quiet, letting the person with the problem struggle alone.

At one time our previously mentioned male Japanese student desperately wanted help—he looked around the class with searching eyes and even asked

his fellow Japanese students for help in his own language but to no avail. It was superb! There was dead silence until he finally decided to struggle with the problem himself. He was not able to fully work out the problem by himself, but not until he began to try did the students and teacher, sensing he was indeed now confronting the problem, then help.

4. Observations: A Final Analysis

4.1. *The Rods, The Rods!* The rods are both controversial and tangible items of Silent Way. Many have stated that, while the rods are unusual to work with in the beginning, it must eventually be boring to be limited to these finite, sterile-shaped colored blocks. Students, after the novelty had worn off in the beginning weeks of class, were overheard to say as much; they felt limited in their expression.

The primary function of the rods is to trigger images in one's memory; to help recall a set of language perceptions. The rods are a visual link to here and now situations. The rods can be as versatile as the students' or teachers' imaginations. In the class observed, the rods served as such disparate things as a family, a train with a caboose, a piece of candy and different types of fruit: a banana, an apple and an orange, using the corresponding colors respectively. It is true that other types of visual aids or concrete objects can be used, but their use is pretty much limited to what they actually portray and they lack the flexibility and versatility of the rods. Stevick (1976: 145) states that he now prefers rods to Tinker-toys, toy villages or real objects, "because they (the rods) are more visible, less distracting, come in more colors, and do not roll off the table."

4.2. *Form to Function* The complexity of the sentences of this Silent Way class ranged from Wh-Questions and comparative/superlative constructions to relative clauses, conditionals and the past perfect tense learned in a six- to eight-week period of classroom time. During the class and during the exercises, the students were able to generate the sentence or sentences that the teacher worked them through; that is, they were able to use the *form* that was expected at the moment; but what is of great concern to one evaluating the Silent Way is whether or not, after the exercise, the students were able to transfer this new information—the form—to the real world outside the *classroom*—*function*.

In freeing the student or making the student self-dependent, Gattegno (1976:11-12) states that there are several criteria involved. One must recognize that a student is a person who is able to extend and utilize the material far beyond the classroom work. This would be the *ideal* student—what is hoped for. But, with respect to real world situations, none of these above structures (relative clauses, conditionals, past perfect, etc.) were observed when students spoke ad hoc or when they had a chance on informal occasions (during breaks, after class and asking questions in the class) to transfer from form to function. It may have been too early for such an expectation to be fulfilled; i.e., a transfer from form to function, but then the questions remain: When can one expect

this phenomenon to happen? Is Silent Way really more effective than other traditional methodologies? Further research is needed before any concrete answers to these questions can be given.

4.3. *All or Part.* Silent Way advocates deplore anything but total immersion in the system, inferring that anything else would taint or corrupt. Thus, to think of the Silent Way as a method that could equally co-exist with or be subordinate to another methodology in, the same classroom, used only part of the time, is apparent heresy. However, I believe the greatest strength of the Silent Way lies in its use as part of an eclectic approach by the average teacher.

Obviously one cannot adequately understand or teach the Silent Way full time after only attending a one- or two-hour conference, nor is sitting in and watching a couple of Silent Way classes, then reading a few articles or books sufficient either; one can however, begin to use some of the ideas and techniques learned through these conferences and books by taking part of a class hour each day (or several times a week) and working with it. Then, as the new teacher experiences the usefulness of the Silent Way in the classroom through trial and error, sees how the students work with it, and studies it again through more books, conferences and conversations with colleagues, understanding will develop, allowing the appropriate application of Silent Way techniques in class.

The word charts can direct the teacher in this endeavor to a large extent but there must be a sense of flexibility and versatility when problems arise in the class. This is one reason many teachers may feel insecure with the Silent Way and say that they do not like it; too often the teacher does not want to be fully responsible for what happens in the classroom. A ready-made lesson plan or text, beginning on page one and continuing through drills and exercises, page after page without thinking, is the easy way. How then can we expect more from our students? Perhaps if teachers opened their classrooms more to Silent Way concepts, it would create a freer and more responsive environment for both the teacher and the student.

4.4. *Moth to the Flame.*

At relatively brief intervals one highly touted method or approach has succeeded another in the favor of educators, and the proponents of each have tended to deny the validity of all that preceded (Prator 1979:6).

I see the Silent Way as a dynamic approach under two conditions: a teacher who knows and understands the philosophy of the Silent Way, and a student of at least average motivation willing to accept a totally different teaching situation from that of traditional concepts. As a complete teaching method, the Silent Way seems to deal more effectively with many of the problems the traditional classroom leaves unresolved, such as poor student motivation and attentiveness, lack of student awareness and the structural problems of pronunciation and production. However, the teacher first approaching the Silent Way must maintain the necessary perspective, taking into consideration the goals and the personality of the class before deciding to what extent Silent

Way techniques can be applied. The major problem of Silent Way arises when converts become so enraptured with this new panacea that other methods of teaching are ignored or neglected.

REFERENCES

- Blatchford, Charles H. 1976. The silent way and teacher training. *On TESOL '76*. Fanselow, John F. and Ruth Crymes (Eds.). Washington, D. C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.
- Chomsky, Noam. 1965. *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press.
- de Cordoba, Clifton. 1978. The silent way: an introduction to an approach to teaching foreign and second languages in the schools. Unpublished Master's project at California State University, Fullerton.
- Gattegno, Caleb. 1972. *Teaching foreign languages in schools: The silent way*. New York: Educational Solutions.
- . 1976. *The common sense of teaching foreign languages*. New York: Educational Solutions.
- Grabe, William. 1979. Three methods for language learning: community language learning, the silent way, suggestopedia. *Ohio University Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*. Elliot L. Judd (Ed.). Athens, Ohio: Ohio University Press.
- Krashen, Stephen. Adult second language acquisition and learning: a review of theory and applications. In press: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- La Forge, Paul G. 1975. *Research profiles with community language learning*. Apple River, Illinois: Counseling-Learning Institutes.
- Madsen, Harold S. 1979. Innovative methodologies applicable to TESL. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Marianne Celce-Murcia, and Lois McIntosh (Eds.). Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.
- Newton, Anne C. 1979. Current trends in language teaching. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. (Originally appeared in *English Teaching Forum* 12, 1, Jan-March, 1974.) Marianne Celce-Murcia and Lois McIntosh (Eds.). Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.
- Prator, Clifford H. 1979. The cornerstones of methods. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Marianne Celce-Murcia, and Lois McIntosh (Eds.). Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.
- Stevick, Earl W. 1976. *Memory, meaning and method*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Introducing the Perfect: An Exercise in Pedagogic Grammar

Jack C. Richards

The perfect in English creates problems for both elementary and advanced learners. It is interpreted frequently as an optional alternative to the simple past tense; this interpretation of its function leads to frequent errors of tense usage. Difficulties with the present perfect tense are often reinforced by faulty teaching. The basic uses of the perfect are outlined and contrasted with the functions of the simple past tense. For some meanings of the perfect, namely, state up to the present and habit in a period leading up to the present, the perfect involves a view of time which contrasts with that implicit in the simple past. These are obligatory contexts for the perfect tense. With the resultative past meaning however, the perfect is an optional alternative to the simple past. Many teachers begin their teaching of the present perfect by introducing it in its resultative past meaning, thus leading the learner to think that the perfect is in free variation with the simple past. In this article a classroom lesson devoted to the perfect tense is discussed, showing how a basic confusion can be created for the learner if the resultative past meaning is taught too early, rather than introducing the perfect in contexts where it is clearly in contrast with the simple past. Suggestions for the teaching of the perfect are given.

The field of syllabus design and materials development for second language teaching has been revitalized in recent years through emergence of notional and functional approaches to language teaching. The question of the selection of items for the realization of notions and functions remains problematic, however, since basic decisions concerning the choice of grammatical and lexical items still need to be made, despite the particular approach adopted. In a notional syllabus, both concept categories and functions form the focus of the syllabus. Concept categories include semantico-grammatical categories such as concepts of time, motion, frequency and duration. Functions include speech acts such as requesting, ordering, describing and informing. The present paper is concerned with an area of grammar within the field of concept categories, namely the perfect, and examines the concept covered by the perfect in an introductory language syllabus.

The perfect is variously described in the literature as both a tense and an aspect. In an attempt to clarify grammatical terms and concepts, Comrie (1976) argues that the perfect belongs to the aspectual rather than to the tense system of English. The tense system involves distinctions of time, and is grammaticalized to give only two tenses; past and present. The aspect system

Mr. Richards, a Specialist in Applied Linguistics at the Regional Language Centre, Singapore has edited *Understanding Second and Foreign Language Learning and Error Analysis* and has authored 3 EFL series for Oxford University Press.

involves distinctions that are distinct from the time perspective. An event may be viewed for example as *complete* or *incomplete* via the aspectual contrast of *non-progressive* versus *progressive*. Thus in the contrast *He read : He was reading*, although both sentences are in the past tense, the first sentence involves non-progressive aspect and the second progressive aspect. The perfect evokes a retrospective view of an event; "it establishes a relation between a state at one time and a situation at an earlier time" (Comrie 1976:64). Thus, in the contrast *He moved the chair : He has moved the chair*, the difference is not a difference of tense; it does not concern the *time* at which the moving of the chair took place, but a difference in the way the event described by the verb is viewed.

Grammarians typically identify four perspectives associated with the use of the perfect in English: 1) We regard an event as a state leading up to the present. *I have lived here for six years*. This view of events is common with verbs that are often used statively, such as *live, exist, own, be*. 2) we regard an event as occurring at an unspecified time within a time period extending up to the present, *Have you ever eaten frogs' legs?* This is the so called "indefinite past." 3) We regard events as repeated within a time period leading up to the present. *We have always taken lunch together on Fridays*. 4) We regard an event as having results which extend to the present. *I have broken my watch*. This is the "resultative perfect." (See Leech 1971)

Where should we start when we attempt to incorporate the perfect into our grammatical syllabus? Let us look at one possible approach, which is used in a recent film on methodology. Here is a transcript from the film, which deals with the teaching of the question forms of the present perfect. The teacher contextualized the form by asking the pupils to perform actions in front of the class, and then asks questions about the pupils' actions.

Teacher: (To a pupil) Come up here Lim.

(Pupil goes to the front of the class.)

Teacher: Move the chair.

(The pupil moves the teacher's chair.)

Teacher: Go back to your seat.

She has moved the chair.

She hasn't move the desk.

Has she moved the chair?

Yes, she has.

Has she moved the desk?

No, she hasn't.

Come here Foo.

Touch the blackboard.

(The pupil touches the blackboard.)

He has touched the blackboard.

Has he touched the blackboard?

Yes, he has.

Has he touched the table?

No, he hasn't.

He hasn't touched the table.

And so on. The teacher calls other pupils to the front of the class, and using different objects (a book, a pen, etc.) demonstrates some of the other sentence patterns in which the present perfect can be used. It is a good classroom lesson in the terms in which it is thought out. The new form is taught through its association with a context and the students are actively involved in using the language. But what rules for the perfect are the pupils likely to have formed?

The context for the lesson was a series of completed actions performed by the pupils, a recounting of those actions by the teacher, and a series of questions about them. What verb forms did the teacher make use of? Looking back to our classification of the functions of the perfect we see that the perfect was used in the lesson in its resultative meaning much of the time: *He has moved the chair*. The resultative meaning is: *Now the chair is in a different position*. The question form however, *Has he touched the table?*, illustrates a different function for the perfect, namely the so called indefinite past, which would be more common with *yet*, (*Have you finished your homework yet*) or with *ever*, (*Have you ever . . .?*) But the resultative function of the perfect is the dominant impression we get from the lesson. The resultative perfect is used to describe an event in the past which has results extending to the present. While all uses of the perfect involve a retrospective view of events (cf. Hirtle 1975)—a looking back to a period or event in the past and then returning to the point of orientation in time—the resultative perfect offers us a special way of looking at events whereby the results or consequences of an event are seen to extend up to the present moment. There is nothing unusual or extraordinary about the resultative perfect. It is quite a frequent use of the perfect, and is seen in sentences like these:

What has happened to you?

An American Ambassador to China has just been appointed.

Jill has found an apartment at last.

I have come to Boston to attend the TESOL convention.

The president has said something about this recently.

It is the resultative perfect which reminds us that the perfect is not a tense but an aspect, a way of viewing events distinct from their time orientation, because another characteristic of the resultative is that it is an optional alternative to the simple past. Thus:

Resultative Perfect

What has happened to you?

An American Ambassador to China has just been appointed.

Jill has found an apartment at last.

I have come to Boston to attend the TESOL convention.

The president has said something about this.

Simple Past

What happened to you?

An American Ambassador to China was just appointed.

Jill found an apartment at last.

I came to Boston to attend the TESOL convention.

The president said something about this.

The fact that the resultative perfect can readily be replaced by the simple past is perhaps the reason why its additional, resultative meaning is difficult to grasp for the beginning student. While the reporting or narrative function of the past tense is fairly easy to identify and is generally supported by time adverbs, the additional meaning conveyed by the resultative perfect is not easy to understand for a beginner. Thus it would be very difficult for the students in the class discussed above to understand anything but a reporting or narrative function for the perfect tense, as it was used by the teacher. In fact it would have been more natural perhaps to have used the past rather than the perfect throughout the lesson, were it not for the fact that the lesson was supposed to be about the perfect! The teacher could have just as easily said:

Move the chair.
She moved the chair.
She didn't move the desk.
Did she move the chair?
Yes, she did.
Did she move the desk?
No, she didn't.
etc.

In selecting the resultative meaning for the perfect as an introduction to the perfect, we have not made a particularly helpful step towards establishing a function for the perfect in the learner's mind, nor in reinforcing our prior teaching of the past tense. What we have probably succeeded in doing is to establish a rule like the following: The perfect tense is another way of describing past events. This rule will in turn account for students producing sentences such as the following:

Yesterday there has been a fire in the library building.
When I have got home last night I have felt ill.

Part of the problem is related to the fact that the same context or situation, that of narrating or reporting past events, has been used for the perfect as would normally have been used for the past. The syllabus designer's task is to minimize such conflicts by arranging the gradation of teaching items in such a way that new items are seen to be related to new functions, rather than being seen as alternative ways of doing things the learner can already do. Since the simple past is presumably already available for narration and for the reporting of past events—it is in fact, one of the most statistically frequent verb forms for this function in discourse (Ota 1963)—the perfect, when it is introduced should be linked with a function that is new to the students. Thus as we saw earlier, although the language allows us the option of describing the same event in different ways through viewing it from a different mental view, this is not a luxury we can allow ourselves within a pedagogic grammar of English. Here we are justified in widening potential contrasts within the

grammatical system of the language and of teaching limited options for talking about time and events. This suggests that we work from the premise of *one form for one function* for as long as possible. This has the additional advantage of providing a justification for the introduction of new language items, namely, that they are required for functions that cannot be performed by language items presently at the learner's disposal.

In introducing the perfect we will thus look for contexts which are different from those where the past is used. This can be done through starting with the first two of the functions we listed above, namely: 1) Its use with verbs describing states leading up to the present; and 2) Its use with events occurring at unspecified times within time periods extending up to the present. Let us look at these two options in more detail.

1. *States leading up to the present.* The starting point is verbs like *live, be, like, know*, reinforcing the time span adverbially with *since, for* or similar words.

I have known John for six years.

Habitual or repeated events in this sense are also regarded as states:

I have worn glasses all my life.

I have studied French since 1975.

The distinction needed here is "continuation up to the present" with the perfect, and "non-continuation" with the past. Thus, past tense versions of the last two sentences above are not acceptable:

*I wore glasses all my life.

*I studied French since 1975.

It would also be possible to use the present perfect progressive in place of the perfect in these sentences:

I have been wearing glasses all my life.

I have been studying French since 1975.

However, following the principle of one form for one function, we would avoid this use of the present perfect progressive, reserving it for contexts where it is not an alternative for the perfect, namely, temporary events leading up to the present:

How long have you been waiting?

2. *With indefinite events.* The perfect is next used with events occurring at unspecified times within a time period leading up to the present, reinforced adverbially with *ever, never, before, now* etc.

Have you ever been to Florida?

I have never eaten frogs' legs.

Leech (1971) draws attention to the fact that there is an implicit indefinite/definite contrast involved in the way the perfect leads into the simple past, in much the same way as indefinite articles lead to definite articles, reflecting the fact that in spoken discourse, conversation *starts* indefinitely and *then* progresses to definite reference. Thus:

Have you ever been to Florida?

Yes I went therein 1975.

There are a number of letters on the table.

The top one is for you.

The basic contrast however is between actions described in a time period which excludes the present (Last month I *went* to the cinema only once) and events completed within a time period which includes the present (I *have been* to the cinema three times this month). Contexts for the past tense must be linked with completed time periods in the past, with events of either long or short duration:

I woke up at five o'clock
I lived there for five years.

The major function of the past tense will then be the reporting of events in sequence, i.e., narration:

We *got up* at six o'clock, *left* the house, and
soon *arrived* at the railway station . . .

This provides later a link into the first introduction of the past perfect, which will be used for the description of events which are out of sequence:

When we got outside we realized we had
forgotten to lock the door.

The resultative use of the perfect should be the last of its functions to be introduced, and this only when the regular meanings of the perfect and the past are firmly established. It will be initially taught for recognition, with direct explanation of its special, stylistic effect. Thus, to conclude with a maxim: teach new functions for new forms, rather than new forms for old functions.

REFERENCES

- Comrie, Bernard. 1976. *Aspect*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Hirtle, W. H. 1975. *Time, aspect and the verb*. Québec: Laval University Press.
Leech, Geoffrey N. 1971. *Meaning and the English verb*. London: Longman.
Ota A. 1963. *Tense and aspect of present-day American English*. Tokyo: Kenkyusha.

Magazine Ads and Logic in the ESL Classroom

Lynne Sandsberry

ESL teachers need to recognize the current move away from linguistically controlled language activities as an opportunity to exploit the limitless supply of non-ESL-specific materials at hand which can be used to generate language and effect language learning. This article discusses one example of bringing subject matter and language data from the real world to the ESL classroom. This two-fold approach includes teaching logical thinking as a subject, and then applying the students' new understanding of language manipulation to the analysis of magazine and radio advertisements. With this approach students naturally alternate their attention between the subject matter and the language structure, but their focus is always away from grammar per se as they concentrate on the logic. The article attempts to illustrate the wealth of language activities which can be developed around a few easily obtainable non-specialized materials.

Language teachers have been teaching English from non-specialized materials for years, materials ranging from the unsimplified literary classics of the target language to its children's stories. Necessity continues to make innovators and adaptors of ESL teachers, particularly those teaching abroad, where a variety of factors preclude the possibility of using a good specialized text.

In the past, when the emphases on linguistically controlled materials and error-free student language production were representative of the state of the art, a teacher's attitude towards the use of non-specialized materials (materials not specifically created for second language learners) was probably that of "making do" with materials intrinsically inappropriate to the language learning task. Or, if a teacher did use unconventional materials to come up with an activity which obviously accomplished such things as vocabulary expansion and listening and speaking skills, the very enthusiasm of the students may have suggested that colleagues would consider the activity a game at best, certainly unworthy of professional notice.

More recently, however, several concurrent trends have resulted in a new view toward using non-specialized materials for teaching language, trends such as the emphasis upon teaching language in context; the shift of interest from small to increasingly larger units of discourse; the goal of communicative competence taking precedence over that of linguistic competence; and bilingual education, in which students learn the second language through content courses. One consequence of these trends, the move away from strictly con-

Ms. Sandsberry, an instructor at the University of Hawaii, has taught ESL programs in Taiwan, Ponape, and Honolulu.

trolled language, means that not only can language activities focused upon everything from model villages to recipes now be considered appropriate for elementary as well as very advanced classes, but also that such activities need not be considered second-rate, slated for the last ten minutes on Fridays.

ESL journals and newsletters have always included articles on using non-specialized materials in language classes, but until recently these were largely relegated to the fun and games section of the publication, or appeared as short pieces heavy on the how to's of the activity and light on the why's relating to language learning goals. As a result, the literature contains a number of partially developed ideas for using materials from the real world as foci. In some cases, the author's how to's need to be tempered by what we now know about language learning, but in most cases there is much potential for creative expansion. More recently, articles have appeared specifically advocating the extensive use of non-specialized materials in teaching ESL—materials such as statistical charts (Plaister 1974b), telephone directories (Alter 1971, Crethar 1971), newspapers (Williams 1973) and even Mother Goose rhymes (Plaister 1974a).

The present article details a two-part program in which the focus on a content subject, followed by the application of that subject to written and oral language from the real world, generates enough language learning activities to build an entire course around (if that is appropriate). The teacher teaches the subject of logic (or argument), and the knowledge is later applied to advertisements found in magazines or taped from the radio.

1. Logic as a logical choice

Probably no students of a British or American university liberal arts education have managed to graduate without at least one course (whether philosophy, mathematics, speech, or debate) where they became familiar with such concepts as the syllogism, deductive and inductive reasoning, hypothetical arguments, emotional language, and so on. While language teachers are correct in assuming that these one or two courses do not make them experts on the subject of logic, what they may fail to realize is how much that subject taught them about the way that language works. In the syllogism, for example, a generalization is made about a generic class; the second statement must identify an individual as a member of that class, and the third asserts that the generalization is true of the individual: All Christians should love their neighbors as themselves. John is a Christian. John loves his neighbor as himself.

In the above example, the reader may focus upon such things as the origin and/ or truth of the generalization, methods of classification, and the difference *should* makes in the first statement. With just this one example, a language teacher might choose to have students 1) attend to the use of language by paraphrasing the third statement with modal *should*, or by combining the statements into one sentence using *because . . . therefore*; and 2) use language to discuss what members make up the class *Christians*. This latter will encompass

both culture and vocabulary learning as terms like *Catholic* and *Protestant* surface, and students' own religious backgrounds provide conflicting views about criteria for classification, criteria which may relate to both behavior and beliefs.

Hypothetical arguments bring in *if . . . then* clauses, and words like *unless*, *provided*, and *since*. Examining emotional language gives students an awareness that words or phrase may have connotative meaning. In looking at generalizations and statistics, one focus may be the generic use of the plural (e.g., Men are mortal) and the uses of *some* and *all*.

At this point I expect that the teacher has begun to get a glimpse of the multitude of language learning possibilities which may center around the study of logic, and is thinking, "Fine, this does sound familiar. But I've forgotten most of it—and where do I get my materials?" Well, as a trip to any library will reveal, tomes have been written on the subject of logic. And besides those written for an erudite audience there are a number of very readable books meant for popular consumption. Among the latter are several—and the teacher need only procure one—which contain a wealth of examples and exercises very appropriate for use in the ESL classroom. (A quick perusal of the logic section of the library at the University of Hawaii turned up seven very usable books, noted with an asterisk in the bibliography.)

2. How to use the popular logic book as a teacher's text

My own experience with using logic as a focus for language learning indicates that its puzzle or game aspect gives it high student appeal. Students learn from the teacher's explanation and examples (taken from the text) of how language may be erroneously twisted, or presented in a way that is meant to lead the reader or listener to a false conclusion; then they work with units of language which may contain such twists. The twists are sometimes diabolical and often humorous, occasionally challenging students' own views about the world.

Exercises and examples are culled from the book on logic, with adaptations by the teacher to update or modify the examples. Activities centering around the use of language could include attention to transition or relationship words such as *so* and *as a result*, and the organization of spoken and written discourse; general vocabulary expansion through paraphrasing and through recognizing meaning from context (particularly when the speaker has committed the logical fallacy of begging the question); specific vocabulary expansion in the area of logic: *relevant/irrelevant*, *valid/invalid*, *logical/illogical*, *generalization*, *common sense*, *analogy*, *alternative*, *prejudice*, *cause/effect*, plus the relationship words. Depending upon the teacher's estimation of student needs, these activities may be realized in any of a number of ways: students listening to the teacher's explanations and examples; students taking dictation of examples and problems; students paraphrasing the explanations or examples, orally or in writing; students individually or collectively coming up with their own explanations or examples, orally or in writing.

Other activities focus on the use of English to discuss the topics in the examples. The fact that examples from the text are often stated in dogmatic, opinionated language tends to make students eager to state their own views on the subjects. Depending upon the teacher's overall goals, the students' English proficiency, and the level of interest in a topic, activities may include the following: round table discussions on a topic; written assignments in which students use library sources to expand their knowledge of a topic; full scale debates (with or without attention to formal rules of debate) between groups who disagree on a topic; and a modification of the debate in which listeners must restate (in oral or written form) what the opposing side has said, with practice in both listening and paraphrasing.

Inevitably, of course, debating the topics from the examples lead students right back to their newly acquired skill, that of logical thinking. Discussions on subjects of political, religious, social, or cultural interest gain an added dimension for them, because the listeners are attending not only to the topic but to the way language is being used or misused, and they are delighted to be able to recognize the latter. In the same way, the study of logic has given them a tool for critical reading, and an improved ability to detect cases where there are understood (deleted) transition markers. The study of logic as a focus for language learning seems in itself to be an excellent way both to help students acquire a better understanding of, and facility with, the English language, and to give them a highly practical tool for living.

3. From logic to advertisements

Through the tool of logical thinking both native and non-native speakers of a language are better equipped to recognize the manipulation of language in the world around them—and what example of language manipulation is more appropriate for the ESL classroom than the commercial advertisement? There are a number of reasons for the appropriateness of ads. Ads are highly readable; written by professionals whose job it is to persuade consumers, ads tend to have a singular theme, much redundancy, and a punch that makes them appeal in a way few ESL texts ever can. In addition, ads are packed with cultural information, and students prove as much able to discover this in the visual layout of the ad and in what is written between the lines as in the text itself.

Unlike so many of the language samples we work with in ESL classes, not only is an advertisement a self-contained piece of language from the real world, but it also carries its own built-in situational context, that of a writer trying to sway a reader. And students trained in the methods of logical thinking often become intensely involved with analyzing the ad to achieve the personal satisfaction of understanding how the language of the ad is intended to manipulate, so that they are not tricked, either in the language classroom or out in the real world.

Magazines from *Newsweek* to *Family Circle* contain a variety of colorful,

clever ads which may be clipped (or copied) and mounted. In addition, many radio stations contain ads at regular intervals which may be pretaped by the teacher for classroom use. (Public service announcements are sometimes equally appropriate.) Students can provide their own examples also.

Whether the teacher chooses to introduce advertisements at the end of a thorough study of logic, or instead to use them at intervals as students become increasingly able to analyze them, there are a number of approaches which might be used in working with the ads in the classroom and at home. Here is one approach:

1. Pass around the magazine advertisement so that students can see what item is being sold and get a feel from the photograph as to what types of vocabulary they might expect. (Radio ads are discussed in No. 4.) Then give students listening practice by dictating the ad at normal speed, repeating each sentence several times before moving on. If the ad has been found by a student, or previously assigned to him, this activity may instead be led by the student.

2. In the classroom with a blackboard, one student can take dictation onto the blackboard; at the end, students compare their papers with the board; disagreements will point up problems in the areas of vocabulary and syntax which the teacher may choose to teach or review on the spot.

3. After an accurate transcription of the text is on the blackboard and students have all seen the picture or had it described to them, questions are asked about the text which draw attention to such things as the organization of the language, the underlying logic, special usages of words, and the cultural and societal underpinning which makes the ad effective. Examples are:

- a. What is the main idea of the ad? (This can usually be stated as "You should buy. . . .")

- b. How is the ad organized? Is there an introductory idea? A supporting statement? A summary statement?

- c. What reasons does the writer give for buying the product?

- d. What transition markers do you see? What underlying *because . . . therefore* combinations of statements can you find? How valid is the logic in each combination? (or, how does each statement seem to connect to the one before it? Further amplification, a restatement, a parallel idea? Is the writer trying to show cause and effect where no such relationship exists, so that his argument is invalid?)

- e. Does the writer make a generalization that he does not support? How could he support or prove it? Could you disprove it? (Through poll-taking, letter writing, library research?)

- f. What words or types of words (and phrases) occur several times in the ad? (This will usually include the name of the product as well as a thematic group of words. From an ad about corn oil come the words *golden, good, pure, light, natural, nutritious, no cholesterol.*)

- g. Has the writer invented words? Why? (One ad praised "the blueberriest muffin mix around.")

- h. How does the photograph or layout of the ad reinforce the theme(s) in the ad?

i. What words or phrases in the ad appeal to the senses? Is the writer trying to make you feel or smell or hear something?

j. Is the writer trying to cause you to form an attitude about his product? (That the lotion is magic, that the slim cigarette will make you thin, that the "old-fashioned" chocolate chip cookies actually have love in them?)

k. Does the writer make any statements which seem truly fantastic, unbelievable?

l. What kind of person do you think the ad is written for? (Disposable diaper ads are written for mothers; one ad for fine wines in a financial magazine was clearly aimed at people who want to feel successful.) What kind of person wouldn't be interested?

m. What appeals in the ad do you think are universal? Which would not work in your native culture or in others you know about?

4. Taped ads may be used following approximately the same format as visual ads. Many ads will include background music, a dialog situation coupled with the speaker's message, and acoustic effects, all of which lend themselves to further discussion in the classroom. Some leading questions might be: Why are these additional effects used? Do they support the theme in some way, or do they just attract attention? What feelings are played upon by these effects, and can they be described logically? (Examples: 1. The husband of the woman who bought him Pill X had a warm, loving voice when he thanked her; therefore, if I buy Pill X my marriage will improve. 2. The background music in that soda ad has a modern disco beat; therefore, drinking that soda will make me feel like part of the popular disco scene.)

5. Many of the discussion questions in No. 3 and No. 4 could be adapted for use in written assignments. However, the ads also lend themselves to several types of controlled composition exercises:

a. Rewrite the advertisement putting in all the deleted transition markers you perceive, even though they bring the writer's bad logic to the surface.

b. Rewrite the advertisement as truthfully as possible, giving only honest reasons why the consumer should buy the product, and making your logic clear with appropriate markers.

c. Rewrite the advertisement as a satire, exaggerating the sales language that the writer has used to the point of actual lies.

d. Rewrite the advertisement taking the opposite view, i.e. that the consumer shouldn't buy the product. This may be done either humorously or as a concerned consumer trying to expose false advertising.

It should be clear that opportunities for generating language learning and practice through activities built around the unifying focus of the study of logical thinking are virtually limitless. Besides being yet another example of how non-specialized materials may be used effectively in the language classroom, this article has also attempted to demonstrate that the study of logical thinking, with its subsequent application to advertisements, provides students with a tool for attentive listening and critical reading which will serve them both inside and outside the language classroom for years to come. And, considering the cost of one popular logic book and a couple of magazines, that's a relatively inexpensive education.

REFERENCES

- Alter, Jason B. 1971. Using a telephone directory to teach English as a second language, *TESL Reporter* 4, 3: 11+.
- *Beardsley, Monroe C. 1966. *Thinking straight*, (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Crethar, Betty M. 1971. More on using a telephone directory to teach English as a second language. *TESL Reporter* 30, 4: 6+.
- *Emmet, Eric R. 1960. *The use of reason*. London: Longmans.
- *Neidorf, Robert. 1967. *Deductive forms*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Plaister, Ted. 1974a. Mother Goose and ESL. *TESL Reporter* 1, 2: 1+.
- . 1974b. On the necessity for specialized materials in ESOL. *TESL Reporter* 8, 1: 4-1+.
- *Ruby, Lionel and Robert E. Yarber. 1974. *The art of making sense*, third edition. New York: J. B. Lippincott Company.
- *Russell, Alex. 1967. *Clear thinking for all*. London: Pergamon Press Ltd.
- *Thouless, Robert Henry. 1939. *How to think straight*. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- *Wheelwright, Philip. 1962. *Valid thinking*. New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc.
- Williams, Ray. 1973. The local English-medium newspaper in English teaching. *English Language Teaching Journal* 28, 1: 47+.

*Sources for logic examples.

Bridging the Gap Between Controlled and Free Composition: Controlled Rhetoric at the Upper-Intermediate Level

Elaine Dehghanpisheh

Critical needs in ESL composition are materials and techniques to propel the student across the gap between structure-bound writing exercises and the communicative competence of free composition. This paper places these needs in perspective by examining the objectives and methodology of composition. First, proficiency in writing must be acknowledged as a significant goal within the ESL program. Second, mastery of the expository paragraph should take precedence over descriptive and narrative patterns as a composition goal. In discussing the role of methodology, the ability of present composition methods to develop true writing proficiency in students is questioned, and the introduction of controlled paragraph rhetoric at the pre-advanced level is suggested as a solution. After a short analysis of the rhetoric of English exposition, the paper presents a set of exercises developed by the writer which concentrate on *levels of generality* and *relevance* within the paragraph. These exercises, which gradually relax control to lead the student to free composition, may then serve as a guide for teachers in preparing controlled rhetoric exercises for their own students.

For years, with the insistence of the oral method on the pre-eminence of speech, composition remained in a state of neglect (see, e.g., Paulston 1972: 33-34) from which it is only now emerging to take its rightful place among the other communication skills in the ESL curriculum. Even now, however, the attention of teachers and textbook writers is mainly focused on the lower levels of instruction, while there remains at the upper-intermediate level a paucity of materials and specially suited techniques (Sharwood-Smith 1976: 2). In partial response, this paper is aimed at the special composition needs at the upper-intermediate level. The first part of this paper reviews the objectives of composition within the total curriculum, the second part discusses the limitations of the two popular instructional methods (traditional controlled composition and free composition), necessitating the introduction of controlled paragraph rhetoric, while the third part outlines exercises in this area.

1. Objectives

In considering the objectives of ESL composition, we must first recognize composition as a goal in itself, rather than as just a "service activity" (Paulston 1972: 35), used only to reinforce oral patterns, although on the lowest levels

Ms. Dehghanpisheh, an instructor at Shiraz University, Iran, has previously published in IRAL.

writing may necessarily serve this function. For too long, proficiency in English has meant only oral proficiency because of the devaluation of writing in the oral approach.¹ Besides our duty to make students fully proficient, we must also recognize the academic needs which we have failed to meet. We must remember that all students in language institutes who are preparing to enter American universities and those presently attending English-language universities abroad will be required to write grammatically and stylistically correct English throughout if not beyond their academic careers. Therefore, composition should not only be accepted in its auxiliary capacity to the other skills of listening, speaking, and reading, but also should be accorded sufficient time and attention within the syllabus for students to attain proficiency in writing.

Since a minimum standard of writing proficiency would be the ability of students to produce original English paragraphs with mastery of the creative and rhetorical aspects beyond grammatically correct linguistic input, developing this ability should be the primary objective of ESL composition. The paragraph can be defined as a patterned sequence of sentences having functional unity; that is, each sentence is related to the others in a meaningful way.² The fundamental structure of the paragraph—topic sentence (introduction), illustration (body), and optional concluding statement (conclusion)—forms a model for longer pieces of discourse; thus, the successful generation of acceptable paragraphs indicates a basic proficiency in written English that can easily be expanded to longer stretches of discourse.

Further, the expository paragraph should be taken as the preferred mode, rather than the narrative or descriptive paragraph. While some composition writers advocate practice in all three modes,³ the choice of exposition is dictated by the needs of the students and the possibility of conflict in the rhetoric of these three types. Students in college will be required to write essay exams, complete essays and research papers, all forms of exposition. As J. F. Green has noted, college success depends on “skill in expository writing,” while “imag-

¹ The comparatively poor writing ability of oral-method students has been admitted for some time. It was confirmed in the study by Scherer and Wertheimer (1964), comparing the performance of students of the oral method and the traditional method in the four skills and has more recently been acknowledged by such writers as Baskoff (1969: 2) and Sharwood-Smith (1974:43).

² Pincas 1970: 182-183. Of course, debate continues about the nature and importance of the paragraph. Rodgers prefers to consider “stadia of discourse,” which may or may not correspond to orthographically-marked blocks (Rodgers 1966: 42-43). Pitkin, in his analysis of discourse, distinguishes between mere structural units like the sentence and the paragraph and the more important functional or relational units such as assertion/reassertion or cause/effect, which are not confined to structural boundaries (Pitkin 1977). Wishing to separate the mechanical and rhetorical aspects of the paragraph, Buckingham makes a useful distinction between the paragraph as a “physical unit” and the “conceptual” paragraph which he defines as a “unitary element of discourse” (Buckingham 1979: 248).

³ See Pincas 1964: 75-76, 78, Paulston 1972: 48. See also Paulston and Dykstra 1971. Approximately half of the model paragraphs in this textbook are narrative or descriptive in type. Also see T. C. Jupp and John Milne 1969, and Lawrence 1975. In the first textbook, nineteen out of twenty-four assignments are either descriptive *or* narrative, using the first-person point of view, and in Lawrence’s book six out of eight units begin with narrative or descriptive passages on which the unit’s exercises are based.

inative, narrative or informal personal writing is rarely required" (Green 1967: 142).

The second reason for preferring exposition is the conflict in rhetorical patterns, both between the narrative, descriptive and expository paragraph in English and between first language and English patterns. Anita Pincas, in emphasizing that each "specific kind of writing" has "its own characteristics of vocabulary, phrasing, sentence-structure, and paragraph arrangement" (1964: 77), is inadvertently opening the question of learning interference between these types. Green has gone further, saying "the lively personal writing so often demanded in English classes is an unsuitable model, responsible for many stylistic errors" (1967: 142).

Also, conflicts may appear in the area of contrastive rhetoric. Several writers have already stressed the importance of this field in spotting possible composition problems (Kaplan 1966, Green 1967: 149, Baskoff 1969: 2, Bracy 1971: 245, Buckingham 1979: 250). Erasmus has pointed out that a student's writing style is clearly affected by the "interference of the stylistic and cultural literary expression patterns of his native language" (Erasmus 1960: 26). Certainly an overlapping of expository and descriptive or narrative patterns in the native language rhetoric may aggravate the student's learning difficulties. For example, in this writer's contrastive study of paragraph rhetoric in English and Persian exposition, it was found expository topics in Persian are often developed by such literary devices as proverbs and metaphors. The tendency to carry this over into English was supported by an error analysis of student compositions in English (Dehghanpisheh 1973).

Although further studies in contrastive rhetoric are necessary to be at all conclusive, one can say that the practicing of descriptive and narrative paragraph types may reinforce conflicts for many students with the rhetoric of English exposition, retarding mastery of the English patterns. Motivational pluses ascribed by teachers to expressive or imaginative writing (Sharwood-Smith 1974: 44-47, Zamel 1976: 74) might thus be offset by these objections.

2. Methods

2.1. Recognizing the Gap Between Controlled and Free Composition. Our minimum objective, then, is the ability to freely compose English expository paragraphs that conform to the rhetorical conventions and the linguistic structures of the language. In light of this, the two most popular methods of teaching writing (free composition and traditional controlled composition) need to be examined to judge which, if either, most economically achieves the above goal.

The advantage of free composition is that the student is manipulating language and content in an original way without being stymied by grammatical or rhetorical controls. Certain advocates of free composition, most notably Erasmus and Brière, have maintained that frequent and lengthy writing assignments stressing quantity rather than quality are an effective means of improving writing skill (Erasmus 1960, Brière 1966). However, Erasmus is

mainly concerned with language fluency, considering the teaching of “unity and logical development” at this stage a “loss of time” (1960: 28). Thus, his evaluating of writing improvement seems limited in scope. In fact, the above claims are challenged by a number of studies on native speakers which have concluded that writing progress is not related to the frequency of assignments (Dressel et al. 1972, Heys 1962, Hunting 1967, Haynes 1978).

On the other hand, objections to free composition have often been voiced, such as time-consuming and subjective grading procedures, learning interference due to the frequency of student errors, and student and teacher frustration due to a lack of tangible signs of progress. Although proponents remain (Zamel 1976: 68), many teachers seem to rule out free composition except on the advanced proficiency level, when the students should have already acquired the writing skills that free composition as a method would propose to teach (Paulston 1972:39, Imhoof and Majure 1976: 22).

While free composition has been indicted, controlled composition, in its traditional sense,⁴ has yet to be vindicated. Admittedly controlled composition has many recognized advantages, such as the prevention of frequent errors, serial presentation of learning tasks, and easy grading procedures (Paulston 1972: 37-39), but it has been criticized for its inability to teach true composition skills. Zamel says that, in controlled composition, “grammatical facility means writing ability” (1976: 69). Taylor says that “the composition teacher is entirely justified in questioning whether these exercises serve any function beyond grammar manipulation which happens to be in written form” (Taylor 1976: 309-310). In this writer’s experience, controlled composition fails to teach students the content-selection and data-organization procedures that true composition entails.

Actually, neither free composition nor traditional controlled composition is *the* method; however, both methods have a place along an ability continuum from low-level to advanced. At the lower levels of English, the service level, controlled composition would perform the task it seems best able to do—provide written practice in the oral grammar patterns being taught without discouraging students because of innumerable errors. At the same time it would teach the orthographic form of the paragraph with some carryover in the rhetoric, such as the placement of the topic sentence and the usage of certain logical connectors, but would not be expected to teach creative composition skills. At the advanced levels of English, free composition would provide continued composition practice, allowing students to write longer and more complex essays. Obviously, what is left is a large instructional gap between the lower and advanced levels of ESL composition.

2.2. Bridging the Gap with Controlled Rhetoric. This gap must be bridged by exercises which begin with control but carry students fairly rapidly into free composition, while teaching the conventions of rhetoric.

⁴Traditional controlled composition is represented by such textbooks as Dykstra, Port and Port 1966, Robinson 1967, Jupp and Milne 1969, and to a lesser extent by Paulston and Dykstra 1971.

Rhetoric is sometimes narrowly defined as style and is often set in contrast to the content of writing. However, rhetoric is a cultural phenomenon and involves the interaction of style and content in culturally-unique forms (Newman and Gayton 1964:372, Oliver 1962:153-155, Kaplan 1972: 7). The rhetoric of the English paragraph or the rules which govern its generation can sometimes be better comprehended when set in relief by the rhetorical patterns of other cultures, as seen below. For teaching purposes, the rhetoric of the paragraph can be broken into logical form, levels of generality, organizational possibilities, coherence techniques, and stylistic devices of variation.

Logical form: The logic of the English paragraph is “dominantly linear” in its development, meaning that it goes straight to the point without deviation, unlike the Oriental pattern and without the digressions allowed in French or Spanish (Kaplan 1972: 10, 64, 61). This gives us the test of relevance. The paragraph should have one main idea, and all information in the paragraph should be strictly relevant to this.

Levels of Generality: A fundamental trait of the English paragraph observed by Christensen, is that it works on different levels of generality. The simplest pattern is the “coordinative sequence” or “2-level” paragraph (Christensen 1966 21, 22). The topic sentence, usually placed at the beginning of the paragraph, is a generalization, restricted in scope of course, while the support statements (be they reasons, examples, or effects) are on a lower level of generality, one step more concrete. The optional concluding statement, which is usually a form of restatement of the topic sentence, again returns to the first level of generality. This common paragraph pattern usually employs only one type of development (Christensen 1966: 23), and is the one most deserving of attention in composition classes.

The second pattern, according to Christensen, is the “subordinate sequence” or “multi-level” paragraph (1966: 23) in which each added sentence descends one level in generality, like a staircase, the method of development often being mixed. In this pattern, each sentence relates to the one before, rather than directly to the topic sentence. The use of mixed development might recommend this pattern for more advanced students.

The third pattern, the “mixed sequence—based on the (coordinate sequence” (Christensen 1966: 25), is usually a “3-level” paragraph in which the topic sentence is most general, the main support statements on the second level of generality, with several or all of the support statements further illustrated by examples, or details on the third level. The concluding statement, if present, would again return to the first level of generality.

The above rhetorical features of logical form necessitate student practice in recognizing relevant supporting statements for the main idea, and recognizing the restricted generalization of the topic sentence rather than broad generalizations, as well as the appropriate level of generality for the support statements.

Organizational Possibilities: The usual organizational patterns are included

here such as chronological order, order from least to most important and vice versa, comparison and contrast order, and spatial order within the paragraph.

Coherence Techniques: Logical Connectors: The use of enumerative (first, second), causal (therefore: so), comparative (likewise, similarly), contrastive (on the other hand, in contrast), and chronological connectors (first, then, later) must receive proper attention, especially since rhetorical contrasts are sure to come into play. As one example of a rhetorical contrast, the Persian student will constantly use an incorrect “although + S_1 , but + S_2 ” construction in transferring from Persian (Dehghanpisheh 1973: 117).

Syntactic Complexity: The trend of mature English prose, noted by Hunt (1970: 9), is to employ longer sentences, with more sentence embedding. This may be an area of rhetorical contrasts between first and second languages, as shown by this writer’s study of syntactic complexity in the writing of Persian students, which showed a preference for coordination over subordination in the English writing of these students (Dehghanpisheh 1978). Encouragingly enough, proliferating studies of students from grade school to college indicate that this coherence feature can be successfully taught, at least to native speakers (O’Hare 1973, Stotsky 1975, Haynes 1978, Daiker et al. 1978). However, no comparable studies seem to exist for second language speakers. Despite this research vacuum, some writers are suggesting that sentence-combining exercises be included in the ESL writing program (Ross 1968:256-258, Nattinger 1978: 80). Research on second language students is urgently needed in this area to guide teachers. Pending this, the inclusion of sentence-combining exercises is recommended on a trial basis.

Stylistic Devices of Variation and Emphasis: These rhetorical devices, such as variety in sentence beginnings, balancing short and long sentences, and interrupted movement, while they overlap somewhat with the area of syntactic complexity, should receive emphasis only on the advanced level of composition, after students have reached a high level of language competence.

3. Sample Exercises in Controlled Rhetoric for Upper-Intermediate Students

The following units attempts to bring students from controlled composition to free production of either full paragraphs or paragraph segments (e.g., a topic sentence). The exercises below are confined to two rhetorical features, *levels of generality* and *relevance*, and are carefully sequenced to lead students from cognition through discrimination to production. At each step within the unit as many exercises as necessary can be added to fit the ability of the class.

Exercises of the type presented below have proved successful in teaching students of the upper-intermediate level at Shiraz University (formerly Pahlavi University) to produce acceptable topic sentences and properly supported paragraphs. Naturally, these units need to be completed by exercises in the other areas of rhetoric reviewed in 2.2. The exercises exert no grammatical control, but the amount of actual writing is limited until the unit’s concepts

are taught. (For reasons of space, the explanations preceding each exercise are shortened or omitted.)

UNIT A: Topic Sentences

Step 1: Differentiating General from Specific

a. Look over the following list:

All women in the world	
American women	Female university students at
American women today	the University of Arizona
Female university students today	Sandra, a student at the University of Arizona

The list above is arranged from most _____ to most _____

Arrange the lists below in the same order, from most general to most specific:

i. Polar bears

North American mammals
The polar bears at the San Diego zoo
North American bears
Animals of the world

ii. Pollution

Air pollution in Los Angeles
World problems
Air pollution in large cities
Problems caused by science

b. Look over the lists you have made and the first list above. What are some of the ways to make a general idea more specific? Make your own list of four items arranged from most general to most specific on the subject of inventions.

c. Among the sentences below, which sentences are too general to be adequate topic sentences for one paragraph? ____

Which sentence is the best one for a topic sentence for one paragraph?

Which sentence is a specific fact that could be used to support the topic sentence? _____

1. Pollution is a dangerous problem.
2. Problems caused by science are threatening man's existence.
3. Experts say air pollution has increased respiratory diseases in the Los Angeles area.
4. Air pollution in large cities is threatening the health of their inhabitants.
5. World problems threaten man's existence.

Step 2: Recognizing Restricted Generalization

Exercise 1. Circle the sentences that are restricted generalizations rather than specific facts or details. These restricted generalizations should be able to serve as topic sentences for a paragraph.

1. Recent studies show that the number of children in the family has a definite effect on the intelligence of the children.
 2. Acts of violence on American TV averaged one incident for every 18 minutes of viewing in one 1976 survey.
 3. Increasingly, the effect of TV violence on children is a subject of heated debate.
 4. The highest intelligence scores in one study were made by the older child in a family of two children.
-

5. A driver who passes on the right-hand side of the road may be hit by the car he is passing.
6. Experts have suggested a number of ways to limit violence on TV.
7. Many automobile drivers take risks that bring on accidents.
8. Violent types of programs on American TV increased almost 17% from 1969 to 1976.
9. Studying in college contrasts sharply with studying in high school.
10. In college, students often put off work until the end of the semester, whereas in high school, the student is forced to keep up with daily class work.

Find signals in the sentences you circled that help show they are generalizations. If the restricted generalizations were used as topic sentences, discuss what information the paragraphs would probably include. Could any of the factual statements be used as support for the restricted generalizations you chose?

Step 3: Choosing Suitable Topic Sentences

Exercise 1: Select the best choice in each group for a topic sentence that could be supported in one paragraph. Choose a sentence which is a restricted generalization. The best topic sentence is neither too general nor too specific. It should contain a clear idea that can be developed in one paragraph.

1.
 - a. Rice is eaten by millions of people.
 - b. Rice is a wonderful food.
 - c. The new rice technology is increasing rice yields around the world.
 - d. In one recent year, the rice production of the Philippines rose to nine metric tons.
2.
 - a. The Chinese have achieved some success in methods of earthquake prediction.
 - b. The 1556 earthquake in Shensi, China killed 830,000 people.
 - c. Earthquakes are horrible.
 - d. Two billion people live in earthquake zones.
3.
 - a. Microorganisms can survive in the ice surrounding the South Pole.
 - b. Microorganisms are unbelievable.
 - c. Microorganisms can live anywhere.
 - d. Microorganisms can adapt themselves to extremes of heat and cold.

Step 4: Choosing a Topic Sentence to Fit the Paragraph

Exercise 1. Choose the best topic sentence for each paragraph and write the letter in the blank. Remember the topic sentence must cover all the information in the paragraph.

_____ For example, it is the common people who report the strange behavior of animals that may forecast a severe earthquake. When farmers note that their hens will not stay on their nests, horses refuse to be calmed, and snakes crawl out of their holes, they pass on their observations to the earthquake stations. Also, the experts look to the common people to relay any changes in well water. People in outlying areas are quick to report if there is any rise in the level of well water or if the water turns muddy. The earthquake scientists can then match the information from the laymen with that of their instruments to warn that a major quake is expected.

- a. China can predict earthquakes.
- b. In China, earthquake prediction depends on the help of the common people.
- c. Animal behavior is used to predict earthquakes in China.
- d. Before a large earthquake, the level of the ground may rise.

Step 5: Writing Topic Sentences for Paragraphs

Exercise 1. Write a topic sentence to fit the following paragraph:

Overgrazing is one way deserts are made. When shepherds are allowed to graze large herds of sheep, and especially goats, continually over the same land, they strip the area of the grass cover that keeps the topsoil from blowing or washing away. Over-cultivation is another way man creates deserts. When the same fields are cultivated year after year, the soil can no longer support crops. Finally, the fields are abandoned and the topsoil, which is too poor for even a thick layer of grass, is carried away by wind and rain, leaving desert behind. The third method by which man increases desertification is the over-cutting of trees. The branches of trees act as wind-breakers, while their roots hold the soil in place. When large areas are cleared of trees, the loose soil that is left is carried away, and yet another desert is created.

Step 6: Writing Original Topic Sentences

Exercise 1: Write topic sentences for the following subjects.

1. American movies and movies from your own country
2. Cheating on exams
3. Politeness in your own country and in the United States

UNIT B: RELEVANT SUPPORT

Step 1: Recognizing Relevant and Specific Support

Exercise 1: Check sentences that are relevant to the topic sentence given and specific in content. Add sentences in 8. and 9.

Topic S: Life as an older child in a large family provides valuable training for a future career.

1. Helping with chores teaches a sense of responsibility needed in a career.
2. Adapting to different personalities in the family prepares one for getting along with co-workers and superiors in one's future job.
3. Large families have many advantages over small families.
4. Settling disputes among younger siblings provides useful managerial experience.
5. Comforting other siblings and sharing their problems makes one a better friend.
6. The atmosphere in the large family is often more friendly than in small families.
7. Instructing younger children in the family gives one experience helpful in teaching or managerial occupations.
8. (Add a relevant and specific reason of your own)
9. (Add a general concluding statement)

Recopy the above information in paragraph form, adding connectors.

Step 2: Furnishing Original Support and Topic Sentences (With Guidance)

Exercise 1 ("Common Superstitutions"): Answer questions below on the topic.

1. a. What animals or objects are supposed to bring bad luck in your country?
b. Which bring good luck?
2. What numbers are unlucky: lucky?
3. Are there any days of the week that are unlucky or lucky?
4. What is your opinion of superstitions?
5. After considering your answers, write a topic sentence about superstitions in your country that bring good or bad luck. (a restricted generalization)
6. Choose four examples of lucky and unlucky superstitions from above.
7. Write your paragraph below, beginning with your topic sentence, remembering to indent. Present your examples from 6. in complete sentences. Add logical connectors and a concluding statement related to the paragraph.

Step 3: Free composition: Choose a sentence from A. 6 and write a paragraph supporting your topic sentence with proper evidence.

4. Conclusion

Many teachers have tried free composition and have tried controlled composition and have remained dissatisfied, feeling that somehow we have not been able to teach our students to write. Many times a textbook list of rhetorical principles has been taken as the ultimate goal of composition, but these principles have remained empty phrases because of our inability to achieve these goals. Certainly we must start with a clear analysis of what the rhetorical principles of the English paragraph are, such as begun here in section 2.2; however, unless these principles can be incorporated into useable teaching material we will still not be able to help our students. Making the transition between controlled and free composition remains the major problem in the English writing curriculum of second language students. As more classroom teachers and textbook writers begin to make inroads into the area of controlled rhetoric (as suggested in this paper and already attempted by Arapoff, Sharwood-Smith, Imhoof and Majure, and others) there is real hope that we will find a key finally to teaching our students to write, if not grammatically perfect paragraphs, at least paragraphs that have something to say and say it well.

REFERENCES

- Arapoff, Nancy. 1968. Controlled rhetoric frames. *English Language Teaching* 23, 1: 27-36.
- Baskoff, Florence. 1969. A writing laboratory for beginning students of English. *English Teaching Forum* 7, 6: 2-8.
- Bracy, Maryruth. 1971. Controlled writing vs: free composition. *TESOL Quarterly* 5, 3: 239-246.
- Brière, Eugène J. 1966. Quantity before quality in second language composition. *Language Learning* 16, 3 and 4: 141-152.
- Buckingham, Thomas. 1979. The goals of advanced composition instruction. *TESOL Quarterly* 13, 2: 241-254.
- Christensen, Francis. 1966. A generative rhetoric of the paragraph. *The sentence and the paragraph*. Urbana, Ill.: NCTE: 20-32.
- Daiker, Donald A. et al. 1978. Sentence-combining and syntactic maturity in freshman English. *College Composition and Communication* 29, 1: 36-41.
- Dehghanpisheh, E. 1973. Contrastive analysis of Persian and English paragraphs. *Proceedings of the second annual seminar of the association of professors of English in Iran*. Tehran: APEI: 106-123.
- Dehghanpisheh, E. 1978. Language development in Farsi and English: implications for the second language learner. *IRAL* 16, 1: 45-61.
- Dressel, Paul et al. 1952. The effects of writing frequency upon essay-type writing proficiency at the college level. *Journal of Educational Research*, 46, 285-293.
- Dykstra, Gerald, Richard Port and Antonette Port. 1966. *Ananse tales: a course in controlled composition*. New York: Teacher's College Press, Columbia University.
- Erazmus, Edward T. 1960. Second language composition teaching at the intermediate level. *Language Learning* 10, 1 and 2: 25-31.
- Finocchiario, Mary. 1969. *Teaching English as a second language*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Green, J. F. 1967. Preparing an advanced composition course. *English Language Teaching* 21: 141-150.
- Haynes, Elizabeth. 1978. Using research in preparing to teach writing. *The English Journal* 67, 1: 82-88.
- Heys, Frank. 1962. The theme-a-week assumption: a report of an experiment. *The English Journal* 51, 5: 320-322.

- Hunt, Kellogg W. 1970. Syntactic maturity in schoolchildren and adults. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 134/35, 1. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press.
- Hunting, Robert. 1967. Recent studies of writing frequency. *Research in the Teaching of English* 1: 29-40.
- Imhoof, Maurice and Robert Majure. 1976. Writing as an integrative activity, *English Teaching Forum* 14, 2: 18-22.
- Jupp, T. C. and John Milne. 1969. *Guided course in English composition*. London: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Kaplan, Robert. 1966. Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education. *Language Learning* 16, 1, 2: 1-20.
- Kaplan, Robert. 1972. *The anatomy of rhetoric: prolegomena to a functional theory of rhetoric*, Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.
- Lawrence, Mary. 1975. *Reading, thinking, writing*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: The University of Michigan Press.
- Nattinger, James R. 1978. Second dialect and second language in the composition class. *TESOL Quarterly* 12, 1: 77-84.
- Newman, Stanley S. and Anna H. Gayton. 1964. Yokuts narrative style. *Language in culture and society: a reader in linguistics and anthropology*, Dell Hymes (Ed.). New York: Harper and Row: 372-406.
- O'Hare, Frank. 1973. Sentence combining: improving student writing without formal grammar instruction. Urbana, Ill.: NCTE.
- Oliver, Robert T. 1962. *Culture and communication*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas.
- Owens, R. J. 1970. Teaching English composition. *REL C Journal* 1, 1: 125-126.
- Paulston, Christina Bratt and Gerald Dykstra. 1971. *Controlled composition*. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Paulston, Christina Bratt. 1972. Teaching writing in the ESOL classroom: techniques of controlled composition. *TESOL Quarterly* 6, 1:33-59.
- Pincas, Anita. 1962. Structural linguistics and systematic composition teaching to students of English as a foreign language. *Language Learning* 12, 3: 185-194.
- Pincas, Anita. 1964. Teaching different styles of written English. *English Language Teaching* 18: 74-81.
- Pincas, Anita. 1970. Writing in paragraphs. *English Language Teaching* 24, 2: 182-185.
- Pitkin, Willis. 1977. X/y: some basic strategies of discourse. *College English* 38, 3: 660-672.
- Raimes, Ann. 1978. Composition: controlled by the teacher, free for the student. *English Teaching Forum* 16, 1:2-7.
- Robinson, Lois. 1967. *Guided writing and free writing: a text in composition for English as a second language*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Rodgers, Paul C., Jr. 1966. A discourse-centered rhetoric of the paragraph. *The sentence and the paragraph*. Urbana, Ill.: NCTE: 39-48.
- Ross, Janet. 1968. Controlled writing: a transformational approach. *TESOL Quarterly* 2, 4: 253-261.
- Scherer, G. and M. Wertheimer. 1964. *A psycholinguistic experiment in foreign language teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Sharwood-Smith, Michael. 1974. Experimental formats for exercises in written English. *TESOL Quarterly* 8, 1: 43-52.
- Sharwood-Smith, Michael. 1976. New directions in teaching written English. *English Teaching Forum* 14, 2: 2-7.
- Stotsky, Sandra L. 1975. Sentence-combining as a curricular activity: its effect on written language development and reading comprehension. *Research in the Teaching of English* 9: 30-71.
- Taylor, Barry. 1976. Teaching composition to low-level ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly* 10, 3: 309-319.
- Zamel, Vivian. 1976. Teaching composition in the ESL classroom: what we can learn from research in the teaching of English. *TESOL Quarterly* 10, 1:67-76.
-

The Effects of Program Models on Language Acquisition by Spanish Speaking Children

Dorothy Legarreta

This longitudinal study investigates the effects of five different program models on both acquisition and maintenance of Spanish by native Spanish-speaking kindergarten children. The five program models are: 1) Traditional or regular kindergarten, taught in English, with no formal English as a second language (ESL) training; 2) Traditional, with daily ESL; 3A) Bilingual, using the *concurrent translation* approach, no ESL; 3B) Bilingual, using the *alternate immersion* approach, no ESL; and 4) Bilingual, using the *concurrent translation* approach, with daily ESL.

Interaction analysis data gathered in the bilingual classrooms indicated that balanced language use (50% Spanish, 50% English) occurred only in the alternate immersion approach, while unbalanced language use (28% Spanish, 72% English) occurred in the groups using the concurrent translation approach.

Criterion language measures were administered on a pre- and posttest basis in both Spanish and English by peer testers. An instrument to measure communicative competence, designed by the investigator, was also given. Children were equated for cognitive ability and Spanish dominance.

Using planned comparisons on the multivariate analysis of gain scores, it appears that bilingual treatments (3A, 3B and 4) produced significantly greater gains in English oral comprehension than did the traditional all English treatments (1 and 2). In addition, the bilingual balanced treatment (3B) produced the greatest gains in English oral comprehension and communicative competence in Spanish and English. Finally, ESL training (2 and 4) did not facilitate English communicative competence, but may facilitate English comprehension at initial stages. As expected, treatments without ESL (1, 3A, 3B) showed significantly higher gains in Spanish vocabulary. It appears that bilingual program models with balanced language input are most facilitative for both Spanish and English acquisition by children.

In 1967, through Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, federal funds became available for the first time for research, development, and implementation of innovative programs in bilingual education for children aged three to eighteen, whose home language was not English. Seven years later, in 1974, the United States Supreme Court, in the unanimous *Lau vs. Nichols* decision, further mandated "appropriate relief for students who do not understand English, and are thus effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education." One "appropriate relief" was spelled out as "bilingual education, which uses and fosters the child's native tongue, while facilitating his acquisition of English" (*Lau vs. Nichols*: 1974, #72-652).

Ms. Legarreta, Assistant Professor at the University of Nevada, has previously published in the *California Association for the Education of Young Children Journal* and *TESOL Quarterly*.

Unfortunately, implementation of bilingual programs enrolling the estimated seven million eligible children has been seriously hampered by low levels of federal and state funding. According to recent estimates, only two to ten per cent of eligible children are being served by bilingual programs (Cornejo 1974: 102).

Equally unfortunate has been the dearth of research on effective curriculum models which will facilitate both the child's acquisition of English and the maintenance of the home language. For the required English component, most currently funded bilingual programs have utilized a curriculum based on the English as Second Language (ESL) model. The Audio-Lingual method, used to teach foreign languages to adults, is the direct precursor of the ESL model used today. The Audio-Lingual method trains the student to imitate language drills or dialogues exactly, to repeat them until memorized, and to practice patterns in phonology and syntax based on a contrastive analysis of the target language and the learner's home language. Language acquisition in this pedagogical method is seen as simply a set of learned verbal habits, in the conditioned response paradigm of behaviorist psychology. This model has little empirical evidence for its effectiveness (Carter 1970) and has recently been criticized by linguists (Saville-Troike 1977).

There is a growing body of empirical research as well which strongly indicates that, at least in children, the acquisition of both a first and a second language are analogous inductive processes generated by the child in response to a need to communicate. Rather than being trained by adults in a set of verbal habits, the child abstracts the structure of language, either first or second, by producing a series of provisional grammars, based on natural input in a variety of contexts, and reflecting a not-yet-clear set of universal semantic, syntactic and phonological constraints found in all human languages. This generative approach, based on a transformational view of language structure, has as yet no clearly defined pedagogy or curriculum model (Hakuta & Cancino 1977, Ervin-Tripp 1973).

In this study, the efficacy of five program models currently being used in a large west coast city to facilitate oral English acquisition by mono-lingual Spanish-speaking kindergarten children was compared. Two models, in the study called groups 2 and 4, exemplified the behaviorist theory of language acquisition by their use of formal audio-lingual ESL training. Groups 3A and 3B exemplified a generative view of language acquisition. Group I did so as well, but evidence indicated that this group's Spanish-speaking children were effectively excluded from classroom interaction (Legarreta 1976). Overall, this study was expected to isolate the effects of formal audio-lingual ESL training on Spanish-speaking children in traditional and bilingual classrooms. The identification of the optimal program model for facilitating English acquisition by Spanish-speaking children, while maintaining their home language, was also expected.

The program models in the study were:

- Group 1: The Traditional Method, also referred to as *immersion* or *sink or swim*. Here monolingual Spanish-speaking children are placed in classrooms with native speakers of English, and the regular curriculum is followed. The language of the classroom is English only.
- Group 2: The *Traditional Method*, plus an *ESL component* for children who speak Spanish at home. This component may be pull-out, or self-contained instruction, and consists of daily, sequenced lessons in English structure and use, presented orally to small groups. The rest of the day the regular English curriculum is followed by the English-speaking staff; the language of the classroom again is English only.
- Group 3A: The *Bilingual Method*, using concurrent translation between English and Spanish. Each language is expected to be used equally. The staff is bilingual, and the classroom environment is bicultural.
- Group 3B: The *Bilingual Method* using an alternate immersion approach. Here curriculum content and concepts are presented totally in Spanish for half the day, and in English the other half. There is little or no repetition of the same material. Staff again is bilingual, and the classroom environment is bicultural.
- Group 4: The *Bilingual Method*, using concurrent translation as in Group 3A above, plus an added ESL component, as in Group 2 above. Staff is bilingual, and the classroom environment is bicultural.

The comparison of the efficacy of the five program models had several dimensions. In all models, proficiency in both Spanish and English comprehension and production was examined. Shifts in language choice over time were studied. Finally, communicative competence as well as linguistic competence² were used as the criteria for knowing a language. Specifically, the research questions in the study were:

1. Are the Spanish-speaking children who are taught English using the Bilingual method equally as proficient in oral English comprehension and production as those taught only in English?
2. What are the effects of the Bilingual and Traditional methods on Spanish comprehension and production?
3. What is the effect of the ESL component in a Traditional program on oral English comprehension and production?

¹ *Communicative competence* is defined as the practical ability to adapt the totality of one's communicative resources, both linguistic and functional (i.e., extra-linguistic and para-linguistic) to a given situation.

² *Linguistic competence* is the mastery of the sound system, semantics and basic structural patterns of a language.

4. What is the effect of the ESL component in a Bilingual program on oral English comprehension and production?
5. Are there shifts toward greater use of English at home, school or street, after exposure to Traditional or Bilingual treatment?
6. Does either the Bilingual or Traditional method enhance communicative competence in English and/or Spanish?

1. Methodology

The subjects were five-year-old kindergarten students identified as essentially monolingual in Spanish, drawn from 17 kindergarten classrooms. Students were not randomly selected, and Groups 3A, 3B and 4 were the total kindergarten population—six classrooms—being taught bilingually. Eighty children were pretested in October, 1974 and 52 of this group were posttested in April, 1975. Of the 28 not posttested, 11 had returned to Mexico or Central America, three had transferred to other schools, seven were found to be English dominant, and seven were dropped for continual absence, incomplete data, or as Outliers, using Grubbs test (1969).

2. Instruments

1. Spanish dominance was assessed by a combination of teacher recommendations, information from a "Language Use Questionnaire" (Cohen, 1973), administered in Spanish at the pretest, plus results of the pretest battery.

2. Cognitive functioning was also assessed in the pretest, using the non-verbal Raven's (1959) Progressive Matrices, administered in Spanish. Scores would be used as a covariate to equate the five groups statistically if differences among groups on this variable were significant. Clearly, the relationship between cognitive functioning and language acquisition in young children is not established, but utilizing such a baseline measure for later comparisons has been recommended in bilingual research (Tucker & D'Anglejan 1971, Lambert 1972).

3. Criterion Measures: A battery of four measures was given to each child in the pre- and posttesting sessions.

- a. The first was a measure of English and Spanish Oral Comprehension, the *Revised Interamerican Oral Language Comprehension Test*, with two sets of parallel forms in English and Spanish. Each form consists of 35 rows of large drawings, four choices to a row, with a short anecdote about one drawing in each row. This was read aloud to the child, who then pointed to the drawing described in the anecdote, with the score being the number correct out of 35. Cohen (1973) performed a split halves reliability check on the parallel versions of the test and found coefficients of .88 for the English versions and .73 for the Spanish versions.

- b. *Naming by Domain*, an instrument developed by Fishman, Cooper, Ma, et al. (1971), tests vocabulary in Spanish and English in a series of domains, or spheres of interaction. Fishman postulated that in order to maintain a diglossic situation, there would necessarily be separation by domain between

language choices. For example, the vernacular might be used in the kitchen at home, while the dominant language might be used in dealing with school officials. When each language has its customary and accepted spheres, each would be maintained. Further, certain settings or domains serve to preserve the vernacular, while others cause a shift in language use toward the dominant language. In the case of monolingual children, then, such settings may serve as contexts for acquisition of the dominant language and consequent loss of the vernacular. In this study, the domains of kitchen at home, the school classroom, and the neighborhood street were used. For example, children were asked in Spanish, and later in English, to pretend they were in their kitchen at home: “¿Cuántas cosas ves, como tazas or una estufa?” Each child was given 45 seconds to respond, with each object named in the target language scored as one point. It was expected that the instrument would indicate the child's relative vocabulary in these everyday contexts in each language in the pretest, as well as signal possible shifts in language use in the posttest.

c. A story retelling task was used to assess oral production in Spanish and English in the pretest, as well as any changes over time in the posttest. The technique described by John and Berney (1969) was used, rather than simply asking children to describe a series of pictures, which produced minimal responses in the pilot test. A booklet of culturally relevant, large, clear photographs of Latino pre-school children were accompanied by a story concerning two friends, Carmencita and Luisito, on their first day at school. The tester simply told the story first, then the child retold it. The child's responses were, in a sense, delayed imitation, but this is considered a good index of the child's productive language ability (Slobin 1973). Speech samples were tape recorded, transcribed, and scored on range of vocabulary, i.e., number of different words used.

d. The communicative competence task encompassed components additional to those subsumed under linguistic competence (mastery of a language's phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic systems which can be reliably measured by discrete point tests). Components of communicative competence, such as the ability to be only as explicit as a situation demands, to elaborate, to make inferences about a situation, to be sensitive to social rules of discourse, are more difficult to measure. Yet, it appears that one can pass all discrete point tests in a language and be unable to converse effectively with native speakers in actual situations (Brière 1971).

For this communicative competence task, a modification of the *Two Person Communication Game* (Bruck 1972) was used. A subject child is asked to complete a manual task posed by a screened (hidden) tester, using only verbal interaction with the interlocutor-tester.

In this study, the task consisted of replicas of two identical Mexican kitchens, one complete with 20 small objects, such as a chair, a baby doll, food, etc., and one that was bare, with no objects, mounted on a wooden divider,

one kitchen to a side. There was a small hole cut in the divider. Instructions from the peer tester were:

Your kitchen is all finished (or full) and mine is empty, see? (tester holds hers up briefly). My mama will be here soon and she will be mad if my kitchen is still empty. You have the things I need in the yellow box (tester shows them to the child). Now, give them to me one by one. But I'm wearing this blindfold (tester puts it on) so I can't see them—so tell me what each is and where it goes. Like: "The brown cup goes on top of the table." (This example was used throughout.)

Each subject had three minutes to complete the task. Scores were the number of objects correctly described, with correct instructions for placement. Scoring from one to twenty was done by the peer testers.

3. Testing Situation

In order to minimize the constraining effects on language production that are inherent in the testing situation, particularly with minority children (Labov 70; Cazden 1970), the investigator modified the testing format. First, all testing was done by young girls aged 11 and 12, from large families. The two who were native Spanish speakers, of Mexican and El Salvadorian descent, did all the testing in Spanish. Two others, the investigator's youngest daughters, did all the testing in English.

Training of the peer testers was begun by the investigator in the testers' homes, using younger siblings or other five-year-old children as subjects. The testers also received further training during a pilot study of procedures in the spring of 1974, in a bilingual kindergarten in Daly City, California. Procedures, including prompts, were standardized during the training. All testers were paid, with the Spanish speakers receiving premium wages.

For the study, all testing was done in the back of regular classrooms, or in areas such as the cafeteria or yard, which were familiar to the children. A mixture of peanuts, raisins, and chocolate chips was served throughout the testing. The subject sat in a bigger chair than did the peer tester, so they were at eye level. The peer testers played with the children at recess and noon time before testing began, and generally tried to maintain a game-like approach to the tasks. The children seemed interested in the test tasks, and so free from anxiety that it was sometimes difficult to get them to return to their classroom activities. These modifications reflect Labov's ideas for making language elicitation situations less strained, but, of course, do not address the minority child's perception of the situation as being one where copious verbalization is expected.

A consistent language model was used in the elicitation situation by peer testers, i.e., there was no language switching while testing was going on. It was felt that children would talk more if they felt the peer tester only understood and spoke Spanish, or only English, particularly in the task designed to test communicative competence.

4. Research Design and Results

Since random assignment of the children to treatments was impossible, a quasi-experimental design was followed, the “Non-Equivalent Control Group Design” (Campbell & Stanley 1963).

TABLE 1
Treatment Groups—Pretest

	1	2	3	4
	Traditional no ESL	Traditional w/ESL	Bilingual no ESL	Bilingual w/ESL
Number of Subjects	13	13	13	13

Treatment Groups—Posttest

	GROUP 1 Traditional No ESL	GROUP 2 Traditional w/ESL	GROUP 3A No ESL Bilingual 72% English	GROUP 3B No ESL Bilingual 50% English	GROUP 4 Bilingual w/ESL 72% English
Number of Subjects	13	13	6	7	13

Dependent Variables: 1. Oral Comprehension
2. Domain Word Naming
3. Oral Production
4. Communicative Competence

In the posttest, the four treatment groups became five, based on the results of Interaction Analysis conducted by the investigator in the six Bilingual classrooms (Legarreta 1977). It was found that actual amounts of Spanish used by the staff in Bilingual classrooms varied from 28-50%. Thus, Group 3 was split into Group 3A, the Concurrent Translation model, with Spanish used 28% of the time, and Group 3B, the Alternate Immersion model, with Spanish used 50% of the time. Group 4 used the Concurrent Translation model as well, with Spanish spoken 28% of the time.

A. Extraneous Variables

There were a number of extraneous variables whose effects could not be controlled by random assignment of subjects, and only in part by statistical means. The effects of some appeared to be evenly distributed across groups. These included:

1. Language used outside school in all children was Spanish 95% of the time, established through the Language Use Questionnaire.
2. Spanish dominance was uniform in all groups, according to pre-test scores of Spanish comprehension and production.

3. Cognitive functioning among the groups did not vary significantly, using the Raven's *Progression Matrices* (1969) in Spanish as the instrument.
4. Curriculum followed the school district's uniform curriculum, with the same pre-reading and mathematics materials used in all classrooms.
5. The high rate of attrition in the treatment groups, due primarily to children returning home. Pretest scores for this group were not significantly different from those of children remaining.

Other variables were not evenly distributed:

1. English comprehension was significantly lower in Group 4 in the pre-test ($F = 9,004, = .05$), than in Groups 1, 2, 3A and 3B.
2. Classroom ethnicity in bilingual classrooms varied somewhat from the district norm of 1/3 Spanish Dominant, 1/3 bilingual and 1/3 English dominant. In the Traditional classrooms, of course, ethnicity was overwhelmingly English dominant.

B. Data Analysis

Data analysis consisted of comparing students' gain scores on each of the language measures described, the dependent variables, in each of the five treatment groups, the independent variable.

An initial multivariate analysis was run, using the pre-test scores on each subject for each measure as the covariate, with gain scores on the same task as the dependent variable. This analysis tests the hypothesis that the means of gain scores for all groups are the same, after adjusting each score to differences in the pretest scores for each subject. This procedure thus reduces the possibility of bias due to any such differences in the covariate, e.g., varying initial facility in English comprehension as was the case here. One assumption of analysis of covariance is that slopes of regression lines are parallel, e.g., that the relationship between pre- and posttest scores in all five groups is similar, with variances within groups and across groups being homogeneous.

Though little or no data is available concerning the rate of second language acquisition in young children, one could theorize that it is not monotonic in character. Thus, children with lower initial levels of English comprehension or production would be expected to show greater gains in a given time period than those with higher initial levels.

Additionally, correlation between pre- and postmeasures within subjects in each group should exist (i.e., .50 or better) to indicate that the criterion measures are reliable. Both assumptions were met.

C. Results

The null hypothesis of no treatment effects was rejected. The F value for the omnibus multivariate was 1.53, with probability of less than .0281. The tabled F , $\alpha = .05$, 48, 140, is 1.48.

Overall, covariate techniques tended to remove bias due to differing pre-

test language competency, particularly in English comprehension, which had been found to be significantly lower in Group 4 children. There appeared to be no effects due to the partitioning of Group 3 into two smaller, unequal groups, since group variances remained sufficiently homogeneous to allow for covariate analysis.

Table 2 indicates that the criterion dependent variables with significant univariate F values that account for most of the total variance among the five treatment groups are the following: Communicative Competence Task: Spanish; Oral Comprehension Task: English.

TABLE 2
Multivariate Analysis of Six Treatment Variables*
In Spanish (S) and English (E)

Variable	Univariate F	P Less Than
1. Oral Comprehension S	.78	.541
2. Oral Comprehension E	4.81*	.002
3. Domain Naming: Home S	2.77*	.037
4. Domain Naming: Home E	.46	.76
5. Domain Naming: School S	.73	.571
6. Domain Naming: School E	.39	.816
7. Domain Naming: Street S	1.07	.383
8. Domain Naming: Street E	1.34	.267
9. Communicative Competence S	6.16*	.0005
10. Communicative Competence E	2.79*	.036
11. Story Retelling S	.88	.480
12. Story Retelling E	.06	.991

* = .05

To a lesser extent, two other variables account for variance in the system: Communicative Competence Task: English; Domain Word Naming: Home: Spanish.

Multivariate analysis also enabled the investigator to derive a set of weighings to distinguish further among the set of criterion measures of comprehension, vocabulary, communicative competence, and production. By using linear discriminant analysis, departures from the null hypothesis can be identified systematically, with maximum precision. The test reduced rank model for describing, as parsimoniously as possible, differences between treatment groups is the following linear discrimination function equation: (See Table 3)

$$\begin{aligned}
 L = & .74 \text{ Communicative Task: Spanish} \\
 & + .49 \text{ Domain Word Naming—Home: Spanish} \\
 & + .44 \text{ Domain Word Naming—Home: English} \\
 & + .42 \text{ Communicative Competence Task: English}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the Communicative Competence Task: Spanish, with a standardized coefficient of .74, accounts for a major share of the dispersion among the five groups. It appears to be a better discriminator of variance than language measures more commonly used in bilingual research studies, such as oral comprehension and production tasks.

TABLE 3

Language Measure Discriminant Function Coefficients

Per Cent of Canonical Variation = 58%; Variate 1

Roy's Criterion = .56

Variable	Standardized Coefficient
1. Oral Comprehension S	-.165
2. Oral Comprehension E	-.261
3. Domain Word Naming: Home S	.488*
4. Domain Word Naming: Home E	.441*
5. Domain Word Naming: School S	-.358
6. Domain Word Naming: School E	-.172
7. Domain Word Naming: Street S	-.186
8. Domain Word Naming: Street E	-.305
9. Communicative Competence S	.742*
10. Communicative Competence E	.422*
11. Story Retelling S	-.228
12. Story Retelling E	-.183

* = .05

The secondary discriminant function analysis identified another measure which appears to be independent of the communicative competence measure noted above, and which also discriminates, though to a lesser degree, among the treatment groups. Oral Comprehension: English appears to be a second, independent factor which also discriminates among treatments used in bilingual programs. This measure seems to be sensitive to a different domain of language ability in the Spanish-speaking child than is communicative competence (Table 4).

A series of a priori comparisons were planned to analyze differences among the criterion variables due to treatment effects. These were:

Comparison I: Unbalanced bilingual, no ESL vs. balanced bilingual, no ESL (Group 3A vs. Group 3B)

This comparison would indicate whether balanced bilingual treatment was better than unbalanced bilingual treatment.

Comparison II: Traditional with ESL and traditional without ESL vs. all bilingual treatments, Groups 1 and 2 vs. Groups 3A, 3B and 4

This comparison would indicate whether bilingual treatment produced better results in any measure than traditional treatment,

Comparison III: ESL versus No ESL, Groups 2 and 4 vs. Groups 1 and 3A and 3B

This comparison would indicate whether ESL treatments produced higher gains in any measure than treatments without ESL.

Comparison IV: Unbalanced bilingual with and without ESL vs. balanced bilingual without ESL, Group 3A and 4 vs. Group 3B

This comparison would indicate whether balanced bilingual treatment produced greater gains on any measure than did the other two unbalanced bilingual treatments which used English 72% of the time.

Again, the following variables showed significant differences: Communica-

TABLE 4

Language Measure Discriminant Function Coefficients

Per Cent of Canonical Variation: 24%: Variate 2

Roy's Criteria = .35

Variable	Standardized Coefficient
1. Oral Comprehension S	-.11
2. Oral Comprehension E	.87*
3. Domain Naming: Home S	.07
4. Domain Naming: Home E	-.04
5. Domain Naming: School S	.34
6. Domain Naming: School E	-.11
7. Domain Naming: Street S	-.13
8. Domain Naming: Street E	-.18
9. Communicative Competence S	-.02
10. Communicative Competence E	.18
11. Story Retelling S	-.30
12. Story Retelling E	.09

* = .05

tive Competence in Spanish; Communicative Competence in English; Oral Comprehension in English; Domain Word Naming: Home in Spanish.

The planned comparisons generating significant differences are shown in Table 5.

In the analysis of the data, using planned contrasts, the bilingual balanced (38, 50% Spanish) was significantly better than bilingual unbalanced (3A, 28% Spanish) in producing gains in oral comprehension in English and communicative competence in both Spanish and English.

Further, the bilingual treatments as a group (3A, 31B and 4) produced significantly greater gains in oral comprehension in English, than did the traditional all-English treatments (1 and 2).

The use of audio-lingual ESL training appeared to enhance oral comprehension in English, largely due to gains by children in Group 4, whose initial comprehension of English was significantly lower than all other groups. However, communicative competence in English was most facilitated by the treatments with no ESL. It appears that, while comprehension of basic English vocabulary may be aided by audio-lingual ESL training, the ability to utilize English in an actual communicative situation is not.

Thus, the use of audio-lingual ESL training appears only of assistance in receptive comprehension skills, and is not effective in enhancing more complex communicative competence skills.

Higher gains in Spanish vocabulary for the home appeared in treatments without ESL (1, 3A, 3B) than in those with an ESL component (2 and 4).

Finally, the children receiving the bilingual balanced treatment (Group 3B) showed higher gains in communicative competence in Spanish than did children in bilingual unbalanced treatments (3A and 4), in which Spanish was only used 28% of the time.

TABLE 5
A Priori Comparisons with Confidence Intervals

Comparison	Variable	95% Confidence Interval	Nature
I. Group 3A vs. 3B	Oral Comprehension: English Communicative Competence: Spanish Communicative Competence: English	5.19 \pm 4.90 8.88 \pm 4.41 3.50 \pm 3.41	*Bilingual Balanced vs. Unbalanced (no ESL)
II. Groups 1 and 2 vs. 3A, 3B and 4	Oral Comprehension: English	5.35 \pm 4.87	*Bilingual vs. Traditional
III. Groups 2 and 4 vs. 1 and 3A and 3B	Oral Comprehension: English Domain Word Naming: Home: Spanish Communicative Competence: English	6.66 \pm 4.87 4.70 \pm 3.28 3.43 \pm 3.40	*ESL vs. no ESL *No ESL vs. ESL *No ESL vs. ESL
IV. Groups 3A and 4 vs. Group 3B	Communicative Competence: Spanish	8.60 \pm 3.86	*Balanced Bilingual, no ESL vs. Unbalanced Bilingual, with and without ESL

Overall, in three measures, including communicative competence in both English and Spanish and oral comprehension of English, Group 3B, bilingual balanced without ESL, produced highest gains. In addition, bilingual treatment produced greater gains in oral English comprehension than did traditional all-English instruction given to the Spanish-speaking children studied. The use of audio-lingual ESL facilitates oral English comprehension in Hispanic children with little or no proficiency in English comprehension, while more complex communicative competence skills are most enhanced when audio-lingual ESL is not used. Treatments within audio-lingual ESL also produce greater gains in Spanish in the home domain, and may thus serve to maintain use of the mother tongue in this appropriate domain.

Since we know that acquisition of receptive skills in a second language, such as comprehension, precede production, the lack of any significant results from the story retelling task is not surprising.

Overall, what seems to be happening in the bilingual treatment based on alternate periods to achieve balanced input of Spanish and English (Group 3B) is that children are really beginning to learn to understand and use English, while also maintaining their home language, Spanish. Since they are alternately immersed in their native language, and then in the second language, they are forced to begin to sort out the English input they hear, using context and other cues, and then begin to construct hypotheses about its forms and their functions. An interesting phenomenon which bears this out is the behavior of Spanish speakers in classrooms 3A and 4, those using the concurrent translation method. Here, the teacher repeats every concept in both languages, but with an unbalanced input of 72% English and only 28% Spanish (Legarreta 1977). Teachers reported that the Hispanic children tune out the English and wait to hear the material explained in Spanish. This may explain why Groups 3A and 4 did less well on measures of English comprehension and communicative competence than did children in Group 3B, the alternate immersion model.

The results of this study indicate that the use of formal audio-lingual ESL training, exemplifying a behaviorist view of second language acquisition, is only useful in enhancing basic English comprehension, while more complex skills subsumed in communicative competence are best achieved in models without audio-lingual ESL instruction. This is probably because the planned sequence of English grammatical features taught in the ESL classes is not congruent with what Spanish-speaking children are finding out on their own from their peers about the use of the English language.

Finally, since three of the twelve dependent variables, including those measuring comprehension, production, and communicative competence, in both Spanish and English, showed significant differences favoring balanced bilingual treatment, it appears that this approach clearly is most facilitative of acquisition of English as well as maintenance of Spanish.

The investigator recommends that a similar study be undertaken with a larger group of Spanish dominant kindergarten children that will span at least

three years: kindergarten through second grade, The need to determine the optimal teaching method for Spanish dominant children, both to enhance their native Spanish and to facilitate English acquisition is urgent. From this study it appears that the use of formal audio-lingual ESL training is marginally facilitative, while an alternate immersion bilingual program, with balanced Spanish and English input, really facilitates both Spanish and English acquisition. This model should be tested further. Finally, the investigator recommends that communicative competence, rather than more narrow measures of linguistic competence, be utilized as a criterion for the child's knowing a language.

REFERENCES

- Brière, E. 1971. Are we really measuring proficiency with our language tests? *Foreign Language Annals*, 4.
- Bruck, M., and R. Tucker. 1972. Social class differences in the acquisition of school language. Unpublished Manuscript, Mimeo., McGill University, Toronto, Canada.
- Campbell, D. J., and J. C. Stanley. 1963. *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research*. Chicago: Rand, McNally Co.
- Carter, Thomas. 1970. *Mexican-Americans in school: A study of educational neglect*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board.
- Cazden, C. 1970. The neglected situation in child language research and education. In Williams, F. (Ed.), *Language and poverty: Perspectives on a theme*. Chicago: Markham Publishing Co.
- Cohen, A. 1973. Innovative education for La Raza: A sociolinguistic assessment of a bilingual program. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Stanford University.
- Cornejo, R. 1974. *A synthesis of theories and research on teaching in first and second languages*. Los Angeles: UCLA Center for the Study of Evaluation.
- Ervin-Tripp, S. 1973. Is second language learning like the first? Paper (mimeo.) presented at Seventh Annual TESOL Conference, Puerto Rico, May.
- Fishman, J., and R. Cooper, et al. 1971. *Bilingualism in the barrio*, Vol. III. Mouton: The Hague.
- Grubbs, F. 1969. *Technometrics*. February, 1969.
- Hakuta, K., and H. Cancino. 1977. Trends in second language acquisition. *Harvard Educational Review* 47, 3.
- John, V., and T. Berney. 1969. Story retelling. In Williams, J. P., and H. Levin (Eds.), *Basic studies in reading*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Labov, W. 1970. The logic of non-standard English. In Alatis, J. (Ed.), *20th annual roundtable on language and linguistics*. Washington: Georgetown University Press.
- Lambert, W., and G. R. Tucker. 1972. *Bilingual education of children: The Lambert experiment*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Lau vs. Nichols*. 1974. Supreme Court of the United States, No. 72-652.
- Legarreta, D. 1976. Eleven children: Barriers to Spanish speaking children's success in traditional classrooms, Unpublished manuscript.
- Legarreta, D. 1977. Language use in bilingual classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly* 11, 1.
- Raven, J. C. 1959. *Colored progressive matrices* (sets A, Ab, B). London: Lewis.
- Saville-Troike, R. 1976. The view from the center: Warning-ESL (traditional) may be hazardous to children. *The Linguistic Reporter*, September/October.
- Slobin, D. 1973. Elicited imitations as a research tool in developmental psycholinguistics. In Ferguson, C. A., and D. Slobin (Eds.), *Studies in child language development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Tucker, E., and A. D'Anglejan. 1971. Some thoughts concerning bilingual education programs. *Modern Language Journal* 55, 18.

A Linguistic Analysis of Some English Proficiency Tests*

Thomas G. Dieterich, Cecilia Freeman, and Jo Ann Crandall

This paper summarizes some of the findings of a recent study of proficiency tests and testing carried out at the Center for Applied Linguistics under a grant from the Ford Foundation. The full report of that study discusses linguistic issues involved in English proficiency testing and presents a review of a number of such tests. The present paper identifies some of the linguistic problems involved in constructing an instrument to test English proficiency. Examples are drawn from commercially available tests and from tests that have been developed and used by school districts across the country.

As U.S. school systems increasingly recognize the linguistic and cultural diversity of their students, they need to identify those students with limited proficiency in English for placement in bilingual or ESL classrooms. Despite widespread agreement on the goal of placing students in the most beneficial instructional programs, at present we have only limited data to identify a threshold level which would represent a minimal English proficiency for successful functioning in an English-speaking classroom; research has not yet identified those minimal English requirements. Thus, a serious problem confronts us: though we are certain that students from non-English speaking homes or those with limited proficiency in English should be identified and offered alternative programs (bilingual or ESL) to meet their needs, and though we are increasingly aware of the number of students with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, we have little assurance that we can identify those students accurately. Still, social problems cannot wait for adequate research before they are attended to, so in the usual pattern, we are forced to act before we have sufficient information.

How can we find out how well a student uses English? We can rely on teacher assessments, on parental questionnaires or community surveys, or even self-assessments. However, school systems are often under pressure to demonstrate that student placement is being made on some valid and reliable measure

* An earlier draft of this paper was presented at the conference of the National Association for Bilingual Education, Seattle, Washington, 1979. The full study appears as *English Proficiency Testing in Schools: A Linguistic Critique*, by Thomas G. Dieterich and Cecilia Freeman, Arlington, Virginia: Center for Applied Linguistics, forthcoming.

Mr. Dieterich, Assistant Professor at Portland State University, is the author (with Freeman and Griffin) of *Assessing Reading Comprehension in a School Setting*.

Ms. Freeman, a Research Associate at the Center for Applied Linguistics, is the author (with Dieterich) of *English Proficiency Testing in Schools: A Linguistic Critique*.

Ms. Crandall, Senior Research Associate at the Center for Applied Linguistics, is also Editor of *Linguistic Reporter*.

of language ability; thus, they turn to language assessment instruments or tests to identify and place students.

These assessment instruments vary in scope, content, tasks, scoring procedure, and interpretation. Most attempt to provide a rough answer to the question of how well the student knows English, by posing tasks which involve comprehension and production of oral language; some include written tasks as well. Tests vary in what aspects of language they choose to test: the sound system, grammatical structures and relations, vocabulary, or the appropriate use of English in different contexts. Most test one or two aspects of the linguistic system as representative of overall English proficiency. Some tests seek to assess a person's dominant language—that is, which of two or more languages the person controls best—through assessing proficiency in each language. For such tests, dominance is simply a question of relative overall proficiency in one language as compared to others.

These tests also vary in the tasks they require, for example: 1) answering questions about pictures or discourse, or general questions; 2) describing or telling a story about pictures, objects, places or people; 3) paraphrasing something; 4) manipulating sentences by changing the tense, the number, the form of the sentence (from question to statement, for example); 5) completing cloze passages; 6) repeating words, sentences or stories; 7) recalling words from lists 8) discriminating between words; 9) naming objects; 10) pointing to objects; or 11) performing in response to commands.

Studies that seek to validate proficiency tests have analyzed such tests from a number of perspectives: some have investigated the cultural appropriateness or usefulness of such tests; others have provided psychometric data about the tests, e.g., inter-rater reliability, concurrent validity with other test instruments, predictive validity of various kinds. This paper also addresses the validity of language proficiency tests, but will approach the question of validity from a somewhat different perspective. In a recent study we analyzed and evaluated a number of language proficiency tests from a linguistic point of view. Specifically, this study took a detailed look at the language of test items, and the manner in which these tests are judged or scored. While the usual approach to assessing test validity involves giving a test to a group of people, examining the results, and comparing those results to some other established measure, e.g., another test, teacher assessment, or some measure of subsequent school success, the research reported in this paper is instead focused on an analysis of the language and nature of the test itself, drawing upon a background of linguistic theory and research. In order to assess the linguistic validity of language proficiency tests, this project asked two basic questions; First, for particular test items, or types of items, do those items really assess the specific language skill that they are intended to assess? Second, for particular types of test tasks, do those tasks measure some language skill that really gives us

a good index of a person's overall ability to use the language? In other words, this study evaluates whether test items actually measure the language skills they purport to measure, and whether the skills that are measured actually add up to a measure of language proficiency.

1. Methodology

The project reported here surveyed 39 tests of English language proficiency or dominance. (Many of these tests, and obviously all of the dominance tests, also have a component to measure proficiency in some other language. However, the present study concentrated principally on the English proficiency component of the tests reviewed.) The tests reviewed are those which appear in two major catalogues of proficiency tests— *Oral Language Tests for Bilingual Students* (1976); and *Tests that Measure Language Ability* (no date)—and which were received from their developers or publishers in response to our request. All tests reviewed were developed in the last ten years.

The methodology of this investigation consisted of analysis of the item content, test instructions, and scoring procedures of the tests, in terms of what is known about the structure, meaning, and conventions of the English language.

2. An Overview Of Some Problems With Language Proficiency Tests

Particular tasks on language proficiency tests may fail to measure what they purport to measure, due to one of two problems: 1) It is sometimes possible to get the right answer on a test item without having the knowledge or ability that the item is supposed to test. (For example, test items sometimes claim to assess knowledge of grammar, but really measure vocabulary knowledge.) 2) It is sometimes possible to know or be able to use some aspect of the language proficiently, and yet run a serious risk of missing an item that is supposed to test that proficiency. (For example, a test may accept only exact repetitions, when paraphrases may be equally appropriate, or may accept only complete sentence answers, when elliptical answers are equally or more appropriate.) In addition to cases where performance on a task or item may depend on something other than what the item is supposed to be testing, there is an additional problem on some tests—whether the particular language skills that a test task measures can give us a good picture of a student's overall language proficiency.

Focusing on these two general issues—confounding of what a task or item actually tests, and representativeness of overall language ability—the study reported here covers a number of specific areas in which tests fail to reflect the structure of the English language, or the conventions that govern our use of the language for purposes of communication. Among the problems encountered on language proficiency or dominance tests were the following:

- 1) Test may contain tasks that confuse oral language proficiency with literacy skills.
-

- 2) They may contain tasks which purport to measure grammar, but really measure vocabulary knowledge.
- 3) They may require exact repetition or mimicry as a test of pronunciation or even of comprehension.
- 4) They may introduce vague factors of linguistic creativity into their scoring procedures.
- 5) They may rely on notions of linguistic complexity that bear no relation to what is known about language structure or language acquisition, and which are difficult or impossible to score reliably.
- 6) They may equate language proficiency with the production of a large amount of language in response to particular test questions.
- 7) They may infer a lack of ability, just because a student doesn't produce some expression that the test developers had in mind, even though the student's response may be a perfectly natural and correct one.
- 8) They may fail to reflect what is known about the acquisition hierarchy of English structures.
- 9) They may rely on a person's reports about his or her own language use—a notoriously unreliable kind of measure.
- 10) In the test items, instructions, or scoring procedures, they may grossly violate the norms of ordinary language use.

We will provide discussion and examples to illustrate how these problems can arise on language proficiency tests.

3. Tests Which Require Literacy Skills

While there are valid reasons for testing a student's reading and writing skills, these ought not to be part of a test task which claims to measure oral language proficiency. However, many tests confound oral proficiency with literacy. For example: one test designed to assess listening ability requires a person to listen to a word and then asks that person to point to the word from a written list of three words, to write a word or sentence which the examiner dictates, or to print the word the examiner says and underline the vowels (*Short Test of Linguistic Skills*), thus requiring reading and writing skills in an assessment of listening comprehension. Another test attempts to get information about language use by asking students to read a series of questions about the languages the student uses at home, the languages he or she dreams in, etc. (*Robstown Oral Language Inventory*). This confounds information about language use with the literacy skill required to read and understand the questions in the first place.

4. Tests That Reduce To A Vocabulary Test

Many tests include a task which asks a person to identify a picture that corresponds to some phrase or sentence that the examiner has read. It is certainly possible to construct this task so that it really assesses control over some

aspects of English grammar. But many test items are so constructed that it is impossible to tell whether they test knowledge of grammar, or merely knowledge of word meanings. For example, in one test, the oral stimulus is “The cat and three kittens are playing.” Only one picture shows a cat; the others show an airplane and children on bicycles (*Language Assessment Battery*). A person could get his item right simply by knowing the meaning of the word *cat*. So the item does not necessarily tell us whether the whole stimulus sentence was understood. In another item from the same test, the stimulus sentence is “The puppy is following the girl.” The three pictures are as follows: a girl with a puppy in her arms; a girl with a puppy between her feet; and a girl with a puppy following her. If the intention was to measure understanding of the word *following*, the item is a good one. But consider what would happen if the pictures included one in which a girl is following a puppy. Then the student would have to demonstrate understanding of the whole sentence, including the word order and its effect on meaning, and not just of the one word *following*.

In another test (*Language Ability Scales*) the person must choose the correct response to a passive sentence (“The forks are held by both children”). Since only one of the three pictures shows two children with forks, the test taker can get the answer right simply by knowing the two words *fork* and *children*. We know no more about the person’s ability to understand passive sentences than we did before. In another test (*Comprehension of Oral Language*) the stimulus “The man who sees himself in a mirror,” designed to test comprehension of a noun plus relative clause, might really test knowledge of the word *mirror*, since only one picture has a mirror in it. These items, and others like them, illustrate a common problem with many language proficiency tests. They appear to be measuring understanding of an extended expression (a phrase or clause), but they are really only assessing understanding of one or two words.

Given that these tests reduce to vocabulary tests, it is relevant to ask whether vocabulary tests in general provide adequate measures of a person’s overall language proficiency. The widespread use of vocabulary tests (which are designed as such) is undoubtedly due to the ease of constructing and scoring them. Moreover, they assess a very visible and straightforward aspect of language ability: knowledge of the meaning of words. However, there are some linguistic problems with overreliance upon vocabulary as a measure of language proficiency.

To begin with, vocabulary tests usually focus on content words, especially nouns (and sometimes adjectives and adverbs). They rarely address function words such as conjunctions, articles, pronouns, or prepositions, words which indicate grammatical relationships, and which are often the most difficult for non-native speakers to acquire. Teachers of E5L will attest to the difficulty in defining prepositions such as *in*, *on*, *by*, and *for* for many students. Yet vocabulary tests frequently avoid testing these function words.

Another problem that arises in vocabulary tests is related to the existence

of cultural domains of vocabulary. A bilingual student may know English reasonably well, yet simply not know a certain set of English words, because those words name things that he customarily speaks of in his other language. For example, a student may speak Spanish nearly exclusively in the home, yet speak English in school and other non-home environments. Such a student may know the names of kitchen implements only in Spanish, yet control English vocabulary in other domains, and in general speak English quite adequately. Yet if an English vocabulary test happens to deal largely with objects found in the kitchen, such a student may do poorly.

Some tests do try to control for this problem by norming vocabulary items over a specific school population. One test included only vocabulary items known in both English and Spanish by at least 50% of its target bilingual population (*Pictorial Test of Bilingualism and Language Dominance*). This goes a long way toward solving the problem of cultural vocabulary domains for that particular population, but the test would obviously have to be reconstructed and recalibrated for each new population or speech community with which it was used.

Vocabulary is also the part of language which is most subject to variation by region, age, sex, social class, time, etc. Thus it is difficult to construct vocabulary tests which are valid for all geographic or cultural populations, and it is even more difficult for such tests to retain validity over time.

Another problem with vocabulary tests is that children who know many words, and do well on these tests, are not necessarily those who are able to use the language well. Thus if a vocabulary tests errs, it probably errs on the side of overestimating the proficiency of the student. Given that a school system wants to be sure to provide special language help to those who may need it, overestimation of English ability is exactly the mistake that we most want to avoid. (From a practical point of view, few tests rely solely on vocabulary measure, however, so this kind of overestimation may not frequently occur.)

5. Tests Which Require Oral Mimicry

Some tests require a student to listen to words, phrases, or sentences spoken by the administrator and then to repeat these expressions exactly. Such a test may be intended as a direct test of pronunciation or an indirect test of comprehension. The theory behind the indirect test seems to be that students will repeat better what they understand. However, ability to repeat is not the same as ability to process and comprehend language. If it were, then parrots would be proficient English speakers. True, we can recall and repeat five letters which make a word better than we can a meaningless sequence of five letters, but there are other problems with this kind of task.

Tests which require exact mimicry (*MAT-SEA-CAL*, *Northwestern Syntax Screening Test*, *Del Rio Language Screening Test*) and yet reject meaning-preserving changes ignore the possibility that a paraphrase might indicate

better comprehension than does exact repetition. For example, if a test taker repeats "He looked the address up" when the administrator has said, "He looked up the address," he has probably understood at least as well as the person who repeats exactly; moreover, he has applied the rules of English to produce a synonymous and perfectly natural English sentence. He hasn't simply misplaced a word and shouldn't be penalized for it. If the test is intended to assess dominance, it is even more misguided to demand exact responses, since a person may be more likely to produce stylistic variants in the language he knows best.

Another problem with the mimicry task is that it mirrors no real speech situation and is thus of questionable validity in assessing proficiency. What situations do we find ourselves in where we have to mimic exactly what someone says (except perhaps at the doctor's office when we dutifully mimic the "ah")? While any test is necessarily somewhat artificial in nature, all tests should try to impose tasks which are as authentic and relevant to the real world as possible.

A mimicry test might serve as an adequate measure of pronunciation, but are pronunciation tests adequate to assess overall proficiency and overall ability to use the language for purposes of communication? Sociolinguistic studies have shown that people have a much greater tolerance for pronunciation differences than they do for grammatical variation. If a child has such severe pronunciation problems that s/he is difficult to understand, the teacher undoubtedly knows that already and it is probably not necessary to give a test to discover such severe problems. More seriously, pronunciation tests can be misused to diagnose speech pathologies that do not exist, resulting in the child's being sent unnecessarily to the speech pathologist.

Pronunciation tests can be used to provide specific diagnosis of a student's pronunciation problems, to which instruction can then be directed explicitly. But, except in cases of severe global pronunciation difficulties, the teacher's time is probably better spent on helping the student master the structure and use of the English language.

6. Tests Which Measure Linguistic Creativity Or Imagination

Some tests, designed to generate substantial language data from the child in a natural way, require a child to produce more than a grammatically appropriate response to a stimulus: they ask the child to "tell a story" or say "what might happen next." This is a natural enough linguistic task, since we are often asked to tell stories or provide information about what happened next. However, such tasks do introduce into the test a factor which cannot really be regarded as a component of language proficiency per se, namely, the child's willingness to imagine or to extrapolate from known facts. This might penalize the child who is conservative in language learning style, and favor the child who is a risk-taker, willing to make mistakes in speaking the second language. Such a test task may also place at a disadvantage the child whose cultural

background makes him or her reluctant to take part in the adult's conception of school testing.

Tests differ in the degree to which they require linguistic creativity. Some merely ask a few questions which require the child to extrapolate from known facts or pictures (*Caso Test for Non-English Speaking Students* or *Ilyin Oral Interview*). Others ask the child to tell a story and then grade that child on creativity, organization, "abstractness," etc. (*Pictorial Test of Bilingualism and Language Dominance*). One test asks the child to tell a story after looking at a picture and asking four probe questions; the child is scored on the basis of grammaticality and completeness, with word lists naming the objects in the picture scored the lowest. For the child who is either uninterested or unwilling to take part in the test situation, the score on such test items will really be a score of interest or creativity, more than of actual language proficiency.

One test goes so far as to create a six-point scale (*Oral Language Evaluation*) with the lowest score assigned to a simple description and the highest to an abstract story which includes details of mood and emotion. The test materials suggest that the child who gives a mere description "needs some aspect of language training" and "is probably not ready for reading." Another test judges only the child's ability to organize and tell a story; the scorer is specifically directed to ignore vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation and to score only the story's completeness, abstractness, etc. Aside from the difficulty in making consistent judgments about concepts like completeness and abstractness, this scoring scheme reflects a rather peculiar view of language proficiency: gross deficiencies in grammar and vocabulary are all right, as long as the story is abstract enough.

7. Tests Which Assign More Points For Answers Which Are Linguistically Complex

Frequently, tests of oral proficiency require students to respond to a stimulus and then grant more points for answers which are "more complex." For example, one test (*Test of Grammatically Correct Spanish/English*) gives one point for a clause fragment, two for a simple sentence, and four for a compound, complex, or compound-complex sentence. This seems to be a reasonably good index of linguistic complexity, but if it is too rigorously applied it may not correspond to language proficiency. Is it more proficient for me to respond to your question—"What are you doing this weekend?"—with "I am going to the beach" or with "Going to the beach"? They are equally natural. Furthermore, the second response, which is a clause fragment, requires that I know the rules of ellipsis in English, and that I know where it is permissible to omit words and where it isn't. For example, I couldn't say "Going to the beach" as a response to the question, "What's going on this weekend?" I would need to use the full sentence form.

The problem here is that the test assumes that what looks on the surface to be less complex reflects less language proficiency. A short answer does

not necessarily demonstrate less proficiency than a long or full one. In fact, the surface elliptical response may indicate greater proficiency. (Some tests acknowledge that and allow elliptical responses.)

Some tests try to get students to use full or complete sentences by instructing them explicitly to do so (*Short Test of Linguistic Skills, Caso Test for Non-English Speaking Students, English as a Second Language Achievement Tests*). Such tests encounter an additional problem, since they require that a student have an explicit grammatical awareness of what a sentence is. Thus, these tests measure a certain bit of explicit knowledge about English grammar, in addition to the ability to use English correctly. There are many native-speaking college freshmen who cannot identify a full sentence or distinguish it from a fragment; we certainly should not require a child to do this to demonstrate a basic competence in oral English.

Other tests avoid explicit instructions about the desired form of the answer, but instead impose various linguistically unnatural devices to try to get the child to produce an answer of the desired form. For example, one test, to obtain complete sentences containing certain specified structures, prompts the child with the first few words of the desired complete sentence. The administrator points to a picture of a fish and asks, "Where did the fish jump?" To prevent a (correct) elliptical response such as "In the river," the administrator continues, "The fish . . .", thus supposedly forcing the child to produce a complete sentence, containing a past tense verb. The problem with this sort of procedure is that we do not, in ordinary conversation, prompt our listeners with the first few words of what we want them to say. The procedure is linguistically unnatural, and perhaps confusing for the test taker. In addition, the whole procedure of forcing the test-taker to produce complete forms where ellipsis would be more natural, is somewhat suspect. Although it is understandable that tests would want to elicit various specific linguistic structures (past tense, plurals, possessives, etc.), it is not legitimate to simply require complete sentence responses, as a means of getting those structures. Ellipsis, especially in answers to questions, or in replies to other peoples' comment, is very much a part of the way we speak. Consider how absurd it would sound if we had to avoid ellipsis in our everyday conversation:

"John won't take off his tie in public."

"Yes, John will take off his tie in public, but he won't take it off in public unless he sees someone else take off his tie in public first, so that he's sure it's all right to take off his tie in public."

rather than the more natural:

"Yes, he will, but not unless he sees someone else do it first, so he's sure it's all right."

Tests of linguistic complexity also face the problem of providing clearcut guidelines for judging something as simple or complex. For many sentences

it may be debatable whether they are simple one clause sentences, or complex multi-clause sentences. Sentences containing infinitives fall in this category, as do the following grammatically curious, but perfectly natural sentences:

“The next door neighbors had their car stolen last night.”

“You must come meet my friend Charlie.”

One test with a more highly developed notion of complexity (*Del Rio Language Screening Test*) stipulates that a sentence with a transitive verb is more complex than one with an intransitive verb, that sentences with auxiliaries are more complex than those without, that questions are more complex than statements. But the test ignores other factors which contribute to complexity. According to this test, the following sentences would be judged equally complex:

“I want some candy.”

“I want to go to school to see my friends.”

Scoring these tests involves some questionable assumptions. For example, a test which awards more points for a complex or compound sentence than for a simple sentence is assuming that, because the student produced a simple sentence, s/he cannot use the others. However, the student may simply be choosing to use shorter or simpler forms. Sometimes these shorter forms are arguably more difficult to produce, as in the case of elliptical responses. If a person doesn't produce a desired structure, it doesn't necessarily mean that s/he doesn't control that structure. The only way to be certain that a person doesn't know a particular structure is to give a stimulus in which the only correct answer is one that requires that structure. Given the flexibility of English (or any other language) this is often difficult.

8. Tests Which Count Quantity Of Output

A related problem besets tests which score a person's response to a stimulus in terms of how much language the person produces, concluding that more production means more proficiency in the language. However, a number of other variables may be involved here: a person might not be a risk-taker, or not be motivated to speak by the test items or the test situation, nor might the administrator make it clear that what is wanted is a lot of speech. How should a person know that more is necessarily better? Cues to the test taker to “tell me more about that” (*Moreno Oral English Proficiency Placement Test*) or “use longer sentences” (*Ilyin Oral Interview*) when the person responds with an elliptical phrase are probably not very helpful. Suppose the administrator points to a picture of a policeman and asks, “What is he?” If the test taker responds (elliptically) “A policeman,” it would be confusing to ask the test taker to “Tell me more about that.” Moreover, this procedure makes the test taker into a guesser, wondering what was wrong with the first answer and searching haphazardly for what the administrator might want. Asking

someone to “tell me more about the picture” doesn’t provide much guidance about what kind of answer is desired: a list of objects in the picture? A description of it? A story about someone or something in it?

9. Tests Which Violate The Acquisition Hierarchy Of English Structures

Some tests incorporate a notion of complexity which is not borne out by any linguistic investigation. Rather than testing for structures in terms of their increasing difficulty or lateness of acquisition, they test more difficult items first, and sometimes never get to the easier ones. For example, one test (*Moreno Oral English Proficiency Placement Test*) tests possessives early and plurals late, and irregular past tenses before progressive (the reverse of the expected order of acquisition). The way this test is designed, a child who misses the possessives will never have the opportunity to demonstrate mastery of the plurals. Moreover, some tests weight items or structures for no apparent reason (*Ilyin Oral Interview, Caso Test, Milwaukee ESL Achievement Test*) and others spend a disproportionate time on a particular structure. For example, in one test (*Milwaukee ESL Achievement Test*), over half of the elicited responses consist of noun + *be* + predicate.

To be fair, a number of tests do reflect the researched acquisition hierarchy of structures in their content (*Bilingual Syntax Measure, Bahia Oral Language Test, El Paso Oral Language Dominance Measure*). If a test is going to test for discrete structures, they should at least occur in some recognized sequence of complexity or acquisition.

10. Tests Which Infer Language Ability From Direct Questioning and Self-Reported Data

While it is certainly important to determine what language a child speaks in a particular social situation, simply asking the child may not always bring valid answers. Some tests use a sociolinguistic survey which asks who speaks what language to whom, under what circumstances, and how frequently, and what languages the child or the parents listen to on the radio or TV or read in newspapers or magazines (*Brooks, Hayward Language Dominance Survey, Language Dominance Indicator, Robstown Oral Language Inventory, Spanish-English Dominance Assessment Test*).

Some problems exist with this procedure, especially with children. Very young children may not be explicitly aware that they speak two separate languages or not be aware that the systems are distinct, because of code-switching. Moreover, even adults may not be able to accurately report language use, even when trying to do so honestly and reliably. It’s also important to remember that older children may consciously misreport what language they speak, especially if their first language is socially stigmatized in school, or if they are aware that their answers will affect their placement in an ESL or bilingual program. This can also be a problem when the survey asks parents to provide

sociolinguistic information about their children. Parents are likely to be aware of community language values and might answer in a way that reflects particular expectations or opinions.

Often, sociolinguistic survey information is used in combination with other, direct measures of language proficiency. In this case, there is a problem in developing an overall score for the test. Some tests combine linguistic and sociolinguistic measures by simply adding the two scores to obtain a total overall dominance score. Such a procedure is akin to adding apples and oranges. One such test makes the implicit assumption that we can learn as much about childrens' Spanish skills from their ability to identify a picture of a feather as a *pluma*, as from their claiming to use Spanish at home. Clearly these two facts are not of equal weight, but how they should be weighted, or even whether they are comparable at all, is very difficult to say.

11. Tests In Which The Testing Situation Violates Conventions of Ordinary Language Use

Tests can violate the conventions of ordinary language use either in item content or in the nature of tasks imposed, or both (for example, tests requiring full-sentence answers rather than more natural elliptical responses to questions). The problem is also illustrated in one pronunciation test, which makes unrealistic demands by asking that children answer only with the name of the noun, without an indefinite article. Thus, if the test taker answers "a ball" instead of "ball," the answer is scored wrong because what was being sought was a *b* in initial position.

Another test uses directions which are much more difficult than the language items being tested (*Shutt Primary Language Indicator Test*). For example, the administrator directs the person to "Make an X in the square on the picture which shows" when the item being tested is either a word (*banana*), a relative clause (*a child who is pitching*), or a relative clause which lacks the noun (*what a child should take to the teacher on the first day of school*).

Some tests require a student to answer the same questions in Spanish and in English, sometimes asking the English questions soon after their Spanish equivalents. One test requires the student to shift from Spanish to English solely on the basis of the examiner's remark "Now we're going to talk in English. Look at the pictures" (*James Language Dominance Test*). Some children might find it difficult to shift so quickly from one language to another, especially if there is no apparent reason to do so. Asking identical questions in both languages also creates an artificial situation. In ordinary conversation, we rarely ask someone the same question after they have already answered that question. Moreover, if we were to do so, we probably wouldn't expect to get the same answer the second time. The answerer would probably paraphrase the first response, or look for something new to say in order to give a better response. It is hard to preserve the pretense of normal conversation in this kind of situation, though several tests are constructed in this fashion. This is probably not a problem on tests that require short and straightforward

answers to questions like “What’s your name/Como te llama?”, but it undoubtedly is a problem on tests which require some degree of linguistic creativity, in which a child is expected to describe a picture or tell a story twice. One test solves this problem by giving the English and Spanish versions of the test several days apart (*Oral Language Dominance Measure*).

12. Conclusion

It may seem unfair to take tasks from tests for analysis, since many tests use a variety of activities to get at the nebulous character of language proficiency. Moreover, some standardized test is often required by the school, the district, the state, or even the federal government. However, given the linguistic problems in these tests, not to mention the problems in cultural appropriateness, it might be more appropriate to look for additional means of assessment. These tests discussed herein might be able to discriminate at the extremes of proficiency: the very proficient student with native-like proficiency or the student with a minimal knowledge of English will undoubtedly be identified. But for finer distinctions, exactly what may be needed to inform the instructional process, the tests may be unable to provide much information, especially since most tests bring with them some possibility that they will fail to measure what they are intended to (in fact, every test examined was touched by at least one of the problems mentioned). If there is any payoff for teachers from testing, it is when the test yields diagnostic information about a student’s language abilities, something more than whether the child will benefit from instruction in English or from a program of bilingual instruction.

Those tests which adhere to the evidence about English language acquisition are certainly useful, but they are not enough. Until we have more evidence of what linguistic, social, and other skills children actually need to enable them to function in an English-speaking classroom (including cognitive strategies), the people in schools who are probably in the best position to know both the requirements of the particular classroom and the social and linguistic habits of the particular student, are the teachers who deal with students on a daily basis. Their judgments should be primary, with supplementary evidence from other measures. It would also seem advisable to use more than one measure to assess children’s language proficiency. Ultimately, however, the best way to find out about students’ abilities to use English is getting to know them, observing their interactions, talking with them and paying attention to their language.

APPENDIX 1

TESTS

Bahia Oral Language Test

San Cohen, Roberto Cruz, Raul Bravo

Bay Area Hispano Institute for Advancement (BAHIA, Inc.)

P.O. Box 9337

North Berkeley, CA 94709

Bilingual Syntax Measure

Marina K. Burt, Heidi C. Dulay, Eduardo Hernandez Ch.
Test Department
Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc.
757 Third Ave.
New York, NY 10017

Caso Test for Non-English Speaking Students

Adolph Caso
Adolph Caso
Waltham Public Schools
Waltham, MA 02154

Comprehension of Oral Language

Guidance Testing Associates
St. Mary's University
2700 Cincinnati Ave.
San Antonio, TX 78284

Del Rio Language Screening Test

Allen S. Toronto D. Leverman, Cornelia Hanna, Peggy Rosenzweig, Antoneta
Maladondo
National Educational Laboratory Publishers, Inc.
P.O. Box 1003
Austin, TX 78767

English as a Second Language Achievement Tests

Helen McGuire, Susan Rao
Milwaukee Public Schools
Department of Education Research and Program Assessment
P.O. Drawer 10-K
Milwaukee, WI 53201

Ilyin Oral Interview

Donna Ilyin
Newbury House Publishers
68 Middle Road
Rowley, MA 01969

James Language Dominance Test

Peter James
Learning Concepts
2501 N. Lamar
Austin, TX 78705

Language Ability Scales

Sharon E. Duncan, Edward A. DeAvila
DeAvila, Duncan and Associates
P.O. Box 770
Larkspur, CA 94939

Language Assessment Battery

Office of Educational Evaluation, Board of Education, City of New York
Houghton-Mifflin Company
Test Department
777 California Ave.
Palo Alto, CA 94304

MAT-SEA-CAL Oral Proficiency Tests

Joseph H. Matluck, Betty Mace-Matluck
Seattle Public Schools
815 Fourth Ave. North
Seattle, WA 98109

Moreno Oral English Proficiency Placement Test

Steve Moreno
Moreno Educational Company
7050 Belle Glade Lane
San Diego, CA 92119

Northwestern Syntax Screening Test

Laura L. Lee
Department of Communicative Disorders
Northwestern University
Evanston, IL 60201

Oral Language Dominance Measure

El Paso Public Schools Department of Curriculum and Staff Development
Primary Acquisition of Languages: A Dual Language Program
El Paso Public Schools
Department of Curriculum and Staff Development
El Paso, TX 79998

Oral Language Evaluation

N. J. Silvaroli, J. T. Skinner, J. O. Maynes, Jr.
EMC Corporation
180 East Sixth Street
St. Paul, MN 55101

Pictorial Test of Bilingualism and Language Dominance

Darwin Nelson, Michael J. Fellner, C. L. Norrell
Texas Testing Services, Inc.
401 Poenisch
Corpus Christi, TX 78412

Robstown Independent School District Oral Language Inventory

Irma Garcia, Charlene Washburn
(Bilingual Education Programs)
Robstown Independent School District
101 West Avenue E.
Robstown TX 78380

Short Texts of Linguistic Skills

Department of Research and Evaluation, Board of Education, City of Chicago

Department of Research and Evaluation
Chicago Board of Education, Room 215
2021 N. Burling St.
Chicago, IL 60641

Shutt Primary Language Indicator Test

D. L. Shutt

Webster Division
McGraw-Hill
8171 Redwood Hwy.
Novato, CA 94947

Test of Grammatically Correct Spanish/English

Las Cruces Public Schools

Margarita Lopez de Mestas
Coordinator, Bilingual Education Project
Las Cruces Public Schools
301 W. Amador Ave.
Las Cruces, NM 88001

TEST CATALOGUES

Oral Language Tests for Bilingual Students: An Evaluation of Language Dominance and Proficiency Instruments. Robert J. Silverman, Joslyn K. Noa, Randall H. Russell, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon, 1976.

Tests that Measure Language Ability: A Descriptive Compilation. Thomas T. Bye, BABEL/LAU Center, Berkeley Unified School District, Berkeley, California, no date.

Reading English for Specialized Purposes: Discourse Analysis and the Use of Student Informants*

Andrew Cohen, Hilary Glasman, Phyllis R. Rosenbaum-Cohen,
Jonathan Ferrara and Jonathan Fine

Researchers at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem have investigated the reading of English texts in the subject disciplines from the viewpoints of the native-English-speaking professor in the particular field, the teacher of English as a foreign language, and the advanced learner of English who is a student in the particular field.

This paper focuses on the Israeli students' handling of specialized English discourse and discusses findings from four complementary studies conducted by a small group of investigators. The studies investigated a bio-chemistry student's experience reading a survey article on genetics, two biology students' experiences reading textbook material on genetics, an economics-international relations student's experience reading an analysis of the voting process, and three South East Asian history students' experiences reading the introduction to a basic history text. For comparison purposes the fourth study also elicited responses from native English speakers.

Although the reading passages utilized in the studies reflected different disciplines and different rhetorical approaches, students across disciplines were found to have similar problems. Among those were difficulty with heavy noun phrase subjects and objects, syntactic markers of cohesion, and the role of non-technical vocabulary in technical texts.

Non-native speakers of English around the world frequently need to read specialized English language material as part of their university course work. A traditional view held by the instructors in such specialized courses is that a knowledge of the technical terms, via a glossary, will provide the non-native reader with what he needs, particularly in scientific texts. Experience has shown, however, that even students with mastery over the technical terms become so frustrated in reading technical English that they seek native-language summaries

* This is a revised version of a paper presented at the 12th Annual TESOL Convention, Mexico City, 1978.

We would like to acknowledge the following EFL teachers who took part in the research effort: Ruth Rigby, Trudy Zuckerman, Victor Kagan, David Goldberg, Marilyn Landes, and Judy Greenbaum. We wish to thank Chris Candlin for his critical comments regarding our work and we also wish to thank Larry Selinker and Eddie Levenston for their comments and encouragement.

Mr. Cohen, a Senior Lecturer at Hebrew University, has published *A Sociolinguistic Approach to Bilingual Education* (1975) and *Testing Language Ability in the Classroom* (in press).

Ms. Glasman, Ms. Rosenbaum-Cohen, and Mr. Ferrara are EFL teachers at Hebrew University.

Mr. Fine, Research Associate at St. Joseph's Hospital, Hamilton, Canada, has published articles on children's language and conversational analysis.

of the English texts, or native-language books covering roughly the same material, or do not read the material at all, but concentrate rather on taking verbatim lecture notes. This approach tends to produce a passive learning attitude rather than the active, exploring approach so necessary if students are to develop sufficient competence in English to read their subject matter freely.

As researchers have begun to investigate the reading problems of non-natives, it has become clear that the difficulties extend beyond technical vocabulary. Fortunately, volumes are beginning to appear which document numerous ways in which subject matter written in English may be problematic for non-native readers from one or various language backgrounds (see, for example, Todd-Trimble, Trimble, & Drobnic 1978). Several empirical studies in particular influenced the research reported in this article. Selinker & Trimble (1974, pp. 81-82), for example, reported on their detailed research into the use of articles and verb tense in English for Specialized Purposes (ESP), because it seemed most crucial to the needs of engineering students. Generally, they found that student difficulties in ESP were not merely a result of technical vocabulary. In fact, they found that non-technical words in technical writing would sometimes give students more difficulty than technical ones—e.g., adverbial phrases, conjunctions, or words used in anaphoric reference. They attributed much of the difficulty in reading comprehension to the structure of the writing.

They also found that use of articles and verb tenses in ESP texts reflected rhetorical or organizational decisions made by the author about the piece of prose. In other words, the choice of definite or indefinite article might reflect the amount of generalization the author wished to presuppose, and the choice of tenses would be based on rhetorical discourse rules. These devices were often not apparent as such to the non-native reader. Conventional EFL training, however, might not provide the students with the appropriate set of rules and guidelines for interpreting such article or tense use. The same investigators also showed how non-explicit definitions and classification schemes could cause problems for non-native readers (Selinker, Todd-Trimble, & Trimble 1976). "Causing problems for the non-native" often means simply the lack of information or awareness of the function of the rhetorical devices.

The studies which we undertook were an outgrowth of a graduate seminar that Larry Selinker conducted at the Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 1975-76. The research questions that the seminar investigated were: 1) what is the EFL teacher's understanding of specialized texts? and 2) what can the native English speaker, who is a specialist in the field, add to the EFL teacher's understanding of such material? (Selinker, in press). A question that remained to be investigated, among others, was: What is problematic for non-native readers when reading material in English in a specialized field?

A series of four studies was implemented in an effort to arrive at empirical answers to this question. In some ways, the studies can be viewed as developmental; the methodology was refined with each subsequent investigation. Although the studies span three different specialized fields, certain problems

emerged which were shared by students reading material in all of these diverse fields. These studies were conducted at a time when other investigators were beginning to document how learners go about solving problems in reading—both in the native language (see Aighes, et al. 1977) and in a second language (see Hosenfeld 1977; 1979).

First, we will describe the subjects, texts, and research procedures for each of the four studies, and then discuss findings from all four studies relating to the following ESP areas:

a. *Heavy noun phrase subjects or objects*: The use of the term *heavy* with respect to noun phrase subjects or objects is borrowed from Berman (1979) and is intended to suggest that such constructions, although they may not in fact appear very lengthy or complex, are difficult to process.

b. *Syntactic markers of cohesion*: This refers to conjunctive words (Halliday & Hasan 1976)—i.e., words which grammatically signal the interconnection of sentences within a text (e.g., *however*, *thus*, *also*, and *finally*).

c. *The role of non-technical vocabulary in technical texts*: By non-technical vocabulary in technical texts, we are referring to non-technical words which may: 1) take on a technical meaning in a particular field (Cowan 1974, referred to these as *sub-technical vocabulary*), 2) appear as contextual paraphrases for other words or phrases, or 3) form part of a specialized non-technical lexis (e.g., vocabulary items indicating time sequence, measurement, or truth validity).

1. Informants

There was one informant in the first study (hereafter referred to as the genetic study), a second-year chemistry and bio-chemistry student at Hebrew University and a native Hebrew speaker with a high school matriculation score of 8 (out of 10) in English (see Table 1). The second study (the biology study) had two informants, a male and a female, both first-year biology students at Hebrew University; both were native Hebrew speakers with high school matriculation scores of 6 or 7 in English. These two students were, at the time of the study, enrolled in the intermediate EFL course (4 hours per week). The third study (the political science study) had one informant, a first-year international relations and economics major at Hebrew University who was a native speaker of Hebrew, with a matriculation score of 7 in English. He was enrolled in the two-hour advanced EFL course. The fourth study (the history study) had 8 informants: four (3 males and a female) were first-year East Asian history majors at Hebrew University, all native Hebrew speakers, and four (all males) were English-speaking American students in Israel for a year, taking college-level classes in Jewish Studies. The female East Asian history student had lived in the United States from age 8 until a year before the study, so she was considered an English speaker for the purpose of the study (although a native Hebrew speaker). Of the remaining three East Asian history

students, two had an 8 on the matriculation exam and one had not taken the exam. All the students were in their twenties except for the East Asian history student who had not taken the matriculation exam; he was in his forties.

TABLE 1
Summary Characteristics of Informants

	First Study: <i>Genetics</i>	Second Study: <i>Biology</i>	Third Study: <i>Pol. Science</i>	Fourth Study: <i>History</i>
No. of Informants	1	2	1	8
Sex	F	M, F	M	7M, 1F
Major	chemistry & bio-chem.	biology	economics & international relations	East Asian hist. (4), Jew. studies (4)
Year at University	2nd	1st	1st	1st
Dominant Language	Hebrew	Hebrew	Hebrew	Hebrew (3) English (5)
H.S. Matriculation Score*	8	6, 7	7	8 (2 students), not taken (1stud.)
Status <i>re</i> EFL Classes	exempt	intermediate (4 hr.) class	advanced (2 hr.) class	exempt (1) intensive summer course (1), advanced (2 hr.) class (1)

* Science - 8, 9, 10 exempt; social science & humanities - 9, 10 exempt.

All the students volunteered to act as informants for the study. They were told that the purpose of the research was to better understand student problems in the reading of texts so as to improve the service courses in EFL at the University. It is important to note that the non-native subjects participating in these studies would be considered fairly good readers in English. Thus, if anything, the results of these studies speak to what is problematic for more advanced non-native readers when reading in specialized English, and not to the problem of the weakest students. That would be a separate study in and of itself.

2. Texts

The text for the genetics study was P. C. Hanawalt's "Repair of Genetic Material in Living Cells," (1972: 83-87). This is a survey article, typical of material assigned to first-year genetics students at Hebrew University. It was selected by an English-speaking professor in the field and the same text was used in Selinker's seminar to investigate what knowledge the expert brings to such a text in order to understand it (Selinker, in press). The student informant had not read the article previously. In the presence of the interviewer, she read the first 160 lines of text, which took her 1¾ hours.

The text for the biology study was selected by the informants and comprised a section from a chapter entitled, "Genetic Basis of Cell Diversity," in A. B. Novikoff & E. Holtzman, (1976: 332-338). The students had been assigned the chapter in biology class and had also discussed parts of it in their ongoing EFL class. They reported that the material took about 1-2 hours to read.

The text for the political science study was selected by the informants from a collection of articles for a first-year political science course. It was R. Rose & R. Mossawir's "Voting and Elections: A Functional Analysis," (1967: 173-201). The student had not yet been assigned the article in class. He read the first 300 lines (to page 182), which reportedly took him 4 hours.

The text for the history study was selected by the East Asian Studies department head as representative of a basic introductory reading in that department. It was the introduction to E. O. Reischauer & J. K. Fairbank's *East Asia: The Great Tradition* (1960: 3-19). The text took the non-natives between 1-2 hours to read. The natives completed it in about 20 minutes. In the interview, the students were asked questions about two passages (23 lines and 38 lines, respectively). The students had not yet been assigned the text in class.

3. Procedures

In the first three studies (genetics, biology, and political science), the student informants were instructed to underline all vocabulary and structures that they found difficult to understand. In the biology and political science studies, the informants underlined the problem areas before the interview sessions. In the political science study, the informant also made note of which words he looked up in the dictionary. Despite these different procedures, we will see that the four studies elicited a surprising amount of similar data.

For all four studies, the researchers prepared sets of points to investigate. For the genetics study, the investigator (Glasman) prepared questions based on a series of lexical and grammatical categories that she predicted would be problematic for her informant. For the biology and political science studies, the researchers (Cohen, Rosenbaum-Cohen, and Ferrara) analysed the texts in consort with a group of some six or so other EFL teachers,¹ and developed a series of questions on the basis of a checklist of features in reading technical English. The checklist encompassed the following broad categories: graphic organization, rhetorical principles or devices, grammar, and vocabulary. In these first three studies, the focus of the researchers' questions was overtly on problematic areas—i.e., asking whether some word or structure was a problem. In the biology and the political science studies, after students indicated whether a word or structure was problematic, they were also asked whether, in retrospect, this word or structure interfered with comprehension of the sentence, section, or passage overall. In the fourth, the history study, the focus was dif-

¹ Except for Cohen and Fine, all the investigators were by design either EFL teachers or teachers-in-training, in order to promote the involvement of teachers in this line of investigation.

ferent: it was not overtly on problematic areas but rather on comprehension. The researchers (Cohen and Fine) asked both *macro* questions, or questions which required some integration or generalization from specific sentences in order to answer, and *micro* questions, questions which were focused directly on specific sentences or parts of sentences.²

Interview sessions were generally conducted in Hebrew. Questions were occasionally asked in English, particularly if the investigator felt more comfortable, but answers were usually not solicited in English unless the purpose was to obtain a target language paraphrase of a sentence or phrase. The more usual form of checking for meaning among non-native students was to ask for a translation into the native language (Hebrew).

In the genetics and political science studies, and in sessions with native English speakers in the history study, the informants were interviewed individually by one or more interviewers. The two subjects in the biology study and the three non-natives in the history study were interviewed in a group. Sessions in the biology, political science, and history studies were tape-recorded. These recordings were played back several times in the data analysis phase.

As can be seen a variety of methodological procedures were used, not so much out of design as out of a lack of one. But although methodological approaches varied, it will be seen that findings from the different studies converged.

4. Findings

The description of results will focus on a few of the problematic areas that cut across the disciplines, despite differences in both procedures and types of texts.³ As noted above, these areas were: heavy noun phrase subjects and objects, syntactic markers of cohesion, and the role of non-technical vocabulary in technical texts.

4.1. Heavy Noun Phrase Subjects and Objects. Heavy noun phrases, in various syntactic functions (e.g., subject of the main clause, subject of a subordinate clause, object of the preposition), not only caused difficulties for informants across all four studies, but were among the few structures that were predictably problematic for students. In the genetics study, for example, all but one of the seven sentences that the informant identified as being problematic had heavy noun phrases in them. The following is one example:

Thus, it was conjectured that such treatments as holding cells in buffer after irradiation before placing them on nutrient agar plates might function by inhibiting normal growth processes while repair systems completed their task. (Hanawalt, p. 84)

² This fourth study has appeared elsewhere in its entirety (Cohen & Fine, 1978).

³ Some other problematic areas that we found to cut across disciplines, but which are not discussed in this paper, include: the interpretation of modals, the significance of punctuation or the lack of it, and various problems relating to long, complex sentences.

In the above sentence, a 16-word clause functions as the subject of the subordinate sentence introduced by “that.”

In the biology study, the text produced troublesome sentences like the following:

In many unicellular organisms and in some lower plants, nuclei contributing to the zygote are transferred between two cells without the formation of obviously specialized gametes by processes such as partial and temporary fusion (*conjugation*) of ciliated protozoans. (Novikoff & Holzmänn, p. 332)

In this sentence, the relatively short noun phrase subject, “nuclei contributing to the zygote” was troublesome because it was not perceived as one unit.⁴In the political science study, the informant missed the purpose of the paper because of the fact that the purpose was stated as the noun phrase object of a preposition:

The purpose of this paper is to try to redress the resulting imbalance by concentrating detailed attention upon the multiple functions, i.e., observable consequences, of voting for individuals and of elections for political systems in contemporary societies. (Rose & Mossawir, pp. 173-174)

In the history study, we did not ask about structures directly, but rather assessed their difficulty indirectly through comprehension questions. For example, the students were asked to focus on the following paragraph:

The gap between East and West has also been widened by a growing discrepancy in material standards of living. Nowhere is the contrast sharper than between Americans and the peoples of Asia. In part because of accidents of history and geography, we enjoy a far more favorable balance between population and natural resources than do they. As a result we live on an economic plane that appears unattainable by them under existing conditions. This economic gap perpetuates and sometimes heightens the difference between our respective attitudes and ways of life. (Reischauer & Fairbank, p. 6)

Then the students were asked as a micro question, “Which people have the better balance between population and natural resources?” They answered correctly, “The West.” The informants were then asked, “Why?” a question which was meant to probe whether or not they correctly interpreted the adverbial modifier with its noun phrase object: “In part because of accidents of history and geography.” The natives gave the correct answer right away. One one-native answered, “Because they understand the existing conditions” and another mentioned “economic plane.”

Thus, we found that across texts and across specialized fields, long groups of words performing a single grammatical function, (noun phrase) were difficult for non-native readers to perceive as such. The investigator in the genetics study

⁴The rest of the sentence also created serious problems of grammatical interpretation.

(Glasman) constructed an experimental teaching exercise where the student marked the point at which each noun or verb began and ended and then had to make a one-word noun or verb substitution, whichever was appropriate. Apparently this exercise helped the student to recognize such structures. Once aware of their existence, the non-native reader can then analyze and understand such rankshifted structures when they appear in a text. The native appears to make such an analysis with far greater ease than the non-native—and in many cases does so automatically.

Perhaps the methodological approach in the last study (the history study) is the most crucial—namely, inquiring as to what the student interpreted the passage containing the heavy noun phrase to mean. Candlin (1979) and others would first of all argue that syntactic complexity need not make for difficulty in construing the meaning of the text. Second, they would suggest that it is dangerous to group together structures of the same type, such as heavy noun phrase subjects and objects, in that the meaning they convey may vary greatly depending on the nature of the discourse. For this reason, they would warn teachers against preoccupation with the teaching of lower-order syntactic skills. Thus, the issue is not only that of deciding what structures to teach, but also of determining how much time to devote to teaching them.

4.2. Syntactic Markers of Cohesion. All four of the studies revealed that learners were not picking up on the conjunctive words signaling cohesion, not even the more basic ones like *however* and *thus*. The informant in the genetics study, for example, noted that she had never known the meaning of *thus*, and had simply thought it marked off sentences.

Perhaps the most striking example of difficulty in processing markers of cohesion comes from the history study, specifically with respect to the sequential correlative “also” and “finally.” The students were asked the macro question, “Why do the authors favor the historical approach?” in reference to the following passage:

The Approach to East Asia Through its History. The historical approach seems to us the best for a number of reasons. One is that the peoples of East Asia, more than those of the rest of the world, see themselves in historical perspective. They are strongly aware of their heritage from the past and also conscious of the historical judgment of the future. To approach them through their history is to look at them as they see themselves, which is the first requisite for understanding.

The historical approach is ALSO necessary for a clear understanding of the major aspects of our subject. We are interested first in the distinctive aesthetic, intellectual and institutional achievements of the peoples of East Asia during their long period of semi-isolation from the rest of the world. These cultural achievements can best be studied genetically as they evolved. They should be looked at separately from the rapidly changing, hybrid cultures of the contemporary East Asian countries.

A clear understanding of the traditional cultures of those countries, FINALLY is essential to any comprehension of what is happening in East Asia today. The past is the unseen hand that molds the present; it would be futile to describe a situation of flux in static terms. Only as we look at the long flow of East Asian

history can we understand what is happening there now and perceive the direction of motion, which is often more important than the momentary situation itself.

The essence of the present turmoil in East Asia is the interaction between new forces, many of which were derived from the West, and traditional habits and modes of thinking. Our story divides naturally into two major phases: the evolution of traditional East Asian civilization in relative isolation over three thousand years, and the upheavals and modernization of that civilization in recent times under the impact of the modern Western world. This is the reason for dividing the history into two volumes under separate titles.⁵

The rationale for the question was to see if students could perceive the cross-paragraph structure, particularly as signaled by these conjunctive elements (indicated by small caps in the text above). The investigators thought that there were three reasons why the authors favored the historical approach: 1) the peoples of East Asia see themselves in historical perspective, 2) cultural achievements are best studied historically, and 3) one can understand the present only in terms of the past. The natives got these three reasons and two of the natives also reanalyzed the first reason into three separate reasons, which included “seeing selves in historical perspective,” “heritage,” and “seeing future judgment in historical terms.” The non-native did not mention reasons 2) and 3) above at all. One spoke of “heritage” and another mentioned “consciousness of historical judgment.” The non-natives, unlike the natives, thus did not organize the material that they had read when that organization stretched across different paragraphs, although cross-paragraph markers of cohesion were provided in the text.

Clearly, the task of finding the markers of cohesion is a part of good reading generally, even in the native language. But there is more to the task than basic native reading ability and speed. The non-natives were not attuned to recognizing the conjunctive words, whereas the natives’ responses would suggest that these words played a significant role in their understanding of the passage. Upon closer scrutiny of the text, we note that “also” and “finally” are not conspicuously placed rather, they are buried in their respective sentences. In fact, “finally” appears after a long (10-word) noun phrase subject. Such conjunctive words may have particularly little functional value if, in fact, the non-native reads more locally than the native—in other words, if s/he has more trouble linking up parts of sentences, linking sentences with other sentences, and linking paragraphs with other paragraphs.

Instances in the history study in which the natives did not answer a question correctly but the non-natives did, generally were a result of the non-natives’ more “local” reading. The natives tended to pass over specific details which they mistakenly considered unimportant. The non-natives assigned all material equal value, which in these cases produced the correct answer, since the questions concerned detail. For example, with respect to the question, “Why is the

⁵ From: *East Asia: The Great Tradition*, by Edwin A. Reishauer and John K. Fairbank (pp. 7-8). Copyright © 1958 and 1960 by Edwin O. Reishauer and John K. Fairbank. Reprinted with the permission of Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston, Mass., U.S.A.

study divided into two volumes?" (expected answer, "To separate off the period of isolation of the East from the period of contact with the West," cf. last paragraph of the text above), the natives either did not know or gave too general an answer. Regarding another question, "What do the authors think should be studied historically?" (expected answer, "Aesthetic, intellectual, and institutional achievements," cf. second sentence, second paragraph of above text), the natives again gave too general an answer.

It is important to keep these findings in perspective. First, there may be cases of conjunctive cohesion which are not signaled by conjunctive words. Urquhart (1977) found that native readers, for example, had only slightly more difficulty processing texts that were not marked for intersentential relationship than they did processing texts that were so marked. His finding was that the marking of statements with connectors did not usually affect recall. He concluded that implicit relationships holding between sentences (i.e., relationships not signaled by a conjunctive marker) were important to consider—examples like the following: "The woodpecker is an unusual bird, It bores holes in trees." The point here is that students may attend too much to overt markers, if they are so trained, and may not be ready for texts that do not use them. Furthermore, the same marker may be used somewhat differently in a new text and so be misinterpreted (Candlin 1979).

Furthermore, *cohesion* has been identified as a lower-level element in the obtaining of meaning from a text than is *coherence*, which refers to how the sentences in the text function to produce discourse (Widdowson 1978, Candlin et al. 1978). In other words, a student may see the way two sentences are linked cohesively and yet miss the fact that together they function as an hypothesis or as a refutation. Thus, a teacher may wish to check both for a student's perception of cohesion and of coherence.

4.3. The Role of Non-Technical Vocabulary in Technical Texts. The series of studies underscored for us the reality that knowing the technical terms (i.e., terms that have a specialized meaning in a particular field and are used consistently in that field) is not a sufficient condition for successful reading of specialized material. It was, in fact, the non-technical terms which created more of a problem. We found that the informants did not give an accurate translation or target-language paraphrase of a surprisingly large number of non-technical words in context. In the genetics study, these were words like: *essential*, *giant*, *diversity*, *enhance*, *efficient*, *maintain*, *required*, *emphasis*, *supplied*, and *determined*; in the biology study: *pattern*, *distinctive*, *contributing*, *resemble*, *however*, *predict*, *adequately*, and *invariable*; in the political science study: *decades*, *assertion*, *ambiguities*, and *devices*; and in the history study: *discrepancy*, *futile*, and *perceive*. And this list is merely representative.

To put this in numerical perspective—in the biology study, only 9 out of 32 technical words investigated were indicated by the students as being problematic (e.g., *chiasma*, *recombinant*, *episomal*), whereas 45 out of 53 non-technical words were found to be problematic. In the political science study,

the student reported looking up in the dictionary 10 words which we would classify as technical (e.g., *balloting*, *nomination*, and *duopolistic*) and 34 non-technical words. In this study, 23% of the terms which the reader considered difficult were technical, a higher percentage than in the biology study. We attributed this difference to two factors: First, biology receives more emphasis in high school than does political science; second, in biology many, if not most, of the technical terms are part of the international scientific vocabulary (I.S.V.), which is transcribed into Hebrew—and this is not the case with the terminology in political science.

In attempting to classify vocabulary as technical or non-technical, we came to the realization that non-technical words can be difficult for a variety of reasons, only three of which will be discussed here. The first area of difficulty arises because non-technical terms may take on a technical meaning in a particular field; and the non-native reader may only be aware of one of these meanings (either the technical or the non-technical one). An example from the genetics text was the term *recognition*, which in context appeared to suggest that a particular damage referred to had to be recognized or noticed in some way by the scientist. Checking with the specialist in the field (Selinker, in press), we learned that the term had a technical meaning here, i.e. that there is some biological system present in the organism that becomes aware that a damage has occurred. Another example from the same text was the term *specific*, which was being used in reference to the genetic notion of *specificity*, which is a characteristic of enzymes.

A second area of difficulty with respect to all vocabulary items concerned whether or not they were being used in contextual paraphrase, that is, whether or not the author was using two (or more) words, or phrases, to refer to the same concept. In the political science study, for example, the student did not perceive that *balloting* was used interchangeably for *voting*, and that *assertions* were *statements*. In the genetics study, the issue was more complex. *Repair processes* appeared 10 times in the text, *repair mechanism* 4 times, *repair mode* three times, and *repair scheme* 3 times. According to the specialist in the field, *repair processes* and *repair mechanism* were contextual paraphrases, as were *repair mode* and *repair scheme*, but the former pair were more technically specific than the latter. So here we found problems of lexical cohesion not only at the level of synonymy, but across two different levels of specificity. The lexical repetition of the word *repair* seemed to be adding to the difficulty, by suggesting synonymy even when there was no synonymy.

Although we were not able to establish empirically what information the non-native is missing by not interpreting these contextual paraphrases correctly, it would at least seem that the reading load (i.e. storage and retrieval of information) is greater if he is storing a number of lexical items separately, without realizing that they are to be equated in meaning.

A third area of difficulty that emerged was that of specialized non-technical lexis. We will give one example, that of vocabulary items which indicate time

sequence or frequency. In the genetics study, for example, it was found that of 17 words in this category, the student knew only 5: *initial*, *final*, *following*, *gradually*, and *later*. She did not know: *eventual*, *perpetual*, *succeeding*, *ensuing*, *preceding*, *progressively*, *simultaneously*, *alternately*, *consecutively*, *intermittently*, *subsequent*, and *successive*.

It would appear that useful work can be done in teaching students different categories of non-technical vocabulary—for it is often these words which are carrying much of the meaning of the text, particularly with regard to scientific writing. But just as there is a question as to how to teach syntactic structures, there are problems in trying to teach lexical meanings. If terms take on meaning as part of the dynamic process of interpreting a text and if the meaning of such lexical items will differ from text to text, how can such terms be taught as if constants? Perhaps it would be necessary to discuss different categories of non-technical vocabulary and to indicate that the meaning of individual entries may vary according to the nature of the text.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, we see that working with student informants from different fields, reading different types of texts (e.g., a survey article, textbook material, and a theoretical analysis), and using different methodological approaches, it is nonetheless possible to derive similar conclusions about certain problematic areas in specialized texts.

Teachers have been preparing texts for many years. If something new is being introduced here in the approach to specialized texts, it is the rigorous analysis of texts in terms of potentially confusing grammatical patterns such as heavy noun phrase subjects and objects, forms signaling grammatical cohesion, and problematic non-technical vocabulary.

Methodologically, it would appear that the fourth study was the most refined, in that heavy noun phrases and markers of grammatical cohesion were investigated in a way paralleling, as much as possible, the natural task students are faced with in reading technical material—namely, understanding what the passage is about. It is true that students may not come up with appropriate answers under pressure. Although attempts were made to have the subjects prepare the passages ahead of time, there is no question that the interview situation created a certain amount of anxiety and thus deviated from the usual circumstances under which a student would read such texts. Another, perhaps more natural approach would be to sit next to and observe individual students while they take part in reading and discussion activities in class (perhaps with videotape back up, if possible—in order to aid in getting student verification afterwards). Then, during the breaks, the observer asks a series of questions about the process that the student used in his reading, and about the meaning that he derived from the material.

Asking students questions about the meaning of a passage without asking about particular structures is intended to discover whether the meaning is

perceived regardless of given structures. All the same, finding out whether the meaning was obtained with or without knowledge of the way forms functioned in that segment of the text can still be valuable, particularly when the student does not arrive at an appropriate interpretation of the meaning; for example, what structures may be responsible (if any)? The current line of research is intended to help provide the teacher with research-based insights into what specific elements in the text may be causing inappropriate interpretations.

Perhaps a compromise between asking overtly whether students have difficulty with certain structures and having them give free-response answers to questions would be to have the informants discuss their answers to carefully-worded multiple-choice items. The informants would be asked to choose the best answer and explain why it is the best, as well as to explain why each of the distracters is unacceptable (based on Munby 1978). Such a format would impose greater structure on the research activity and would enable us to tap the informants' comprehension strategies.

It may well be that the question posed in this study, "What is problematic in reading texts in a foreign language?" is ultimately less fruitful for curriculum writers and teachers than the question, "How do learners go about solving problems in reading?" The former yields findings as to forms to teach, and the latter yields insights into cognitive strategies to teach. If, in fact, forms may vary in the meaning that is attached to them depending on the text (Candlin 1978, 1979), then the best the teacher can hope to do is alert the reader to strategies that will help him derive meaning despite the shifting functions of specific forms.

There is even a further question: is there only one meaning for a given text? In that the text itself only has "meaning potential" (Halliday 1973, ch. 4), and it is the reader who creates meaning for the text (Candlin 1979), then it may be misleading just to suggest that syntactic structures and lexical items may have different meaning in different texts. Rather, it may be important to add that such syntactic structures and lexical items may also be interpreted differently by different readers within the same text—and that the instructor's interpretation of the meaning may only be one of several possible interpretations.

REFERENCES

- Aighes, Brenda, et al. 1977. *Progress report on the BBN group*. Report No. 3720, prepared for NIE. University of Illinois at Urbana/Champaign & Bolt Beranek and Newman, 50 Moulton St., Cambridge, Mass. 02138.
- Candlin, Christopher N. 1978. Discoursal patterning and the equalizing of interpretive opportunity. Lancaster, England: Institute for English Language Education, University of Lancaster.
- Candlin, Christopher N. 1979. Discourse analysis: interpretive strategies and the process of reading. presentation at a Regional University Teachers of English in Israel (UTELI) Meeting, Jerusalem, Israel, January 10, 1979.
- Candlin, C. N., J. M. Kirkwood, & H. M. Moore. 1978. Study skills in English: theoretical issues and practical problems. In R. Mackay & A. Mountford (Eds.). *English for Specific Purposes*. London: Longman: 190-219.

- Cohen, Andrew D. and Jonathan Fine. 1978. Reading history in English: Discourse analysis and the experiences of native and non-native readers. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 55-74.
- Cowan, J. Ronayne. 1974. Lexical and syntactic research for the design of EFL reading materials. *TESOL Quarterly* 8, 4:389-399.
- Halliday, M. A. K. 1973. *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & R. Hasan. 1976. *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- Hanawalt, P. C. 1972. Repair of genetic material in living cells. *Endeavor*.
- Hosenfeld, Carol. 1977. A preliminary investigation of the reading strategies of successful and unsuccessful second language learners. *System* 5, 2:110-223.
- Hosenfeld, Carol. 1979. Cindy, a learner in today's foreign language classroom. In W. C. Born (Ed.) *The learner in today's environment*. Montpelier, Vt.: Capital City Press.
- Munby, John. 1978. A problem-solving approach to the development of reading comprehension skills. Presentation at the University Teachers of English in Israel (UTELI) Regional Meeting, Jerusalem, January 25.
- Novikoff, V. and E. Holtzman. 1976. *Cells and organelles* (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Reischauer, E. O. and J. K. Fairbank. 1960. *East Asia: the great tradition*. New York: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Rose, R. and R. Mossiwir. 1967. Voting and election: a functional analysis. *Political Studies* 15.
- Selinker, Larry. In press. On the use of informants in discourse analysis and language for special purposes. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*.
- Selinker, Larry & Louis Trimble. 1974. Formal written communication and ESL. *Journal of Technical Writing and Communication* 4, 81-90.
- Selinker, L., R. M. Todd-Trimble & L. Trimble. 1976. Presuppositional rhetorical information in EST discourse. *TESOL Quarterly* 10, 281-290.
- Todd-Trimble, Mary, Louis Trimble & Karl Drobic (Eds.). 1978. *English for specific purposes: science and technology*, Corvallis Oregon: English Language Institute, Oregon State University.
- Urquhart, A. H. 1977. The effect of rhetorical organization on the readability of study texts. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Edinburgh.
- Widdowson, H. G. 1978. *Teaching language as communication*. London: Oxford University Press.

Language and Thought: Translation vs. Interpretation*

Robert Lado

Two experiments tested the following hypothesis: translation which proceeds from surface structure to surface structure causes greater interference than delayed interpretation across languages which stores the ideas in deep memory and expresses them later in the target language.

Thirty English-speaking students rendered a Spanish text into English. Half of them translated it with text in view and 24 hours later wrote it from memory. The other half wrote it 24 hours after studying it. The immediate translations showed significantly more problems than the delayed recall versions.

Twenty-five subjects translated a Spanish text into English with text in view and recalled the content of a similar Spanish text in English after studying it. Again the translations showed significantly more errors than the recall versions.

The hypothesis has theoretical interest and practical implications for L2 learning. The data support a negative attitude toward translation with text in view and a favorable one toward recall tasks across languages which approximate linguistic performance for communication. Rules that restrict L1 use should be selective rather than absolute since the nature of the use may be more important than use itself.

1. Hypothesis and Elaboration

Previous experiments support the view that language and thought are autonomous and are both involved in linguistic performance (Lado et al. 1971). Those experiments also demonstrate that immediate memory retains short texts of up to 17 connected words for a few seconds while deep memory does not retain short or long texts unless they are specifically overlearned as in songs, prayers, proverbs, poems, parts in a play, etc. Deep memory retains instead thought (ideas) and the functional rules of language and thinking.

Based on those observations and findings we hypothesized that the process of translation would show greater interlanguage interference than delayed recall across languages. The unskilled translator, e.g. a second-language student, operates consciously under immediate memory from word to word or phrase to phrase across the surface structures of the two languages in what we will

* Paper presented at the 1978 TESOL Convention in Mexico. The completed statistical analysis of the second experiment has been added. The first experiment was supported by a grant from the USOE Institute of International Studies (# OEG-O-70-1626). I wish to thank T. V. Higgs and J. Edgerton for their participation in this experiment.

Mr. Lado, Professor of Linguistics at Georgetown University, has published various articles and books, including *English Across Cultures*, *Language Testing*, *Language Teaching*, and the *Lado English Series*.

call *surface translation*, without processing the content into the full thought involved in the normal communicative use of the language (Figure 1).

The unskilled translator does not have enough facility or immediate memory in one of the languages to process the content into deep memory (thought) in order to express it in the second. So the unskilled translator continues to operate on the level of individual words and phrases and partial surface structure.

The skilled translator, on the other hand, goes from the source language to thought and from thought to the second language in what we will call *deep translation* or *interpretation* (Figure 2). To accomplish this feat at normal speed requires great facility in both languages and a fully differentiated immediate memory in each to permit the continuous decoding of the source utterances into thought, while at the same time engaging in the process of going from thought to the second language to complete the interpretation cycle.

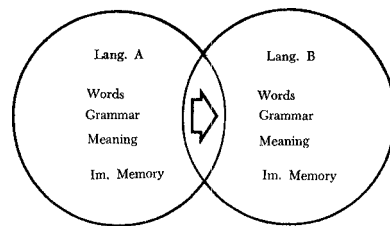


Fig. 1. Surface Translation

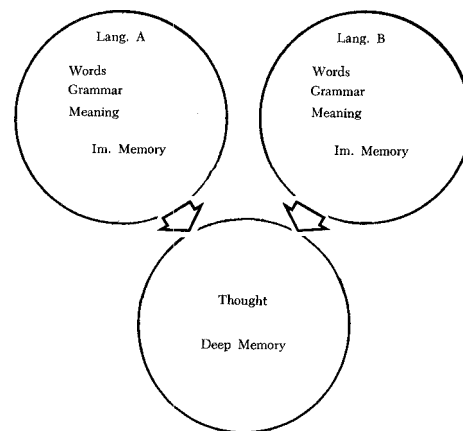


Fig. 2. Deep Translation

In delayed interpretation across languages the subject is unable to remember the wording of the source text or utterance. The subject must therefore operate from deep memory in order to recall the thought and encode it into the second language or fail to interpret. In other words, delayed recall across languages forces the student to operate like the skilled translator which makes it possible to practice the language in a process that approximates full linguistic performance.

Although the hypothesis appears to have purely theoretical interest, it has practical implications for language teaching activities in the classroom as well. If confirmed, it would justify the use of the native language as a source of more complex and varied content than that provided by the immediate classroom environment and by pictures, although it would not supplant either of them. It would also justify the use of the native language to define the context in which pictures or realia are used.

2. Experiment I¹

To test the hypothesis that translation would show greater interference than delayed recall across language, we designed an experiment in which the performance of college students studying Spanish was compared for amount and type of interference when translating a text and when recalling the content in English 24 hours later. It was expected that in translation students would tend to process one word or short phrase at a time, and with it still in immediate memory, would attempt to put it into the native language, with the result that Spanish structure would exert maximum influence on the resulting English text. In contrast, in delayed recall across languages, the source text will have been forgotten as the S proceeds from the thought in deep memory to the target language in a more typical process of language use.

2.1. Subjects. Thirty Ss were selected from a college population of graduate and undergraduate students of Spanish; sex and age were not considered in the selection. Two experimental groups were formed and matched by using the reading comprehension part of Form MB of the MLA-Cooperative Foreign Language Test.

2.2. Procedures. The same Spanish text of 157 words was distributed to two groups of Ss who received different sets of instructions orally. The Translation Group were instructed to translate the text into English as quickly as possible and told that a polished translation was not necessary. At the end of the 13 minutes allotted for the task, papers were collected, and Ss were reminded to return at the same time on the following day.

The Recall Group were instructed to study the text carefully so that they could answer general comprehension questions about it. The questions were presented in multiple-choice format in Spanish. This group also had a total of 13 minutes to complete the task: 7 to study the text and 6 to answer the questions with the text still in view.

The results of the reading comprehension test were not considered in the outcome of the experiment since the test was given merely to encourage the Recall Group to read the text more carefully. All papers were collected at the end of the 13 minutes, and the Recall Group were reminded to return at the same time on the following day.

Approximately 24 hours after the original session, both groups were read the same instructions. They were told to give an English version of the Spanish text they had seen the day before and to try to parallel as well as they could the style and content of the original text. The papers were collected at the end of an allotted ten minutes.

Three sets of data resulted from this experiment: 1) the immediate translations from Spanish into English of the Translation Group, 2) the recall versions from the same Translation Group 24 hours later, and 3) the recall versions from the Recall Group, also 24 hours later.

¹ This experiment is included in the Final Report, Contract N^o OEC-O-70-1626, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education (Lado et al. 1971).

Scoring of the translations and of the recall versions was determined as follows: The Experimenters (E) agreed on criteria which allowed three categories of errors to be established. These categories were based exclusively on the expression of the papers with no notice taken of the accuracy or inaccuracy of the content of the translations or the recall versions themselves, since the experimental variable was interference in expression across languages rather than content.

The first category (Type 1) consisted of errors which were clearly conditioned by the Spanish syntax or vocabulary and resulted in the production of demonstrably non-grammatical English utterances in spite of the fact that all of the Ss were college educated native speakers of English,

The second category (Type 2) covered errors which resulted in long, run-on sentences because of the influence from Spanish, although they otherwise showed acceptable syntactic English patterns. These errors usually surfaced when terminal punctuation in the Spanish text was taken over unchanged into the English versions, since the typical written Spanish sentence is significantly longer than the typical English sentence.

The third and most intangible category was that of errors which somehow seemed awkward in construction, but without displaying any obvious direct contamination from specific Spanish constructions (Type 3). We agreed that although they showed no direct relation to Spanish syntax, it was reasonable to assume that they were in part caused by the pressure of translating, since none of this type of errors appeared on any of the papers of the Recall Group.

2.3. Results. The transcriptions of the Translation Group (immediate and delayed) and the recall versions of the Recall Group were scored for errors by two Es working in concert. The three types of errors were added for each S to yield a total error score, and the arithmetic mean of the errors for each group tabulated (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
Mean Number of Errors by Group and Type

Group	Type of Error		
	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3
Translation Group (Immed.)	6.00	3.31	1.31
Translation Group (Delayed)	1.00	1.38	0.31
Recall Group	0.53	1.13	0.00

To test the prediction that translation would show greater interference across languages with immediate translation than with delayed recall, Friedman rank tests were computed for all three types of errors between immediate and delayed responses of the Translation Group. With a chi-square value of 12.25, which was significant at the .01 level, immediate translation had more Type 1 errors than delayed recall across languages. Immediate translation again had more Type 2 errors than delayed recall. Finally, immediate translation also had

significantly more Type 3 errors than delayed recall, on the basis of a chi-square of 4.00, significant at the .05 level. Support for the hypothesis that immediate translation, working with immediate memory, would show more interference than delayed recall across languages is offered by the results.

In testing the data further to see whether any negative effects of immediate translation would persist 24 hours after the original experience, t-tests for uncorrelated groups were computed for all three types of errors between the Translation Group (delayed response) and the Recall Group. There was one comparison which was significant at the .02 level, with a t-value of 2.58: The Translation Group had more Type 3 errors than the Recall Group. None of the other comparisons between the Translation Group and the Recall Group were significant. This finding would seem to indicate that for these two groups of college students coming from a fairly homogeneous population and matched on the basis of their command of a Spanish reading test, the awkward type of error which we ascribed to immediate translation effect persisted significantly 24 hours later, when from our findings in previous experiments the memory of the original text must have been quite weak.

3. Experiment II

We designed a second experiment to test the same hypothesis—that immediate translation with text in view would show greater interference than recall across languages—but modified, so that the recall task would occur immediately after reading the whole text, instead of 24 hours later.

Experiment II compared translation of a passage versus recall across languages of a similar passage of equal length. In addition to cutting the delay from 24 hours to immediately after reading the whole text, the design required that each S perform both tasks—translation of one passage and recall of the other—rotating the passages so that any differences in the ability of the Ss or the difficulty of the passages would cancel out. Translation errors were counted for approximately half of the Ss (14) on the first passage and approximately half (11) on the second. And recall errors were counted for the eleven Ss on the first passage and the fourteen on the second.

3.1. Subjects. Of a total of 25 Ss who participated, 19 were graduate and undergraduate students who were studying or had studied Spanish, 3 were Spanish-speaking students who had studied English extensively and were pursuing graduate or undergraduate studies in the U. S., and the remaining 3 were in secondary school. No measure of their proficiency level in Spanish or English was obtained because the experimental design used all students for both tasks, thus equalizing any possible effect of differences in proficiency levels.

3.2. Procedures. Two Spanish texts of 150 words each were chosen from a section of letters to a counselor in a popular Spanish magazine. They were of approximately the same difficulty in the subjective estimate of the experimenter, and no formal measure of difficulty was taken since both texts were used for both tasks. The two groups were given Xerox copies of the first passage with

the oral instructions that Group A translate it immediately and Group B read it in preparation for an objective test. Group B took the objective test after seven minutes and the papers were collected after 13 minutes. Ss were then given the second passage with the same instructions, but reversed for the two groups. As with the first experiment, the results of the reading comprehension test were not used since the purpose of the test was merely to encourage careful reading by Ss.

Two sets of data were obtained in this experiment: 1) translations of the first passage by Group A and of the second passage by (Group B, and 2) recall accounts of the first passage by Group B and of the second by Group A.

Both the translations and the recall versions were scored by the experimenter on the basis of six types of errors: grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, awkwardness, and nonsense.

3.3. Results. Table 2 summarizes the results obtained in Experiment II. The total number of errors for the Translation task was 242 and for the Recall task, 121. With a combined 25 Ss for each task, the mean number of errors for Translation was 9.68 and for Recall 4.84. The difference between the two means is 4.84 with a standard error of 1.47. The value of the *t*-ratio for correlated data ($r = .24$) for this difference is 3.29 which indicates statistical significance at the .01 level of confidence. Simple inspection of the number of errors by type shows that Translation had more errors in all six categories with better than a two to one ratio in all except punctuation.

TABLE 2
Errors by Task and by Type

Error Type	Translation Task	Recall Task
Type 1 Grammar	31	9
Type 2 Vocabulary	25	9
Type 3 Punctuation	126	79
Type 4 Spelling	44	21
Type 5 Awkwardness	10	2
Type 6 Nonsense	6	1
Total errors	242	121
Number of Ss	25	25
Mean	9.68	4.84
SE of M	2.24	.93
Difference between Means		4.84
SE of Diff. between Means		1.47
<i>t</i> -value		3.29 ($p < .01$)

The prediction that immediate translation would show greater interference than recall across languages is supported by the results of the second experiment also.

The ratio of translation to recall errors was not as large in the second experiment (two to one) as with 24-hour delayed recall (ten to one). Some of the phraseology and wording of the text was remembered, with recall fol-

lowing the reading of the whole passage in preparation for a test. This was evident in some of the errors which showed word for word or phrase for phrase translation or the exact punctuation of the original.

The gradual shift from sulfate translation to deep translation, more than might have been anticipated from the results of Experiment I, may have been exaggerated by the instruction to prepare for an objective test, which presumably would encourage reading for detail. Nevertheless, the difference in ratios is large enough to justify a gradual rather than an abrupt shifting from surface to deep translation.

4. Conclusions

Translation with text in view induces significantly more errors, not only of the types which can directly or indirectly be attributed to interlanguage interference but also of the general awkwardness type which cannot be directly assigned to interference but relate somehow to surface translation pressure. Therefore, it is concluded that the data support a negative attitude toward immediate translation with source text in view as a language production exercise for unskilled translators, i.e. students.

The data in both experiments support the hypothesis that, in recall tasks across languages, Ss process language into ideas which are stored in deep memory and recalled to construct utterances in a process that approximates full linguistic performance for communication.

In a broader perspective, what we have attempted to do is to clarify the different processes involved in different uses of the native language (NL). We have dealt with translation from a written text in the second language (L2) to the NL and found serious interference for the unskilled translator. We may expect even more serious interference in translation from the NL to L2.

These surface translation tasks are not to be confused with giving the student the meaning of an L2 utterance in the NL. In that case the student does not engage in surface translation word for word but goes from the NL to meaning and thought and then to L2 as in deep translation. In other words, rules that restrict NL use in L2 teaching and learning should be selective rather than absolute, since the nature of the use of the NL may be more important than use itself.

REFERENCES

- Lado, Robert. 1970. Language, thought, and memory in language teaching: A thought view. *The Modern Language Journal* 54, 8 (December 1970), pp. 580-585.
- , Theodore V. Higgs, and Joseph Edgerton. 1971. *The relationship of thought and memory in linguistic performance: 'Thought' exercises in foreign language teaching*. Final Report, Contract N^o OEC-O-70-1626, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.
-

Age, Rate and Eventual Attainment in Second Language Acquisition*

Stephen D. Krashen, Michael A. Long, and Robin C. Scarcella

This paper presents evidence for three generalizations concerning the relationship between age, rate, and eventual attainment in second language acquisition:

- (1) Adults proceed through early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant).
- (2) Older children acquire faster than younger children (again, in early stages of morphological and syntactic development where time and exposure are held constant).
- (3) Acquirers who begin natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those beginning as adults.

While recent research reports have claimed to be counter to the hypothesis that there is a critical period for language acquisition, the available literature is consistent with the three generalizations presented above.

One popular belief about second language acquisition is that younger-is-better, that younger acquirers are better at second language acquisition than older acquirers. Recently, certain research reports claim to counter this early sensitivity hypothesis; several of these papers imply that the literature on age and language acquisition is inconsistent, some showing older, others showing younger performers to be superior. (See Walburg, Hase and Pinzur Rasher 1978, McLaughlin 1977.) The purpose of this brief comment is to demonstrate that the available literature is consistent with three generalizations concerning the relationship between age, rate, and eventual attainment in second language acquisition: 1) Adults proceed through early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant)¹; 2) Older children acquire faster than younger children (again, in early stages of syntactic and morphological development where time and exposure are held constant);² and 3) Acquirers who begin natural exposure to

* We thank Eugene J. Brière for helpful comments on this article.

Mr. Krashen and Ms. Scarcella are affiliated with the Linguistics Department at the University of Southern California.

Mr. Long is affiliated with the English Department, University of California, Los Angeles.

¹ Explanations for these relationships (e.g., neurological, cognitive or affective) will not be discussed here.

² Here, we do not distinguish "learn" and "acquire," making no claim as to whether conscious language learning or unconscious language *acquisition* are involved.

second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those beginning as adults.

In other words, adults and older children in general initially acquire the second language faster than young children (older-is-better for rate of acquisition), but child second language acquirers will usually be superior in terms of ultimate attainment (younger-is-better in the long run). Distinguishing rate and attainment, then, resolves the apparent contradictions in the literature.

In order to provide support for these generalizations, we examined investigations of child-adult differences in eventual attainment in second language acquisition and short-term studies which compare children and adults acquiring second languages in informal, natural environments, as well as formal, classroom environments.

I. Investigations of Eventual Attainment: Long Term Studies

There have been surprisingly few studies investigating child-adult differences in eventual attainment in second language acquisition. The available studies all concur, however, that age of arrival in the country where the language is spoken is the best predictor of eventual attainment: 1) those who arrive as children attain higher levels of second language proficiency, and 2) after a certain period (see discussion below) length of residence (where length of residence taps linguistic interaction/input) is not a factor. (see Table 1)³

2. Investigations of Rate: Short-term Studies

2.1. Comparisons of Adult/Child Differences. The short-term studies comparing children and adults (see Table 2) show adults to be superior to children in rate. Treatment or length of residency in these studies varies from twenty-five minutes (Asher and Price 1969), an extremely short exposure time, to one year (Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle 1978a). (Compare this to Oyama's (1976) study in which the length of residence varied from five to eighteen years.) Interestingly, in Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978a), adults, while clearly superior to young children in morphology and syntax, did not do better than the twelve to fifteen year-olds. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle suggest that the different sorts of linguistic experience the groups received affected the results of their study.

2.2. Comparisons of Older and Younger Child Second Language Acquirers. The short term studies which compare older and younger children consistently show older children to be faster learners of syntax and morphology when the duration of the exposure to the second language is similar, whether the exposure to the second language is in natural (as in Table 3), or formal environments (as in Table 4).

The generalizations given here imply that younger acquirers catch up to

³ Since three out of four studies deal with pronunciation, it could be hypothesized that children are superior only for this aspect of linguistic competence. Oyama (1978) helps to counter this objection by using the sentence through noise test, considered a listening comprehension measure.

TABLE 1
Child-Adult Differences in Eventual Attainment in Second Language Acquisition

<i>Study</i>	<i>Ages Compared^a</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>L1</i>	<i>L2</i>	<i>Measures</i>	<i>Results</i>
*Asher and Garcia 1969	1-6 7-12 13-19	19 37 15	Span.	Eng.	Sentence pronunciation task, judged by high school students	1-6 year old arrivals were closer to native speaker level; 13-19 year old arrivals were farthest. Those in the US 5-8 years were better than those in the US 1-4 years.
Seliger, Krashen, and Ladefoged 1975	below 10 10-15 over 16	91 100 173	varies	Eng., Heb.	Self-report ^b	Below 10: most (85%) report no accent. 10-15: 50% report accent, 50% report no accent. Over 16: 92% report accent No effect for years lived in country. ^c
Oyama 1976	6-20	60	Ital.	Eng.	Read paragraph Tell anecdote (Rated for accent)	Correlation for accent and age of arrival in the United States ($r = -.83^d$) No correlation for accent and years in the United States ($r = -.02^e$)
Oyama 1978	6-20	60	Ital.	Eng.	Sentence through noise task	Correlation for LC and age of arrival ($r = -.57^f$) No significant correlation for LC and years in the United States ($r = -.02^g$)

^a Age of arrival in country, *not* age when tested. (Age when tested = 7-19)

^b Subjects were asked, "Do you think most ordinary Americans (Israelis) could tell now that you are not a native speaker of English (Hebrew)?"

^c Comparisons done with the "no accent", 10-15 group only, mean years = 15; S.D. = 11.5; "Accent group" mean = 20.6; S.D. = 19.4. (Reported in Krashen and Seliger 1975.)

^d Partial correlation, with years in the United States partialled out (paragraph reading score only).

^e Partial correlation, with age of arrival partialled out (paragraph reading score only).

^f Partial correlation, with years in the United States partialled out.

^g Partial correlation, with age of arrival, actual age, partialled out.

Generalization: All studies agree that those who arrive as children attain higher levels of proficiency than those who arrive as adults.

TABLE 2
Children vs. Adults in Rate of Second Language Acquisition

<i>Study</i>	<i>Duration</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>L2^a</i>	<i>Ages Compared</i>	<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Measures</i>	<i>Results</i>
Asher and Price 1969	25 minutes	134	Russian	Adult (college) 8, 10, 12 year-olds	Total Physical Response (TPR) Teaching	TPR	Adults outperformed all child groups
Olson and Samuels 1973	10 sessions	100	German	Adult (19–26) Junior High (14–15) Elementary (9.5–10.5)	“Phoneme drills”	Pronunciation	Adults = junior high Adults and Junior high students superior to elementary students
Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle 1978a	1 month–1 year	96	Dutch	3–15 year olds Adults	Natural Exposure	Pronunciation, Morphology, Imitation, Translation	12–15 best for morphology; adults next best followed by the 8–10 year-olds. Differences diminish over time.
Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle 1977	1 session	136	Dutch	5–31	Initiate 5 nonsense words, repeated 20 times.	Pronunciation	Linear increase in pronunciation according to age

^a In all cases, L1 = English.

Generalization: Adults are faster than small children, but not always better than 12–15 year olds in early stages of morphology and syntax development.

TABLE 3
Studies of Child Second Language Acquisition (Older versus Younger)
Informal Environments with Similar Length of Exposure

<i>Study</i>	<i>Time of Residence</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>L2</i>	<i>Ages^a</i>	<i>Measures</i>	<i>Results</i>
Ekstrand 1976	Up to 2 years ^b	2,189	Swedish	8-17	Listening Comprehension, reading, free writing, pronunciation, speaking	Older children did better than younger children Linear relationship with age
Fathman 1975	1-3 years	200	English	6-15	SLOPE Test, picture description	11-15 year olds superior to 6-10 year olds for morphology and syntax. 6-10 year olds better for pronunciation (See footnote 4.)
Snow and Hoefnagel- Hohle 1978a	1 month-1 year	approximately 90	Dutch	3-15	Pronunciation, morphology, Imitation, Translation	12 to 15 year-olds best for morphology and syntax; 8-10 year-olds next best. Differences diminish over time, (strongest at 1-3 months).
Ervin- Tripp 1974	maximum of 9 months	31	French	4-9	Comprehension (Acting out)	Older children superior for syntax, morphology, and pronunciation; 7-9 year-olds superior to 4-6 year-olds

^a Age at which children were tested, *not* age of arrival in new country.

^b "...only 8.3% of the pupils have a longer LOR (length of residence) than two years" (Ekstrand 1976:190)

Generalization: In all cases, older children acquire early syntax and morphology faster than younger children.

TABLE 4
Comparisons of Studies of Child Second Language Acquisition (Older versus Younger)^a
Formal or Experimental Environments with Similar Treatments

<i>Study</i>	<i>Duration</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>L2</i>	<i>Grades/Ages</i>	<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Measures</i>	<i>Results</i>
Ekstrand 1978	1 year	335	English	grades 3, 4, 5 (ages 8–11)	“Audio-visual”	Imitation, Listening Compre- hension (LC) Trans- lation	Older children better than younger children: Linear relationship between age and second language learning
Asher and Price 1969	25 minutes	96	Russian	grades 8, 10, 14	Total Physical Response (TPR)	TPR	14 year-olds best, tend to be better than 8 year-olds
Olson and Samuels 1973	10 sessions	80	German	ages 9.5–10.5; 14–15	“Phoneme Drills”	Pronun- ciation	14 to 15 group superior to 9.5–10.5 group
Florander and Jansen 1979	80 hours; 320 hours	300– 400	English	grades 4–6	EFL	Grammar Vocabulary, Reading, LC	Grade 6 superior to younger groups. Difference lessens after 320 hours.
Grinder, Otomo, and Toyota 1962	1 year	148	Japanese	grades 2–4	Audio-lingual	Vocabulary, LC, Pro- nunciation	Strong relationship between grade (age) and LC, some pro- nunciation; trend for older students to excel in vocabulary

^a See also Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1977, Table Two.

Generalization: In all cases, older children acquire faster than younger children.

older acquirers and, in the case of children compared to adults, eventually surpass them. The literature allows us to make some preliminary generalizations about the amount of time this catch-up process takes. For morphology and syntax, children apparently surpass adults in about one year. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978b) report that their 8-10 year old subjects surpassed adult acquirers of Dutch after one year on nearly all measures of syntax and morphology, and the 6-7 year olds surpassed the adults on some measures, including speech fluency. Younger children may take a little longer to catch up to older children. The 6-10 year olds in Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle's study had still not caught up to the 12-15 year old group after one year. We assume both groups eventually attain native or near-native proficiency with continued interactions in Dutch. Also, in Fathman (1975), older children (11-15) maintained a slight superiority in syntax over 6-10 year olds even after three years in the country. (This difference may not have been statistically significant, however.)⁴

A separate class of studies compares children who begin the study of second languages in formal circumstances at different ages (for example, foreign language in the elementary school, FLES, beginning at age eight is compared to FLES at age eleven.) The results of such studies usually indicate that children starting FLES later catch up to those beginning earlier. For instance, Burstall's 1975 study, involving several thousand children studying French in elementary schools, essentially reports no differences in French attainment between those starting French at ages eight and eleven and those starting French at age sixteen. Similar results have been reported in other studies, summarized in Table 5.

This finding could be considered consistent with Generalization Two (that older children acquire faster than younger children); the younger children in these studies acquired at a so much slower pace than the older children that extra time counted for very little. Other explanations are also possible. For example, in Oller and Nagoto's (1974) study, those who had early FLES were mixed

⁴Several studies also report that older children acquire phonological competence (pronunciation) faster than younger children (Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Ekstrand, 1976, for example). Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1977) report that the ability to imitate nonsense words in a second language increases linearly with age, using subjects 5 to 31. Fathman (1975), however, reports that her younger subjects were superior to her older subjects. This difference may be due to the different age groups studied (Ervin-Tripp compared 7-9 to 4-6 year olds, Ekstrand's sample consisted of 8-11 year olds, while Fathman compared 11-15 year olds to 6-10 year olds) or length of exposure; Fathman's subjects were in the United States from one to three years while maximum length of exposure for Ervin-Tripp's subjects was nine months. As we have seen earlier, it may take quite a while for syntax in younger children to catch up to the level attained by older children. Phonological competence, however, may catch up very rapidly. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1977) report that "age differences (in pronunciation of Dutch as a second language) disappeared by 4-5 months after starting to learn the second language . . . by 10-11 months . . . the younger children still excelled in pronouncing some sounds, though there was still no overall age difference" (p. 357). (Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle also report, however, that even after 18 months, few subjects were native-like, regardless of age.) Thus, the younger children in Fathman's study may have caught up with and (temporarily) surpassed the older children in pronunciation. In Ervin-Tripp's study, there may not have been enough time for this to have taken place. Asher and Garcia, however, report that their subjects who were in the United States from 5-8 years outperformed those in the United States 1-4 years on their pronunciation task. This result implies that acquisition of phonology may take somewhat longer. Further research may settle this issue.

TABLE 5
Child Second Language Studies: Formal Environments with Dissimilar Amounts of Exposure
(Older Children Catch-up Studies)

<i>Study</i>	<i>Ages/Grades Compared</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>L1</i>	<i>L2</i>	<i>Measures</i>	<i>Results</i>
Burstall 1975	starting FLES at age 8 <i>versus</i> starting at age 11	approx. 17,000	English	French		At age 16, no difference (except in LC) ^a group starting at age 8 = group starting at age 11
Bland & Keisler 1966	Kindergarten <i>versus</i> grade five	4 6	English	French	oral production	Fifth graders took less time to reach criterion (4.5 hours vs. 12.5–17.5 hrs.).
Oller & Nagato 1974	7th, 8th, and 9th grades; one group had FLES in grades 1–6, the other did not.	233	Japanese	English	cloze	+FLES superior to –FLES at grade 7; less difference at grade 9; no difference at grade 11
Rameriz & Politzer 1978	ESL/BE starting in junior high school <i>versus</i> ESL/BE starting in kindergarten	21 46	Spanish	English	LC production	After ½ year, junior high school students nearly at grade 3 level
Vocolo 1967	“second year high school French” tenth graders with one year high school French <i>versus</i> ninth graders with 3 years FLES (grades 5–8)	31 31	English	French	MLCT	3 years FLES group only slightly better than group with one year of high school French

^a Abbreviations:
FLES = Foreign Language in the Elementary School
LC = Listening Comprehension
BE = Bilingual Education
MLCT = Modern Language Cooperative Test

Generalization: FLES studies show that older children catch up to children who have had earlier FLES.

in with those who had no FLES; thus the early starters may have had to mark time (p. 18) while the others caught up.

3. Discussion

The literature provides no evidence which is seriously inconsistent with any of the above generalizations. Walburg et al. showed that language proficiency of children of Japanese businessmen was directly related to time in the United States and not the age of arrival, a finding which Walburg et al. consider to be counter to the "Optimal Age Hypothesis." Their study is not even potentially in conflict with Generalizations One and Three, however, since no adults were actually involved in the study. Subjects' ages at the time of testing ranged from six to fifteen and most had been in the United States a range from zero to twelve years.

Although the study by Walburg et al. differs from others in failing to find a superiority for older versus younger children, this may be due to the measures used (self-report, teacher-report); tests which specifically focus on syntax and morphology might show more agreement with other studies. Also, there may have been enough time for the younger children to have caught up to the older children; recall that most subjects had been in the United States "three to four years" and some stayed as long as twelve years. It should be emphasized that Walburg et al. *agree* with other studies in failing to find a superiority for the younger child with respect to rate of acquisition.

To conclude, the available literature is consistent with the generalizations presented earlier. Any hypothesis dealing with the relationship between age, rate, and eventual attainment in second language acquisition needs to account for the data from the variety of studies presented here, as does any general theory of language acquisition. Moreover, any educational decisions pertaining to second language learning and teaching (e.g., FLES, bilingual education) must also consider all of the empirical evidence.

REFERENCES

- Asher, J. and R. Garcia. 1969. The optimal age to learn a foreign language. *Modern Language Journal* 8: 334-341.
- Asher, J. and B. Price. 1969. The learning strategy of total physical response: Some age differences. *Child Development* 38: 1219-1227.
- Bland, M. and E. Keisler. 1966. A self-controlled audio-lingual program for children. *French Review* 40: 266-276.
- Burstall, C. 1975. Primary French in the balance. *Educational Research* 17, June: 193-198.
- Ekstrand, L. 1976. Age and length of residence as variables related to the adjustment of migrant children, with special reference to second language learning. In G. Nickel (Ed.) *Proceedings of the Fourth International Congress of Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 3. Stuttgart. HochschulVerlag. 179-197.
- Ekstrand, L. 1978. Bilingual and bicultural adaptation. *Educational and Psychological Interactions*. Dept. of Educational and Psychological Research. School of Education, Malmo, Sweden. 86.
- Ervin-Tripp, S. 1974. Is second language learning like the first? *TESOL Quarterly* 8, 2: 111-127.

- Fathman, A. 1975. The relationship between age and second language learning productive ability. *Language Learning* 25, 2.
- Grinder, R., A. Otomo, and W. Toyota. 1962. Comparisons between second, third, and fourth grade children in the audio-lingual learning of Japanese as a second language. *The Journal of Educational Research* 56, 4: 463-469.
- Krashen, S. and H. Seliger. 1975. Maturation constraints in the acquisition of a second language and a second dialect. *Language Sciences* 38: 28-29.
- McLaughlin, B. 1977. Second language learning in children. *Psychological Bulletin* 84, 435-457.
- Oller, J. and N. Nagato. 1974. The long term effect of FLES. *The Modern Language Journal* 58, 1-2:1.5-19.
- Olson, L. and S. Samuels. 1973. The relationship between age and accuracy of foreign language pronunciation. *Journal of Educational Research* 66: 263-267.
- Oyama, S. 1976. A sensitive period for the acquisition of a non-native phonological system. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* 5: 261-285.
- Oyama, S. 1978. The sensitive period and comprehension of speech. *Working Papers on Bilingualism* 16; 1-17.
- Seliger, H., S. Krashen and P. Ladefoged. 1975. Maturation constraints in the acquisition of second language accent. *Language Sciences* 36: 20-22.
- Snow, C. and M. Hoefnagel-Hohle. 1977. Age differences in pronunciation of foreign sounds. *Language and Speech* 20, 4: 357-65.
- Snow, C. and M. Hoefnagel-Hohle. 1978a. Age differences in second language acquisition. In E. Hatch (Ed.) *Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 333-344.
- Snow, C. and M. Hoefnagel-Hohle. 1978b. The critical period for language acquisition: evidence from second language acquisition. *Child Development* 49: 1114-1128.
- Vocolo, J. 1967. The effect of foreign language study in the elementary school upon achievement in the same foreign language in high school. *The Modern Language Journal* 51, 8:463-469.
- Walburg, H., K. Hase, and S. Pinzur Rasher. 1978. English acquisition as a diminishing function of experience rather than age. *TESOL Quarterly* 12, 4: 427-437.

Reviews

ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY.

Mary Todd Trimble, Louis Trimble, and Karl Drobnic (Eds). Corvallis, Oregon: English Language Institute, Oregon State University, 1978. Pp. iv + 407.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in the area of English for Specific Purposes, and a relatively large number of publications has appeared. The Trimbles, along with Larry Selinker, John Lackstrom, and Karl Drobnic have been the most active of the writers in the United States. This book, as the editors point out, tries

... not just to touch on a few points of scientific and technical English and examine them briefly in relation to non-technical English—an area that has been well covered in recent years—but to reach out to those who might need assistance in presenting EST in the classroom or to those who might want to know what EST is and how it works. (Foreword)

The editors admit that “the articles were chosen on the basis that what each has to say is important in one or more ways to the teaching of, the understanding of, or to the development of materials for scientific and technical English.” As a result, the book is somewhat uneven. Many of the articles are excellent, but a few are indeed weak.

The book contains 18 articles in five parts, and two appendices. The first of the appendices is a glossary of scientific and technical rhetorical terms. The 48 terms defined leave a good deal to be desired. The list is peculiar both in terms of its inclusions and in terms of its exclusions. Some of the descriptions are terribly technical and—in some cases—unclear, and some of them are in conflict with well-established notions. One would do better to look in a traditional rhetoric handbook. The second appendix is a bibliography of 179 items, 80% of which have appeared in the last ten years (1969-1978), and 50% of which were published since 1973. Most of the important scholars in the field are represented here, and the bibliography is quite useful. Incidentally, 13 of the 18 articles in the book also have bibliographies appended, accounting for a total of 125 additional items, but there is a fair amount of duplication among these bibliographies, and between them and the main bibliography in the appendix.

The first section of articles constitutes an overview and an update of what is still a very new area of language teaching. The lead article, a reprint of Selinker's 1968 review of Croft & Walker, *Science Readings*, is clearly dated, but it serves adequately as a retrospect. The second article, by John Hitchcock, is a good general survey of the field, useful in that it particularizes some of the characteristics of ESP register and provides a quite good supplementary bibliography. The article is very broad in its scope, and the first part is a bit poignant in the

light of recent political events in Iran from the fall of the Pahlavi government to date.

EST and Teaching is the title of the second part, containing three articles, by Lackstrom, the Trimbles, and Marsha Hara. Lackstrom's article presents

. . . a means of presentation in which the modals appear in the [EST] syllabus only as adjuncts to the teaching of discourse performances through discourse-frames and passages from technical and scientific reports. Such an approach identifies modals as constants in performances of certain types of discourse. By this means, the modals are spread out across the syllabus. . . . (p. 71)

The article by the Trimbles makes a useful distinction between scientific texts and manuals. It provides both a good typology of manuals and good examples for actual classroom use. Hara's article is directed toward reading. The materials she presents, based on a project for Asian immigrants funded under the federal manpower program, are intended for intermediate and advanced level students of heterogeneous background who will be studying in vocational or trade programs. They are very practical, providing a variety of exercise types supplemented by good instructions for using them, including specific objectives, though their level strikes me as somewhat lower than the author claims.

The next part consists of four articles which undertake contrasts between discourse styles in several languages: Japanese, Macedonia, and Spanish. Two of the articles appear to have been written by students at the University of Washington. The first article, by Thomas Mage, claims to demonstrate the universal characteristics of technical paragraphs whose basic function involves classification or definition. The article looks specifically at conceptual paragraphs (rather than typographical paragraphs) in Spanish, but it does not specify which Spanish is involved (e.g., Peninsular Spanish, Puerto Rican Spanish, Cuban Spanish, Mexican Spanish, etc.), and it ignores much of the work done by Sr. Olga Santana-Seda, Ramcm Santiago, and Jerry Strei with reference to paragraph structure in Puerto Rican Spanish (albeit not in technical writing). Evica Konečni deals with Macedonian. Since Macedonian is not a language that everyone can handle, the sample paragraphs are presented in English translation, presumably prepared by the author, and one must take on faith the accuracy of the translation in rhetorical terms. Eiko Sugimoto treats the Japanese paragraph in a similar manner. This article is badly flawed in printing; the pages are incorrectly ordered (pp. 183-187-184-185-186-188) making it difficult to follow. Some of the analyses presented are very dubious. Indeed, these three articles constitute some of the weakest points in the book. All three articles try to demonstrate that the functions of description, definition, and classification are similar in the languages examined. No one would argue that all of the languages have mechanisms for dealing with the three rhetorical functions; the issue is whether the various languages deal with those functions *in the same way*, and that problem is not dealt with at least with respect to the ways in which syntactic functions contribute to rhetorical forms. The final article in the group, by Setsuko and Kaoru Kojima, deals with the use of passive transforms with inanimate

subjects in Japanese. It is a very useful article, carefully documented, though to the extent that it goes beyond the specific transformation, its claims are probably too great for the data. It is clearly the best article in this section.

The fourth part contains five articles relating EST with linguistics. The first piece, by Patricia Byrd, is a rather weak paper designed for absolute beginners; indeed, its burden seems to be no more than the fact that a knowledge of grammar is useful to the EST materials developer. Marianne Inman's article dealing with EST lexicon will be useful to teachers and reassuring in the sense that it demonstrates the vulnerability of technical terminology. Ljerka Bartolic's article on nominal compounds is up to her usual standard of quality. She provides a good sample of two-to six-word compounds and demonstrates that

if the meaning of a compound cannot be grasped in a straightforward way it is advisable to break it down into sense units and interpret them as post-positional strictures. This often cannot be done unless the reader has an adequate technical knowledge. . . . (p. 275)

Robert Bley-Vroman attempts "an outline of what [he believes] to be the major aspects of an adequate theory of technical rhetoric" (p. 278). Such a theory, he posits, will

. . . contain a description of possible purposes, and of possible devices. And these descriptions take into account various discourse levels. The core of the theory is a set of principles which associate purpose and device and determine the conditions under which a purpose-device pair, called an *enthymeme*, is appropriate. (p. 287)

But, despite the new terminology, the framework seems very tentative, and it is hard to see ways in which the article will be useful to practitioners. The last piece in this part, by Barbara Rasch, deals with verbal complementation. The article is very jargony and, regrettably, not very clear.

The final section of the text deals with curriculum development. The first article, by Drobnic, is a very useful case-study of a particular program for Taiwanese scientists. The paper is practical, dealing not only directly with curriculum design but also by implication with program administration. Hirayama-Grant's paper is also highly practical, dealing specifically with a set of problems in materials-design. The final paper in the book is co-authored by Patrick Carmichael, Judy Cooper and Ann Johns, but it is likely to be the work of Ann Johns principally. It is the only paper in the book on the English of Business and Economics (EBE), an area in which Ms. Johns is virtually the only authority. The paper will be helpful to materials writers, and it contains a good sampling of exercise types.

Though the anthology is clearly uneven, most of the articles are not available anywhere else (only 4 are reprints and only two are previous conference papers), and a number of the articles are very useful. The best parts are the practical parts; thus, the book is likely to prove most useful to teachers and materials writers. But it is clear that the theoretical portions are weak; indeed, it is perhaps too early for a theory of EST rhetoric. In general, however, everyone concerned

with EST/EBE teaching, curriculum design, and material development should have a copy close at hand. It is the best such thing available in the U. S., and it will compete favorably with those which have been developed elsewhere.

Robert M. Kaplan
University of Southern California

READ ON, SPEAK OUT. Linda A. Ferreira and Marjorie Vai. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1979. Pp. vi + 88.

Unlike many ESL reading texts that promise much more than they can possibly deliver, *Read On, Speak Out* is refreshingly different, offering the serious student far more than the authors humbly claim in their introduction. While the immediate goals of this brief text are to provide reading material to help advanced level ESL students improve their reading comprehension, expand their vocabulary, and develop more highly-refined discussion skills, the topics that are dealt with in the reading material provide much more—a cultural introduction to the major controversial issues confronting both American society and other societies experiencing rapid changes in values.

The authors' choice of topics discussed in the magazine-style articles that introduce each of the 10 units is unique. In addition to providing a vehicle for vocabulary practice and reading comprehension exercises, these topics serve as the springboard for lively discussions of such contemporary issues as the energy crisis, test tube babies, and the changing role of the family in the twentieth century. An understanding of these issues will help break down some of the cultural barriers facing even advanced level students, allowing them to communicate without being limited by a lack of cultural understanding of some of the major issues affecting life in the U. S. (see Johnson 1979: viii).

These articles differ from much that has been written supposedly with the advanced ESL student in mind, by being sophisticated not only in content but also in lexical and syntactic complexity, thus giving university-bound students the opportunity to develop under controlled conditions the skill necessary to cope with academic-level material.

This text performs a major service by helping students develop valuable strategies for self-study—strategies that international students often lack when they first enter American universities. For example, the articles are to be read and the exercises prepared entirely at home, as in college-level academic courses. Just as important is that the articles require the students to use contextual clues to guess at the meanings of new words and idiomatic expressions. Many of the unfamiliar lexical items are found in contexts that suggest, or at least restrict, their meanings, so that the student can “minimize his dependence on the dictionary and at the same time gain a more precise understanding of the word's meaning in the particular sentence” (Norris 1975: 207). The authors have included also a brief glossary to which the students can refer should they encounter particularly troublesome words or phrases.

Comprehension questions and vocabulary-building exercises immediately follow the article. The most interesting are the analogy exercises, challenging word puzzles which give the students practice in discovering the wide range of possible relationships between sets of words. Such exercises are much more effective than other vocabulary-building exercises, for, as the students struggle to balance both sides of the analogy, they must show that they understand not only the meaning of the words but also the various fine meaning distinctions that words may have.

The majority of exercises in the text, however, are designed to assure that the information the students have gained in reading has been for some purpose. This "Speak Out" section of the text encourages the students to read with critical awareness—an important skill that any university student must develop.

The first step toward getting the students to develop a critical awareness of what they read is taken in the "Discussion" exercises—those that encourage the students to systematically compare their native culture to that of their new environment, without making strict value judgments of either culture. Such exercises help the students become aware of, and have respect for, other cultures, thus making their reading more purposeful.

The second step is taken by the "Pro-Con" and "In Your Opinion" exercises. In outline form, the "Pro-Con" exercises present the key arguments and counter-arguments for the answers to such questions as "Should laboratory human fertilization be allowed?" (p. 23), and "Should taxpayers support an expanding welfare state?" (p. 79). The "In Your Opinion" exercises direct the students to use the specialized vocabulary found in the articles as they prepare to take a stand on, and defend, their position on questions that arise from the particular issue discussed in the reading. It is through exercises such as these that students learn a valuable lesson: reading with critical awareness is an exciting way to learn.

The final exercises in each unit, serving to integrate the skills developed in earlier exercises, are the "Making Decisions" exercises. These are case studies of individuals who are in the process of struggling with one of the controversial points brought out in the reading. It is the students' job to place themselves in the position of the person portrayed in the case study, analyze the options available to them, and arrive at a solution to the dilemma.

However, there is one major drawback to this text: the authors provide no preparatory or pre-reading exercises, suggesting only that the instructor spend "10 or 15 minutes reviewing the main ideas of the articles before they are assigned for home study" (p. v). In place of such a general suggestion, the authors should have included pre-reading exercises that specifically direct the students' attention to the purpose of the reading.

It is a supplemental text such as this that will help university-bound, advanced ESL students "learn to read in order to be able later on to read to learn" (Kobayashi 1968: 192). And in the process of learning to Read On with critical awareness and to Speak Out expressively, the students are also gaining

cultural insights into some of the controversial issues facing rapidly-changing societies in the twentieth century.

REFERENCES

- Johnson, Jerriou. 1979. *Living language: USA culture capsules for ESL students*. Rowley, Mass. Newbury House Publishers.
- Kobayashi, Yuko. 1968. A new look at reading in the college program. *Essays and Studies* 19, No. 1. Reprinted in *The art of TESOL: Selected articles from the English Teaching Forum*, 1975: 188-195.
- Norris, William E. 1970. Advanced reading: Goals, techniques, procedures. *TESOL Quarterly* 4. Reprinted in *The art of TESOL: Selected articles from the English Teaching Forum*, 1975: 201-209.

Patrick T. Kameen
University of Louisville

GUIDE TO LANGUAGE AND STUDY SKILLS FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE. Anne V. Martin, Beverley McChesney, Elizabeth Whalley and Edward Devlin. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1977. Pp. xii + 276.

Recent ESL materials have shown an increasing sensitivity to the social or professional situations in which learners will be using English. Materials of this kind can be of great benefit, especially to students who are already living in English-speaking communities. *Guide to Language and Study Skills* is consistent with this new tradition of interest in how a second language is to be used: it is specifically intended for use in American academic life.

As the title implies, the *Guide* is a study skills text written for college-level ESL students who are or will be studying at American universities. Although the authors feel it can be used by both graduate and undergraduate students, for reasons I will give later I think it is generally better suited to undergraduates. In a sense, the *Guide* is hard to characterize, since it combines material from several skill areas: grammar points, vocabulary of several types, tips on using library facilities, and steps involved in writing term papers. Perhaps the *Guide* can best be described as an ESL student handbook. Although the pointers it includes are practical, the *Guide* does not relate them to more basic processes, such as learning to construct a coherent paragraph; it is important, therefore, to note that the *Guide* treats skills of a relatively mechanical nature, and not the kind of functional abilities which are stressed in English for Academic Purposes curricula (cf. Gowie & Heaton 1977).

The material in the book is organized into five distinct chapters, a flexible format which allow the chapters to be used as they appear, separately, or rearranged.

Grammar points in the first chapter include such typical problem areas as the present perfect tense, the word order of reported speech, basic spelling and punctuation rules, articles, and passives, the last two in particular treated carefully and thoroughly. The authors focus on the use of passives in general aca-

demic writing, and include a very helpful list of verbs used most often in the active voice (*to consist of*) or the passive (*to be comprised of*).

The second chapter reviews certain processes of word-formation: negative prefixes, noun agent suffixes and verb-forming suffixes. Perhaps too much practice is given to these patterns; since there are other difficult derivational processes such as nominalization which seem to be important in academic writing yet are not reviewed in the *Guide*, it is not completely clear why the authors have chosen these particular areas for study. The *Guide* may need to be supplemented in other areas of grammar as well: Chapters 1 and 2 do not cover modals, connective, or discourse functions such as reference or other methods of tying sentences together.

On the whole, the material in Chapters 1 and 2 is quite helpful, especially if teachers are careful to relate these isolated grammar points to the writing students will be doing in their courses. The exercises vary appropriately in degree of control and in type, though leaning heavily on fill-ins, some of which seem too long, too simple or too numerous for the point being practiced. However, these exercises are just right for individual remedial work. In this respect, Chapters 1 and 2 easily accommodate students at differing levels of ability, a virtue not often found in advanced materials.

Basic vocabulary is given in Chapter 3, which revolves around everyday topics such as insurance, common illnesses and characteristics of people. Many adjectives are introduced and practiced here; although they seem somewhat arbitrarily chosen, the chapter as a whole seems intuitively worthwhile, practical either for classwork or for individual vocabulary-building. Since many university-bound ESL students have had more exposure to technical or written English than to more commonplace topics, catching up on survival vocabulary is important for them, even though they may be advanced in other skill areas. In Chapter 3, the authors have included a section on vocabulary which can be used to discuss and evaluate university courses, and critical terms which might appear in reviews of books or movies. This section is unusually practical; it would be even more valuable if supplemented with class discussions of the cultural attitudes which shape such evaluations of academic or scholarly work. Useful academic vocabulary appears throughout the *Guide*; readers may have already been introduced to some of it in Martin's previous article (1976).

If Chapters 1-3 are most useful for individual work, Chapters 4 and 5, which emphasize actual studying and paper-writing techniques, are probably best used for combined homework and in-class exercises. Chapter 4 covers the kinds of examinations often given in American courses and contains a very helpful though general introduction to the vocabulary of research and research reports. The exercises in this section are more challenging than the ones in earlier chapters, because these are based on real journal articles, which provide more complex grammatical structures and vocabulary in more realistic contexts.

Techniques of note-taking, outlining, writing summaries, paraphrasing and writing abstracts conclude Chapter 4. In general, these are presented clearly,

with some insightful comments about the importance of paraphrase in academic writing. I have not found any other study skills text which addresses all these important matters. However, the *Guide* does not relate these skills to the functions they can serve in writing: summary is presented and practiced by itself, but its functions are not covered (e.g. in an introduction or conclusion to a piece of writing). Although students are asked to practice paraphrasing, they are not told how and why to paraphrase.

The last chapter of the *Guide* describes the steps involved in writing an American term paper, beginning with a crucial and practical note about the importance of avoiding plagiarism in writing. This idea is explored more thoroughly in an outstanding discussion of documentation, which includes, for example, how and why to use introductory expressions like "According to . . .". The processes of constructing a paper are presented explicitly, from use of library references, selecting and limiting a topic, through writing a rough draft. Alternative forms of footnoting and preparing bibliographies are given in detail; this section is a bit confusing and might have benefitted from more diagrams and shorter explanations. Stylistic conventions, typing procedures and common formats are included too. Finally, the authors have offered two well-organized examples of student term papers as an extremely useful appendix to the *Guide*. This chapter will be especially helpful to students who have not been asked to do a lot of writing in their native countries. A short note on the organization of paragraphs and larger units of academic writing would have been appropriate here.

The *Guide* seems to me most valuable for its practical choice of material and its unusually sensible emphasis on academic requirements. It seems best suited to undergraduate students for two major reasons: first, because it addresses itself to academic writing in general, rather than to the requirements of more technical writing in specific disciplines, which might be more important at the graduate level; and second, because its instructions, vocabulary and grammar points are in relatively simple language, most appropriate for high intermediate ESL students who might not be ready for graduate studies in English. The *Guide* can serve such students very well in any one of several capacities: as a remedial workbook for independent study, in some cases as a classroom text, or as a handbook for later reference. In addition, it is a valuable reference for any English composition teacher dealing with foreign university students, partly because it has pinpointed grammar problems which might not be covered in classes for native speakers.

At the same time, the *Guide* lacks both depth and variety in presentation and practice. Its effectiveness is hampered by its simple language, by its attempt to cover so many potentially complex areas, and by its failure to take into account cultural differences among students, except implicitly (I assume) in its choice of contents, e.g., the thorough treatment of articles in Chapter 1. Also, although its choice of material does represent an important new interest in language use, many of its presentations and exercises still remain tied to the long-standing

tradition of teacher-centered ESL materials. Nevertheless, I am convinced that *Guide to Language and Study Skills* pushes ESL materials development in a very worthwhile direction. Used with a composition text, it will provide a solid introduction to the use of English in university work.

REFERENCES

- Cowrie, A. P. & J. B. Heaton (Eds.). 1977. English for academic purposes. A BAAL/SELMOUS Publication.
 Martin, Anne V. 1976. Teaching academic vocabulary to foreign graduate students. *TESOL Quarterly* 10, 1.

Cristin Carpenter
 University of Michigan

PIDGINS, CREOLES AND LINGUA FRANCA: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC STUDY. Max K. Adler. Hamburg: Helmut Buske Verlag, 1977. Pp. v + 146.

In spite of its attractive title, this is an extremely amateurish, jejune, and sophomoric work which suffers from incredibly poor scholarship and even poorer editorial work. Presumably intended as an introduction to the field of pidgins, creoles, and lingua franca (or at least to their sociolinguistic aspects), the book is divided into four parts; sociological aspects of pidgins and creoles (I), sociological aspects of specific pidgins and creoles (II), lingua franca (III), and conclusion (IV). Each part, in turn, is subdivided into chapters, of which there are twenty. The back matter is limited to a 217-item bibliography.

Mistakes and infelicities of all kinds abound in this slender, very expensive (US. \$13.00) paperback. The following are representative of the factual or substantive type: the Virgin Islands are discussed in the chapter on the Pacific (p. 84); Louisiana is described as "one of the constituent *countries* of the U. S. A." (77-78; italics mine); Guyanese is said to be spoken in French Guiana (73); Sranan-Tongo and "Town-Negro," or Taki-Taki, are presented as different languages (70), as are Melanesian Pidgin and Neo-Melanesian (cf., 81ff., 87ff.); and Papiamentu is equated with the early Portuguese pidgin/creole "which spread to the West Indies, the East Indies, and to the east coast of Africa, and even to the Persian Gulf" (45).

Glaring omissions also are by no means lacking. The section on Hawaii (84-86), for example, contains virtually nothing pertaining to Hawaiian English studies done in the 1960s and 1970s. Similarly, the treatment of Papiamentu (61) suffers because important works by scholars like Lenz (1928) were completely ignored. But the most conspicuous lacunae are to be found in dissertations, the periodical literature, and reference or resource works, such as Hymes (1971).

Defects and shortcomings in English, mechanics, and style are legion. Here are a few examples: *prodigy* is used for *progeny* (3), *indigent* for *indigenous* (54), *ripe* for *rife* (89), *lead* for *led* (97), *wield* for *weld* (102, 109, and *their* for *there* (132). Variations in spelling can cause problems until one finally concludes that they must all be in free variation—e.g., *Pidgin/pidgin/Pidgins/pidgins*.

Words like *whilst* and *intercourse* are used too often. The frequent shifts in style from formal to informal are distracting and inappropriate—e. g., *States* for *United States* (34) and the last paragraph on p. 38 reads like a travelogue. Typographical errors are often corrected (when corrected at all) by means of strikeouts—perhaps a few even by hand. And the brand of English used is very stilted and unidiomatic. The result is a work which is not only aesthetically displeasing but also hard to read and sometimes very difficult or impossible to decipher (see, for example, the opening sentence of the last paragraph on p. 115).

The most irksome and troublesome flaws, however, are bibliographical in nature. The careful reader will find numerous discrepancies between the shortened references given in the text of the work and their corresponding full forms cited in the back of the book. Generally these discrepancies are in reference numbers, page numbers, or a combination of the two. Entries such as "Nida & Williams" (31), instead of "Nida & [William L.] Wonderly," or "Robson-Jobson" (146), for "Hobson-Jobson," may indeed be humorous but merely add to the general confusion in the final analysis. Faulty listings are misleading. For example, items 94 and 95 in the bibliography (139) are actually the same work by Le Page (1964), the inclusion of the subtitle in 95 notwithstanding. Likewise, as cited in both the text and the bibliography, two of Taylor's publications will lead the reader astray unless the following emendations are made on p. 144: item 171 is Taylor (1961) and item 172 is Taylor (1963). Finally, but not surprisingly, the following corrections need to be made on p. 141 in a single bibliographical entry for Reinecke and Tokimasa (1934): the co-author's given name is "Aiko," the preposition used in the title of the article is "of," and the correct pagination is "48-58, 122-131."

In short, this is an inadequately researched, badly written, and poorly printed book that will tax the patience of specialists and nonspecialists alike. To put it mildly, it makes the author look like a simpleton and/or pariah. Potential readers are strongly advised to look elsewhere for a better introductory survey of the languages concerned.

REFERENCES

- Hymes, Dell (Eds.) 1971. *Pidginization and creolization of languages*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Lenz, Rodolfo. 1928. *El papiamentu, la lengua criolla de Curazao (la gramática más sencilla)*. Santiago de Chile: Balcels & Cia.
- Le Page, Robert B. 1964. *The national language question: Linguistic problems of newly independent states*. London and New York: (Oxford University Press.
- Reinecke, John E., and Aiko Tokimasa. 1934. The English dialect of Hawaii. *American Speech* 9, 1: 48-58, 2: 122-131.
- Taylor, Douglas. 1961. New languages for old in the West Indies. *Comparative Studies in Society and History* 3, 3: 277-288.
- Taylor, Douglas. 1963. The origin of West Indian creole languages: Evidence from grammatical categories. *American Anthropologist* 65, 4: 800-814.

Stanley M. Tsuzaki
University of Hawaii

ADAPTATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING. Harold S. Madsen and J. Donald Bowen. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, 1978, Pp. xii + 251.

Recent years have witnessed the publication of numerous TESL methodology manuals. Nevertheless, despite the undeniably important role that the adaptation of existing materials and techniques plays in successful language instruction, Madsen and Bowen's *Adaptation in Language Teaching* is the only major treatment of adaptation to appear in the language teaching field since 1971, when Earl Stevick produced *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons*. In contrast with Stevick's book, which deals primarily with the more exotic languages and rather unusual teaching circumstances, *Adaptation in Language Teaching* is concerned mainly with the frequently taught languages and more common classroom situations. That Stevick has written the foreword to Madsen and Bowen's book evidences the absence of competition between the two books.

Adaptation in Language Teaching's uniqueness, however, is not the only thing that recommends it. Concentrating on the practical aspects of language teaching, Madsen and Bowen draw upon their considerable experience with the mainstream of foreign language teaching, both in the United States and abroad. They cover the principles and techniques of adaptation exceptionally well, making their book a welcome addition to the literature of language teaching.

The rationale behind *Adaptation in Language Teaching* is that successful language teaching depends, to a large degree, on effective adaptation. In support of this concept, Stevick, in his foreword, reminds the reader that, although the writing of materials and the devising of methods have long been the traditional sources of recognition within the language teaching profession, "the success, either of methods or of materials, depends on what their users do with them." If successful, principled adaptation is to be expected, training in this critically important area must be provided.

Although it approaches adaptation from a number of directions, the entire book is based on one unifying principle: effective adaptation is a matter of achieving *congruence*—harmony among the many related elements of the instructional situation. Adaptation takes three forms—individualizing, modifying, and compensating—and utilizes any of a wide variety of techniques—supplementing, editing, expanding, personalizing, simplifying, etc.—but the end goal, the achievement of congruence, is always the same.

Madsen and Bowen cover a wide variety of forms and techniques of adaptation in a systematic, organized way. This organization does more than ensure thorough coverage of the topic. Supplemented by a helpful table of contents and a detailed index, it makes the book useful not only as a text for teachers in training but also as a resource for practicing teachers with varying needs and orientations.

Section 1 discusses contextualization—the textbook and the real world. Entering into this discussion are situational realism (Are the materials congruent

with the aims and interests of the student?), linguistic realism (Is the language of the lesson realistic?), and realistic oral interpretation (Is the oral rendition of the text material in the classroom satisfactory?). Section 2 goes over usage problems—linguistic deficiencies in texts and contemporary usage—illustrating them with abundant examples. Section 3 deals with language variety and the challenges involved in choosing the appropriate register, standardizing unusual varieties of English, and simplifying difficult language. The fourth section of *Adaptation in Language Teaching* is concerned with administrative and pedagogical topics, particularly with objectives, motivation, and native speaker texts.

Following Section 4, four appendices make up the final portion of the book. Unlike other books, which merely supply supplementary or explanatory details, these appendices are complementary—the work of reputable practitioners in textbook analysis and evaluation.

Many features of *Adaptation in Language Teaching* should make it popular with its primary audience, classroom teachers and teachers in training. First among these is the authors' use of an engaging, straightforward, highly readable style; the frequent use of the pronoun "we" invites the reader to join in a partnership with the authors. To quote Stevick again, "In effect, two master craftsmen are inviting the reader to walk at their side as they deal with a broad spectrum of the practical issues that we all face as we ply our trade."

A second, related feature which will make the book welcome among practicing teachers is its practical emphasis on what the authors have found workable in the classroom. *Adaptation in Language Teaching* is not a highly theoretical text. Rather, it is a down-to-earth presentation of common problems and explanations of how to handle them, plentifully illustrated with real-life examples.

The justification for the existence of a book like *Adaptation in Language Teaching* is the assumption that no text is perfect; all need adaptation in some way. The reader should be advised that this book is no exception to that rule. The first and most obvious of its drawbacks is that, in spite of its broad language teaching title, the book is aimed primarily at teachers of English as a second or foreign language. All of the many examples it uses are in English, although that alone would be acceptable. English is the sensible choice for examples in an English text for English speaking foreign language teachers. The use of multilingual examples would inhibit comprehension by less-than-multilingual readers. A more limiting feature, however, is the attention given to particular features of English which, although of critical importance to teachers of ESL/EFL, would be of little interest to teachers of other languages. In particular, special attention is given to features of natural English pronunciation (nearly all of the chapter on realistic oral interpretation is devoted to illustrating English reduction, assimilation, and contraction) and usage (an entire thirty-page chapter treats "Old Wives Tales," usage changes, and idiosyncrasies and special difficulties of English usage). Portions of Chapter 4 (Incomplete Presentations), the last section of the final chapter (Adapting Native Speaker Texts), and Appendix 4 (Graph for Estimating Readability) are other sections which would

be of little use to teachers of languages other than English. This criticism should not be interpreted to mean that *Adaptation in Language Teaching* would not be useful to non-ESL/EFL teachers, however. The remainder of the book and the adaptation principles presented and explained therein can be recommended to teachers of any language. Non-ESL/EFL teachers should simply be aware that some parts of the book will not apply to their particular teaching situations, and in such cases they should apply the adaptation strategy of deletion.

It is natural to expect some repetition and, at times, even contradiction in a book written by two authors working, for the most part, separately and independently, and some problems of this sort can be found in *Adaptation in Language Teaching*. One almost suspects that at times the cause of the repetition is not so much lack of coordination between authors as it is their insistence on making a point. For example, the case for the realistic use of reduction, assimilation, and contraction in spoken English is presented thoroughly and appropriately in Chapter 3 (Realistic Oral Interpretation). One wonders, then, why the same argument keeps popping up at other points in the text (pp. 26-27, 63-64, 126, and 189). Bowen's obvious interest in these particular aspects of English pronunciation, as evidenced in his book *Patterns of English Pronunciation*, is one possible explanation.

Certain points regarding English grammar and usage are made repeatedly also, and in some cases their repetition involves an apparent contradiction. For example, one section (The Need to Clarify) stresses the importance of providing students with clear, logical explanations of why, how, and when particular features or structures of English are used. In this section, the aspect system of English verbs is used to show how confusion about when to use the present perfect can be reduced by providing a clear, logical explanation (p. 78). However, no reference to either logic or clarity is made in a later section (Idiosyncrasies and Special Difficulties) where time reference in the present perfect is again used as an example but is only described as being "complicated and "subtle" (p. 107). Then, when a third use of simple past vs. present perfect as an example is made (p. 189), it is harmonious with the first instance ("students will learn . . . when they start to grasp the aspect meaning of verbs") but discordant with the more recent one. While these instances do not involve outright contradiction (it is conceivable that the aspect system of English verbs could be clear yet subtle), the shifting of attitude from logic to idiosyncrasy and back again is potentially confusing.

A final objection which may be raised is the occasional use of statements with which some would flatly disagree (when looking for ESL teachers "it makes more sense to approach English teachers than foreign language teachers." p. 186), broad generalizations ("Educational objectives have changed in the past and they certainly will change in the future." (p.179), and sometimes trite advice ("The carrot is definitely superior to the stick." p, 184). As stated earlier, however, the book is meant to be a practical guide for the classroom teacher (or teacher to be), and as such, while containing a respectable

number of references to a broad base of academic studies and research reports, its anecdotes, antidotes, and rules of thumb are based primarily on the experience of the authors.

While experienced language teachers will probably not agree with Madsen and Bowen on every point, they will undoubtedly find much in the book which substantiates their own experience. Their reading will be rewarded by more than comforting reassurances and reminiscences, however. Besides being reminded of what they have done, teachers will become aware of other things that they should (or could) be doing. And even experienced teachers will encounter occasional fresh insights into the principles and processes of adaptation as they see familiar techniques and practices in a new framework of congruence.

Newcomers to the field of language teaching and language teachers in training will derive the greatest benefit from the book. While it does not answer every question regarding adaptation which may arise in the course of a career in language teaching, the guiding principles it presents will leave a teacher much better prepared to meet the many challenges of language teaching whose solutions lie in effective adaptation.

ESL and foreign language teacher trainers should welcome this thorough, systematic coverage of a long-neglected yet essential aspect of successful teaching. The book should become an important part of methods and materials courses.

REFERENCES

- Bowen, J. Donald. 1975. *Patterns of English pronunciation*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers.
Stevick, Earl W. 1971. *Adapting and writing language lessons*. Washington, D. C.: Foreign Service Institute.

Lynn E. Henrichsen
Brigham Young University—Hawaii

ERRATUM :

In the September, 1979 issue of *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, there appeared a review article by Richard Yorkey of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Both in the heading (p. 393) and in the Table of Contents the title incorrectly appeared as *Longman Dictionary of Current English*. We apologize for any confusion this may have caused the reader.

Research Notes

Research Article

CONTEXTUALIZED AND DECONTEXTUALIZED TESTS

Steven D. Spurling, Language Centre, Kuwait University

Concern has been voiced by McEMowney (1976) about the use of decontextualized tests. In a rationale for the "Test of English (Overseas)" she states, "The method of testing items in separate sentences is on several counts not a valid way of processing a reliable sample of the language skills of the candidate" (pg 20). She sees the disadvantages of decontextualized testing to be several. A decontextualized test "isolates grammatical items from any real context which is supplied" (pg 20). In order for the tester to make up for the lack of real context, he must supply an artificial context. For example, he must supply an artificial cue like "last week" to elicit the past tense or "now" to elicit the present contiguous tense. In real discourse this type of stimulus-response sequence is rarely used. Instead, other cues are used in a more fully contextualized setting.

Whether decontextualized tests do, in fact, differentially affect English language students' scores on EFL tests is the subject of this article. Specifically, research was carried out to determine whether students' scores on a contextualized test would evidence the same ordering and dispersion (as measured by a Pearson product moment correlation) as on a decontextualized test when content was held constant. If the two test formats do not differentially affect students' scores, then we would expect the intercorrelation between the two tests to approach, or equal, the reliabilities of the tests. Stated differently, the correlation between a contextualized and a decontextualized test of the same content should approach or equal one ($r = 1.0$) after correction for attenuation is made.

Procedure

To evaluate this hypothesis, two tests were constructed. One test consisted of two different cloze passages. In each passage, a word was deleted in every sentence after the first. Every word that was deleted was the 5th, 10th or 15th word from the previous blank depending on the length of the sentence the blank occurred in and the preceding sentence length. The number of blanks for both passages combined equalled 40. The second test contained the same sentences as test 1. However, instead of being in a passage format, the sentences were randomly reordered, numbered and listed from 1 to 40. This became, in effect, the decontextualized version of test 1.

The tests were administered to 30 Kuwait University students enrolled in intermediate EFL classes during the spring semester of 1979. Each version was administered a week apart to control for a practice effect. Seventeen students were administered the contextualized version first and, a week later, the decontextualized version, while the other 13 students were administered the tests in the reverse order. This procedure was implemented as a control for an ordering effect.

After administration, the papers were collected and scored in two ways. First, they were scored according to an *exact word* criterion where only answers that matched the original, deleted word were considered correct. Then, the tests were scored using an *any acceptable word* criterion where any word that was both grammatical and

meaningful in a blank was considered correct. Both the decontextualized and contextualized tests were scored using these two criteria. However, using the *any acceptable word* criterion, there were more right answers in a decontextualized blank than in the same contextualized one. This was because items of sentence length don't constrain the use of most word classes as much as more contextualized cloze passages. Therefore, more content words could fit a decontextualized blank than a similar contextualized one.

Though 30 students took one test or the other, only 24 students took both forms. This was due to normal classroom absenteeism. As a consequence, only those 24 tests were scored and evaluated. The results of the two tests, their reliabilities and intercorrelations, are contained in Tables 1 and 2 below.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Test Statistics

Test	Scoring Procedure	N of items	N of cases	\bar{x}	SD	r_{11}
1. Contextualized	Exact word	40	24	7.54	4.08	.791
2. Contextualized	Any acceptable word	40	24	11.29	5.66	.824
3. Decontextualized	Exact word	40	24	8.63	3.70	.690
4. Decontextualized	Any acceptable word	40	24	15.92	6.69	.864

TABLE 2
Intercorrelations

Contextualized vs Decontextualized tests	Actual	Corrected for Attenuation
1. Exact word criterion (1 & 3)	.596	.807
2. Any acceptable word (2 & 4)	.663	.786

Discussion and Conclusion

It can be seen from a look at Table 1 and Table 2 that the intercorrelations of the decontextualized and contextualized tests using either scoring procedure: 1) do not equal or approach the test reliabilities; and 2) corrected for attenuation, do not approach or equal one. After correction for attenuation is made, the overlap of variance runs from 62 to 65 per cent. In effect, between 35 to 40 per cent of the non-chance variance is unaccounted for. Since both tests contain the same material, and differ only in format, it seems reasonable to attribute this variance to the difference in format between the two tests. That is, we would expect students to perform differently, depending on whether or not the test format is contextualized.

This still does not answer the question of the validity of decontextualized tests. Though decontextualized tests seem to be testing a different skill from contextualized tests, the question of which test offers the most valid assessment of language proficiency remains unanswered. Nonetheless, if further research substantiates the difference between contextualized and decontextualized formats, then the further question as to the validity of each type of test should be investigated.

REFERENCE

- McEldowney, P. L. 1976. Test of English (Overseas). Joint Matriculation Board. University of Manchester: Oxford Road, Manchester.

Research Article

EXPLORING PERCEPTUAL STRATEGIES AND READING IN A SECOND LANGUAGE: PERFORMANCE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SPEAKERS OF DIFFERENT NATIVE LANGUAGES*

Richard Bruce Rickard, Language Centre, Kuwait University

The concept of syntactically determined perceptual strategies has been advanced (Fodor et al. 1974) as one manifestation of Goodman's (1970) model of psycholinguistic guessing in reading. Several researchers (Cowan 1975, 1977; Takayanagi 1975) have extended it from L_1 reading into L_2 reading performance and have incorporated contrastive analysis (CA). Brownscombe (1977) has presented tentative evidence linking faulty reading comprehension in an L_2 to syntactic differences between the L_1 and L_2 . To obtain more data about psycholinguistic guessing and the interference of L_2 strategies in L_2 reading, a study was designed to isolate any possible reading performance differences between speakers from several various native (NL) groups, and to test several hypotheses based on a priori CA between the respective languages and English.

Procedure

Six specific structures involving negation in English (cf. Klima 1964) were chosen as the focus for the study and specific hypotheses were formulated for the relative reading comprehension abilities of native Chinese, Japanese, Persian, and Spanish speakers. Additionally, several hypotheses were advanced for individual NL groups in relation to their performance on different test patterns and variations of these patterns. For example, it was predicted that sentences containing multiple negative morphemes but having an affirmative meaning would be more difficult than the other test patterns. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that such differences would be appreciably greater for the Japanese and Spanish speakers. It was also thought that negation expressed by a negative determiner in a subject (or agent), or object NP would be more difficult for Japanese speakers than similar sentences with the negative morpheme attached to the verb phrase, and that this difference would be magnified when it coincided with other negative morphemes to express an affirmative meaning. All hypotheses were formulated on the basis of written grammars and were further refined through discussions with informants from each NL group.

To encourage subjects to employ the hypothesized perceptual strategies, source sentences of 15-17 words were placed on 35mm. black-and-white slides, then presented to subjects via a remote-controlled projector for 8 seconds—an interval sufficient for most subjects to read the sentence, yet too brief to allow extensive re-reading or re-processing. Immediately after the disappearance of the source sentence, subjects were shown a pair of related sentences. One constituted a correct paraphrase or expansion of the preceding source; the other was always a plausible misunderstanding of the source—usually representing an approximate antithesis. Each of these alternatives contained only 10-12 words and largely recycled vocabulary from the source sentence. Subjects were allowed 12 seconds to read each pair of alternatives, and had previously been instructed to indicate the sentence which agreed with the source. After the screen went blank they had an additional 8 seconds to mark their response on a machine-scoreable answer sheet and to ready themselves for the next item. Fol-

* The research reported herein was conducted while the author was a Teaching Assistant in the Division of ESL of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The author wishes to acknowledge the helpful advice of J. Ronayne Cowan in the development of the project, and to extend thanks for his criticism of an earlier version of this report.

lowing the presentation of every tenth set, the subjects were given a 1-minute rest break.

Since both of the secondary alternatives recycled vocabulary, and since the observed behavior of the subjects indicated that they had more than enough time to process the antithetically paired alternatives, the premise is that any errors should be attributed to faulty comprehension of the original source—faulty comprehension resulting from a failure to efficiently perceive and/or understand grammatical signals to meaning, i.e., inaccurate psycholinguistic guessing deriving from inappropriate L₁ perceptual strategies.

Following the planned design, 2 examples were presented, followed by 48 randomly ordered sets of test items. Of the 48 sources, 39 contained one of the target patterns; 9 were randomly included distracters containing no negative morphemes. The subjects were 123 students enrolled in classes of the Intensive English Institute of the Division of ESL of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The obtained sample included 16 Chinese, 9 Japanese, 23 Persian, and 16 Spanish speakers, in addition to 19 Korean speakers and 40 speakers of a miscellany of less numerously represented languages. The unexpectedly large number of Koreans in the sample resulted in the inclusion of those particular data into the study, even though no predictive hypotheses had been advanced.

The obtained responses were machine-scored; compiled output included the subjects' class placement level, sex, NL, and his/her total correct responses to the 39 target items (TESTTOT), as well as binary output for individual items, indicating right/wrong responses by subject, and by item for all subjects and NL groups. To this was added the subjects' TOEFL total score (TOEFLTOT) along with subscores for reading, structure, and vocabulary—where such scores were available. All these data were then statistically analyzed to probe relationships between and within NL groups in respect to items and patterns.

Results

The test instrument demonstrated face validity and reliability between groups. The mean score of 78.5% indicates a reasonable level of difficulty and there was a normal distribution of scores. The correlation of TESTTOT with TOEFLTOT was .665 ($n=79$; $p<.01$). Of the control group of 7 native speakers of English, 5 obtained perfect scores, while 2 erred on 1 item each. The 5 NL groups in the sample cannot be considered equally proficient in English; however, some general relationships are tenable and were considered in the analysis of results. To isolate differences between groups or within groups, the test results were analyzed by: 1) examining the rank correlation coefficients for all permutations of paired groups; 2) contrasting the hierarchies of the 10 most difficult items for the respective groups; and 3) isolating the items demonstrating significant difficulty for a particular language group in relation to the performance of all other subjects, or in relation to NL groups of similar or greater L₁ proficiency.

Table 1 shows the correlation coefficients between all permutations of pairs. All correlations are significant and indicate test reliability between NL groups; however, with one exception (Korean/Spanish) the correlations are only moderate and reflect appreciable performance differences between groups on a few particular items.

Hierarchically ranking the 10 most difficult items for each NL group and then contrasting the ranks gave another perspective on group differences. Not surprisingly, many items appeared repeatedly in the respective lists; more interesting though was that each NL group's rank contained at least 1 item which was unique to it alone, and which, in each case, represented a different pattern. Furthermore, the performance of each NL group was examined by contrasting, by item, the NL group mean scores

TABLE 1
Spearman rank correlation coefficients* between NL groups

	Chinese	Japanese	Korean	Persian	Spanish
Chinese	—	.60	.56	.43	.67
Japanese		—	.64	.43	.72
Korean			—	.52	.81
Persian				—	.51
Spanish					—

* All significant at $p < .01$

with the mean scores of all other subjects. Table 2 shows that, with the notable exception of the Spanish speakers, each NL group found from 1 to 17 items significantly more difficult than did the other subjects.

TABLE 2
The number of items showing significant and unique difficulty by NL group
(Determined by one-tailed t-tests of NL group means, by item,
against the means of all other subjects; $p < .05$)

Significantly more difficult for:	Chinese	Japanese	Korean	Persian	Spanish
Number of items	2	5	3	17	0

Pertaining to inter-group phenomena, one last series of observations can be summarized. By considering TESTTOT and TOEFLTOT it was possible to establish inter-group relationships for English proficiency, e.g., the Chinese speakers had significantly higher scores than all other groups on both the TESTTOT and TOEFLTOT; the Japanese and Persians demonstrated the converse, while showing no significant difference in relation to each other (all tests, two tails; $p < .05$). Using such proficiency relationships as a starting point, t-tests of means for particular items were made between pairs of groups of similar ability or between groups which indicated an inverse relationship between proficiency and performance. Thus, between groups showing no significant difference in proficiency (Japanese/Persian; Spanish/Korean) 8 items were isolated—6 for the former, 2 for the latter—which had elicited significantly different and alternating results (two tails; $p < .05$). For pairs of groups of unequal proficiency, 3 items were identified which had produced NL group means of significant difference, inversely related to proficiency. Furthermore, these performance differences consistently corresponded to differences in test patterns and intra-pattern variations.

Considering differences within NL groups, the Japanese demonstrated the most apparent differences related to test patterns—this in relation to sentences containing a negative determiner in the subject, agent, or object NP. Such items were consistently difficult for them, and their mean scores fell dramatically when such structures coincided with other negative morphemes to produce affirmative meaning.

Discussion

Several predictions found support: for all but the Chinese, multiple negatives within one clause proved the most difficult group of sentences. Another hypothesis which found support—indirectly—was that Spanish speakers would perform nearest the norms of native English speakers because of the unique familial relationship; although they did not achieve the highest mean TESTTOT of the 5 groups and were

not of the highest proficiency level, they found no item significantly more difficult than did other subjects, and they were the only group for which that is true. The most strongly substantiated hypothesis, however, was that Japanese speakers experienced difficulty when negative NP's in subjects coincided with another negative element to express affirmative meaning.

The experimental technique was effective in controlling extraneous variables and in eliciting easily isolated performance differences capable of being subjected to intensive a posteriori analysis. Moreover, the isolation of so many significant performance differences between NL groups—particularly between more-or-less equally proficient groups and between inversely proficient groups—provides considerable support for the concepts of psycholinguistic guessing and interfering perceptual strategies shaped by L₁ factors.

REFERENCES

- Brownscombe, E. Carol. 1977. Toward characterizing perceptual strategies of second language learners: a pilot study. In Y. Kachru, (Ed.) *TESL Studies 2*: 20-50. Urbana-Champaign: Division of ESL, University of Illinois.
- Cowan, J. R. 1975. Reading, perceptual strategies, and contrastive analysis. In Y. Kachru (Ed.) *TESL Studies 1*: 24-37. Urbana-Champaign: Division of ESL, University of Illinois.
- Cowan, J. R. 1977. Toward a psychological theory of interference in second language learning. In Y. Kachru (Ed.) *TESL STUDIES 2*:50-63, Urbana-Champaign: Division of ESL, University of Illinois.
- Fodor, J. A., T. G. Bever, and M. F. Garrett. 1974. *The psychology of language*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Goodman, Kenneth S. 1970. Reading: a psycholinguistic guessing game. In H. Singer and R. B. Ruddell (Eds.). *Theoretical models and processes of reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.
- Klima, Edward S. 1964. Negation in English. In J. A. Fodor and J. J. Katz (Eds.). *The structure of language*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Takayanagi, Fumie. 1975. Structural differences in Japanese and English which affect learning to read. In Y. Kachru (Ed.). *TESL Studies 1*: 115-121. Urbana-Champaign: Division of ESL, University of Illinois.

Abstract**A SOCIAL APPROACH TO GRAMMAR TEACHING**

Susan Trachtenberg, University of Pennsylvania

It is not too much of an exaggeration to say that teaching in general, and second-language teaching in particular, has been conceptualized traditionally as an essentially intellectual process: the imparting of a bloc of knowledge, with the students as passive recipients, and the whole process dominated by the teacher. But in recent years the traditional mode of teaching has begun to be questioned. Increasingly, new methods have been developed—methods linked to a more social and less intellectual view of how learning takes place. And because of better insight into the nature of language, in particular increased sensitivity to language as a social phenomenon, this shift has been especially striking in second-language learning. Methods, perhaps most notably Curran's Counselling-Learning/Community Language Learning, have been developed to encourage active student participation, to engage the students on an emotional level, and to make language learning a more dynamic process of interaction. But these methods have not as a rule been integrated into ESL teaching; in the case of C-L/CLL, there has been much discussion over whether and how this kind of approach can be put to use in most intensive language programs.

The purpose of my current research is to try to develop a curriculum covering basic grammar points (relative clauses, present perfect, embedded sentences and questions) based explicitly on a social approach to learning. The idea is that a theoretical framework of this sort will provide the basis for a coherent program of study, where techniques to encourage the acquisition of language through social interaction will be treated as central to the program. Grammar points will be presented, not just reinforced, in social situations where their use is almost a necessity.

I am interested in acquiring material which will help with this work, and I will be particularly grateful to ESL teachers who write me about the techniques and methods relevant to this approach that they have used.

English Program for Foreign Students
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, PA 19174

Announcement

The Teaching English Abroad/Special Interest Group (TEA/SIG) of TESOL, in preparing for the March, 1980 TESOL Convention in San Francisco, seeks information from researchers and teachers outside the United States. Researchers overseas are asked to submit abstracts of their research to TEA/SIG even if they do not plan to attend the convention. Teachers overseas needing ideas to improve their teaching in difficult circumstances may submit to TEA/SIG their pedagogical problems with a description of their teaching situation (materials used; number, level, and age of students, type and purpose of instruction, etc.). Correspondence should be addressed to Dr. Lin Lougheed, Education Development Center, 55 Chapel Street, Newton, Massachusetts 02160 U.S.A.

Note

When I first began editing Research Notes in September 1976, the stated purpose for the initiation of the section was to encourage the sharing of "items of interest concerning current research in the ESL field." In the three years since the inception of the section, I have felt pleased that Research Notes has to a certain extent met this

expressed goal. It was originally intended that Research Notes be an occasional section; instead, it has become a regular feature. Thus, it has grown in both scope and size.

Since this is the last issue I will edit, I leave feeling that Research Notes is filling a need in our field for an exchange of information among researchers. I have accepted an invitation to become the new editor of *Language Learning*. In my stead, Ann Fathman will serve as the new editor of the Research Notes section. Please address all future correspondence relating to Research Notes to Ann Fathman at the following address: P.O. Box 1141, Rochester, Minn. 55901.

Thank you for your support.

Diane Larsen-Freeman

Announcements

Meetings of Interest to TESOL Members

December 27, 1979. American Association for Applied Linguistics, Los Angeles.

December 27-29. Linguistic Society of America Annual Meeting, Los Angeles.

February 28-March 2, 1980. Third Los Angeles Second Language Research Forum. UCLA, Los Angeles. Write to: Jeannine Gerbeault, L.A. SLRF, ESL Dept., UCLA, Los Angeles, Ca. 90024.

March 4-9, 1980. Annual TESOL Convention. Hilton Hotel, San Francisco. For information: Janet Cameron Fisher, TESOL '80, Hollywood High School, 1521 N. Highland Ave., L.A. Ca. 90028.

March 4-7, 1980. At TESOL Conference, 1980 Colloquium for Graduate Students with Research in Progress. Contact: Joyce Freundlich, 1005 Ironbound Ave., Plainfield, N.J. 07060.

March 19-22, 1980. Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics. "Current Issues in Bilingualism." For information: James Alatis, School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington D.C. 20057.

August 9-15, 1981. 6th AILA World Congress. University of Lund, Lund, Sweden. For information: AILA World Congress 1981, University of Lund, Fack, S-221 01, Lund, Sweden.

April 17-20, 1980. Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Contact: Northeast Conference Registration Office. Box 623, Middlebury, VT 05753.

Research in Reading

The new editors of the *Reading Research Quarterly*, a journal of the International Reading Association, invite manuscripts on reading from a variety of perspectives. Papers may be empirical, descriptive, or theoretical. Both longer and shorter manuscripts are accepted. Appropriate topics include: cognitive processes, learning and development, assessment and valuation, instructional psychology, social context, cross-cultural studies, physiological bases, affective variables, ethnographic studies, and communications research. Send manuscripts to: P. David Pearson/S. Jay Samuels

Reading Research Quarterly
Burton Hall
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455

TESOL Quarterly Style Sheet

1. The Manuscript

1.1 Typed, double spaced, on 8½ by 11" (21.5 by 27.5 cms.) paper, with margins of about 1¼" (3 cms.) on all four sides. Number the pages of the copy in the upper right-hand corner. The manuscript should usually be no longer than 20 pages (including references), shorter length preferred.

1.2 Tables, graphs, figures and other special matter should be placed on separate pages.

1.3 An abstract of two hundred words or less must accompany all submitted articles. Submit manuscripts of articles in *triplicate*, of reviews in *duplicate*.

2. Underscoring

2.1 Contributors are asked to use underscoring for the following purposes and no others:

- a. Use italics (single straight underscore in manuscript) for cited linguistics forms, for titles of books and journals, for technical words and expressions at first introduction only, and for linguistic examples.
- b. Do not use italics for emphasis, or to mark foreign words used as a part of an English sentence: *a priori*, *ad hoc*, etc. Emphasis should be expressed through syntax, word placement, conciseness of phrasing, etc.

2.2 While underscorings are used for printing purposes to designate divisions and sub-divisions, contributors should use no underscorings of any kind for such headings, leaving the choice of typeface to the editor.

3. Punctuation

3.1 Double quotation marks are used for quotations in text of less than four typewritten lines. Longer quotations are set off in an indented block without quotation marks (but still double spaced). Use single quotation marks within double quotation marks to set off quotations within quotations.

3.2 Do not use quotation marks for emphasis or to enclose a word or phrase cited as a linguistic example.

3.3 Words containing prefixes are written solid, without hyphens: anti-sentimentalism, semivowel, subdialect, etc. The prefix is followed by a hyphen when the next element begins with a capital: non-Germanic, pre-Greek.

3.4 Ellipsis is indicated by three periods, close-set, with a blank space before and after, like . . . this. Any omission between two sentences within a quotation is indicated by four dots (literally a period followed by three spaced dots. . . .).

4. Titles and Headings

4.1 Use normal capitalization: capitalize only the major words in titles and books and journals in text (but not in Reference Lists, see Section 7.2). Conjunctions, articles, and short prepositions are not considered major words.

4.2 Section headings and subheadings in the body of the article or review begin at the left margin of the paragraph and should not be centered on the page.

4.3 Do not underscore any part of a title, subtitle, or section heading; leave the choice of typeface to the editor.

4.4 On the front page of the article, the title and author appear first, followed by the abstract; then, separated by a short space, follow any acknowledgments, pertinent information, etc. This information is signalled by an asterisk, corresponding to one following the title at the top of the page.

5. Abstracts

Each manuscript submitted for publication should be accompanied by three copies of an informative abstract, summarizing the content of the article. The abstract should not be merely a repetition of the introductory remarks of the article itself. It should have a maximum length of about 200 words, be double spaced, and be typed directly below the title.

6. Footnotes

6.1 Footnotes should be numbered serially throughout the article or review.

6.2 The footnote reference number is a raised numeral following the word or passage to which it applies; it is not enclosed in parentheses and is not followed by a parenthesis or period. Reference numbers follow marks of pronunciation.

6.3 Use footnotes for substantive information only and type each footnote (double spaced) directly below the line to which it refers and set it off from the text with a horizontal line above and a horizontal line below.

6.4 Each footnote is typed as a separate paragraph, with the first line indented. It begins with its reference number, raised above the line of type, but not enclosed in parentheses and not followed by a parenthesis or a period.

7. Bibliographic References

7.1 Citations in text: References cited in text must appear in the reference list, and conversely each entry in the reference list must be cited in the text. The author must make certain that references appear in both places and are in agreement. Citations in text may be given in either of two ways:

"As Smith (1979:3) has observed . . ." or "The Chinese learners produced an average of 4 existentials in every 5 compositions" (Smith 1979:3). (The 3 refers to page number.) Such brief citations should be given in the body of the text, not in footnotes, unless they refer specifically to a statement made in a footnote. Use initials for authors' given names only when necessary to distinguish two separate authors, e.g. N. Chomsky and C. Chomsky, within a single article.

7.2 The reference list should be double spaced, beginning on a separate page of the manuscript with the heading: REFERENCES. Arrange the entries alphabetically by surnames of authors; multiple works by one author should be listed chronologically, with a suffixed letter to distinguish several items published in the same year (1974a, 1974b, etc.). Each entry should contain the following elements: Author's surname, given names or initials, co-authors if any, (given names or initials first), year of publication, title of work. Only the first letter of the first word of a title and words normally capitalized, e.g., English, should be capitalized:

Smith, H. C., and Tom Jones. 1979. *The effects of English acquisition on bilingual children*. New York: Harper and Row.

In the case of journal articles, give the name of the journal, volume and issue numbers, and page numbers for articles as a whole. (Names of journals begin with capital letters.) In the case of an article in a collection, give the title of the collection, the editor's name, and page numbers of the article. For all monographs and books, state the edition, volume number or part number (if applicable), the series in which published (if any), the place of publication, and the publisher's name. Use punctuation as in the following examples:

- Dulay, Heidi, and Marina Burt. 1974. Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly* 8, 2:129-136.
- Gaies, Stephen J. 1976. Sentence-combining: a technique for assessing proficiency in a second language. Paper presented at the Conference on Perspectives on Language, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky, May 1976.
- Harris, D. P. 1969. *Testing English as a second language*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Heath, Shirley Brice. 1977. Our language heritage: a historical perspective. *The language connection: from the classroom to the world*. Vol. 9: 354-367. Lune K. Phillips (Ed.). Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co.
- Oller, John W., and Jack C. Richards (Eds.). 1973. *Focus on the learner*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, Publishers.
- Rutherford, William E. 1975 and 1977. *Modern English* (2nd ed.). Two Volumes and Instructor's Manuals. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

8. Tables

8.1 Plan each table so that it will fit the printed page without crowding; no table should exceed the size of a manuscript page. Leave ample white space between columns, and double space all entries.

8.2 Column heads should be short, so as to stand clearly above the several columns. If you need longer headings, represent them by numbers or capital letters and explain these in the text preceding the table.

8.3 If two or more tables appear in one article, number them and refer to them by number, e.g., Table 1, Table 2, etc. Do not speak of the “preceding” or the “following table.” The printer may not be able to preserve its original position.

8.4 Each table should have a legend above it, containing the table number and concise title. Tables from other sources should be credited below the table itself.

9. Figures, Graphs, and Illustrations

Because the design and preparation of such materials can be expensive, use these aids judiciously; the simplest level of presentation is best. Any drawing of professional quality is acceptable, whether done by a professional or a person skilled in the use of press-on letters or other graphic aids. In any case, material must be in finished form ready for reproduction. The criteria established in Section 8 for tables applies to figures, graphs and illustrations.

10. Gender usage

Because *TESOL Quarterly* is a journal committed to both science and the fair treatment of individuals and groups, authors of articles and reviews are expected to avoid writing in a manner that reinforces questionable attitudes and assumptions about people and sex roles.

The following guidelines on nonsexist language are intended to help authors recognize and change instances where word choice may be inaccurate, misleading or discriminatory.

Guidelines

A. Ambiguity

1. *Inappropriate Usage:*

The speaker must constantly monitor *his* listener to check that the assumptions *he* is making are shared assumptions.

Suggested Revision (change to *the* and rephrase):

The speaker must constantly monitor *the* listener to check that the assumptions *the speaker is making are shared*.

2. *Inappropriate Usage:*

The student is often the best judge of the value of *his* counseling.

Suggested Revision (*his* deleted):

The student is often the best judge of the value of counseling.

3. *Inappropriate Usage:*

Very often the writer does not monitor *his* arguments very well or get *his* narrative in the right order.

Suggested Revision (change to plural):

Very often the writers do not monitor *their* arguments very well or get *their* narratives in the right order.

4. *Inappropriate Usage:*

A person who finds *himself* failing in a grammar class is likely to become anxious about memorizing the details of grammatical rules.

Suggested Revision (rephrase):

A person who *is failing* in a grammar class . . .

5. *Inappropriate Usage:*

When a student requires special help with pronunciation, it can be effective to give *him* individual drills.

Suggested Revision (rephrase):

When a student requires special help with pronunciation, *individual drills can be effective*.

6. *Inappropriate Usage:*

The students do almost all the interacting, the teacher taking a back seat. That is to say, *he* is not under the pressure of acting as *chairman or host*.

Suggested Revision (change to s/he and rephrase):

. . . that is to say, s/he is not under the pressure of acting as classroom director.

B. Stereotyping

1. *Inappropriate Usage:*

We can ask about a person's job in several ways: what's *his* profession? What's *his* line of work? What business is *he* in?

Suggested Revision (change to 2nd person singular)

We can ask about a person's jobs in several ways. What is *your* profession? What is *your* line of work? What business are *you* in?

2. *Inappropriate Usage:*

It is vital for the chairman to establish general guidelines.

Suggested Revision (change to chairperson or chair):

It is vital for the *chair* to establish general guidelines.

3. *Inappropriate Usage:*

The sample for the present study, the *sons and daughters* of Spanish professionals . . .

Suggested Revision (Do not repeatedly use male-first order):

The sample for the present study, the *daughters and sons* of Spanish professionals . . .

4. *Inappropriate Usage:*

As both Cheever (1968) and M. Cheever (1972) have noted . . .

Suggested Revision (two individuals with the same last name should be differentiated by inclusion of initials for both, not just for the female):

As both J. Cheever (1968) and M. Cheever (1972) have noted . . .

5. *Inappropriate Usage* in drills, dialogues, etc.:

(The author should make sure that male designations do not predominate in drill examples, dialogues, etc.)

Publications Received

- ALSED Newsletter* Numbers 14, 15. 1979. Anthropology and Language Science in Educational Development. Paris: UNESCO.
- Berman, Louis A. and Laurette Kirstein. 1979. *Idiom Workbook: Verb Phrases by Family*. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages, Inc.
- Border, Rosemary. 1979. *Working with Words from the New Basic Dictionary*. London: Macmillan Press.
- Bromhead, Peter. 1979. *Politics in Britain*. London: Evans Brothers Limited.
- CATESOL Newsletter Vol. 10, No. 5. April 1979; Vol. 11, No. 1, June 1979. California Association Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.
- Cooper, Stephen. 1978. *Graduate Theses and Dissertations in English as a Second Language: 1977-1978*. Language in Education: Theory and Practice 15. Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Confluents, No. 2. 1978. English and North American Center for Study and Research, University of Lyon.
- Daiker, Donald A., Andrew Kerek, and Max Morenberg. 1979. *The Writer's Options: College Sentence Combining*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Ferguson, Nicolas. 1979. *Language Learning by Objectives*. London: Evans Brothers Limited.
- Ferguson, Nicolas and Maire O'Reilly. 1979. *English for International Banking*. London: Evans Brothers Limited.
- Garcia, Gilbert Narro. 1978. *Building American English: Oil*. Level 1. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages.
- Gordon, Ian. 1978. *Practical Punctuation*. Exeter, N.H.: Heinemann Educational Books, Inc.
- Hendrickson, James M. and Angela Laberca. 1979. *The Spice of Life*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Inman, Marianne. 1978. *Foreign Languages, English as a Second/Foreign Language and the U.S. Multinational Corporation*. Language in Education: Theory and Practice 16. Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Issues Related to Transferring Reading Skills from Spanish to English. 1979. New City, N.Y.: Bernard Cohen Research and Development, Inc.

- Kaleidoscope Reader Stages 1 and 2*. 1979. London: York University/Macmillan Educational.
- Kaleidoscope. 1979. Songs and Rhymes, Book 3 and 4. London: MacMillan Press.
- MLTAQ Journal* No. 3. February 1979. Modern Language Teachers Association Queensland, Australia.
- MALT Bulletin*, Vol. XXIV, Nos. 1 and 2. Winter-Spring 1979. The Montana Association of Language Teachers.
- Moore, Brendan. 1979. *English for the Office*. London: Macmillan Press.
- Omaggio, Alice C. 1978. Games and Simulations in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Language in Education: Theory and Practice* 13. Arlington, Virginia: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Papers and Studies in Contrastive Linguistics, Vol. 10. 1979. (Jacek Fisiak, Ed.) The Polish-English Contrastive Project. Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan and Center for Applied Linguistics, Arlington, Va.
- Pierce, Tina and Edward Cochrane (Eds.). 1979. *Twentieth Century English Short Stories*. London: Evans Brothers Limited.
- Raimes, Ann. 1978. *Problems and Teaching Strategies in ESL Composition*. *Language in Education: Theory and Practice* 14. Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Ranger Story Workbooks: 1979.
Range 1: Opal Dunn: King Greybeard's Daughter.
Range 2: Adrian Ross: Forest Fire.
Range 3: Sylvia Moody: Held to Ransom.
London: MacMillan Press.
- Rippon, Michelle and Walter E. Meyers. 1979. *Combining Sentences*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Rusthoi, Daniel. 1979. *Speaking of Numbers: Skillbuilding in English and Arithmetic*. Worktext 1. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages.
- Short, Arnold Green (Ed.). 1979. *Creativity: New Ideas in Language Teaching*. No. 34. Sao Paulo, S.P.: Instituto de Idiomas Yazigi S.C.
- TESL Reporter*. Vol. 12, Nos. 2 and 3. Spring, Winter 1979. Communication and Language Arts Division, Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus.
- TESOL Ohio News, Vol. II, No. 3. June 1979. Ohio Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

PUBLICATIONS AVAILABLE FROM THE TESOL CENTRAL OFFICE

Reference Guides . . .

- Directory of Teacher Preparation Programs in TESOL and Bilingual Education. 1978-1981.** Compiled and edited by Charles H. Blatchford. Fifth edition. Contains up-to-date survey on state certification requirements in the field. Washington: TESOL, 1979. 206 pp. Paper. \$4.00 to TESOL members, \$4.50 to nonmembers.
- WATESOL Directory of English as a Second Language Programs in Washington, D.C., Maryland, Northern Virginia, Delaware, 1978-1979.** WATESOL, 1978. Paper. \$1.00.
- TESOL, 1967-68: A Survey.** Kenneth Croft. Washington: TESOL, 1970. 33 pp. Paper. \$1.00.
- A TESOL Bibliography: Abstracts of ERIC Publications and Research Reports. 1969-1970.** Anna Maria Malkoc (compiler). Washington: TESOL, 1971. 310 pp., annotated. Paper. \$2.00.
- A Composite Bibliography for ESOL Teacher-Training.** Kenneth Croft (compiler). Washington: TESOL, 1974. 40 pp., 607 items, classified. Paper, \$1.50.
- Annotated Bibliography for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.** Washington, D.C.: WATESOL (Washington Area affiliate of TESOL). 1977. 26 pp. \$1.00.
- Graduate Theses and Dissertations in English as a Second Language, 1975-76.** Stephen Cooper, ed. & comp. Published jointly with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. 1977. 27 pp. Paper. \$1.00.
- Testing in English as a Second Language: A Selected, Annotated Bibliography.** Marie Garcia-Zamor and David Birdsong. Published jointly with the Eric Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. 1977. 26 pp. Paper. \$1.00.

Other TESOL Publications . . .

- On TESOL '78: EFL Policies, Programs, Practices.** Charles Blatchford and Jacquelyn Schachter, eds. Selected papers from the Twelfth Annual TESOL Convention in Mexico City. TESOL, 1978. 264 pp. Paper. \$7.00 to TESOL members, \$8.00 to nonmembers.
- Concepts in Language Testing: Some Recent Studies.** Eugène J. Brière and Frances Butler Hinofotis, eds. Papers from the colloquium on "Research and Testing Methods in Evaluating Second Language Proficiency" at the Twelfth Annual TESOL Convention in Mexico City. TESOL, 1979. 100 pp. Paper. \$4.00 to TESOL members, \$5.00 to nonmembers.
- Classroom Practices in Adult ESL.** Donna Ilyin and Thomas Tragardh, eds. TESOL, 1978. 209 pp. \$4.00 to TESOL members, \$4.50 to nonmembers. —
- On TESOL '77—Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language: Trends in Research and Practice.** H. Douglas Brown, Carlos A. Yorio and Ruth H. Crymes, eds. Twenty-seven selected papers from the Eleventh Annual TESOL Convention in Miami Beach, 1977. 320 pp. Paper. \$9.00 to TESOL members, \$10.00 to nonmembers.
- Bilingual, ESOL and Foreign Language Teacher Preparation: Models, Practices, Issues.** John F. Fanselow and Richard L. Light, eds. A collection of 26 articles on teacher training in the language field, many originating at the colloquium held at the 1976 TESOL Convention in New York. 1977. 272 pp. Paper. \$8.25 to TESOL members, \$9.00 to nonmembers.
- On TESOL '76.** John F. Fanselow and Ruth H. Crymes, eds. Twenty-six selected papers—a sampling of the teaching done at the Tenth Annual TESOL Convention in New York City, 1976. 276 pp. Paper. \$5.50 to TESOL members, \$6.50 to nonmembers.

- English as a Second Language in Bilingual Education.** James E. Alatis and Kristie Twaddell, eds. A collection of readings from TESOL publications and other sources, together with an appendix of important related documents. Washington: TESOL, 1976. Paper. 350 pp. \$7.25 to TESOL members, \$8.25 to nonmembers.
- On TESOL 75: New Directions in Second Language Learning, Teaching and Bilingual Education.** Marina K. Burt and Heidi C. Dulay, eds. Thirty-five selected papers from the Ninth Annual TESOL Convention in Los Angeles, 1975. Washington: TESOL, 1975. 380 pp. Paper. \$5.50 to TESOL members, \$6.50 to nonmembers.
- Papers on Language Testing 1967-1974.** Leslie Palmer and Bernard Spolsky, eds. A collection of papers on the subject of language testing from the International Seminar on Language Testing, San Juan, 1973, and from the *TESOL Quarterly*. Washington: TESOL, 1975. 227 pp. Paper. \$5.50 to TESOL members, \$6.50 to nonmembers.
- On TESOL 74.** Ruth Crymes and William E. Norris, eds. Twenty-three selected papers from the Eighth Annual TESOL Convention in Denver, 1974. Washington: TESOL, 1975. 240 pp. Paper. \$5.50 to TESOL members, \$6.50 to nonmembers.
- Studies in Honor of Albert H. Marckwardt.** James E. Alatis, ed. Washington: TESOL, 1972. 166 pp. Paper. \$3.50 to TESOL members, \$4.00 to nonmembers.
- A Handbook of Bilingual Education.** Revised Edition. Muriel R. Saville and Rudolph Troike. Washington: TESOL, fifth printing, 1975. 71 pp. Paper. \$1.75 to TESOL members, \$2.00 to nonmembers.
- Classroom Practices in ESL and Bilingual Education.** Muriel Saville-Troike (ed.). Washington: TESOL, 1973. 84 pp. Paper. \$1.75 to TESOL members, \$2.00 to nonmembers.
- Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States, 1975: A Dipstick Paper.** Christina Bratt Paulston. Published jointly with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. 1976. 26 pp. Paper. \$1.00.
- The Human Factors in ESL.** James E. Alatis and Ruth Crymes, eds. Six papers delivered at the Lackland Air Force Base in 1974 by Allen, Burt, Finocchiaro, Paulston, Tucker, and Yorkey. Washington: TESOL 1977. 100 pp. Paper. \$2.75 to TESOL members, \$3.00 to nonmembers.
- Program of the Ninth Annual TESOL Convention, March 4-9, 1975, Los Angeles.** Contains 96 abstracts of papers presented at the Convention. 183 pp. Paper. \$1.75 to TESOL members, \$2.00 to nonmembers.
- Program of the Eighth Annual TESOL Convention, March 5-10, 1974, Denver, Colorado.** Contains the abstracts of papers presented at the Convention, and art from the Southwest. 139 pp. Paper. \$1.00 to TESOL members, \$1.25 to nonmembers.
- Program of the Eleventh Annual TESOL Convention, April 26-May 1, 1977, Miami Beach.** Contains 112 abstracts of papers presented at the convention. 226 pp. Paper. \$2.00 to TESOL members, \$2.50 to nonmembers.
- Program of the Twelfth Annual TESOL Convention, April 4-9, 1978, Mexico City.** Contains 241 abstracts. 259 pp. Paper. \$2.00 to TESOL members, \$2.50 to nonmembers.

From Other Publishers . . .

- Adapting and Writing Language Lessons.** Earl W. Stevick. Washington: Foreign Service Institute, 1971. 431 pp. Paper. \$5.15.
- Essays on Teaching English as a Second Language and as a Second Dialect.** Robert P. Fox (ed.). National Council of Teachers of English, 1973. 116 pp. Paper. \$2.50.
-

Foreign Languages, English as a Second/Foreign Language, and the U.S. Multinational Corporation. Marianne Inman. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1978. Paper. \$4.95.

Issues in the Teaching of Standard English. Alfred C. Aarons, ed. Special Issue of the Florida FL Reporter, 12:1 and 2 (spring/fall 1974). 114 pp. Paper. \$8.50.

Language, Ethnicity, and the Schools: Policy Alternatives for Bilingual-Bicultural Education. Noel Epstein. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, The George Washington University. 1977. 104 pp. Paper. \$4.00.

Linguistic-Cultural Differences and American Education. Alfred C. Aarons, Barbara V. Gordon, and William A. Stewart (eds.). Special Anthology Issue (Vol. 7, No. 1) of the Florida FL Reporter, Spring/Summer, 1969. 175 pp. Paper. \$8.50.

Studies in English to Speakers of Other Languages and Standard English to Speakers of a Non-Standard Dialect. Rodolfo Jacobson (ed.). *The English Record*. Vol. XXI, No. 4 (April, 1971) New York State English Council. 185 pp. Paper. \$4.25.

TEFL, Perceptions, and the Arab World. John W. Bagnole. Washington: American Friends of the Middle East, Inc., 1976. 50 pp. Paper. \$2.00.

Back Issues of the *TESOL QUARTERLY*

(1967) Vol. 1 #4	\$1.00	each number
(1968) Vol. 2 #1,2,3,4	\$1.00	each number
(1969) Vol. 3 #1,2,4	\$1.00	each number
(1970) Vol. 4 #2,4	\$2.00	each number
(1971) Vol. 5 #1,3,4	\$2.00	each number
(1972) Vol. 6 #1,4	\$2.00	each number
(1973) Vol. 7 #1,2,3,4	\$2.00	each number
(1974) Vol. 8 #1,2,3,4	\$3.00	each number
(1975) Vol. 9 #2,3,4	\$3.00	each number
(1976) Vol.10 #1,2,3,4	\$3.00	each number
(1977) Vol.11 #1,2	\$3.00	each number
(1978) Vol.12 #1,2,3,4	\$4.00	each number
Total for All Volumes, 1-12		\$85.00

TESOL Newsletter: The complete set of Volume 12 (5 issues for 1978) available for \$2.00 prepaid.

There is no charge for single copies of the following:

1. TESOL Statement on statewide programs of competency testing
2. Position Paper on the role of English as a Second Language in bilingual education
3. Guidelines for the certification and preparation of teachers of ESOL in the United States
4. Guidelines for selecting English language training programs
5. Guidelines: English language proficiency
6. A Memo: Educating children with limited English