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Table of Contents

	To print, select PDF page nos. in parentheses
ESL Methodology and Student Language Learning Arnulfo G. Ramirez in Bilingual Elementary Schools. and Nelly P. Stromquist	145 (6-19)
Bilingual Education Goes to College: A Look at Program Ruth Otto Objectives in Two Community Colleges. and Ricardo Otheguy	161 (22-29)
Relating Language Teaching and Content Teaching. . . . Bernard A. Mohan	171 (32-43)
The <i>Short Tests of Linguistic Skills</i> and Their Calibration Khazan C. Agrawal	185 (46-67)
Inter-and Intra-Test Correlates of the Deborah Hosley TOEFL and Keith Meredith	209 (68-76)
The Cloze Procedure and Proficiency in English as a Foreign Language J. Charles Alderson	219 (78-86)
A Viable ESL/EFL Language Lab. Harvey M. Taylor	229 (88-98)
The Goals of Advanced Composition Instruction. Thomas Buckingham	241 (100-113)
 Reviews	
Georgi Lozanov: Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy (T. Scovel)	255
E. C. Parnwell: Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English (L. Soudek)	267
David M. Davidson: Test of Ability to Subordinate (J. Weaver)	268
Anne Eisenberg: Reading Technical Books (D. Cone)	270
L. G. Alexander and E. T. Cornelius, Jr.: Comp: Exercises in Comprehension and Composition (M. Steibel)	272
Ann Raimis: Focus on Composition (R. Shook)	273
L. A. Hill and S. Chohan; From Comprehension to Composition (J. Van Schaik)	277
Research Notes Diane Larsen-Freeman	279
Forum	285
Announcements	299
Publications Received	301
Publications Available from TESOL Central Office.	303
Call for Papers	307

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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).

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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.

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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

Diane Larsen-Freeman, The Experiment in International Living's School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont 05301.

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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.

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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 US., \$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.

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ESL Methodology and Student Language Learning in Bilingual Elementary Schools*

Arnulfo G. Ramirez and Nelly P. Stromquist

The effect of ESL teaching techniques on student learning was investigated. A group of 18 ESL teachers and their classes were observed across four lessons with similar content. Students were pre- and posttested over a six-month period by two measures of language performance: oral comprehension and production. Teaching behaviors such as asking guided questions, correcting grammatical structures, explaining new vocabulary, and teacher's knowledge of linguistics were found to influence student growth positively, while a rapid pace and an exaggerated use of modeling were found to have negative effects. The effects of these teaching behaviors held for student growth measured in terms of either oral comprehension or production. Regression analysis of selected teaching behaviors accounted for two-thirds of the explained variance in student learning.

An essential component of a bilingual education program in the United States is the course designed to teach-English language skills. This course is usually labeled ESL; its methodology can be traced to World War II when a major effort was mounted to teach foreign languages to adults within a short period of time. "Most of the ESL methods and materials now in use in our elementary and secondary classrooms," notes Saville-Troike (1976:77), "represent relatively minor adaptations from those designed initially for adults."

During the past decade a number of specific assumptions underlying ESL methodology (e.g., mastery of linguistic structures precedes fluency; linguistic structures should be sequentially ordered; and acquisition of linguistic form precedes function) have been challenged by current linguistic and psychological theories (Sampson 1977). Such teaching practices as having students repeat meaningless sentences devoid of a context are regarded as ineffective because they ignore the communicative needs of school children (Saville-Troike 1974, Paulston 1975). Rudolph C. Troike, former director of the Center for Applied Linguistics, has recently warned that current ESL teaching practices based on approaches designed for adult learners "with little consideration for the appropriateness of these methods for young children . . . may be more harmful than beneficial" (Troike 1976).

* This study was supported by funds from the National Institute of Education. Appreciation is expressed to Mary McGroarty, Frances Morales and Pedro Castañeda, who helped in the design of the observation instrument and coded the teacher behaviors.

Mr. Ramirez, Assistant Professor at the School of Education, Stanford University, has published in the *The Bilingual Review/La Revista Bilingue*.

Ms. Stromquist, Research Associate for the RMC Research Corporation, has also published in *The Bilingual Review*.

The purpose of this study was, 1) to investigate current ESL methodology in bilingual elementary schools, and 2) to identify teaching practices associated with student language learning. Through the use of an observation instrument that focused on student cognitive behaviors, an effort was made to isolate teaching behaviors that distinguish effective ESL teachers from less effective ones.

1. Identification of Effective ESL Teachers

Research studies on teaching effectiveness that focus on student cognitive gains as the criterion have used one of two definitions: 1) teaching effectiveness defined in terms of relative class score gains over a given period of time (Brophy and Evertson 1976, Belgard, Rosenshine, and Gage 1971, Clark et al. 1976), or 2) teaching effectiveness defined as the teacher's ability to reduce the initial heterogeneity in the achievement level of their classes (Calfee in McDonald and Elias 1976).

Each of these definitions has led to different analytical techniques. Teaching effectiveness seen as relative score gains has been examined in terms of simple and partial correlations between teacher behavior and student gains; teaching effectiveness seen as the teacher's ability to improve the performance of the poorer students while maintaining that of the better students has been studied in terms of regression slopes, with effective teachers being those who create flatter slopes and less effective teachers, those with steeper slopes. The first definition of teacher effectiveness concentrates on class scores as the unit of analysis, while the latter definition utilizes *individual* scores.

In this study, teaching effectiveness is defined as the relative gain in adjusted class mean scores achieved by each teacher; that is the gain in posttest scores after controlling for differences in pretest scores. This definition was chosen for two reasons: 1) it was assumed that there are certain teacher behaviors that have an overall group effect, and 2) in view of the small number of students in each ESL class studied, it was considered that an analysis focusing on individual scores would lead to very unstable findings.

2. Definition of ESL Teaching Behavior

On the basis of curriculum-specific teaching behaviors as described in ESL textbooks (particularly Paulston and Bruder 1976, and Finocchiaro 1974), and preliminary observation and content analysis of the videotaped teacher lessons, seven teaching behaviors were isolated. Each behavior was then subdivided into two to four modalities, bringing the total number of observable teaching techniques to 19. In addition, three student behaviors, subdivided into 10 modalities were identified.

The teacher behaviors included *modeling* (verbal alone, verbal with visuals, verbal with objects, verbal with physical involvement); *questioning* (guided response, free response); *commanding* (with verbal response, visuals, objects, physical involvement); *explaining* (of concepts, with labels, with grammatical rules); *linguistic accuracy* (using incorrect visual or object examples, using in-

correct grammar or idiomatic expressions); *treatment of pupil errors* (overt correcting of pronunciation, overt correction of student's answer, indirect correction), and *teacher reinforcement*. The student behaviors were *repetition* (verbal, verbal with visual aids, verbal with objects, repetition with physical involvement); *replying* (with expected response, with free response, verbal response to teacher's command); and *comprehending* (carrying out an action with visuals or objects, moving in response to teacher's command).

In establishing the teaching techniques it was decided to focus on cognitive behaviors as opposed to affective ones because of the former's usefulness in teacher training.

3. Method

3.1. Subjects: Teachers. The eighteen volunteer ESL teachers from three neighboring school districts in the San Francisco Bay Area who took part in the study had at least one year of ESL teaching experience in bilingual programs, had taught Spanish-speaking pupils previously, and had beginning or intermediate ESL students for the 1976-77 academic year.

The participating teachers included both certified teachers (N=14) and teacher aides (N=4) regularly assigned to teach ESL. Teacher aides were included because they are often in charge of ESL instruction in bilingual programs. Six of the teachers had between three and four years of general teaching experience, six had between five and six years, and the last six had seven years or more. The ESL Test for Teachers, a sub-test of the CERAS Teacher Tests for Spanish/English Bilingual Education,¹ was administered to all the teachers to measure both their knowledge of applied linguistics and their attitudes toward ESL methodology.

3.2. Subjects: Students. Students were selected on the basis of their English proficiency level (i.e., beginning or intermediate) rather than their grade level. The students' levels of proficiency were identified by the ESL resource teachers in the schools which participated in the study, and were determined on the basis of student performance on various English proficiency tests administered at the beginning of the school year. The students (N=141) were between 7 and 11 years of age (average age = 8.05, s.d. = 1.31) and were in Grades 1, 2, and 3, with most in the second grade. The mean number of students per class was eight.

Sociodemographic data about the school districts in the study revealed that most of the students belonged to working-class families and that there were no gross disparities in educational expenditures per pupil among the school districts. Although the students' exposure to English outside the classroom was

¹The CERAS Teacher Tests for Spanish/English Bilingual Education were developed at the Center for Educational Research at Stanford under an NIE grant to the Program on Teaching and Linguistic Pluralism, which is directed by Professor Robert L. Politzer. This test battery consists of five sub-tests: English as a Second Language, Spanish as a Second Language, Spanish of the Southwest, Reading in Spanish, and Spanish Proficiency.

not examined, there was no reason to suspect that their social environment was heterogeneous.

Student language learning was analyzed in terms of an aural comprehension test and an oral production measure. Written tests were avoided in order to eliminate the confounding effect of measuring the student's reading ability.

The aural comprehension test was a lesson-specific measure given to the students as a pre- and posttest for each of the four ESL lessons that the teachers were asked to teach. For each of the 16 and 18 items on each test the students had to select the one drawing among three that corresponded to the English statement made by the teacher. Student growth in ESL comprehension was measured by comparing the score on the pretest (calculated by averaging the pretest scores for Lessons I, II, and III) with the adjusted gain score on the posttest after Lesson IV (a review lesson). This test measured student gains over a three-month interval (November 1976-February 1977).

The English Grammar Production Subtest of the CERAS Spanish/English Balance Tests (1976), also developed at the Center for Educational Research at Stanford, was administered individually to the students to measure their knowledge of 10 grammatical categories in English. The test requires the student to make changes from the grammatical categories 1) singular to plural, 2) plural to singular, 3) present tense to past tense, 4) affirmative past tense to negative present tense, 5) interrogatives—indirect to direct, 6) imperatives—indirect to direct, 7) interrogatives—direct to indirect, 8) imperatives—direct to indirect, and to complete sentences by 9) using prepositions of location and 10) employing the comparative form of adjectives. The test presents two items per category. The interval between the grammar oral production pretest and posttest was six months (November 1976-April 1977). Table 1 shows the split-half reliability for the comprehension and grammar oral production tests.

TABLE 1
Split-Half Reliability Coefficients for the Comprehension
and the Oral Production Tests

<i>Test</i>	<i>No. of Subjects</i>	<i>No. of Items</i>	<i>Reliability Coefficient</i>
Comprehension Tests:			
Lesson I criterion-referenced test	144	18	.88 ^a
Lesson II criterion-referenced test	144	16	.92 ^a
Lesson III criterion-referenced test	144	18	.93 ^a
English Grammar Production Subtest	156	20	.96 ^b

^a Coefficient for dichotomous test items (KR-20).

^b coefficient for continuous test items (Cronbach's alpha).

3.3. ESL Lessons. The 18 ESL teachers were asked to prepare and teach four 20-minute lessons over a four week period to their students and, to ensure comparability among teachers, were asked to use identical topics. Lesson I dealt with prepositions; Lesson II with adjectives; Lesson III with the present progressive and its negation; and Lesson IV was a review of the three earlier lessons.

The overall content for each lesson was specified, and teachers were asked to present items from each lesson that were unfamiliar to their students. Since the intent was to observe differences in teaching behaviors, no effort was made to suggest ways of teaching these lessons. The videotaped lessons provided the opportunity to develop intercoder reliability. Intercoder reliability coefficients among four raters were obtained from a random sample of eight teachers for the four lessons after a two-month period of videotape observations. Intercoder agreement (Pearson r) for the various teacher and student behavior categories ranged from .99 (modeling-verbal with object) to .63 (commanding using visuals).

3.4. Unit of Analysis. The behavior categories in the ESL videotape observation instrument utilized the utterances of teachers and pupils as the basic unit of analysis. "Utterance" was defined as a statement containing a complete message or thought. Utterances such as *Mary, stand in front of Manuel, John, sit down,* and *Laura, read,* would count as three examples of *commanding with physical involvement*. The minute was the unit of time used to record the frequency of utterances. Teachers were instructed to teach each of the four lessons within a twenty-minute time period. If any lesson lasted more or less than twenty minutes, the frequency of utterances assigned to each observational category was prorated.

According to Dunkin and Biddle (1974), teaching behaviors can be recorded in terms of phenomenal units (i.e., behavioral acts such as giving a command or asking a question) and analytical events (i.e., repetitive sequences such as episodes of teaching cycles). McDonald and Elias (1976) argue for the selection of an analytical event rather than a behavioral act as the unit of analysis. They also argue for a focus on the duration of the event (e.g., "evaluating") rather than on its occurrence per unit of time. In their opinion, when frequencies are counted, there is an assumption that each instance of the event has equal psychological effects irrespective of its duration, "We also assume that the repetitions have a cumulative effect; otherwise there would be no point in summing frequencies" (p. 197). The counterargument is that the impact of a psychological stimulus may not always be a function of its duration and that, in fact, repetitions of a stimulus may be more additive than suspected. In the absence of unambiguous findings about stimulus and response, one set of assumptions should not be discarded in favor of another set equally unsupported.

While an analytical event may in fact represent a more complete and presumably stable classroom transaction, the selection of an utterance may be appropriate in this case, particularly when limited knowledge exists about how

learning occurs and what constitutes teaching or learning cycles in the ESL classroom.

4. Findings

4.1. Frequency of Teacher Utterances. The frequencies of teacher utterances across teaching behaviors for the four lessons, as can be seen in Table 2, revealed some similarities and some striking differences among the eighteen teachers. Questioning was the most common teaching behavior in the case of eight teachers (44 percent); modeling was the second most frequent behavior, with six teachers (33 percent) emphasizing it; third in frequency was commanding, with four teachers (22 percent) concentrating on it. Relatively infrequent teaching behaviors were correcting student errors on pronunciation, correcting student grammatical errors (directly or indirectly) and using examples or visual aids in inappropriate ways.

There were considerable differences in the pace (frequency of utterances) and variety (types of behaviors) of the lessons. While the fastest teacher produced close to 1000 utterances during the four lessons, another teacher produced a total of 555, about half the pace. Some teachers utilized a variety of teaching behaviors (i.e., commanding, questioning, and correcting); others tended to concentrate on a single teaching strategy. The teachers who tended to model language asked few questions of their pupils. When pupils of such teachers did respond to questions, they were usually corrected on their pronunciation.

4.2. Relation of Teacher Behaviors to Pupil Achievement. In order to study the relationship of teaching behaviors to pupil achievement in ESL, the following variables were investigated:

Independent (teacher) variables: 1) Scores on the ESL test, and 2) the actual or prorated frequency of utterances assigned to each observational category for each lesson and for all four lessons for each teacher.

Dependent (pupil) variables: 1) Mean adjusted posttest scores² on the oral comprehension test, and 2) mean adjusted posttest scores on the Grammar Production Subtest in English from the CERAS Spanish/English Balance Tests. (Individual student posttest scores were adjusted by using individual pretest scores as covariates).

The main findings concerning the relations of these independent and dependent variables are summarized in Tables 3 and 4. As can be seen from Table 3, five teaching behaviors were found to be strongly and positively associated with student growth:

- 1) *Commanding-with objects (COMMOBJ):* requiring the student to manipulate concrete objects or visual aids, thus providing the teacher with the opportunity to check the student's comprehension.

² All mean pupil scores are class means.

TABLE 2

Frequency of Teacher Utterances across Teaching Behaviors
for All ESL Lessons

Teacher I.D. #	Modeling (4)	Questioning (2)	Commanding (4)	Explaining (3)	Correcting (3)	Reinforcing (1)	Total Utterances
1	563	33	26	14	37	6	679
2	413	97	63	90	27	20	710
3	124	416	35	35	44	152	806
4	137	382	85	56	79	132	871
5	292	283	143	60	54	119	951
6	193	210	218	65	19	36	741
7	201	195	41	9	34	75	555
8	168	284	118	50	22	189	831
9	220	100	233	5	82	11	651
10	287	341	153	35	69	105	990
11	92	261	272	17	92	154	888
12	188	437	42	11	68	100	846
13	64	327	257	63	51	81	843
14	211	193	242	91	39	118	894
15	72	248	198	35	28	69	650
16	38	295	163	9	43	118	666
17	559	40	47	7	25	5	683
18	429	95	49	69	22	66	730

1. One modality (see Appendix A). 2. Sum of two modalities. 3. Sum of three modalities.
4. Sum of four modalities.

- 2) *Questioning-guided response (QUESTGUI)*: asking the student to respond to questions based on information previously presented by the teacher, thus reducing ambiguity for the pupil and enabling him to perform within his level of proficiency in ESL.
- 3) *Explaining-labels (EXLABEL)*: clarifying to the pupil the meaning of new words using synonyms and antonyms or saying the terms in Spanish.
- 4) *Treatment of Pupil Errors-overt correction of grammar (ERROVER)*: correcting the student's grammatical error directly by providing the correct structure.
- 5) *Variation of Lesson-types of activity (VARALES)*: utilizing a number of teaching behaviors (i.e., modeling, commanding, and questioning) instead of concentrating on a single teaching strategy.

Teaching behaviors negatively associated with student growth were:

- 1) *Modeling-verbal (MODVERB)*: requiring the student to repeat or imitate the pattern (i.e., sentence, phrase or word) presented by the teacher, directing the pupil to produce altered or new patterns.
- 2) *Treatment of Pupil Errors-pronunciation (ERRPRO)*: correcting the student's pronunciation even though he communicated (i.e., the message could be understood).
- 3) *Linguistic Accuracy-incorrect use of visuals, objects, or examples with linguistic patterns (LAVISOBJ)*: using confusing and/or inappropriate examples or visual aids while introducing or drilling linguistic structures.

TABLE 4
 Regressions of Pupils' Adjusted Mean Gain Scores on
 Selected Teacher Behaviors and ESL Test Score

Teacher Behavior	Comprehension		Production	
	Beta Weight	F Ratio	Beta Weight	F Ratio
Questioning—guided response (QUESTGUI)	.778	5.42*	.036	.02
Modeling—verbal; with objects; with physical involvement (MODTOT)	.253	.83	-.335	1.90
Explaining—labels (EXLABEL)	.753	14.15*	.690	15.55*
Treatment of Pupil Errors—overt correction (ERROVER)	.682	11.19*	.501	7.89*
Pace of Lessons—frequency of utterances (PACELES)	-.765	8.61*	-.213	.87
Score in ESL Test	.202	1.22	.274	2.93*
	R ² = .72	4.68*	R ² = .78	6.69*
	Adjusted R ² = .57		Adjusted R ² = .67	

*p < .05
 R² = variation

vocabulary and direct correction of grammatical structure show strong consistent effects on both the comprehension and production criterion measures. A consistent negative effect is shown by the teachers' pacing of the lesson (calculated as the actual or prorated frequency of teacher utterances). Teachers' scores on the ESL test also make a small but positive (and, in the case of production, statistically significant) contribution to pupil gains.

The selected teacher behaviors and knowledge of ESL applied linguistics explain a similar amount of the variance of class mean scores for the comprehension as well as the production tests. The R² coefficient adjusted for the small size of the sample was .57 for comprehension and .67 for production.³ In other words, the selected teacher behaviors and knowledge account for approximately two-thirds of the observed variance between the students' pre- and posttests.

4.3. Relation of Teaching Behaviors of High, Middle, Low Achieving Teacher Groups to Pupil Achievement. The correlations between teaching behaviors and student growth (Table 3) and the regression analysis used to assess the independent and the combined effects of statistically significant teaching behaviors on pupil achievement (Table 4) were based on the entire sample of eighteen teachers. Both analyses assumed a linear relationship between teaching be-

³The coefficients were obtained by observing the frequency of a particular behavior across the four lessons by using this formula:

$$\Sigma p^2 = \frac{\sigma^2 \text{ Teacher}}{\sigma^2 \text{ Teacher} + \frac{\text{error variance}}{\mu}}$$

TABLE 3
Correlations of Adjusted Pupil Achievement Scores with Teacher
and Pupil Behavior and with Teacher Scores on ESL Test

Behavior categories	Comprehension	Production
<i>Teacher Behavior</i>		
Modeling—verbal (MODVERB)	-.18	-.45*
Modeling—with objects (MODOBJ)	-.37	-.65*
Modeling—with physical involvement (MODPHY)	-.38	-.35
Commanding—with verbal response (COMMVERB)	-.12	-.12
Commanding—with objects (COMMOBJ)	.36	.44*
Questioning—guided response (QUESTGUI)	.42*	.39*
Questioning—free response (QUESTFRE)	-.30	-.14
Explaining—labels (EXLABEL)	.31	.50*
Linguistic Accuracy—incorrect use of visuals; objects (LAVISOBJ)	-.51*	-.65*
Treatment of Pupil Errors—correcting pronunciation (ERRPRO)	-.66 [†]	-.69 [†]
Treatment of Pupil Errors—overt correction (ERROVER)	.43 [†]	.37
Treatment of Pupil Errors—indirect correction (ERRCOVER)	.32	.35
Reinforcement (REINFOR)	.16	.36
Variation of Lesson—types of activity used in each lesson (VARALES)	.37	.57*
Pace of Lesson—frequency of utterances (PACELES)	.16	.33
<i>Student Behavior</i>		
Repetition—verbal (REPVERB)	-.11	-.41*
Replying—expected response (RYEXPECT)	.51	.42
Replying—free response (RYFREE)	-.23	-.09
Showing Comprehension—with objects (COMPOBJ)	.35	.37
Showing Comprehension—with physical involvement (COMPPHY)	.12	.31
<i>Teacher Test</i>		
ESL	.41*	.56 [†]

* $p < .05$

The data in Table 3 also indicate that the teacher's performance on the ESL test was a positive predictor of student gains on both comprehension and production tests. The ESL test examined the teacher's knowledge in 1) Spanish-English language contrasts (similarities and differences between the two languages—sounds, word formation, and sentence structure), 2) language learning processes (types and sources of student errors), and 3) English grammar.

Table 4 presents the results of a regression analysis undertaken to assess the independent as well as combined effects of selected statistically significant teacher behaviors as predictors of adjusted class gains in comprehension and production. Also entered in the regression were the teachers' scores on the ESL test.

The regression shows rather consistent effects for the teaching behaviors. Modeling, however, has positive effects on comprehension but negative effects on oral production gains. Questioning, which had shown only moderate effects in the zero-order correlations (Table 3), shows a strong independent effect on comprehension but no effect on production. Teacher explanations of new

haviors and student language learning (i.e., high achieving teachers had 1) *higher* mean scores than middle and low achieving teachers on the five teaching behaviors associated with student growth, and 2) *lower* mean scores on the three negative behaviors).

In order to verify this statistical relationship, the eighteen teachers were classified as high, middle, and low achieving according to 1) their pupils' mean adjusted posttest scores on the oral comprehension test and 2) mean adjusted posttest scores on the Grammar Production Subtest in English from the CERAS Spanish/English Balance Tests.

For the most part, the significant contrast differences (Tables 5A and 5B)

TABLE 5-A

Significant Contrast Differences between High(H)/Middle(M), High(H)/Low(L) and Middle(M) /Low(L) Teacher Groups (TG) on Teacher and Student Behavior Categories for ESL (Comprehension) Test

Behavior categories	H(N=6)/M(N=6)	H(N=6)/L(N=6)	M(N=6)/L(N=6)
	T G	T G	T G
<i>Teachers behaviors</i>			
ERROVER	NS	2.10*	NS
PACELES	2.92**	NS	NS
<i>Student behavior</i>			
RYEXPECT	NS	2.61*	NS
RYTOT	NS	2.22*	NS
COMPOBJ	NS	NS	2.55*

* Indicates T-values with a statistically significant level $\leq .05$. (d.f. = 15.0).

** Indicates T-values with a statistically significant level $\leq .01$ (d.f. = 15.0).

NS = not significant.

between the high/low and middle/low teacher groups confirmed the linear relationship of teaching behaviors (positively or negatively) associated with pupil achievement and paralleled the results reported in Table 3 and 4. On positive teaching behaviors:

- 1) *Scores on the ESL Test* (in relation to pupil achievement on the Grammar Production Subtest).
High achieving teachers had statistically significantly higher scores on the ESL test than low achieving teachers. Similarly, the middle achieving teacher had higher ESL test scores than low achieving teachers.
- 2) *Variation in Lessons* (in relation to pupil achievement on the Grammar Production Subtest).
- 3) *Overt Correction of Grammatical Errors* (in relation to pupil achievement on the oral comprehension test).
High achieving teachers exhibited (a) greater variation in their lessons

TABLE 5-B
 Significant Contrast Difference between High (H)/Middle (M),
 High(H)/Low(L) and Middle(M)/Low(L) Teacher Groups (TG)
 on Teacher and Student Behavior Categories for
 ESL (Grammar Production) Test

Behavior categories	H(N=6)/M(N=8)		H(N=6)/L(N=4)		M(N=8)/L(N=4)	
	T	G	T	G	T	G
<i>Teacher behaviors</i>						
MODVIS		NS		2.31*		NS
MODOBJ		NS		3.79**		2.88**
MODTOT		NS		2.36*		2.56*
LAVISOBJ		NS		3.05**		3.05**
LATOT		NS		2.27*		2.35*
ERRPRO		NS		3.17**		4.05**
ERRCOVER		NS		NS		2.10*
VARLES		NS		2.47*		NS
LINGESL		NS		3.05**		2.86**
<i>Student behaviors</i>						
REPOBJ		NS		3.30**		2.63*
REPTOT		NS		2.70*		2.63*
RYTOT		NS		2.26*		2.25*
COMPVIS		NS		2.20*		NS
COMPTOT		NS		2.29*		NS

* Indicates T-values with a statistically significant level $\leq .05$ (d.f. = 15.0).

** Indicates T-values with a statistically significant level $\leq .01$ (d.f. = 15.0).

NS = not significant

(i.e., modeling, commanding, and questioning), and (b) utilized more overt correction of grammatical errors than low achieving teachers.

And on negative teaching behaviors: “

- 4) *Linguistic Accuracy* (in relation to pupil achievement on Grammar Production Subtest).
- 5) *Correction of Pronunciation* (in relation to pupil achievement on Grammar Production subtest).

Both high achieving and middle achieving teachers used (a) fewer confusing and/ or inappropriate examples or visual aids while introducing or drilling linguistic patterns, and (b) less correction of pronunciation errors than low achieving teachers.

The categories of commanding with objects (COMMOBJ) and questioning-guided response (QUESTGUI), which were positively associated with pupil growth, could be observed in terms of pupil behaviors. Based on the oral comprehension test, pupils of high achieving teachers responded more to guided questions than pupils of low achieving teachers, and students of middle achieving teachers responded more to commands by manipulating concrete objects to show comprehension than students of low achieving teachers.

The pace of lessons was the only contrast difference between the high/

middle achieving teacher groups that did not correspond to the findings included in Table 3 and 4. The explaining of labels (EXLABEL) did not appear to be a significant category in the analysis contrasting the differences among the three teacher groups.

5. Discussion

The ESL methodology used by the eighteen teachers in the study revealed 1) an emphasis on mechanical language drills (i.e., the teacher modeling English structures and the student imitating the teacher's model), and 2) an adherence to a specific sequence of language skills (i.e., the student should first listen and then speak; reading and writing are postponed until the student has achieved a certain level of mastery of aural-oral skills). Since the teachers were asked to present the lessons in their usual manner, it can be assumed that the teachers' behaviors across the four lessons reflected their common strategies. In addition, an analysis of the stability of these teacher behaviors, obtained by computing generalizability coefficients revealed consistency patterns for the five behaviors: QUESTGUI - .87, MODTOT - .84, EXLABEL - .73, ERRANS - .60, and PACELES - .60.

While modeling was the most frequent teaching strategy for one-third of the teachers, and in the case of several teachers, the predominant teaching technique, the behavior was ineffective. Language drills based on foreign-language teaching methodology and stressing teacher modeling and pupil repetition may be inappropriate for second-language teaching. Drills asking for imitation of the teacher's model were, in part, developed for adults learning a foreign language not spoken in the U.S.A. Spanish-speaking children, even those attending bilingual schools, live in a situation where exposure to English is not limited to the ESL teacher. There are English-speaking peers, classroom teachers, and other school personnel. In addition, English comes into the home via television. Thus, modeling may not be useful beyond serving as a point of departure for more communicative language activities.

Correction of pronunciation may not be productive, particularly when the pronunciation error has not affected the student's communicative intent. Most corrections of pronunciation errors consisted of having the student repeat the target word or phrase only once. Correction of pronunciation may lead to better pronunciation, but correct pronunciation does not necessarily mean greater communication ability for the ESL student. Correction of grammatical errors, on the other hand, was found to be very effective. Current second-language learning theory views learner errors as successive approximations of the target (second) language system. Learners acquire aspects of the system in stages through such strategies as hypothesis testing, i.e., using a set of rules to ask a *wh*- question: *where* (you are going)? *why* (you aren't here)? and *why* are (you not here)? This teaching behavior might be particularly helpful because it provides the students with the feedback necessary to adjust their erroneous hypotheses.

Open-ended questions by the teacher were not as helpful as those calling

for a guided response. The reason for the effectiveness of guided questions is probably similar to that which accounts for the relative effectiveness of overt correction of grammatical errors. The most helpful role of ESL lessons as presently structured might be to provide the student with opportunities to speak and refine his approximative systems of English within a communicative framework.

There is sufficient evidence to suggest that teachers who have a knowledge of applied linguistics in English promote greater student language learning. This seems to indicate that the teaching of ESL does require some knowledge relevant to language-learning processes and English grammar. This does not mean that knowledge of applied linguistics will necessarily produce better teachers, but it does suggest that teachers must understand the nature of second-language learning and the language structure in order to be effective.

The selected teacher behaviors and knowledge of applied linguistics accounted for approximately two-thirds of the variation in student achievement in ESL. As noted above, student achievement was defined as the gain in posttest scores after controlling for the pretest score. The small number of analytical units (N= 18) and the moderate number of teaching behaviors (six) precluded the introduction of more controlling variables in the regression. However, it can be argued that controlling for initial differences in the pretest represents the most powerful control.

While affective variables may have a substantial impact on student language learning, the findings of this study based on cognitive behaviors present a strong indication that what teachers do as ESL instructors makes a difference. This also suggests that the effectiveness of ESL teachers can be increased through training, since many of these behaviors can be taught.

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Bilingual Education Goes to College: A Look at Program Objectives in Two Community Colleges

Ruth Otto and Ricardo Otheguy

Bilingual programs in higher education, unlike such programs at the elementary and secondary levels, are few in number and of recent origin. And it is only recently that they have begun to attract professional and academic attention. As this scholarly and professional interest grows, disagreements over program objectives are likely to increase. We have surveyed official publications, have interviewed faculty and administrators of two college bilingual programs, and find discussion of program objectives dominated by the distinction between transitional and maintenance bilingual education. Different colleges and different faculty members within the same college disagree on desired goals. When we compare the two programs, however, we find that, though they are described differently from each other, the term maintenance does not apply to either of them. Our survey turns up specific instances where the transitional approach is in fact the underlying educational philosophy even in so-called maintenance programs and we sketch some of the ways in which a maintenance philosophy might be implemented.

Educational programs for linguistic minorities in the United States have long been and continue to be the subject of considerable controversy in academic and government circles (cf. Epstein 1977). But this interest in bilingual education has so far been mostly limited to the elementary and secondary school student. The reasons for the lack of interest in the college or university student whose first language is not English are clear: until recently, the traditional non-native speaker of English at the post-secondary level was a well-educated, moneyed foreign student who came to this country to enrich his experience or study subjects not available in his own country. The special help needed by this small number of students (rarely above 3% of the student body in most universities, Williams 1973) has been minimal and well within the local human and economic resources of most colleges and universities.

But over the past fifteen years this picture has changed drastically, as a result of such well-known and most positive developments during the 1960s as: minority demands for equal access to higher education, open admission policies at many colleges and universities, and the increasing number of adults returning to school. This new population of non-native speakers of English

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in institutions of higher learning is drawn from widely varying national, educational, social, and economic backgrounds. But, for the most part, the new students differ from the traditional ones in almost every respect: they are not moneyed, or foreign, and do not conceive of college as an extra luxury designed to enrich an already well-rounded education. These three characteristics are particularly applicable to Hispanic students. While some of them are foreign-born immigrants or temporary residents, most are born in Puerto Rico or in the Northeast or Southwest of the United States and are thus native American citizens. (Natives of Puerto Rico are American citizens by birth.) They are also, by and large, from low-income groups and often arrive at the university with insufficient preparation for college-level work. The needs of these students have forced the colleges to start creating new programs and to begin looking at the issues that have for years been debated in the lower schools.

The creation of new programs has been slow. It was not until 1972, for instance, that the Association of Community and Junior Colleges acknowledged the need for and committed itself to special programs for linguistic minorities (de los Santos 1977). And not until 1977 did the National Association for Bilingual Education turn its attention to the post-secondary level, presenting a bilingual curriculum plan for community colleges at its annual meeting (Daniela 1977). As late as 1976, two government reports (see USOE 1975, USCR 1976) found the overall effort to include adult Hispanics in post-secondary education inadequate.

Concern in professional and scholarly publications for these students has also developed slowly, and it is only recently that a few brief descriptions of programs have started to appear. Gilberto de los Santos (1977) presents a guide for the implementation of a bilingual/bicultural program and then describes the existing program at the El Paso Community College. Daniela (1977) follows a discussion of various program models with a description of the program at the Community College of Philadelphia.

If experience at the elementary and secondary levels is taken as a guide, we can expect that, as programs and professional and scholarly interest grow at the college level, there will be a concomitant intensification of the disagreement over basic principles and goals of schooling for linguistic minorities, this time including college and university schooling. This paper examines the issue of program objectives and, in order to avoid familiar pitfalls, does so through specific program data, dealing with specific bilingual programs.

The division of programs into transitional and maintenance types constitutes only one of the many possible classifications (cf. Mackey 1970, Fishman 1977 for different schemes that are possible in principle, and González 1975 for a different typology of existing programs). But it is this simple division that we must deal with, and not the other richer and more reasonable schemes, for it is this classification that, as we will show here, shapes the thinking of college teachers and administrators involved in bilingual programs.

To explore the issue of transition versus maintenance bilingual higher educa-

tion, particularly as it pertains to Hispanic students, we will examine the bilingual programs at two community colleges with a predominantly Hispanic population: Hostos Community College, in New York City, and Essex County College, in Newark, New Jersey. Some initial details were obtained simply by inspecting the two college catalogs, but most of the information came from a series of interviews and phone conversations with administrators and teachers during the 1977-1978 academic year. Additional information on the colleges was obtained from their yearly reports, press releases and such, as well as from newspaper articles supplied in many cases by their directors of public relations. When the specific source of our information is not noted, it came from the interviews or the catalogs.

1. The Programs

Since 1970, Hostos Community College, in New York City's South Bronx, serves what its catalog describes as the largest concentration of Puerto Ricans in the United States mainland. (Of 613 entering freshmen in the spring of 1977, 79% listed Spanish as their first language; of those, Puerto Ricans form the largest group, Dominicans the second.) The bilingual program is an integral part of the college. There is no bilingual department or director of bilingual studies, but rather bilingual approaches are part of the work of all departments. Within this academic bilingual framework are content courses offered in both Spanish and English, an English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) component, and courses on Spanish language skills, some geared for students whose home language is Spanish, some not.

Two courses on Spanish for native speakers are offered for those students whose home language is Spanish but who read it poorly and have inadequate command of its written form. ESL is taught in the English department under its own director. The level of English proficiency of ESL students is established by an entrance exam. The results of this exam determine placement in the ESL sequence and the number of courses taught in English that the student will be required to take each semester (thus limiting the number of Spanish-medium courses that one can take). There is a definite attempt made to coordinate the work of the ESL section and that of the rest of the English department so that students can move easily from one to another. All students must pass an English composition course to graduate.

In the content areas, most departments offer both Spanish and English sections of their lower level courses so that the course offering in Spanish (including both Spanish-medium content courses and Spanish-skills courses) represents about 35 to 40 percent of the total. Programs such as Dental Hygiene have no courses in Spanish at all. The rationale for the exclusion of Spanish from these programs is that there is limited time to prepare the students for the professional exams required in the field, which are given in English.

Because of the great variety in the student population (some were born in New York, some elsewhere in the Spanish world; some can pursue their studies

in English, others are comfortable only in Spanish; some have just finished secondary school, most have been out for about 10 years) it is difficult to determine whether an entering student is an ESL student, i.e., whether he should be tested as English dominant and placed in regular English classes, or as Spanish dominant and offered ESL. The Hostos administration has found that the simplest solution is for the students themselves to opt for either the bilingual program and ESL instruction or the straight English course. If the student has clearly made the wrong decision, if he has chosen to be tested as English dominant and in fact needs ESL, he may then be retested and placed in the appropriate ESL section. Those students aiming for a four-year college and having enough facility in either language to make a choice generally prefer to take the English curriculum to meet the demands of the job market upon graduation. Students choosing the bilingual program and ESL instruction are tested not only in English but also in Spanish proficiency in order to determine appropriate level of Spanish language course and whether or not their reading and writing skills in Spanish are sufficient for them to participate in Spanish content courses.

Essex has a much smaller Hispanic population than Hostos—only 5-6% of the total student body. Within that number there is again a variety of age, nationality, and level of education. Entrance into the bilingual program is monitored even less precisely than at Hostos. If students identify themselves upon admission as bilingual, they are given an English proficiency test. If they do not, no further attempt is made to identify them. As yet, no testing for Spanish proficiency is being done. The basic components of the Essex program are the same as those at Hostos: the ESL segment also has its own director but is part of the English department. The student's English proficiency level determines placement in the ESL sequence and carries a mandatory curriculum for other subject areas as well. The last two semesters in the sequence fulfill the college graduation requirement for freshman composition.

The Spanish component consists of traditional foreign language courses. However, one section of advanced composition for native speakers has recently been instituted. A special course is also being developed for those Hispanic students who have little or no knowledge of the written form of the language.

The bilingual content courses at Essex are different from those at Hostos; instead of two separate sections, both languages are taught in the same classroom and are offered at the developmental and freshman levels only, with the exception of a few courses in specialized areas such as Latin American and Puerto Rican history. Liberal Arts majors may not take more than 32 bilingual credits; students enrolled in certificate programs may not take more than half of the required total number of program credits in bilingual courses.

2. Program Objectives

The bilingual programs at Hostos and Essex were to provide Hispanic students full access to their own language, under a policy that placed no limits

on the number of content courses taught in Spanish that students could take. This, however, resulted in large numbers of graduates who spoke no English and who themselves complained of their ineligibility for the job market. The pendulum then swung the other way: English became the focal point of the bilingual program; limitations were placed on the number of content courses that a student could take in Spanish; the push was on to prepare the Hispanic student for the realities of the world after graduation.

In attempting to determine what position the colleges have today with respect to the relation between the two languages, we find that the 1978-79 Essex catalog states:

The aim of the Bilingual Program is to enable the monolingual student to acquire a functional degree of linguistic proficiency in English as well as in his/her native tongue, while simultaneously pursuing an academic and/or career specialization. The Bilingual program utilizes an interdisciplinary academic curriculum in order to implement the *transitional* approach to Bilingual Education (p. 36, emphasis added).

The aim of the Hostos program is stated in its 1977/8/9 catalog:

(The goal of the program) is to enable Spanish speaking students to begin at once receiving instruction in Spanish while taking intensive instruction in English. This plan allows Spanish speaking students at Hostos to attain a level of fluency while taking instruction in English (p. 7).

This statement of goals is supplemented by the college's 1977 report "The Bilingual Program at Hostos Community College," which states:

(The program involves) student participation in the *maintenance* bilingual program which enables students to increase their proficiencies in both English and Spanish and to master college level subject matter (p. 7, emphasis added).

It is clear that language policy in the two colleges is stated in terms of the transitional-maintenance distinction, Essex's administrators describing their program as transitional, the Hostos administration calling its approach maintenance. In addition, the terms figured prominently in the conversations faculty members had with us and appear to have considerable influence in shaping their thinking about bilingual education.

The meaning of the term *transitional* is clear; these programs are intended to move the student as quickly as possible into the mainstream by providing access to English but without retarding academic progress in the meantime. Therefore the student's home language is used as a medium of instruction in content courses only until proficiency in English is achieved. The use of the term *maintenance* has had a more checkered history and it is now used to refer to widely different approaches. Still, the term implies the existence of a strong home language component which concerns itself with command of the home language for its own sake and not simply as a waystation on the road to English. Maintenance implies some sense of parity in the institution's handling of the two languages. This was the sense given the term by Mackery (1970) who contrasted what he called transfer (i.e., transitional) programs to approaches where "the object of bilin-

gual education may be to maintain both languages at an equal level" (p. 76).

It is possible by examining the two programs under discussion to see how each actually utilizes the Spanish language and whether each program actually provides a transitional or maintenance curriculum. The evidence indicates that the difference between the two programs is not as significant as their use of the two different terms suggests.

At Essex the program is described as transitional although at the department level there is considerable sentiment in favor of a maintenance orientation. A proposed curriculum guide includes a continuing foreign language option as a way to offer the student a maintenance program, a Spanish class having already been added to the basically ESL curriculum. But evidence that the curriculum is indeed transitional is everywhere at Essex, where nothing approximating parity between the languages can be discerned. Perhaps the most telling feature of the transitional nature of the Essex program is that at the time of our inquiry there was as yet no Spanish proficiency exam. A great deal of care seems to have been taken with the sequencing of ESL courses, but there is little evidence of the same kind of attention being given to the Spanish side of the student's work. Moreover, most courses teaching Spanish were, at least until 1978, simply traditional foreign language courses geared toward native speakers of English. Very little in the way of formal language or literature is offered for the student whose native language is Spanish, although a desire to implement such courses apparently exists at the department level.

At Hostos the use of the term *maintenance* suggests that a policy of parity between the two languages is in effect. With more experience, and more students than Essex, and a strongly committed administration, Hostos's Spanish program is indeed more highly developed. There is a beginning attempt to offer different kinds of Spanish courses for different kinds of students. Some faculty members are ready to admit that for too long there has been a tendency to assume that students with Hispanic surnames were proficient in Spanish and ready for content courses in that language. Now if the newly augmented Spanish proficiency test scores so indicate, the student must take remedial Spanish courses before entering the content courses. As we have noted, Hostos offers two semesters of Spanish for United States-born Hispanics who have had a great deal of exposure to the spoken language but little or no experience writing it. Hispanics recently arrived from other countries are increasingly required to take one semester of basic Spanish composition, since this particular kind of student also often lacks adequate experience in the organizational skills required in the higher level courses. And the feeling exists that even this course is not adequate, that eventually two semesters should be the minimal requirement.

But these developments hardly warrant the use of the term *maintenance* for the Hostos program, whose underlying philosophy appears as transitional as that of Essex. *Maintenance*, in the sense used by Hostos, does not mean parity between the home language and English, a position that would require devoting the same attention to the development of Spanish as is done with English.

Rather, maintenance seems to mean keeping the student's command of Spanish at the same level it was when the student entered the college. Under what appears to us to be a distorted view of maintenance, the home language becomes the object of celebration and affirmation—a welcome and positive move—but not of education. The college does not really commit itself to fully developing the student's literacy and command of a standard dialect for Spanish in the same way it does for English.

We were even told by some faculty members at Hostos that Hispanic students do not need a maintenance program, as the administration calls it, since they continue to speak Spanish in their communities no matter how fluent they become in English. This view reflects an educational philosophy similar to that of Essex, a philosophy that limits the involvement of the college with the home language to respect, consideration, and, on occasion, to use of it in a pragmatic vein as a medium of instruction, but never, as with English, to a strong push toward educated command and fluency, toward parity with English.

This lack of parity between the two languages does not stem from budgetary constraints. The problem is at bottom philosophical and not financial. At Essex (a lavishly appointed structure where images of institutional scarcity do not readily come to mind) there seems to be no policy governing use of language in the classroom, and all reports indicate the use of “both languages at the same time.” Now this approach cannot cost any less than one where for some sections the instructor conducts the class entirely in Spanish and affords Hispanic students the same exposure to intellectual discourse in a standard dialect as afforded to English-speaking students.

Other aspects of the programs at both colleges also reflect a philosophical stance rather than an economic accommodation. The far greater attention given to sequencing and testing in English over Spanish cannot be due only to financial constraints. The bundling of all courses taught in Spanish at the elementary levels can effect no savings over an equivalent number of courses spread out over the entire curriculum. At Hostos in particular, the continued preference for English courses by students bound for four-year colleges and the clustering around Spanish courses of less ambitious students cannot be just the result of a money-saving move. The addition of courses in Spanish as a requirement in respected vocationally-oriented programs like Dental Hygiene would not very likely cause costs to go up dramatically.

In short, neither institution as yet offers the Hispanic student the opportunity to truly maintain his language in anywhere near the same degree that English speakers are helped to maintain theirs. Despite the very positive steps taken by Hostos in the direction of maintenance, both programs are still governed by a philosophy where no parity between the languages exists. The facile use of the term maintenance to refer to programs where one or two Spanish courses are grafted on an essentially ESL curriculum stems from an understanding of maintenance as simply continued use of the language in the way it was used before entering college. But this definition ignores the fact that

learning one's native language is a continual process, one that is naturally integrated into the education of native speakers of English in conventional colleges at all levels.

As colleges increase the scope and number of their bilingual programs, a clear understanding of what they want these programs to achieve is essential. But understanding the goals of these programs will not be enhanced by repeated assertions that they are what in fact they are not. If, despite what it claims, higher education has indeed chosen to promote transitional bilingual education, it only clouds the issue to suggest otherwise.

A maintenance program should build on the knowledge already available to the student and therefore should be designed as an integral part of the curriculum with the same careful awareness of students' fluency and accuracy as is given to the ESL component. It seems clear that the colleges at the present time have no bilingual component outside the one set up for ESL, since the only structured programs are based on ESL placement. Otherwise there are no guidelines, no prescribed course sequencing. The English-dominant Hispanics, a population badly in need of special attention, are almost entirely overlooked. Those students who choose the bilingual program are, in essence, choosing ESL instruction.

Despite a growing awareness of the problems of Hispanic students that we found everywhere at Hostos, and to a lesser extent at the department level at Essex, the few Spanish courses inserted into the ESL curriculum are no more than a beginning, if true maintenance is the goal. Maintenance of any language at the college level simply has to be more than an exercise in keeping it at the level of the community and the home. It should mean continual language growth and awareness. It should mean movement toward control and mastery of all forms of the language. And finally it should mean for each student the richest exposure possible to his language.

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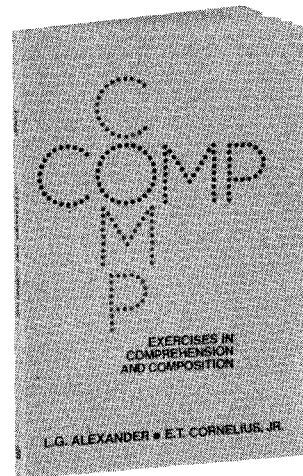
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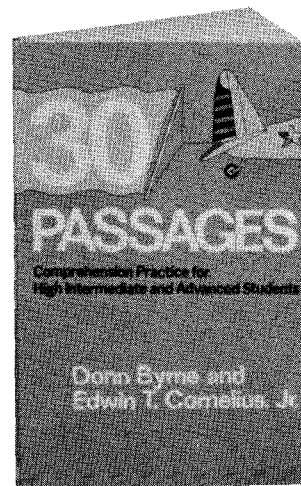
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Relating Language Teaching and Content Teaching

Bernard A. Mohan

Three cases of the relation of language teaching and content teaching are considered: 1) language teaching *by* content teaching, where there is a question of whether it automatically provides communication; 2) language teaching *with* content teaching, where there is a difficulty in the combined gradation of language and content; 3) language teaching *for* content teaching, where there is a problem of unifying the approaches of English for Special Purposes, study skills and reading in the content areas. It is suggested that certain discourse or cognitive classes may offer a solution to the last two difficulties. The analysis shows how widely accepted definitions of language teaching are inadequate, failing to take account of overlap with content teaching and the teaching of cognitive skills.

How L₂ teaching and the teaching of other subjects ("content teaching") can be related to each other is a matter of current concern in a number of public school systems teaching ESL. In recent years the effectiveness of formal language teaching has been questioned and unfavorably contrasted with the effectiveness of exposure to L₂ in natural environments (such as that provided by content teaching). In some cases it has been concluded that formal L₂ instruction should be abandoned and in others it has been concluded that formal L₂ instruction and natural L₂ use should be combined (Krashen 1976). In each case there are important implications for language curriculum planning: either it should be declared redundant or it should be integrated with content curricula or other plans for the natural use of L₂.

The issue of integration has received considerable attention under various names in discussions of language teaching for adult learners, particularly since Stevick's claim that all language lessons should contain suggestions for using the language which "embody a purpose outside of the language itself which is valid in terms of the students' needs and interests" (Stevick 1971: 54), e.g., "Tell your instructor the names of the people in the family with whom you are living, and how they are related to one another." In effect, these suggested tasks were to act as bridges between the formal work of the lesson and the purposes for which the student was learning the language. Stevick uses the term "task-centered" for a course which concentrated on such tasks. Recent developments of the task idea have been called "community tasks" and "contact assignments," but the main intention is still to provide integration between formal language work and those tasks requiring the use of language which the student will face

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in the target language community. One hopes thereby to increase the relevance of the language course, to promote transfer of learning from the course, and to take advantage of language-use opportunities in the surrounding community.

Content classes form an important part of the target language community for the public school ESL student, and constitute a set of language-use tasks crucial to the students' school progress. Relating L_2 teaching to content teaching is thus another case of task-centered language teaching, and there are three main possibilities for task-centered language teaching in the public schools which will be discussed in turn: 1) providing content teaching in itself, or L_2 teaching *by* content teaching; 2) dual teaching, or L_2 teaching *combined with* content teaching; and 3) L_2 teaching *for* content teaching, most obviously illustrated by teaching English for specialized purposes. In each case, discussion will be mainly limited to sketching central issues and making programmatic suggestions, for there is a lack of detailed information about these aspects of language teaching.

The question of the relation of language and content teaching is not confined to L_2 teaching. It has long been a concern in L_1 teaching (every teacher is a teacher of English), and is currently receiving attention (Barnes 1969). Furthermore, the general issue raised—the relation between the teaching of one subject and the teaching of another—has been debated in general curriculum discussions under the heading of “curriculum integration” (Pring 1973). A central question arising from these discussions is important here: whether the relation amounts only to mere coexistence, with the danger that neither content nor language ends up being taught well, or whether there is a genuine conceptual relationship which lends itself to productive use, enhancing the teaching of both areas.

There are various assumptions relating to task-centered language learning concerning causal connections and concerning language teaching activities which need to be explored at the outset.

1. Causal connections

Standard causal assumptions are that language teaching (LT) helps language learning (LL) and content teaching (CT) helps content learning (CL). We might consider also that content teaching and language teaching together (CT & LT) will help both content learning and language learning (CL & LL). However, there are two further, less obvious, possibilities which have to be taken into account: content teaching may help language learning and language teaching may help content learning. The five possibilities are given in 1, (a-e):

- a) $LT \rightarrow LL$
- b) $CT \rightarrow CL$
- c) $CT \& LT \rightarrow CL \& LL$
- d) $CT \rightarrow LL$
- e) $LT \rightarrow CL$

There are several relevant views on the relations between language teach-

ing, content teaching and thinking activities. These are listed in 2 (a-c). (Clearly, the list is not exhaustive.)

- 2a) LT & CT are different and mutually independent.
- 2b) LT & CT are inseparable and mutually dependent.
- 2c) LT & CT & thinking activities are inseparable and mutually dependent.

An example will help show the difference between these viewpoints. Suppose one has a passage like (3) and three different exploitation activities like 4(a-c), corresponding to 2(a-c).

- 3) A frog spends a part of its life like a fish, possessed of a long, eel-like tail and extracting oxygen from the water by means of gills. After a certain period, four legs make their appearance. The tail slowly disappears and lungs are developed to replace the gills.
- 4a) Use “the tail slowly disappears” as a pattern in a substitution drill.
- 4b) Ask a question like “What is the first change in the frog’s development which is mentioned?”
- 4c) Ask students to classify the frog’s development into stages and name them.

(4a) is a language exploitation. In correspondence with the assumption that language teaching is distinct from content-teaching, the passage is seen as an example of grammatical structures and used for structural drills. (4b) is a comprehension question—a content exploitation. Following (2b), the passage is seen as a sample of content manifested in language and the concern is for the student to understand the passage. (4c) is a cognitive exploitation. In accordance with (2c) the passage is viewed as data to be organised thoughtfully; the students are being asked to use a classification framework to impose order on the content. The same set of distinctions can be seen when anybody says something in the normal course of daily business. The speech act a) exemplifies grammatical structure, b) contains semantic information (a proposition), and c) is the result of a judgement by the speaker. The passage plus exploitation activities pattern (3 & 4a-c) fits a teacher-centered class best, but the speech act example shows that the distinctions are also more generally relevant.

2. L₂ teaching by content teaching: CT → LL & Assumption 2(a)

L₂ teaching *by* content teaching is provided when the learner is taught a content subject in the L₂ with the intention that he will thereby learn L₂. It is therefore assumed that content teaching will help language learning, i.e., CT → LL. A large body of evidence to support this is provided by French immersion programs, where a range of school subjects are taught through French. A general finding is that these programs lead to a level of achievement in French higher than that of students following courses in French as a Second Language (Swain 1974). A comparable finding from an adult college ESL

program is provided by Mason (1971) who compared foreign students taking an intensive ESL course with a matched group following regular academic programs and found no significant differences in achievement in English skills. Generalizing from these results it is easy to reach striking conclusions about courses teaching a second language directly: they should be replaced by content courses in the L_2 ; all second language students should simply be placed in such content courses; language curriculum planning is irrelevant and redundant. The more one believes that LT and CT are different activities (assumption 2 (a)) the more one is more likely to draw these conclusions. In detail the argument would run: LT & CT are different activities; CT is as effective for language learning as LT, and in addition teaches content; therefore abandon LT teaching in favour of content teaching. Clearly this raises the problem of how exactly content teaching can enhance language learning. A good place to look for an answer is to ask how far LT and CT are different and mutually independent.

Krashen and Seliger offer a definition of formal language instruction. Its special features are “ (1) the isolation of rules and lexical items of the target language and (2) the possibility of error detection or correction” (Krashen & Seliger 1975: 173). In the main this amounts to structural exploitation activities as in (4a), and grammatical corrections associated with them. (After all, teaching vocabulary and general error correction occur in the teaching of almost any subject.) Now, while this is certainly a description of what is *unique to* language teaching it is not necessarily a description of what is most *frequent in* language teaching. In fact it is doubtful whether the most structure-minded teacher would spend so much as 50% of class time on such activities. On the contrary, the language teacher will usually spend a large amount of time presenting a passage, explaining some of the vocabulary, asking comprehension questions about the passage, and answering student questions about it. But these latter activities occur in the typical content class too, often in the same format. On balance then there is probably more similarity than difference between the usual activities in language classes and those in content classes. Furthermore, it is most likely that it is these similar activities in content teaching which enhance language learning. It must be said, however, that in content teaching attention is on the material covered and the material is often of importance to the students while in language teaching the content material may be trivial and random.

Will the provision of content courses in L_2 —using L_2 as the medium of instruction—be a complete answer to problems of language teaching? A widely accepted argument for using L_2 as the medium of instruction is its placing the major focus of language activity in the classroom on communication: “The student can most effectively acquire a second language when the task of language learning becomes incidental to the task of communicating with someone . . . about some topic . . . which is inherently interesting to the student” (Tucker and d'Anglejan 1975). But do teachers and L_2 students really communicate in

content classrooms? Does using L_2 as a medium of instruction guarantee that there will be successful communication? It is relevant to look at the position of immigrant children learning ESL in Britain and Canada.

Many schools in Britain and Canada have moved away from the practice of inserting a new immigrant student into all school classes. There is now a more selective policy. Stoddart and Stoddart, writing about the British situation, feel that children in grades 1 and 2 can learn English solely through their regular classes, particularly when they work with class groups on practical projects, but see decreasing opportunities to do so at the higher grade levels. At the higher levels certain subjects are more favorable than others for learning L_2 through content: physical education, art and craft subjects, for example. What seems to them to distinguish lower from higher grade levels, and favorable from unfavorable subjects, is practical activity. These are content classes "in which language is regularly used in connection with certain visible situations which illustrate its meaning" (Stoddart & Stoddart 1968:63). Another factor in whether or not a subject is favorable is whether the content is familiar to the student, i.e., whether he has studied the subject in his home country. The selective policy is thus based on the possibility of language use in content classrooms being helped out by visible situations or familiar situations, i.e., it is an application to content teaching of the language teaching principle (of the British school) that "language teaching must be situational" (Billows 1961:6). It avoids placing students in a position where they learn neither language nor content and aims rather to assign them to a communicative classroom, that is, a classroom where the students can comprehend the material and the teacher's messages and the teacher can comprehend the students' messages sufficiently to give and be given feedback. No doubt successful communication takes place in French immersion classes, though how it is managed has not attracted much attention, despite the fact that it would have important implications for methodology courses. It is quite likely that the presence of a class of L_2 learners influences the teacher to adopt a range of interesting coping strategies.

Using L_2 as a medium of instruction does not guarantee successful communication. On the contrary, successful communication is something which has to be arranged and worked for, and an explanation of how it can be worked for is the situational one based on language teaching experience. Consequently the idea that content teaching in an L_2 is quite distinct from language teaching is very misleading, for it seems that content teaching must have some of the characteristics of good language teaching if it is to be successful. Finally the notion of abandoning language teaching is misconceived, because the simple distinction between it and content teaching has broken down.

Yet content teaching has a great deal to offer and emphasis should be placed on the fullest use of the opportunities it provides. Experience with situational content classes seems sufficiently successful that the selective placement policy should continue to be practiced, although it would be profitable to do follow-up studies to crosscheck this impression and to pinpoint problem

areas, such as difficulties with word problems in math. For those less situational content classes such as social studies, the success of French immersion classes suggests that arranging ESL sections of these courses for a whole class of ESL students would be productive.

What about classes where this is not possible? This is very much an open question, but it is important that the problem be seen as a matter of communication and not just of language. Content teachers could profit from observing the way communication succeeds in situational content classes, in immersion classes, and in classes taught by experienced ESL teachers. They could develop their use of techniques which increase communication but decrease language demands. For instance, since the visual situation is an important resource, a teacher could make greater use of visual aids and non-verbal communication and ESL students could be given greater scope for non-verbal responses by drawing pictures, diagrams, charts, time-lines and tables. Textbooks with a stronger visual element could be selected. The idea of using familiar situations and making situations more familiar can be picked up by helping ESL students to preview the content of lessons, and the clarity (redundancy) of lessons increased by highlighting the main points of a lesson. Since feedback is a crucial element in communication, students can be coached in the asking of questions to gather information and clarify instructions, and in the summarizing of main points (perhaps in cooperation with a classroom buddy who is a native speaker and who would give individual help).

Providing more opportunities for student talk in a student-centered atmosphere may have a marked impact. Stevens (1976) found that students learned more French in activity-centered immersion programs than in teacher-centered programs. In an activity-centered program a student typically chooses a topic within a theme suggested by the teacher, searches out information about it and presents the findings to the class in an oral report or other form of personal choice. (This may also be beneficial for L₁ students. Barnes et al. (1969) observe that L₁ content classrooms generally place the student in a receiving posture with few opportunities for discussion and they claim that more discussion would generate a deeper understanding of the content.) The goal throughout these suggestions is to provide the ESL student with a more communicative content classroom.¹

3. L₂ teaching combined with CT: CT & LT → CL & LL and Assumption 2(b)

An example of this would be a class of ESL students who were being taught English and, say, math simultaneously. How far can the two subjects be profitably combined rather than being taught separate but parallel, merely coexisting with each other? How far can the curriculum and methods of LT and CT be

¹ This is not to suggest that other factors, such as the students' feelings, ought to be ignored. As Cohen and Swain (1976) point out, the L₂ student in a classroom of native speakers is in a threatening and inhibiting position of potential failure and ridicule. Any means which improves this position is likely to be valuable.

combined, i.e., how far is assumption 2(b) valid? The question has only partly been explored to date, but the main problem seems to lie in the task of sequencing (or grading) language and subject matter simultaneously. To get at the issues involved, it is convenient to deal with five aspects of both language and content following Mackey (1965) with some modifications; selection, presentation, exploitation, evaluation and sequencing. These five aspects are present in any course, therefore in any language course, any content course, and any combination of the two.

- 1) *Selection.* A course must make a selection from the field of knowledge it draws on, so a selection of language and a selection of content must be made. In general this is likely to be a happy combination. If a student follows a math course he will automatically be provided with an appropriate selection of the language of math. Math texts originally designed for L₁ learners will probably have to be linguistically simplified, and if it is intended that the student will learn more than the language of math, more extensive language material will have to be added to the course.
- 2) *Presentation.* The information in a course has to be communicated to the student. If the math content is successfully communicated to the student, then the language with which it is communicated is understood, so that this too is a happy combination.
- 3) *Exploitation.* Any course provides student activities which work through and exploit the course content. These exploitation activities can be classified in relation to the presentation which preceded them. Presentation can be either by verbal discourse or by non-verbal information. Student activities can be either language manipulation, language use, or non-verbal action. Language manipulation activities such as structural drills are unique to language teaching. Special to content teaching is non-verbal activity following non-verbal presentation, e.g., practicing a basketball maneuver which has been demonstrated.

The remaining possibilities are common to both language and content teaching. This puts some recent ideas for developing communicative competence in an interesting light. Paulston's communicative competence techniques (e.g., role-playing, problem-solving) are in fact exploitation techniques earlier developed in content teaching (e.g., the use of role-playing in social studies). Other content exploitation techniques which are similarly communicative are simulation games, dramatization and various uses of discussion. All of these techniques can be used, not only for speaking, but for writing, reading and listening too. Communicative competence techniques lack serious and cumulative content, but this is exactly what is supplied by putting them back in the context of content teaching. To sum up, while there are exploitation activities special to LT and special to CT, there are many activities which can and should be put to common use.

- 4) *Evaluation.* As with exploitation, there is much in common to both language and content teaching. Unique to the language course is evaluation of language form, e.g., the grammatical correctness of what the student says. Special to the content course is the evaluation of non-verbal responses to information conveyed non-verbally (cf. evaluation in Physical Education courses). Usually, though, evaluation assesses both language knowledge and content knowledge, as in comprehension questions. While it is not difficult to mark for both, there remains the ques-

tion of how far the language learning goal or the content learning goal has in a particular program.

- 5) *Sequencing*. Is the course sequence to be a content sequence or a language sequence? In sequencing, unlike the other aspects, it appears as though language and content are incompatible. How can language teaching and content teaching be coordinated so that, for example, the student has the language to understand the content, or the content work advances the language goals? A standard answer is that the course should follow the content sequence and that the language should be fitted to it. Thus Cantieni and Tremblay (1973), in describing their K-3 program which teaches Math and French simultaneously through the manipulation of concrete materials, say that they first identify the math content and then extract the corresponding linguistic concepts. However, they use mathematics materials specifically designed for the L₂ classroom because they believe that math materials for L₁ students would be too linguistically complex. In addition, the sequence of structures they develop—starting with naming (*Voici un garçon*) and the questions and answers which go with it, followed soon by color adjectives, anonymous adjectives (*big* and *small*), *possessive* pronouns, simple commands, some spatial prepositions—is remarkably similar to the beginning lessons of the Berlitz direct method. A possible explanation is that the math learning is based on the manipulation of concrete materials, which is also the starting point for the direct method. It appears that the language sequence has not been abandoned in favour of the content sequence; instead there has been mutual adjustment and the manipulation of concrete materials has emerged as a bridge between content and language. Beginning the joint sequence with the description of physical objects, qualities and actions seems to be a promising approach for the beginning levels of content areas which lend themselves to the use of concrete, manipulative and visual situations.

It is worth noticing that the problem of content versus language sequencing is long-standing in situational language courses. Should the course be sequenced by situations (i.e. a kind of content) or by structures? In Mohan (1977) I argued that the discourse categories of description, sequence, generalization and decision-making act as bridges between situational content and linguistic structure and can be used as a joint sequence. An example of a course sequenced by discourse categories, Medeiros' (1976) adaptation of Freire's adult literacy approach for adult immigrant ESL learners, shows a discourse gradation from description to decision-making. A series of themes, (e.g., work) important to the learners as community members are identified and some stimulus material developed, (e.g., pictures). Using the stimulus material, the teacher encourages the students to describe their own situation in relation to the theme. One student's description may be written down and used as the basis for work with sentence patterns. The themes are cycled through several times and decision-making elements are introduced in later cycles, (e.g., problems, alternatives to the present situation, possibilities for action). The use of the students' own words to produce texts keeps the language demands of the course within the students' capabilities. Something of Freire's procedure is thus a possibility for content areas which can be approached through the development of familiar situations by a language experience technique.

The discourse-categories idea can be extended further to more general and

abstract material. A rough sketch of discourse classes from more specific to more general (i.e. in the direction of greater generalization) is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Discourse categories

	← more specific	more general →	
a) Description	individual description	comparison and contrast	classification
b) Sequence	chronological order	cause and effect	laws
c) Decision-making	decisions	alternative proposals	policy
	problems and solutions		general recommendations

Lawrence (1972) gives examples of some of these applied to various content areas. The prospects for further extension depend on how easily content materials will fit into discourse categories like these.

4. L₂ teaching for content teaching: LT → CL and assumption 2(c)

In this case a language class is taught with the intention of aiding the L₂ students' achievement in content classes, i.e., LT → CL. This discussion should go beyond the case where a general basic ESL course teaches a student some English with the result that the student can make some sense of any content course he takes later. This is likely to happen to some degree with any language course and requires no particular curriculum planning. It is desirable, too, that it go beyond the case where the language course has the limited objective of helping the student through the content in a particular lesson or unit, since this is similar to the objective of L₂ teaching combined with content teaching. The aim should be more general and long-term: to see what LT curriculum can help students manage content learning tasks independently. This is particularly important in the higher grades in the school system where the content is more abstract, the language demands are more intense (more lecturing, more reading and writing), and the student has a decreasing number of years to catch up in language and content achievement.

Two ESL models for L₂ teaching for content learning are English for special purposes and ESL study skills courses, (e.g., Yorkey 1970). Both assume that LT → CL, and would be redundant if they did not, but there do not appear to be any studies which test this assumption. A third model, developed for L₁ students, is reading and study skills in the content areas, and here there is some evidence for LT → CL. Thus Schiller (1963) found that the systematic use of study skills in social studies promoted a significant increase in geography achievement.

The recent development of English for Special Purposes materials can be broadly seen as responses to the question: given a passage (e.g. a reading passage) from a particular content area, what exploitation activities can you use? Three main responses (in chronological order) correspond to the exploitation activities 4(a), 4(b) and 4(c).

English Language Services (1966), entitled "Medicine," uses language exploitation like 4(a). Medical dialogues are chosen and the vocabulary items are used for pronunciation practice and the sentences for pattern drills. Clearly this does not go much beyond the practices of the regular language course. Margolis (1971), "The Department Store," uses content exploitation, like 4(b). For instance, there is a reading passage about how a department store operates, followed by comprehension questions. This helps a student through a particular piece of content material, but it is not clear what general skills are being developed (aside from technical vocabulary). Glendinning (1974), a volume entitled *English in Mechanical Engineering* in the Allen and Widdowson series, provides cognitive exploitation like (4c), a typical sample of which is a reading passage about engineering which presents a classification of engineering materials. The student is asked to extract the classification from the passage, noting the way classification is expressed, so that he develops the ability to recognise classification in his later independent reading in engineering textbooks, i.e., he would be able to manage a content learning task independently. This is different from content teaching, for the Glendinning book is not intended to teach engineering. The content material is not information to be learned; its role is to illustrate the content learning task. The student is studying communication rather than being engaged in it.

In general the study skills approach analyses the learning or study tasks that students face in the content areas, works out what general techniques are required and teaches them. Lists of study skills, however, tend to be a motley collection so that it is hard to see how teaching one can help reinforce another. "Using a library catalogue" and "word attack skills" do not seem to have much in common. One solution is to try to find some underlying framework for study skills.

The structure of the typical study task gives an accommodating framework that various study skills can be fitted into. A study task, (e.g., write a term paper, answer a question) requires a student to: a) gather information, (e.g., critical reading); b) organize it, (i.e., thinking of Bloom's taxonomy of memory, translation etc.); and c) express it, (e.g., thoughtful writing),

Are there common elements running through the gathering, organizing and expressing of information? There is no ready answer, but the outlines of a solution can be seen. For example, classification is an organizing pattern in reading material, a type of development in writing, and a thinking task (for Bloom, making a classification is one kind of derivation of a set of abstract relations which is grouped under "synthesis"). In addition, classification enters into "word attack skills," using a library catalogue is using a classification system,

and part of visual literacy is “reading” classificatory tree diagrams.

This shows that useful common elements can be found, and an indication of what other common elements exist can be seen by listing some candidate sets from likely sources. One source is texts in written composition. The discourse classes given in Table 1 are a development of ideas from composition texts. Another source is English for Special Purposes courses like the Allen and Widdowson series. A further source is work on Reading in the Content Areas, such as Herber (1970). Comparison of Herber, Allen & Widdowson & various composition texts shows enough points of similarity to indicate that a common set of cognitive categories could well emerge in the future.

From these considerations it appears that an underlying framework can be found for study skills and that it can be organized around cognitive categories. In addition, it seems comprehensive enough to incorporate Reading in the Content Areas and English for Special Purposes, with different cognitive categories receiving emphasis in different content areas.

5. Conclusion

The audio-lingual view of language teaching, with its stress on grammar and habit formation, de-emphasized content information and thinking skills, even though these are a natural part of language in use. The current interest in content and cognition makes us reconsider our assumptions about language teaching in a way that is valuable for the integration of language teaching and content teaching. A number of particular recommendations are:

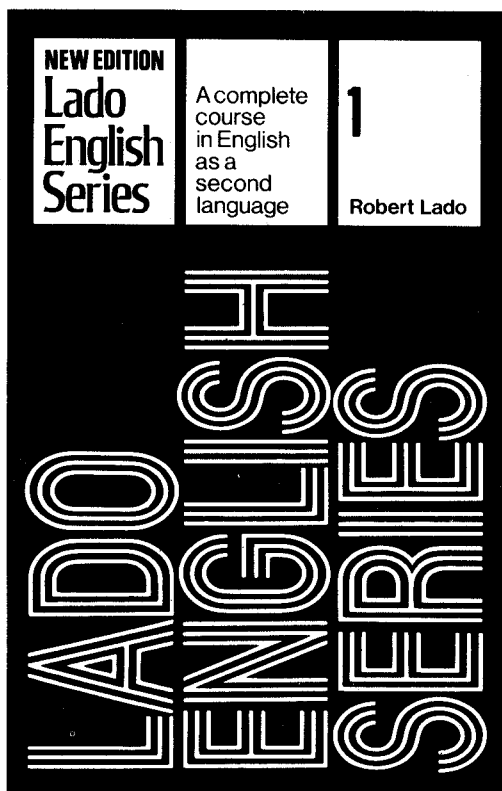
- 1) Those teaching language might consider also teaching content systematically. However, this makes demands on the teacher's knowledge of content.
- 2) Those teaching content to L₂ students might consider ways to improve communication with these students.
- 3) Those aiming to improve communication with L₂ students might consider ways of providing them with general techniques (such as study skills) to manage the tasks that face them in their work in content areas.
- 4) Those doing study skills work with L₂ students might consider how far they can organize it around a unifying set of cognitive categories. A remaining problem here is identifying the key categories.

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Partial Table of Contents

- LINGUISTICS, TESOL, AND BILINGUAL EDUCATION: AN OVERVIEW
James E. Alatis
- SHOULD WE TEACH CHILDREN SYNTAX?
Heidi C. Dulay and Marina K. Burt
- BREAKING THE RULES OF THE CLASSROOM GAME THROUGH SELF-ANALYSIS
John F. Fanselow
- ESL TEACHERS' CLASSROOM SPEECH: SUPPORT FOR THE L₁ = L₂ HYPOTHESIS
Stephen J. Gaies
- TESOL: MEETING A SOCIAL NEED
Mary Galvan
- REACHING FOR THE CHILD IN THE ADULT: ROLE-PLAYING IN LANGUAGE LEARNING
Mary E. Hines
- DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AT THE INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED LEVELS OF ESL: LANGUAGE CONTROL THROUGH READING DRILLS
Ann Hilferty and Amy Lezberg
- COTTLESTON, COTTLESTON, COTTLESTON PIE: POETRY AND VERSE FOR YOUNG LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
Jean A. McConochie
- NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM: A FRILL OR A MUST?
Carmen Judith Nine-Curt
- LANGUAGE, ETHIC BOUNDARIES, AND BILINGUAL EDUCATION
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The "Short Tests of Linguistic Skills" and Their Calibration*

Khazan C. Agrawal

The *Short Tests of Linguistic Skills* was developed by the Chicago Board of Education to help teachers determine language dominance of Spanish bilingual children aged 8-13. A latent trait model, the Rasch model, has been used to single out items that do not fit the construct of fluency in English or fluency in Spanish. After removing the defective items the English and Spanish subtests have been calibrated. Conversion tables are provided in the appendix for users of this particular test. The technique is applicable to any other test, and its effectiveness is evidenced in its singling out some defective items that remained undetected through traditional item analysis when the test was first published. Ability scores produced by this technique should be more refined and discriminating. The tables will be useful to those who are currently using this test or intend to use it in the future for establishing language dominance of Spanish-English bilingual students.

The *Short Tests of Linguistic Skills* (STLS) (1976) was developed by the Chicago Board of Education to help the teacher determine language dominance of Spanish bilingual children aged 8-13. The STLS battery consists of two parallel tests, the English test and the Spanish test. Each test is divided into four subtests: Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking, with 20 items in each subtest. Some of the items are multiple choice, with the number of choices ranging from two to four; others are scored as right or wrong by the examiner.

One of the two goals of the tests is to determine the level of English proficiency of the student. If the student knows enough English we do not need to investigate further. The other goal is to determine the level of Spanish proficiency which will help us determine the student's placement in a bilingual program, once the English test has established that need. In this paper it will be shown how bad items can be weeded out through the use of Rasch model technique. Using the same technique on the remaining pool of items develop two sets of calibrations will be developed, one for the English test and the other for the Spanish test.

1. Item Calibration and the Rasch Model

The technique for norming is based on the Rasch model. The Rasch model is based on some commonsense conditions:

*I would like to acknowledge the contribution of my colleagues Jerry Goldman, Tom Guskey, Mike Katims, John Wick, Carlos Rosa, Tom Sharp and Maria O'Brien, of Jeffrey Smith, and of Ben Wright and Ron Mead, authors of the BICAL program used in this calibration.

Mr. Agrawal is a Technical Consultant with the Chicago Board of Education and is co-author of *Mental Health* and *Going to School*.

1. The test is measuring performance on a single underlying trait or ability.
2. A more able student always has a better chance of success on an item than does a less able student.
3. Any student has a better chance of success on an easy item than on a difficult one.

From these conditions it follows that a student's likelihood of success on an item is a consequence of the student's ability and the item's difficulty. Rasch's stochastic response model describes the probability of a successful outcome of a person on an item only as a function of the student's ability and the item's difficulty. Item difficulties can be estimated independently of the student's abilities, thus making the concept of norming sample irrelevant. The tests of item fit which are the basis for item selection are sensitive to high discriminations as well as to low, and so lead to the selection of those items which form a consistent definition of the trait and to the rejection of exceptional items.

Wright and Mead (1976) have developed a computer program BICAL, based on the Rasch model, which produces estimates of item difficulties and ability scores, as well as a test of fit of individual items. Items that do not fit well are dropped and the remaining pool is recalibrated. The process is repeated until one has a homogeneous set of items that represent the construct being measured.

2. Sampling Considerations

In order to keep to a minimum the proportion of students that might have guessed the answers, we use those students who are relatively fluent in English for the English test, and those primarily Spanish-speaking for the Spanish test. Students with teachers' ratings of 5 and 6 (on a scale of 1 to 6) on English fluency are used in our calibration for the English test. Those with a rating of 1 are used in the Spanish test calibration. We also limit our sample to those students who scored above a certain number, another way of ensuring that responses are close to students' abilities and guessing is minimal. As pointed out, no separate calibration for different age groups is necessary; the sample we have chosen is drawn across all age levels (8-13) to which the test is applicable.

3. Calibrating the English Test

We started out with a sample of 1000 students from English fluency categories 5, 6, and performed Rasch analysis on the English test items using the BICAL program of Wright and Mead.¹ Students with numerous missing scores were dropped. Analyses using different cutoff points (minimum and maximum acceptable scores) were attempted, to obtain optimal conditions to test the fit. Also, separate Rasch analyses were carried out on the four subtests of

¹ The reader interested in further pursuing the subject can request sample outputs from the author.

Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking. All the analyses were in general agreement as to the items that did not fit well.

Dropping some misfitting items resulted in a battery that measured the construct of English Proficiency fairly well. The final battery on which our calibration is based draws from all four subtests. The analyses also suggested areas of the test and clusters of items, which were subsequently dropped, that did not conceptually measure the construct being measured. In the following pages we briefly discuss those parts of the subtests from which items have been dropped and the reasons why. The reader should look at the items in the test (Table 1) while reading this section. The explanations are by no means exhaustive; on the contrary, they are merely the most simple and obvious.

Table 1 (Pp. 184-197) gives a brief sketch of the test along with the correct responses where possible for quick reference.²

The items on which the English test is calibrated are in Appendix A; the conversion table for raw scores from these items to ability scores is in Appendix B.

4. Items Dropped from Calibration

English Listening, Part A: Items 1, 2 and 5.

Here the tester reads a word and the students check the word they think was said. These items are heavy on problematic sounds, and their mastery does not necessarily mean proficiency in the language or vice versa. Some testers themselves might have idiosyncrasies in pronouncing these words, making the students' task more difficult.

English Listening, Part C. This part is loaded with factual questions that might have more to do with general knowledge than with knowledge of English.

English Reading, Part A: Item 1. This question is too easy, and discriminates poorly between people with good and poor English proficiency.

English Reading, Part C: Items 13, 14 and 15. Questions 13 and 15 deal with mathematical ability; fluency in English will be of very little help in solving the problem, e.g., counting each person mentioned in the paragraph or calculating the number of months elapsed. In question 14, identification of April with Spring is a culturally bound phenomenon and might not be a measure of English proficiency. Questions 13-14 do not fit the construct.

English Writing, Part A: Items 1, 3 and 5. Knowledge of difficult spelling is not an index of one's knowledge of English. Questions 1, 3 and 5 fall into a "somewhat difficult" category.

English Writing, Part B: Items 1, 2 and 3. These items are quite easy. It appears that students with lower ability are doing as well as or better than more advanced groups who might tend to become careless about easy items.

²For a complete picture the reader should look at the *SHORT TESTS OF LINGUISTIC SKILLS* (1976a, 1976b).

These items might also be measuring some ability not confined to English proficiency. In any case, they do not fit well in the construct.

5. Calibrating the Spanish Test

For the Spanish test we chose a sample of 500 from the English proficiency category 1, i.e., primarily Spanish speaking students. As with the English sample, this sample was drawn randomly from all age groups. Rasch analysis was performed using the BICAL program. Only a small number of items were found to be misfits in the construct of Spanish proficiency; they were dropped and the analysis was repeated until a good fit was obtained.

The dropped items are discussed below, followed by a brief layout of the Spanish test in Table 2 (Pp. 198-206.)³

The items on which the Spanish test is calibrated are in Appendix C; the conversion table for raw score from these items to ability score is in Appendix D.

6. Items Dropped from Calibration

Spanish Listening, Part A: Items 1, 2. Students who in general have more knowledge of Spanish seem to do poorly on these items; they do not, therefore, belong in the construct.

Spanish Listening, Part C: Items 12, 14. For item 12 a student's knowledge of arithmetic is more important than his/her knowledge of Spanish. Item 14 has a cultural bias and therefore does not fit in the construct of Spanish proficiency.

Spanish Reading, Part D: Item 19. This is a bad item; there is no clear right answer and knowledge of Spanish will not help.

Spanish Writing, Part A: Item 2. This is a tricky spelling item; knowledge of this word does not have much to do with knowledge of good Spanish.

³For the complete test the reader is referred to the *SHORT TESTS OF LINGUISTIC SKILLS* (1976a, 1976b).

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Table 1
The English Test

English Listening, Part A

Students darken the circle in front of the word they hear said.

X	1.	<input type="radio"/> yet	<input checked="" type="radio"/> jet	<input type="radio"/> get
X	2.	<input type="radio"/> pest	<input type="radio"/> best	<input checked="" type="radio"/> vest
	3.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> bet	<input type="radio"/> bait	<input type="radio"/> bat
	4.	<input type="radio"/> bus	<input type="radio"/> bust	<input checked="" type="radio"/> buzz
X	5.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> ship	<input type="radio"/> chip	<input type="radio"/> zip

English Listening, Part B

Students write the words/phrases (shown) read to them,

6.	Will	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
7.	Jam	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
8.	At the table	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
9.	A spoonful of sugar	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
10.	There is no such thing	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>

● indicates the correct response

X indicates item was dropped in calibration

English Listening, Part C

Students darken the circle in front of the correct answer.

- 11. Can automobiles travel on roads?
- 12. Are there 14 eggs in a dozen?
- 13. Are lettuce and corn vegetables?
- 14. Has there ever been a man on the moon?
- 15. If today were Wednesday would the day after tomorrow be Friday?

X	11.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Yes	<input type="radio"/> No
X	12.	<input type="radio"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="radio"/> No
X	13.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Yes	<input type="radio"/> No
X	14.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Yes	<input type="radio"/> No
X	15.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Yes	<input type="radio"/> No

English Listening, Part D

Students write the answer

- 16. Write the name of the month in which you were born
- 17. Write the word which means the opposite of stop
- 18. Draw a circle and put the number that comes between two and four inside the circle
- 19. Print the word *Animal* and underline all the vowels
- 20. Make a square and put an X in the lower left hand corner of the square

16.	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>
17.	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>
18.	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>
19.	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>
20.	<input type="radio"/> <input type="radio"/>

● indicates the correct response

English Reading, Part A

Students darken the circle in front of the word that best completes the sentence.

1. A pineapple is ____.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> a fruit	<input type="radio"/> a flower	<input type="radio"/> an animal	<input type="radio"/> a bird
2. Airplanes can ____.	<input type="radio"/> walk	<input type="radio"/> airport	<input type="radio"/> cook	<input checked="" type="radio"/> fly
3. The ____ is a part of the house.	<input type="radio"/> book	<input type="radio"/> root	<input checked="" type="radio"/> roof	<input type="radio"/> foot
4. Milk is ____.	<input type="radio"/> a solid	<input checked="" type="radio"/> a liquid	<input type="radio"/> an acid	<input type="radio"/> a gas
5. Your aunt's daughter is your ____.	<input type="radio"/> uncle	<input type="radio"/> niece	<input type="radio"/> sister	<input checked="" type="radio"/> cousin

English Reading, Part B

Students darken the circle in front of the word that best completes the sentence.

6. ____ oranges do you want?	<input type="radio"/> How	<input checked="" type="radio"/> How many	<input type="radio"/> How much	<input type="radio"/> How long
7. These are ____ friends.	<input type="radio"/> hers	<input type="radio"/> yours	<input type="radio"/> mine	<input checked="" type="radio"/> my
8. ____ he study Spanish?	<input type="radio"/> Do	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Does	<input type="radio"/> Is	<input type="radio"/> Has
9. Did he ____ to the farm last week?	<input type="radio"/> came	<input checked="" type="radio"/> go	<input type="radio"/> went	<input type="radio"/> gone
10. That is a ____.	<input type="radio"/> chickens	<input type="radio"/> children	<input checked="" type="radio"/> fish	<input type="radio"/> men

● indicates the correct response

X indicates item was dropped in calibration

English Reading, Part C

Read the paragraph and darken the circle in front of the word that answers the sentence.

Last April, ten-year-old Carmen Pérez came to Chicago from México. The Pérez family moved into an apartment building five blocks from Lake Michigan. During June and July they often went to the beach. Carmen enjoyed swimming.

Now it is August and Carmen likes to play volleyball with her three brothers and four sisters.

She enjoys living in Chicago.

1. How far does Carmen live from the beach?
- 2 blocks
 - 4 blocks
 - 5 blocks
 - 7 blocks
2. What does Carmen like to play?
- volleyball
 - baseball
 - football
 - tag
- X 3. How many children are in the family?
- one
 - four
 - eight
 - ten
- X 4. During what season did the Pérez family come to Chicago?
- Spring
 - Summer
 - Fall
 - Winter
- X 5. How long has Carmen lived in Chicago?
- Less than two months
 - More than eight months
 - Less than six months
 - More than one year

● indicates the correct response

X indicates item was dropped in calibration

English Reading, Part D

Read the paragraph and darken the circle in front of the word that answers the sentence.

Raúl is writing a letter to his friend, Alfredo, in New York. Raúl misses Alfredo very much and wants to see him. When Raúl sits down to write, he finds out that he needs an envelope, and he also needs a stamp. He already has writing paper and a pen.

16. Raúl is
 writing a book.
 doing his homework.
 talking to his friend.
 writing to a friend.
17. Raúl has
 only writing paper.
 a stamp.
 only a pen.
 both a pen and writing paper.
18. Raúl is writing to Alfredo
 because Alfredo is far away.
 because Raúl has a pen.
 because he doesn't want to talk to Alfredo.
 because Alfredo has no pen.
19. The best title for this paragraph is:
 How to write a letter.
 Writing a letter to a friend.
 Raúl's friend, Alfredo.
 Raúl misses New York.
20. The paragraph does not say that Raúl has
 writing paper.
 a friend.
 Alfredo's address.
 a place to sit and write.

● indicates the correct response






English Writing, Part A

Darken the circle in front of the words that are misspelled.

X	1.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> joly	<input type="radio"/> sick	<input type="radio"/> mix	<input type="radio"/> No mistakes
	2.	<input type="radio"/> did	<input checked="" type="radio"/> tigre	<input type="radio"/> oven	<input type="radio"/> No mistakes
X	3.	<input type="radio"/> much	<input type="radio"/> such	<input checked="" type="radio"/> tuch	<input type="radio"/> No mistakes
	4.	<input type="radio"/> changing	<input checked="" type="radio"/> tarrible	<input type="radio"/> whistle	<input type="radio"/> No mistakes
X	5.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> nieghbor	<input type="radio"/> character	<input type="radio"/> determine	<input type="radio"/> No mistakes

English Writing, Part B

Complete the sentence with the help of the picture.
(A correct response is shown)

X	6.		I see a <u>rabbit</u> hopping.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
X	7.		The girl has a <u>sad</u> face.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
X	8.		The boy is <u>under</u> the table.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
	9.		The boy is <u>drinking</u> milk.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
	10.		Shoes are worn on your <u>feet</u> .	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>

● indicates the correct response
X indicates item was dropped in calibration

English Writing, Part C

Read a question and answer it by completing a sentence.
 (A correct response is shown)

11.	When did they do their homework?	①	②
	They _____ did _____ their homework last night.		
12.	Did you get to the airport on time?	①	②
	No, I got there _____ late _____		
13.	Is it night?	①	②
	No, it _____ is not _____		
14.	What time is it?	①	②
	I don't know what time _____ it is _____		
15.	I can't go alone.	①	②
	I can't go by _____ myself _____		

English Writing, Part D

Look at the picture and answer the question in a complete sentence.
 (A correct response is shown)



<p>16. How many persons are there in the picture?</p>	<p>(USE A COMPLETE SENTENCE) There are four persons.</p>	<p>① ② ③</p>
<p>17. Who are the members of this family?</p>	<p>(USE A COMPLETE SENTENCE) The members of the family are the mother, the father and the two children.</p>	<p>① ② ③</p>
<p>18. Where are the girl and woman working?</p>	<p>(USE A COMPLETE SENTENCE) The girl and the woman are at the sink.</p>	<p>① ② ③</p>
<p>19. What are the boy and man doing?</p>	<p>(USE A COMPLETE SENTENCE) They are both helping each other saw.</p>	<p>① ② ③</p>
<p>20. Why is this picture interesting?</p>	<p>(USE A COMPLETE SENTENCE) You can see what they are doing.</p>	<p>① ② ③</p>

English Speaking

Answer questions, some asked with the help of pictures (not shown) in complete sentences.

1.	(number of brothers and sisters)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
2.	(time you started school today)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
3.	(one wish)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
4.	(the weather today)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
5.	(popular beverage in your country)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
6.	(what I did)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
7.	(what this is and what it is made of)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
8.	(what part of my body)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
9.	(month and date circled)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
10.	(temperature on thermometer)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
11.	(big cities or small towns)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
12.	(place to sight-see in Chicago)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
13.	(disliked about Chicago)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
14.	(why Chicago is famous)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
15.	(neighborhood organizations for students)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
16.	(first sentence)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
17.	(second sentence)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
18.	(third sentence)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
19.	(fourth sentence)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③
20.	(fifth sentence)	<input type="radio"/> ① <input type="radio"/> ② <input type="radio"/> ③

Table 2
The Spanish Test

Spanish Listening, Part A (Escuchando español, parte A)

Los alumnos obscurecerán el círculo al frente de la palabra que han escuchado

1.	<input type="radio"/> aula	<input checked="" type="radio"/> jaula	<input type="radio"/> jala
2.	<input type="radio"/> ola	<input checked="" type="radio"/> olla	<input type="radio"/> joya
3.	<input type="radio"/> esta	<input type="radio"/> esto	<input checked="" type="radio"/> está
4.	<input type="radio"/> pera	<input checked="" type="radio"/> pero	<input type="radio"/> perro
5.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> pilla	<input type="radio"/> pillo	<input type="radio"/> piña

Spanish Listening, Part B (Escuchando español, parte B)

Los alumnos escribirán las palabras/frases (mostradas) que le han sido leídas.

6.	Oveja	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
7.	Guitarra	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
8.	Traje de baño	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
9.	La gallina come maíz	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
10.	El niño juega en el parque	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>

● indicates the correct response

⊗ indicates item was dropped from calibration

Spanish Reading, Part A (Lectura en español, parte A)

Los alumnos oscurecerán el círculo al frente de la palabra que mejor completa la oración.

1. El pájaro puede _____.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> volar	<input type="radio"/> disparar	<input type="radio"/> votar	<input type="radio"/> cocinar
2. El _____ es una parte del automóvil.	<input type="radio"/> remo	<input type="radio"/> ala	<input type="radio"/> timbre	<input checked="" type="radio"/> freno
3. La maestra escribe con la _____.	<input type="radio"/> silla	<input checked="" type="radio"/> pluma	<input type="radio"/> casa	<input type="radio"/> planta
4. La piedra es un _____.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> sólido	<input type="radio"/> líquido	<input type="radio"/> ácido	<input type="radio"/> gas
5. El hijo de tu tío es tu _____.	<input type="radio"/> sobrino	<input checked="" type="radio"/> primo	<input type="radio"/> hermano	<input type="radio"/> abuelo

Spanish Reading, Part B (Lectura en español, parte B)

Los alumnos oscurecerán el círculo al frente de la palabra que mejor contesta la oración.

6. Este señor es _____ padre.	<input type="radio"/> suyo	<input type="radio"/> uno	<input checked="" type="radio"/> mi	<input type="radio"/> mío
7. Aquellas son unas _____.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> manzanas	<input type="radio"/> tomate	<input type="radio"/> lechuga	<input type="radio"/> naranja
8. Yo _____ a jugar a la pelota ayer.	<input type="radio"/> voy	<input type="radio"/> iré	<input type="radio"/> fue	<input checked="" type="radio"/> fu
9. Los estudiantes _____ mucho el español.	<input type="radio"/> estudia	<input checked="" type="radio"/> estudian	<input type="radio"/> estudiamos	<input type="radio"/> estudic
10. Pablo votará _____ el Presidente de los Estados Unidos.	<input type="radio"/> para	<input type="radio"/> entre	<input type="radio"/> en	<input checked="" type="radio"/> por

indicates the correct response

Spanish Reading, Part C (Lectura en español, parte C)

Lea los párrafos y obscurzca el círculo al frente de la respuesta correcta.

En el mes de julio, Marta y Juan vinieron de España a Chicago para pasar sus vacaciones escolares y visitar a sus tíos. Se quedaron durante el mes de agosto y visitaron muchos lugares de gran interés.

Uno de los lugares que visitaron fue el lago Michigan. En el lago, Marta y Juan nadaron con sus tres primos.

Ellos están planeando volver a Chicago en el mes de noviembre de este año.

11. ¿De dónde vinieron Marta y Juan?
- de Cuba
 - de España
 - de México
 - de Puerto Rico
12. ¿A qué vinieron a Chicago?
- a visitar a sus tíos solamente
 - a pasar sus vacaciones solamente
 - a pasar sus vacaciones y visitar a sus tíos
 - a nadar con sus primos
13. ¿Cuántos niños fueron a nadar?
- dos
 - cuatro
 - cinco
 - nueve
14. ¿En qué estación del año vinieron?
- verano
 - otoño
 - invierno
 - primavera
15. ¿Cuándo regresarán Marta y Juan a Chicago?
- en menos de dos meses
 - en menos de cinco meses
 - en más de seis meses
 - en más de un año

● indicates the correct response

Spanish Reading, Part D (Lectura en español, parte D)

Lea el párrafo y obscurzca el círculo al frente de la respuesta correcta.

José es un estudiante en su último año de escuela superior. Él quiere una pelota y una bicicleta. La bicicleta la piensa usar para pasear y competir en las carreras de bicicletas. Con sus ahorros José va a comprar la pelota. Su papá prometió regalarle la bicicleta cuando José se gradúe.

16. José quiere
- una pelota y un carro.
 - una bicicleta y unos patines.
 - una bicicleta y una pelota.
 - una bicicleta y un carro.
17. José quiere la bicicleta
- para carreras de bicicleta solamente.
 - para jugar béisbol con sus amigos.
 - para pasear solamente.
 - para pasear y para carreras de bicicletas.
18. El papá de José prometió regalarle la bicicleta cuando José
- se gradúe de la escuela elemental.
 - se gradúe de la escuela superior.
 - se gradúe de la universidad.
 - gane la carrera.
19. El mejor título para este párrafo es:
- José, el estudiante.
 - Como jugar béisbol.
 - Una pelota y una bicicleta para José.
 - José y las carreras de bicicletas.
20. El párrafo no menciona que José tiene
- un bate.
 - ahorros.
 - un padre.
 - en mente pasear en la bicicleta.

● indicates the correct response

Spanish Writing, Part A (Escritura en español, parte A)




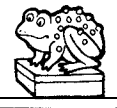

Obscurezcan los círculos al frente de las palabras que están mal deletreadas.

X	1.	<input type="radio"/> cielo	<input type="radio"/> comprar	<input type="radio"/> silencio	<input checked="" type="radio"/> No hay error
	2.	<input checked="" type="radio"/> lebantar	<input type="radio"/> viento	<input type="radio"/> abierto	<input type="radio"/> No hay error
	3.	<input type="radio"/> árbol	<input checked="" type="radio"/> ambre	<input type="radio"/> cerca	<input type="radio"/> No hay error
	4.	<input type="radio"/> aeroplano	<input type="radio"/> terreno	<input checked="" type="radio"/> curtivar	<input type="radio"/> No hay error
	5.	<input type="radio"/> peligroso	<input type="radio"/> desayuno	<input checked="" type="radio"/> tension	<input type="radio"/> No hay error

Spanish Writing, Part B (Escritura en español, parte B)

(la respuesta correcta es mostrada)

Complete las oraciones con la ayuda de los dibujos.

6. 	Yo veo un <u>nido</u> con tres huevos.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
7. 	Una de las pelotas es más <u>grande</u> que la otra.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
8. 	La niña está <u>secándose</u> las lágrimas.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
9. 	La rana está <u>encima</u> de la caja.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>
10. 	<u>El</u> agua está sucia.	<input type="radio"/> <input checked="" type="radio"/>

● indicates the correct response

X indicates the item was dropped from calibration

Spanish Writing, Part C (Escritura en español, parte C)

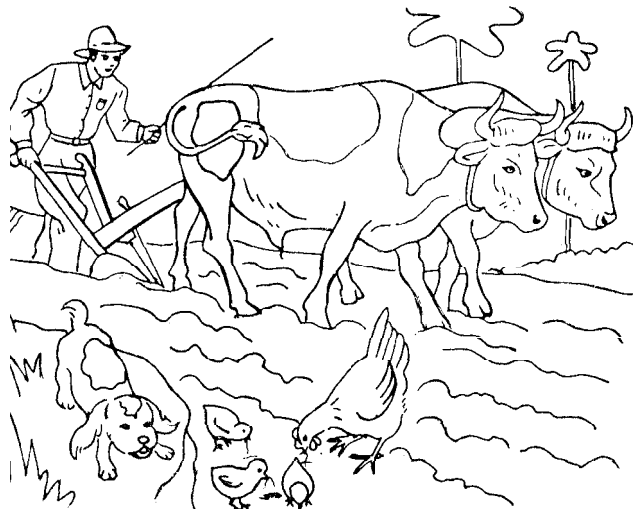
Lea las preguntas y contestelas terminando las oraciones.

11.	¿Quién cantará en la fiesta? Yo voy <u>a cantar</u> .	① ②
12.	¿No has comido aún? Aún no <u>he comido</u> .	① ②
13.	¿Quieres ir a la tienda? No, <u>Quiero</u> ir al supermercado.	① ②
14.	¿Qué vieron ustedes anoche? Nosotros <u>vimos</u> una fantástica película hispana.	① ②
15.	¿Visitarás amigos esta noche? Sí, <u>visitaré amigos</u> .	① ②

Spanish Writing, Part D (Escritura en español, parte D)

Mira el dibujo y contesta las preguntas en oraciones completas.

(Una respuesta correcta es mostrada)



6.	(CONTESTA EN ORACIÓN COMPLETA)	¿Cuántos de los animales están comiendo?	_____	①
			Hay 4 animales comiendo.	②
			_____	③
			_____	④
7.	(CONTESTA EN ORACIÓN COMPLETA)	¿Qué está haciendo el hombre?	_____	①
			El hombre está trabajando en la finca.	②
			_____	③
			_____	④
8.	(CONTESTA EN ORACIÓN COMPLETA)	¿Qué animales aparecen en el dibujo?	_____	①
			En el dibujo aparecen dos bueyes, un perro,	②
			tres pollitos y una gallina.	③
			_____	④
9.	(CONTESTA EN ORACIÓN COMPLETA)	¿Dónde en tu país natal encontrarías una escena parecida a ésta?	_____	①
			En mi país natal una escena cómo ésta se	②
			encuentra en el campo.	③
			_____	④
20.	(CONTESTA EN ORACIÓN COMPLETA)	¿Por qué es importante el trabajo del campesino?	_____	①
			El trabajo del campesino es importante porque	②
			el cosecha muchos de los productos que consumimos.	③
			_____	④

Spanish Speaking (Hablando español)

Conteste las preguntas, algunas hechas con la ayuda de dibujos (no mostrados) en oraciones completas.

1.	(desayunar)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2.	(meses en un año)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3.	(un viaje)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4.	(tarea escolar)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5.	(exportaciones principales)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6.	(explicar lo que hice)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7.	(que es ésto y para que se usa)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8.	(figura)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9.	(continente)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10.	(dirección en la brújula)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11.	(nombre del maestro)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12.	(tiempo para llegar a la escuela)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13.	(asignatura favorita)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14.	(diferencias entre escuelas)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15.	(deberes del director)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16.	(primera oración)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17.	(segunda oración)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18.	(tercera oración)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19.	(cuarta oración)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20.	(quinta oración)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX A

Items from the English STLS in the calibration

	Part A	Part B	Part C	Part D
Listening	3,4	6-10	None	16-20
Reading	2-5	6-10	11,12	16-20
Writing	2,4	9,10	11-15	16-20
Speaking	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20

APPENDIX B

STLS English Raw Score* To Rasch Ability Conversion Table

Raw Score	Ability	Raw Score	Ability
1	52	31	100
2	59	32	101
3	64	33	102
4	67	34	103
5	70	35	103
6	72	36	104
7	74	37	105
8	76	38	106
9	77	39	107
10	79	40	108
11	80	41	109
12	82	42	110
13	83	43	111
14	84	44	112
15	86	45	113
16	86	46	114
17	87	47	115
18	88	48	116
19	89	49	117
20	90	50	118
21	91	51	120
22	92	52	121
23	93	53	122
24	94	54	124
25	95	55	126
26	96	56	128
27	97	57	130
28	97	58	133
29	98	59	136
30	99	60	141
		61	148

* The raw score is the number of perfect responses on the items in the calibration (see Appendix A)

Inter- and Intra-Test Correlates of the TOEFL

Deborah Hosley and Keith Meredith

The present study provides validity information for the TOEFL by examining some of its inter- and intra-test correlates. Inter-test correlates included: 1) grades in an intensive English program, 2) accumulated scores from objective quizzes administered after each of 15 lessons in a course designed to teach listening comprehension and note taking skills, and 3) scores on the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) with subtests representing structure, listening comprehension and vocabulary abilities. In addition, intercorrelations were done within ability groups (high, medium and low, as measured by students' levels in their English program) to determine if correlation patterns vary according to the academic level of the student. Intra-test correlates consisted of investigations of correlations among subtests within the TOEFL. Factor analyses were used to aid in interpretation of the various correlation structures. The purpose of this study is to initiate a validation study of the content of the TOEFL.

One factor was identified through factor analysis of TOEFL subtest scores, with the reading comprehension subtest having the highest factor loading. The interrelated nature of the TOEFL subtests is supported by positive correlations (greater than .50) within TOEFL subtests and between TOEFL and CELT subtests. A high correlation between the listening comprehension subtest of the TOEFL and another listening comprehension measure, the listening tracts, as well as a considerable correlation between listening tract scores and TOEFL totals, suggest that listening comprehension may be a separate skill that is significantly interrelated with total score success. Grades in an intensive English program are not predictors of TOEFL success, although relative academic level is.

Each year English as a Second Language programs across the United States teach English to foreign students whose primary goal is to enter an American university in as short a time as possible. A requirement for admission for all students new to an English speaking society is to demonstrate proficiency in English as measured by a standardized test, and for many of these students the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) is the instrument chosen. The test, developed by the Educational Testing Service, has undergone various reliability analyses (e.g., Educational Testing Service 1976a, 1976b) which suggest the test will produce consistent scores ($r_{xx} = .965$ for total scores, $N = 215, 486$). Validity information, crucial for satisfactory interpretation of the test, is conspicuously lacking. Some validity evidence is provided by moderate positive correlations between TOEFL scores and another measure of English

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proficiency, the Michigan Test. However, it can be argued that these correlation coefficients are not enough evidence to give a complete picture of the nature of the TOEFL (Hosley 1978).

The purpose of this study was to initiate a validation study of the content of the TOEFL by examining some of its inter- and intra-test correlates. Inter-test correlates to be looked at include: 1) grades in an intensive English program; 2) accumulated scores from objective quizzes administered after each of 15 lessons in a course designed to teach listening comprehension and note-taking skills; and 3) scores on the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) with subtests representing structure, listening comprehension and vocabulary abilities. In addition, intercorrelations were done within ability groups (high, medium and low, as measured by students' level in their English program) to determine if correlation patterns varied according to the academic level of the student. Intra-test correlates consisted of investigations of correlations among subtests within the TOEFL. Factor analyses were used to aid in interpretation of the various correlation structures.

Various procedures have been used to validate constructs. These have been categorized as logical, correlational, and experimental (Shavelson et al. 1976). A logical analysis examines the consistency between the construct definition and instrument format, instructions to subjects, item content and scoring procedures. Correlational techniques consist of intercorrelations between facets of a construct to determine whether the facets deserve to be interpreted separately. Experimental techniques can be used in which an aspect of the test or testing process, identified as a result of a hypothesis or a counter-hypothesis, is manipulated for comparison between experimental and control groups. Since a major question being asked about the TOEFL for the present research involved the number and types of constructs within the TOEFL, correlational techniques were used as the method of analysis. Although correlational methods are considered helpful for identifying different constructs within a test, a limitation also merits recognition. The degree of association between two variables may depend on the treatment the testees have undergone (Cronbach 1971), in this case, the intensive English course. More generally, the association may depend on any third variable.

1. The TOEFL

The TOEFL is a standardized test designed to measure a person's proficiency in English, and consists of five subtests: listening comprehension, English structure, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and writing ability. The listening comprehension test has three parts: direct questions, conversation followed by questions, and a lecture followed by questions on its content. All stimuli are presented with tape recordings. The complexity of the content in this subtest was suggested when a critical reviewer (Chase in Buros 1972) wondered what was being measured: "Is it understanding of English, ability to take permitted notes, recall of details, general intelligence, or prior knowledge of the topic of

the lecture?' (p. 266). The English structure test requires the testee to select the correct response, from four options, which appropriately completes a segment of a dialogue. This subtest deals with tense, sequences of nouns and adjectives, etc., but no rationale is given for the selection of structure included (Buros 1972). Vocabulary involves "fill in the blank" questions such as in English structure, and definitions or synonyms. Four options are provided. Forty items comprise this subtest, with no rationale given for the vocabulary selected in the test. The reading comprehension subtest is made up of short texts with several questions about the content presented on the same page. The writing ability subtest contains two parts. Part A consists of sentences with four words or phrases underlined and labeled A, B, C, and D. The testee is to pick the underlined word or phrase that is incorrect. Part B contains incomplete sentences to be completed with the appropriate choice of four options. This subtest is essentially tied to basic grammar and has a format similar to other subtests. Whether or not recognition of an inconsistency in grammatical form tells us how the student would manage the form in his own writing is questionable (Chase in Buros 1972).

The entire test consists of 200 four-choice questions on which candidates are allowed to work for two hours and twenty minutes. Statistics were compiled for the test on a sample of 215,286 applicants who took the TOEFL from October, 1966 through June, 1971 (Educational Testing Service 1976a, 1976b). Mean standardized scores on the subtests were approximately 49 with a standard deviation of 9, while the mean standardized score for the total exam was 488, with a standard deviation of approximately 83. Recently, the Educational Testing Service changed their subtest structure from five subtests to three: 1) listening comprehension, 2) structure and written expression, and 3) reading comprehension and vocabulary. The number of items has been reduced from 200 to 150. The new format has been introduced in all international testings beginning September, 1976, while the old format is still being used in most institutional testings and TOEFL Center testings. Data for the present study consist of scores of the five subtest exam. Implications of the findings of the present study for the change in subtest structure will be noted.

Although no empirical research has been published by the Educational Testing Service concerning the validity of the TOEFL, the test has been considered valid for measuring English proficiency in foreign speakers (Educational Testing Service 1976b). However, Educational Testing Service stated (1976b) that English proficiency is an ability that may change greatly with the passage of time and experience and therefore would be a poor predictor of college level grade point average. Some validity evidence is demonstrated by moderate positive correlations. (.45 to .66) between TOEFL scores and Michigan Test scores (Pack 1972) (N = 402). The Michigan Test is a measure of English proficiency for foreigners, testing structure, grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and oral comprehension.

2. Intra-Test Correlates

2.1. *All Subjects.* Correlations between distinct TOEFL subtests varied from .45 to .73, and are represented in Table 1. Davis (1972) in an extensive review of

TABLE 1
Intra-Test Correlates: TOEFL Subtest Intercorrelations*

	II	III	IV	V	TOTAL
I	r=.57	r=.50	r=.66	r=.62	r=.82
II		r=.45	r=.60	r=.67	r=.78
III			r=.73	r=.52	r=.80
IV				r=.67	r=.89
V					r=.83

KEY:

- I Listening Comprehension
- II Structure
- III Vocabulary
- IV Reading Comprehension
- V Writing Ability

(N=169, $p < .001$ in all cases)

psychometric research on reading comprehension concluded that word knowledge is a fundamental part of reading comprehension. This suggests that the high correlation between scores on the reading comprehension and vocabulary subtests, the highest of the correlations, was due to the interrelated nature of vocabulary and reading comprehension abilities. This finding also supported the Educational Testing Service's action of creating one subtest (reading comprehension and vocabulary) from the two separate subtests. Similarly, support was given for the change from the separate subtest of writing ability and English structure to a single subtest, by the moderately high positive correlation between the scores of the two subtests. However, note that vocabulary scores also correlated significantly with listening comprehension scores and that writing ability scores correlated significantly with both listening comprehension and reading comprehension scores as well. It is not clear from these data whether the abilities measured by the subtests of TOEFL are a complexly interrelated whole or whether the intercorrelations represent distinct clusters of scores. Consideration of the results of a factor analysis added further information to this issue.

One factor was identified in a factor analysis of subtest scores for the 1969 testees. The correlation matrix of subtest scores showed most subtest scores to correlate in a similar manner, representing one major construct underlying the many measures. Scores that were not related to, or loaded on, this factor, either were not related to each other or did not account for enough of the variance

of scores to be considered a separate factor; thus, no second factor or underlying construct could be identified. Scores from the reading comprehension and writing ability subtests were more highly loaded on the factor identified by the factor analysis than scores from the listening comprehension, structure, and vocabulary subtests. These results suggested that one predominant factor is being measured by the TOEFL with the reading comprehension subtest being most representative of this factor having highest factor loading. Loadings for this factor are reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2
TOEFL Subtests: Factor Loadings

TOEFL SUBTEST	FACTOR 1
LISTENING COMPREHENSION	.75
STRUCTURE	.73
VOCABULARY	.70
READING COMPREHENSION	.89
WRITING ABILITY	.80

Comparing standard scores of this sample of testees (see Table 3) to norms compiled by the Educational Testing Service (1976b), overall scores were lower than average (.67 of a standard deviation below published norms) and scores on the vocabulary and writing ability subtests were the lowest of all subtests (one standard deviation below published norms for both subtests).

2.2. Academic Levels. All of the TOEFL testees in the present study were participating in a course of intensive English at the Center for English as a Second Language (CESL) in Tucson, Arizona. New students to the program were placed in class levels according to scores on the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT); returning students were placed according to teacher recommendations based on performance in a previous term in the program. Testees were divided into three approximately equal groups (high, medium and low) according to their relative academic level in CESL.

Correlations of scores between the reading comprehension and vocabulary subtests were high for all three groups (low: $r=.63$; medium: $r=.79$; high: $r=-.62$; for the low and medium academic levels these were the only two subtests whose scores correlated higher than .50. For the highest academic level, correlation coefficients were greater than .50 for the scores on the reading comprehension and listening comprehension subtests ($r=.57$) and on the reading comprehension and writing ability subtests ($r=.61$). At this level, scores on the writing ability subtest also resulted in a high positive correlation ($r=.78$) with total TOEFL scores. For the high academic level, abilities measured by the reading comprehension, vocabulary and writing ability subtests all seem to be related to overall success on the test. For the lower two academic levels

TABLE 3
Means and Standard Deviations for TOEFL Subtests by Level

LEVEL	SUBTESTS									
	Listening Comprehension		Structure		Vocabulary		Reading Comprehension		Writing Ability	
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.
OVER-ALL	50.77	8.74	44.26	6.79	40.17	10.09	43.05	7.22	40.81	7.94
1	43.63	6.17	39.07	5.14	35.80	8.88	36.61	5.03	34.81	4.94
2	50.52	7.45	44.81	5.25	40.94	10.94	43.50	6.45	40.25	5.39
3	56.79	6.62	49.10	5.95	44.19	8.90	47.64	6.95	48.04	7.32

only the abilities measured by the reading comprehension and vocabulary subtests are significantly interrelated; success on both of these subtests is related to success on the overall test. This may be due in part to the relatively restricted range of scores in the lower levels.

3. Inter-Test Correlation

3.1. The Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT). The CELT is a measure of English proficiency for individuals whose native language is other than English. It is a multiple-choice format test consisting of three subtests: structure, listening comprehension and vocabulary. The structure subtest is introduced as a test of English grammar but also tests reading abilities and knowledge of idioms. The listening comprehension subtest is a test of aural comprehension that also involves the reading skills required to process the printed alternatives to the orally presented questions. The vocabulary test involves the assessment of college-oriented vocabulary, but has been criticized (Buros 1972) for involving "everyday household words." Appropriate reliability figures are available for the CELT but the test is lacking validity information (Buros 1972). CESL students were required to take the CELT at the end of each term approximately at the time the TOEFL was administered. Each group (subtests and total) of TOEFL scores has been correlated with each group (subtests and total) of CELT scores.

Table 4 represents the correlations between TOEFL subtests and CELT subtests and total scores. Correlations varied from .36 to .79. Of 20 possible combinations, only two pairs had correlation coefficients lower than .50. The highest correlations were found between TOEFL listening comprehension and CELT structure subtests ($r=.79$); TOEFL structure and CELT vocabulary subtest ($r=.77$); TOEFL vocabulary and CELT listening comprehension subtests ($r=.72$); and TOEFL writing ability and CELT listening comprehension ($r=.74$) and vocabulary ($r=.71$) subtests.

Scores from the TOEFL writing ability subtests correlated positively ($r=.50$)

with CELT total scores. Scores from the CELT listening comprehension subtest correlated highly ($r = .75$) with TOEFL total scores. Correlations of total scores for the two tests resulted in a moderately high correlation coefficient ($r = .64$). The correlation coefficients indicate that the two exams have considerable overlap (41% of the variance, as determined by the coefficient of determination, of total scores can be accounted for by this commonality). However, the subtests of the two tests with the same labels (i.e., vocabulary, listening comprehension and structure) are not those pairs of subtests that correlate the highest. Even though there is considerable overlap between the two tests there is not direct correspondence between subtests of the two tests with the same label.

TABLE 4
Inter-Test Correlates: TOEFL Subtests, CELT Scores and Class Grade

			II	III	IV	V	
CELT	STRUCTURE	r n s	.79 122 .001	.58 122 .001	.36 122 .001	.51 122 .001	.63 122 .001
	LISTENING COMPREHENSION	r n s	.53 145 .001	.52 145 .001	.72 145 .001	.74 145 .001	.65 145 .001
	VOCABULARY	r n s	.59 40 .001	.77 140 .001	.41 140 .001	.63 140 .001	.71 140 .001
CORES	TOTAL	r n s	.52 155 .001	.52 155 .001	.39 155 .001	.43 155 .001	.50 155 .001
CLASS	AUDIO- LINGUAL	r n s	.06 169 .233	.19 169 .006	.21 169 .004	.22 169 .002	.20 169 .004
	READING COMPREHENSION	r n s	.10 167 .089	.22 167 .002	.32 167 .001	.30 167 .001	.19 167 .007
	COMPOSITION	r n s	.01 168 .45	.14 168 .032	.15 168 .025	.15 168 .026	.12 168 .07
GRADES	SEMINAR	r n s	.03 144 .277	.21 144 .000	.15 144 .03	.16 144 .025	.15 144 .032
	ROUND TABLE	r n s	.11 156 .087	.23 156 .002	.22 156 .002	.27 156 .001	.17 156 .016
	LABORATORY	r n s	.11 143 .094	.17 143 .018	.26 143 .001	.21 143 .005	.16 143 .028

3.2. Class Grades and Academic Level. Class grades from CESL's intensive English program were recorded for all TOEFL candidates in the present study. The classes were 1) audiolingual, emphasizing speaking ability; 2) reading

comprehension; 3) composition, emphasizing the instruction of English structure; 4) seminar, emphasizing listening comprehension; 5) round table, a course of reading and discussion; and 6) laboratory, a course of listening comprehension, and at the advanced level, note-taking skill. Although various correlations between class grades and TOEFL scores were significantly different from zero (see Table 4), no correlation accounted for more than 10 percent of the variance of scores. This was considered insufficient as additional validity information. Academic level (high, medium and low) resulted in moderately high positive correlations when correlated with TOEFL total scores ($r = .63$) and the following TOEFL subtests: writing ability ($r = .68$), listening comprehension ($r = .63$), and structure ($r = .61$).

3.3. Listening Tracts for Students of English as a Second Language. A subgroup ($n = 22$) of the TOEFL testees participated in a laboratory course that used a text designed to teach and measure listening comprehension and note-taking skills (Dunkel & Pialorsi 1979). Students were administered 15 objective quizzes (20 to 35 items each) throughout the term. Correlation coefficients were greater than .50 for correlations between cumulative listening tract scores and the following TOEFL scores: Listening comprehension ($r = .78$), reading comprehension ($r = .57$), and totals ($r = .63$). These correlation coefficients suggest that listening comprehension abilities are a separate skill, important for overall success on the exam.

4. Summary

One factor was identified through factor analysis of TOEFL subtests with the reading comprehension subtest having the highest factor loading. The interrelated nature of the TOEFL subtests is supported by positive correlations (greater than .50) within TOEFL subtests and between TOEFL and CELT subtests. A high correlation between the Listening Comprehension subtest of the TOEFL and another listening comprehension measure, the Listening Tracts, as well as a considerable correlation between Listening Tract scores and TOEFL total scores, suggest that listening comprehension may be a separate skill that is significantly interrelated with total score success. Grades in an intensive English program are not predictors of TOEFL success, although relative academic level is.

5. Discussion

The question we are prepared to ask after considering the above data is: If TOEFL is measuring a construct such as English proficiency, how do empirical data show that construct to be structured? Chapman (reported in Davis 1972) has described three theories of comprehension in reading. For the purpose of discussion we would like to apply the three theories to the broader construct, language proficiency. With this modification, the three theories are:

1. The uncorrelated, or isolated, skills theory, which postulates that pro-
-

iciency in a language is made up of a set of skills or mental processes that are learned and used independently, and in any order.

2. The global skill theory, which postulates that language proficiency is a unitary ability that, in combination with errors of measurement alone, accounts for all of the variance of measurement of language proficiency.

3. The hierarchical skills theory, which postulates that language proficiency is made up of separate but correlated skills and that these differ in complexity because the more complex include all or parts of the simpler, or more basic, ones.

Considering the evidence presented regarding TOEFL inter- and intra-test correlates, the uncorrelated skills theory can be rejected. Some subtests (e.g., vocabulary and reading comprehension) seem to measure abilities measured by several other subtests. The high correlations between subtests purporting to measure widely varying abilities (e.g., structure and listening) further disconfirms this theory. The global skills theory is more tenable since the factor analysis resulted in one factor, suggesting a unitary ability. However, the high correlation between listening tract scores and the listening comprehension subtest encourages us to consider the possibility of separate but hierarchically related skills as proposed by the hierarchical skills theory. The idea that the skills that comprise language proficiency vary in complexity and are hierarchically ordered is compatible with, but not derivable from, the presented data. Many more empirical findings must be added to old ones to develop an increasingly more complex and formal description of the construct of language proficiency on the one hand, and the validity of a measurement instrument, such as the TOEFL, on the other.

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The Cloze Procedure and Proficiency in English as a Foreign Language

J. Charles Alderson

The cloze test has received considerable attention in recent years from testers and teachers of English as a foreign language, and is becoming more widely used in language tests, both in the classroom and in standardized tests. However, most of the research has been carried out with native speakers of English and the results do not produce clear-cut evidence that the cloze test is a valid test of reading comprehension. The article reports on a series of experiments carried out on the cloze procedure where the variables of text difficulty, scoring procedure and deletion frequency were systematically varied and that variation examined for its effect on the relationship of the cloze test to measures of proficiency in English as a Foreign Language. Previous assumptions about what the cloze procedure tests are questioned and it is suggested that cloze tests are not suitable tests of higher-order language skills, but can provide a measure of lower-order core proficiency. Testers and teachers should not assume that the procedure will produce automatically valid tests of proficiency in English as a Foreign Language.

The term *cloze procedure* is used in at least three different ways. The first and most general level of definition is "the systematic deletion of words from text," where systematic remains undefined. The second definition takes the word systematic and divides it into two types of systems: either a random (or, better, pseudo-random) deletion of words, or a rational deletion. A third definition, which is increasingly common in the literature, is the deletion of every fifth word from text (i.e., not just pseudo-random, but a specific deletion frequency).

The scoring of cloze tests can be carried out in various ways, and the procedure may still be referred to as the cloze procedure. The commonest way of scoring responses to a cloze test is to allow credit only for the restoration of the exact word deleted (minor misspellings apart). However, especially in the use of the procedure in EFL testing, it is common to allow as correct either synonyms of the deleted word, or semantically acceptable replacements. Researchers have also used other scoring procedures, like the form class score (allowing credit for any response which comes from the same form class as the deletion), or the clozentropy score (sometimes known as the communality of response score) which gives weighted credit for responses which are the same as responses given by a criterion group (usually native speakers of the language). Thus, the cloze procedure can be understood as both the procedure which deletes every fifth word, and allows as a correct replacement only the

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exact word deleted, and a procedure which deletes every second preposition and allows as a correct restoration any preposition. Normally, and in this paper, *cloze procedure* refers to the pseudo-random deletion procedure.

The bibliography on cloze is vast (for a recent review, see Alderson 1978). Since Taylor (1953) the general consensus of studies into and with the procedure has been that it is a reliable and valid measure of readability and reading comprehension for native speakers of English.

With non-native speakers, not a great deal of research has been done, but what there is suggests that cloze correlates well with measures of EFL proficiency. See, for example, Oller and Conrad (1971), Oller (1973), Oller Atai and Irvine (1974), Stubbs and Tucker (1974), Aitken (1977), Streiff (1978).

Oller (1972) found cloze to relate more to dictation and reading comprehension tests than to traditional, as he called them "discrete-point" tests of grammar and vocabulary. He thus claimed that cloze, as well as dictation, were integrative tests, and very useful for the measuring of *global* skills. Influenced by Oiler's conclusions, foreign language testers have tended to regard the cloze as an automatically valid procedure which results in universally valid tests of language and reading.

However, several questions need to be asked of the procedure:

1) Does the text on which the test is based influence the validity of the cloze test? Would you always get the same results, regardless of the text used? Is the cloze automatically valid, whatever the text used? What research evidence there is (Carroll et al. 1959; Darnell 1968; Oller 1972) suggests that a difficult text will result in better correlations with proficiency and criterion measures, i.e., the text used might have an effect. Systematic research into this question is needed.

2) Does the scoring procedure affect the test? If you score synonyms or semantically acceptable words as correct, will this affect the test validity? Is the Exact Word Score too difficult? The research to date is contradictory, but tends to recommend the exact word scoring procedure because it correlates highly with the other procedures used (Stubbs and Tucker 1974; Oller Atai and Irvine 1974).

3) If you knock out every 6th, 7th, 10th or 15th word instead of every 5th word, what effect will this have on the validity of the cloze? Some research has been done on the effect on word restorability of different amounts of context, with native speakers (Burton and Licklider 1955; Shepard 1963; Aborn et al. 1959; and MacGinitie 1960), which seems to show that providing more than ten to twelve words of context has no effect on the predictability of a deletion. However, providing less than five words of context did seem to have some effect. For this reason alone, the tendency has been to use a deletion rate of 5 (i.e., every fifth word has been deleted from text).

Alderson (1978) showed that changes in deletion frequency sometimes resulted in significant differences between tests. However, the change was not as expected, since less frequent deletion sometimes actually resulted in more

difficult tests. When only those items common to both frequencies in any comparison were considered, no significant differences were found. It was thus concluded that increasing the amount of context on either side of a cloze gap beyond five words had no effect on the ease with which that gap would be clozed. No increase in predictability was gained by a bilateral context of eleven words rather than five words, regardless of text difficulty or scoring procedure. Nevertheless, since differences in cloze tests were found, using a different deletion frequency could result in an (unpredictably) different test. The problem is whether using a different deletion frequency results in a different measure of EFL proficiency.

Whatever findings have been made, especially with regard to deletion frequency, no attempt has been made to account for them or to relate them to a theory of what the cloze procedure tests. If the exact word score gives the same results as the acceptable word score, why should this be? Why should a difficult text result in a better measure of proficiency or reading comprehension than an easier text? If all the deletion frequencies beyond every fifth word give the same results, what are the theoretical implications? Conversely, if different deletion frequencies give different results, what are the practical and theoretical consequences?

The present study was designed in order to investigate the effect of certain methodological variables: deletion rate, text and scoring procedure.

Three texts, 650 words in length, were chosen from the area of fiction. A panel of teachers of English as a foreign language agreed with a series of readability formulae (Fog, Smog, Dale-Chall and Flesch) in classifying the texts as easy, medium and difficult.

Four deletion frequencies were selected: every 6th, 8th, 10th and 12th word, since a pilot study had shown that deleting every fourth word resulted in tests which were always significantly harder, and deleting every fourteenth word resulted in tests which were always indistinguishable from the rest.

These deletion frequencies were applied to all three texts to give twelve cloze tests in all, each with fifty deletions.

In addition, the tests were scored by five different scoring procedures: the exact word only, any semantically acceptable word (SEMAC), identical form class (any word from the same form class as the deletion) (IDFC), same function (any word from an acceptable form class which fulfilled the same grammatical function as the deleted word) (ACFC), and any grammatically correct word, regardless of form class, function or meaning (GRCO).

The subjects' performance on these cloze tests was also compared with several external measures, one of which was a test of proficiency in English as a foreign language—the ELBA test (Ingram 1964, 1973) used by several English and Scottish universities to screen their foreign students. This battery contains seven sections: 1) Sound Recognition, 2) Intonation, 3) Stress, 4) General Listening Comprehension, 5) Grammar, 6) Vocabulary and 7) Reading Comprehension. Two dictation tests—one easy, one difficult—were also ad-

ministered to investigate the relationship between dictation and the cloze tests. The tests were administered to 360 non-native speakers of English in the UK, studying at tertiary level institutions. Each subject took one cloze test, assigned randomly, thus giving thirty subjects per test.

1. Results

1.1. The text variable. Table 1 shows the changes in correlations with the ELBA test scores when the text is varied. The differences between texts are not very great when looking at the correlations with the total, but the correlations with individual parts of the ELBA vary. In particular, the difficult text correlates consistently higher with the ELBA tests 5, 6 and 7 (Grammar, Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension), the tests which in any case are most closely related to the cloze.

TABLE 1
Comparison of Cloze Texts as Predictors of Individual ELBA Tests.
Exact Word and Any-Acceptable- Word Scoring Procedures Only.*

1) <i>Exact word score</i> ELBA Test	<i>TEXT</i>		
	<i>DIFFICULT</i>	<i>MEDIUM</i>	<i>EASY</i>
1 (Sound Recognition)	.36	.49	.47
2 (Intonation)	.49	.36	.47
3 (Sentence Stress)	.25	.36	.29
4 (Listening Comprehension)	.55	.56	.63
5 (Grammar)	.71	.58	.58
6 (Vocabulary)	.57	.55	.55
7 (Reading Comprehension)	.54	.51	.47
Total	.66	.67	.61
2) <i>Any-acceptable-word score</i> ELBA Test	<i>DIFFICULT</i>	<i>MEDIUM</i>	<i>EASY</i>
1 (Sound Recognition)	.50	.57	.55
2 (Intonation)	.57	.47	.53
3 (Sentence Stress)	.30	.43	.45
4 (Listening Comprehension)	.67	.70	.70
5 (Grammar)	.79	.65	.69
6 (Vocabulary)	.73	.63	.61
7 (Reading Comprehension)	.63	.59	.58
Total	.80	.78	.71

* *Pearson Product Moment Correlations (all correlations are significant at the .01 level)*

However, Table 2 shows that what is true for the difficult text at deletion rate 6 is not true at deletion rate 8 and the correlation of the medium text with the ELBA total is very different at deletion rate 10 (.57) from deletion rate 6 (.86). In other words, it is misleading to ignore deletion rate differences to arrive at a composite score for any text. It is invalid to characterize a text by summing the results on all four deletion rates in order to correlate the sum with the criterion measure. There is a clear interaction between deletion rate and text which makes it impossible to generalize. Nevertheless, it is clear that different texts, using the same deletion rate, result in different correlations with the criterion, which suggests that different texts may well measure different aspects

of EFL proficiency, or the same aspect more efficiently or less efficiently. Thus, for example, deletion rate 6, exact word score, results in correlations with the three texts of .59, .86 and .51 (Table 2).

1.2. *Scoring procedure.* Table 2 also enables us to compare the different scoring procedures as measures of EFL proficiency. Consistently, scoring for any semantically acceptable word (SEMAC) produces among the highest cor-

TABLE 2
Correlation of ELBA Total with Various Cloze Tests*

	<i>EASY</i>	<i>TEXT MEDIUM</i>	<i>DIFFICULT</i>
Deletion rate 6			
EXACT	.59	.86	.51
SEMAC	.74	.88	.67
GRCO	.60	.81	NS
IDFC	.44	.67	.43
ACFC	.45	.68	.43
Deletion rate 8			
EXACT	.70	.68	.82
SEMAC	.69	.77	.87
GRCO	.61	.74	.73
IDFC	.50	.51	.80
ACFC	.46	.50	.74
Deletion rate 10			
EXACT	.65	.57	.79
SEMAC	.74	.74	.83
GRCO	.75	.75	.79
IDFC	.63	.70	.83
ACFC	.65	.65	.82
Deletion rate 12			
EXACT	.67	.73	.77
SEMAC	.77	.78	.85
GRCO	.72	.75	.68
IDFC	.73	.70	.72
ACFC	.71	.69	.70

* *Pearson Products Moment Correlations (all correlations are significant at the .01 level)*

relations with the ELBA total. In particular, it almost always correlates higher than the exact word scoring procedure. On deletion rates 10 and 12, the GRCO results in better correlations on the easy and medium texts than the Exact procedure. Table 3 shows a comparison of the SEMAC and Exact procedures, which almost invariably shows the superiority of the SEMAC, not only in correlations with the ELBA but also with the dictation. In other words, the results suggest that changing the scoring procedure results in different validity of the cloze, such that the SEMAC appears to be the most valid procedure for the purpose of EFL testing.

TABLE 3
 Correlation of cloze tests scored by exact word
 and semantically acceptable procedures, with
 ELBA and dictation tests*

	Test	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	Dictation	
										E	D
D06	Exact	NS	53	NS	55	43	NS	NS	51	55	54
	SEMAC	52	64	NS	57	NS	NS	NS	67	58	54
D08	Exact	52	64	NS	75	88	79	68	82	66	68
	SEMAC	57	65	NS	83	87	87	71	87	72	71
D10	Exact	NS	54	NS	69	80	81	69	79	NS	NS
	SEMAC	41	63	NS	73	80	80	70	83	38	42
D12	Exact	61	41	42	60	77	66	60	77	55	62
	SEMAC	67	NS	54	66	85	74	60	85	64	66
M06	Exact	64	56	50	86	78	68	73	86	71	66
	SEMAC	70	58	49	87	73	74	70	88	75	68
M08	Exact	59	NS	52	56	58	53	48	68	73	68
	SEMAC	56	43	65	70	63	59	62	77	82	73
M10	Exact	46	50	NS	NS	54	NS	45	57	65	65
	SEMAC	64	58	43	55	58	NS	64	74	72	72
M12	Exact	NS	57	NS	62	60	73	51	73	43	53
	SEMAC	40	51	38	64	67	78	39	78	55	66
E06	Exact	46	NS	NS	55	60	50	69	59	77	64
	SEMAC	57	46	53	71	76	68	72	74	80	80
E08	Exact	51	45	NS	77	73	56	38	70	56	50
	SEMAC	44	51	46	77	72	55	41	69	45	40
E10	Exact	59	NS	NS	65	60	55	48	65	86	80
	SEMAC	67	39	40	68	69	57	62	74	86	83
E12	Exact	48	75	NS	63	63	71	55	67	76	64
	SEMAC	57	80	54	73	76	68	69	77	91	80

Pearson Product Moment Correlations.

NS = not significant at .05 level.

1.3. Deletion frequency. Table 2 shows the differences in correlation coefficients caused by changing the deletion rate on any given text. On the easy text, exact score, changing the deletion rate from 6 to 8 results in a coefficient change of .59 to .70; and on the medium text, changing from rate 10 to 6 results in an increase in correlation from .57 to .86. In other words, changing the deletion rate can have a drastic effect on the validity of the cloze test. Table 3 shows that this is true not only for the ELBA test correlations but also for the correlations with the dictations, where, for example, on the easy text, SEMAC score, deletion rate 8 correlates .45 with the easy dictation whereas deletion rate 12 correlates .91.

2. Conclusion

Thus we note that individual cloze tests vary greatly as measures of EFL proficiency. Insofar as it is possible to generalize, however, the results show that cloze in general relates more to tests of grammar and vocabulary (ELBA tests 5 and 6) than to tests of reading comprehension (ELBA test 7) (Table 3). Cloze did not relate more to dictation than to the ELBA, although different scoring procedures and texts related differently to dictation. The semantically acceptable scoring procedure, which correlated highest with dictation, ranged from .38 to .91.

The results of this study show the integrative/discrete-point dichotomy to be irrelevant to what the cloze test will relate to. In fact, the dichotomy would seem to be between core proficiency-tests of linguistic skills of a relatively low order—and higher-order tests like reading comprehension, with the cloze tests relating more closely to the former.

The major finding seems to relate to the deletion rate variable, in that changing the deletion frequency of the test produces a different test which appears to measure different abilities, unpredictably. Similarly, changing the text used results in a different measure of EFL proficiency, such that a more difficult text seems to provide a better measure of core proficiency, whereas a very easy text results in better correlations with dictation. Changes in scoring procedures also result in different validities of the cloze test, but the best validity correlations are achieved by the semantically acceptable procedure. How can one account for these facts?

If deleting different words from a text results in a different measure of EFL proficiency, then the cloze would seem to be very sensitive to the deletion of individual words. If this is so, then one must ask whether the cloze is capable of measuring higher-order skills. The finding in Alderson (1978) that closure seems to be based on a small amount of context, on average, suggests that the cloze is sentence—or indeed clause—bound, in which case one would expect a cloze test to be capable, of measuring, not higher-order skills, but rather much lower-order skills. This would account for its sensitivity to the deletion of individual words. This is not to assert that cloze items are in principle incapable of testing more than the comprehension of the immediate environment, but that as a test, the cloze is largely confined to the immediate environment of a blank. The fact that the procedure does not delete phrases or clauses must limit its ability to test more than the immediate environment, since individual words do not usually carry textual cohesion and discourse coherence (with the obvious exception of cohesive devices like anaphora, lexical repetition and logical connectors). Moreover, the high correlation of the semantically acceptable scoring procedure with the measures of ESL proficiency, and the fact that this procedure, which is designed to be relatively insensitive to long-range contextual constraint, correlated highly (.86 to .91) with the exact word method, both appear to add support to the thesis that cloze is essentially sentence-bound.

The cloze procedure is not a unitary technique, since it results in tests which

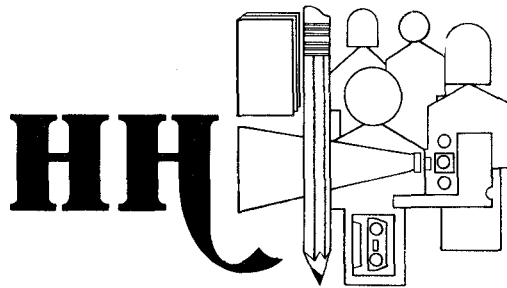
are markedly different; different tests give unpredictably different measures, at least of EFL proficiency. The differences are caused by the deletion of different words, so that the deletion rate used to create a cloze test is of great importance. The procedure is in fact merely a technique for producing tests, like any other technique, for example the multiple-choice technique, and is not an automatically valid procedure. Each test produced by the technique needs to be validated in its own right and modified accordingly. However, if the test has to be modified, then one must ask oneself: how can the test be changed without interfering with the principle of random selection of items? Perhaps the principle of randomness needs to be abandoned in favour of the rational selection of deletions, based upon a theory of the nature of language and language processing. The notion of randomness may have been justified when the aim of the procedure was to characterize the difficulty of text, when the selection of difficulties could have given a false impression of the nature of a text. But now that the focus is on the language processor rather than on the language being processed, now that the cloze procedure is being used to produce tests of reading comprehension and language proficiency, the principle would appear to be important no longer.

Testers should above all be aware that, changing the deletion rate, or the scoring procedure, or using a different text may well result in a radically different test, not giving them the measure that they expect.

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A Viable ESL/EFL Language Lab*

Harvey M. Taylor

The uses and abuses of language labs in second language education have reflected the shifts in second language learning theory; in many ESL/EFL programs the language lab program is now of questionable value. Guidelines are given for evaluating and revitalizing the language lab in terms of overall curriculum concerns, general effectiveness, available software/hardware, and learners' present and future needs. The respective merits of class labs, library lab systems, and self-paced ESL/EFL programs are discussed. The focus is on effective software, using minimally complex lab equipment.

The past uses and abuses of language labs in second language education have generally reflected the swings of the pendulum in second language acquisition theory. During the heyday of behaviorism in language teaching the language lab was used to reinforce desired behavior through controlled repetition. Some second language specialists saw the language lab as the ultimate tool for drilling correct language behavior, hoping eventually even to have it replace the classroom teacher.

As behaviorism in its extreme forms fell into disfavor as a theoretical explanation for second language acquisition, language lab operators and EFL teachers began to hear with new ears the complaints of bored language students. Unfortunately, rather than recognizing the defects in the lab materials and methods being used, many teachers decided that the lab itself was at fault.

As a result, when the expensive language lab equipment of the 1950's and 60's began to break down, few teachers pressured administrators to keep the labs in good condition. Consequently, students who went to the lab found that either the equipment was broken or the few operating stations were always occupied; they then began to skip lab. With fewer and fewer students using the lab, administrators could not allot money for lab repairs or new equipment.

Another factor which influenced the relegation of the language lab to an inferior position in EFL programs is an attitude shared by both teacher and students: study in the language lab cannot be very important, since in the majority of cases the lab tapes for ESL/EFL textbooks merely repeat what is printed in the books. These repetitious materials encourage teachers to expect that their teaching job will be completed by the lab. Such materials also allow students who hear exercises already presented in class to assume that they

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already know them. Furthermore, whenever identical material is presented by a live teacher, then repeated by machine, the machine is always less interesting.

1. Goals for language lab practice

In spite of existing lab abuses, the language lab can function effectively in an ESL/EFL program. Language lab study can range from a teacher playing a recording for a whole class to individualized self-directed study with each student in a sound-proof cubicle controlling his/her own tape recorder. First, however, reasonable language lab goals must be articulated for each level of language study so that intelligent choices can be made from among the initially expensive lab materials and equipment. The availability of equipment will influence the articulation of these goals.

For learning pronunciation, students are often assigned language lab *same/different* drills to learn listening discrimination between minimal pairs, as if this ability were a prerequisite for producing correct pronunciation. It is not true that a learner must *hear* the difference before he can pronounce that difference. For example, Joan Morley's class and lab materials successfully teach students to monitor the positions and motions of their speech organs so that they produce discriminations which they cannot consistently recognize (Morley 1978).

A related basic question is whether or not real language learning goes on during phoneme recognition drills in the language lab. When students do purely pronunciation activities alone, no one is in the lab to monitor each word, point out each error, and tell each student what to do differently in order to produce the desired sounds. The major problem in unsupervised pronunciation practice as noted by Perelle is that "if a particular sound of a foreign language is not represented in the brain, a category classification is not possible. If the student is unable to classify and categorize various phonemes of the new language, it will be impossible for him to discriminate between [his] correct and incorrect verbal responses to the original lesson stimulus" (Perelle 1975: 159). Therefore, for teaching the accurate production of English *segmentals*, the language lab by itself does not offer much promise.

The value of using the language lab to teach the pronunciation of English morphemes in isolation and as parts of words will depend primarily upon each student's ability to monitor his/her own production. For example, many students *think* to add the third-person singular *s* to verbs, but their mouths do not produce it consistently. When corrected, they are surprised that no one heard the *s* even though they had made a conscious effort to say it.

Most recorded drills for teaching English pronunciation are aimed at beginning students. Yet it is these very low-level students who cannot consistently monitor the details of their pronunciation in phrases and sentences because of their overpowering concern to try and recognize the words they hear on the tape, attach some meaning to these words, and then repeat them as complete words. Beginners have no extra attention to spare for pronunciation details. Even intermediate and advanced students normally focus on words and their meanings and not on their pronunciation. The majority of students, then, in

most language labs, concentrate on words and go on habitually repeating their same incorrect pronunciations. As pointed out by Wilga Rivers, the only exceptions are the few conscientious students who do try to correct some recognized pronunciation problem; but these are frustrated when their ears cannot tell them whether or not they are saying exactly what the tape is modeling for them (Rivers 1968:348). This means then that there is not much real value in using recorded pronunciation materials for student imitation in the traditionally unsupervised language lab.

However, at the level of phrase and sentence practice, there seems to be something working in the mind of the student which can make unsupervised language lab speaking practice valuable. Since most students focus on the words and phrases they hear on a tape and are therefore most concerned about getting the right words into the right slots in the pattern, they can usually self-monitor that level of their speaking and compare it with a subsequent correct, reinforcing utterance on the tape—provided the sentences are short enough. Such speaking practice drills can develop both vocal flexibility and also the ability to produce set phrases and formulas, such as greetings, certain grammatical patterns, and idiomatic expressions. The problem, of course, is that in the longer strings appropriate for more advanced practice, the student cannot remember what s/he has actually said, and therefore cannot compare it with the model sentence.¹

2. Problems

All alert students want to know if they are responding correctly during lab drills. Some recorded materials first give a cue, pause for student response, and then model the correct response for student comparison and imitation. The more expensive lab installations also allow a monitor/teacher to listen in on students and make corrections. Unfortunately, probably less than 5% of what any given student says is ever heard by a monitoring teacher—the other 95% goes entirely unheard, since the teacher listens randomly around the room to just a few seconds of what each student is saying. Thus, individual student correction in the monitored language lab is, at best, haphazard. More seriously, since students know that the monitoring teacher can theoretically correct them whenever they make an error, the students feel that they must be doing most of their lab sentences correctly, for they so rarely receive corrections. The students never realize that very little of what they say is actually being listened to and that that is why they receive so few corrections.²

¹ Higgins has experimented with the inability of students to correct their own production involving a repetition exercise, pattern drills, and paired sentences for *same/different* discrimination. He concludes that “the learner’s performance seemed likely to break down under one of two conditions. The first is if the length of the material to be processed exceeds the storage capacity of the short-term memory . . . The second condition of breakdown is if the material cannot be interpreted. Learners do try constantly to understand what they hear. This led in some cases to rather wild distortions of the material, as the learner tried to impose an interpretation on what was presented to him” (Higgins 1975: 153).

² Much better and more selective correction is done in the regular language classroom by the teacher who goes from whole-class to small-group to individual responses in order to focus on errors heard during the group responses.

In addition to the above, there is a major underlying second-language teaching problem which shows up clearly in the language lab. Students often see their lab time as a kind of penance for not mastering the textbook material in class when the teacher first goes over it. Furthermore, students do not find the lab materials of intrinsic value for language learning, and unfortunately, many teachers share the students' opinion. One of our goals, then, must be to change the lab materials and methods so that both students and teachers consider the lab time worthwhile.

3. Recommendations

The language lab works best as primarily a source of spoken language to which the student must respond. As noted above, it is impossible for a language lab monitor/teacher to hear a significant number of the errors produced by a lab full of students—much less to correct even one student's most "important" errors. Therefore, the lab software—the tapes and their supporting workbooks—should provide for student self-correction.

It is axiomatic that language teachers should do those sorts of language teaching activities which can best be done only by a live human being, and that a recording should do only those things which recorded materials *can* do. A teacher, unlike a recording, can monitor student production of language, correct errors, and, more importantly, guide the student toward future self-correction of those errors. Furthermore, no recording can sympathetically listen to students as they attempt to communicate information. Neither can a recording respond to that information. These two activities are normally called "conversation," and conversation is one of those language interactions which teachers can do and machines (at least as yet) cannot.

In short, the teacher is most effective in interacting with students. The language lab is most effective in providing language for the student to react *to*.

The following list may serve as a guide in making the language lab viable:

1) *Student orientation*: a) Students must have a clear understanding of the lab operation—how to get tapes and use the equipment; b) students must be aware of the general language goals of each lab exercise—is it oral flexibility, listening comprehension, information gathering, or what?

2) *Material*: a) The recorded items must be those to which the students can immediately attach a meaning; thus, even in purely grammar manipulation drills, contextualized items are superior to semantically unrelated ones;³b) the general materials and specific items must be intrinsically interesting; c) the types of responses desired from the students should change frequently enough to avoid boredom with the response system itself—switch from mimicry, to true-false, to multiple choice, to dictation, etc.

3) *Feedback*: a) Students should receive prompt, adequate feedback on the

³ For examples of these, see the *Lado English Series*, 1970 edition, for non-contextualized drills and the *New Edition Lado English Series* (1978), which ingeniously contextualized the drill materials.

correctness of their responses—through the use of on-tape correct answers, programmed materials, or answers books; b) there should be periodic evaluations of each student's general progress in doing the lab assignments, preferably by the teacher whose class content is most closely related to the lab assignments.

Students can be oriented to the lab most effectively by whoever teaches the related class, probably the listening comprehension teacher. Assigned lab materials which students find appealing, beneficial, and in which they receive meaningful feedback will be used.

The reported fatigue which students experience in language lab work (20 minutes has been claimed the optimum length of time for a lab session) is evidently not a function of sitting and listening to recorded material over earphones, but rather one of the repetitious, semantically disconnected and intellectually unchallenging nature of the content of the recorded materials. At the University of Michigan in 1976 some very low students requested an additional lab hour per day to continue to work through materials they found interesting; that is, they asked to sit two hours in the same room with earphones on, doing a workbook which gets its information and answers from a recording, *Michigan Action English, Workbook 1* (Taylor et al. 1975).

There are certain language learner needs which recorded materials are capable of meeting. However, not all of the available EFL language lab tapes meet all of these student needs, though all do probably meet at least one of the less important ones. The following needs are listed from least important to most important: 1) The student needs to recognize the pronunciation of written items that may be new. S/he can hear an item pronounced on a recording, as s/he looks at it in print. (This may be a waste of time for most students.) 2) The student needs to learn how to gain information in ways other than just through written materials. Listening to a recording is one of these other ways. 3) The student needs to be forced to speed up the pace of responses to spoken stimuli. This can be done nicely in an unthreatening manner by an impersonal, automatic machine which allows only a set amount of time for each response. 4) The student needs to respond to the cues of spoken language which do not appear in written language—contrastive intonation, requests for confirmation, and all the things done by the voice to keep communication going. 5) The student needs to be exposed to voices, regional accents, and listening situations which cannot be easily duplicated in the classroom. 6) The student needs to understand a great number of the varieties of spoken English. (Students are quite sensitive to this need, though few ESL/EFL courses teach toward it.)

From the teacher's viewpoint, there are some additional ways in which recorded materials can be used. Tapes can reinforce (but not duplicate) the learning of language matters already presented in books and by the teacher in class. Tape recorded questions about the content of a story already read for homework can be more motivating than those same questions printed in the book at the end of the story—or even when read by a teacher—since the tape

allows only a certain length of time for an answer, and cannot be argued with or cajoled into giving hints about possible answers.

The case being made here is for a language lab which is primarily a listening comprehension lab, less a drill and repetition lab. Of course, grammatical patterns can be profitably practiced in the lab, provided they are checked for correctness. A self-checking workbook meets this need far better than do the oral repetition drills which give the correct response; every wrong substitution is most obviously wrong to the student when it is made and seen on paper.

4. Language lab types

There are many ways in which audio recordings can be used in language teaching, but these ways can be implemented only if the appropriate lab equipment is available. Language labs are of two basic types or some combination of the two: a library lab and a class lab. In a library lab, each student controls the program by selecting a tape, starting, stopping, and repeating portions as s/he desires. In a class lab someone plays a tape for one or more students, whether in an open classroom or in a traditional lab over individual earphones; the students have no individual control over pauses or repetitions of the taped program.

Most language lab users receive the greatest benefit from being able to control their own study—to be able to repeat and review just those items they have trouble with and to skip over those that cause them no problems. Only the library lab allows students this control. It also allows a great saving of time for each student by focusing attention on just those items the student is personally interested in studying. However, student self-recording equipment is superfluous, since (as noted above) students cannot really profit from comparing their voices with a recorded model. Furthermore, since in a lab the teacher cannot monitor enough of any one student's responses to find out anything not already known from classroom contact, selective-monitoring lab equipment is also not recommended. Neither type of equipment pedagogically justifies the added expense. All that is needed for a functioning library lab is a supply of cassette programs and one inexpensive, playback-only cassette player per listening station.

Each student obtains a cassette of the desired program from the lab attendant in exchange for the student's campus library card (or ID), which is inserted into the storage box or slot from which the cassette is taken. A high-speed duplicator can make any needed additional copies on the spot (in 30 seconds for a 60-minute cassette). This duplicating capability in the tape library reduces the need to carry a large inventory of each program.

5. ESL/EFL lab software

As one might suspect, the pedagogical quality of existing ESL/EFL lab materials varies greatly, as shown by the following examples:

*Example 1*⁴:

PATTERN: Mom'll fix some lunch for us.

CUE	DESIRED RESPONSE
(1.) some dinner	Mom'll fix some dinner for us.
(2.) some coffee	Mom'll fix some coffee for us,
(3.) some sandwiches	Mom'll fix some sandwiches for us.
(4.) some cheese and crackers	Mom'll fix some cheese and crackers for us.
(5.) some refreshments	Mom'll fix some refreshments for us.

The recording elicits the substitutions from the learner in order to provide contexts for the verb "fix." In a closely supervised lab situation, the students would close their books and therefore not have access to the written text.

The strengths of this drill include the following: 1) A very productive idiom, *fix*, is drilled—something not always easy to do with idioms. 2) The contraction of *will* is clearly indicated by the spelling in the pattern sentence (but this would not benefit students who close their books as directed), 3) Reasonably familiar nouns are chosen for the substitutions. 4) The tape models the unstressed pronunciations of *some* [sm] and for [fr].

The weaknesses: 1) There is no continuity of situation among the items, and therefore EFL students must do mental gymnastics to find a situational setting for each item as they move from one sentence to the next. 2) It will be difficult for foreign speakers to maintain the stress-timed rhythm of the "cheese and crackers" sentence (4); yet there may be no one in the lab able or assigned to point this out to those students who break the rhythm. The book gives no advance warning here. If this is taken up in class by the teacher before the students go to the lab, the students will still be on their own once they get to the lab. 3) On the tape the cues give the full vocalic quality to *some*. The student is expected to reduce the vowel as the cued item is inserted into the sentence. No overt instructions are given to the students to reduce the vowel. 4) There appears to be a difference in register between the use of *Mom* and *refreshments* in the same sentence, with *refreshments* being too formal to occur with *Mom* in some speakers' idiolects. 5) The substitutions contribute little toward delimiting the use of *fix* except that one beverage has been included along with food and meals. Here the meaning of *fix* is only prepare, with no references to fixing cars, hair, tickets, etc. 6) A lazy student will probably listen to the tape and delay responding until after hearing the reinforcement utterance. There is no way for a teacher to find out if each student has actually participated in this lab work (which is supposed to parallel and reinforce what was probably done earlier in class). 7) When the desired responses are printed in the student's book, as here, the tape merely duplicates what is in the book, and contributes nothing new to catch student interest.

⁴This example has been rewritten to disguise its source, an ESL text bearing a 1976 copyright; it is not from ESL'S Dark Ages.

Even if these answers did not appear in the textbook, there are still so few items in this drill that by the time the students have practiced this pattern in class before going to lab, all or nearly all of the substitutions have already been done, with nothing different to be done in the lab.

Example 2:

This example is actually an entire book which uses a different approach to language lab activities. This is Joan Morley's *Improving Aural Comprehension*—a workbook meant to teach listening comprehension of specific types of English (Morley 1972). The students are given information on a recording from which they must gather information of some sort and demonstrate their understanding of the spoken information by writing something. The manipulation of each type of English progresses from straight dictation of simple items, such as numbers or the alphabet, through the understanding of the significance of these items in longer utterances.

The strengths of this approach: 1) Generally useful information is practiced. 2) Each type of exercise has sufficient items to give abundant practice, even when part of the exercise has already been done in class. 3) The overt written response usually cannot be made without absolute comprehension of the spoken information. Listening comprehension is specifically required. 4) The book can be studied entirely in the language lab and self-corrected. 5) The answers are given in a companion book—not so handy as to encourage copying, but available for self-checking (and re-listening if the lab facilities permit student control of the tape). 6) The author provides a teacher's text which suggests parallel activities, to provide a clear tie-in between the language lab and the classroom.

The weaknesses: 1) Each "Unit" begins very simply and moves on to very advanced material but with no indication of which lessons in a given Unit are simplest or more advanced nor whether the lessons with the same numbering are of equal difficulty across all of the Units. (They are not.) 2) A student cannot work through the book, doing all of a given Unit in sequence, since the later lessons are too difficult for a beginner and the earlier lessons are overly simple for an advanced student. 3) In some lessons the tasks are so similar that some students have mechanically plodded on to the end of the lesson, working without thinking (since much of the work is simple dictation). Other students have started wrong and filled many blanks with inappropriate items before they discover their basic error. One solution would be to have the tape give the correct answers for the first few items of some exercises to get the students on the track from the start. 4) The weakest part of the book is Unit 8, which involves notetaking from brief recorded lectures. The questions asked on the tape about the lectures may give students the impression that the noting down of minute details is a more important part of a lecture than is grasping the general import.

Example 3:

This example is also a book, Ted Plaister's *Developing Listening Comprehension for ESL Students* (1976). The book clearly indicates to the students exactly what is expected, pointing out the benefits to be gained from conscientiously following the prescribed study program. This book develops listening comprehension of college-level lectures. Like the Morley book, it can be done entirely in a language lab, since no oral responses are expected. The great strength of this general approach is that the material which the student hears for note-taking is different from what is seen on paper; in fact, no transcript of the tapes is made available, so the student must depend upon his/her listening comprehension ability entirely in order to do the note-taking practice exercises.

This text and the approach it uses meet the highest criteria for ESL language lab software discussed below.

Example 4:

The fourth example is an excerpt from Workbook 6 of the *Michigan Action English* series (Taylor et al. 1977). Throughout this series the students are forced to make conscious decisions regarding what they hear and to record those decisions overtly in the workbook. The decisions which the students must make about the implications of what is being heard serve to keep them alert while they are being exposed to spoken language. Their attention is focused on listening for comprehension rather than listening for mimicry. In this particular example, the tape provides a collection of paired expressions of disagreement. The student's task is to indicate which member of each pair is a "stronger statement of disagreement." The recording includes appropriate vocal qualities and intonations. Three sample pairs are given here:

- (1) (a) I totally disagree with that statement,
(b) I tend to disagree with that statement.
- (2) (a) That's nonsense!
(b) I see things rather differently.
- (3) (a) I can't share your views.
(b) I disagree with you completely.

In order to make the correct selection, the student must comprehend both of the expressions and then make a reasoned choice between them, not just repeat what has been heard. Previous and subsequent exercises guide the student in learning the appropriateness conditions influencing the uses of these statements in conversation.

In summary, there are a number of characteristics which should be present in a maximally effective language lab comprehension series: 1) Student comprehension of the tape materials is constantly checked. 2) Simple responses are required from complex information, not the reverse. 3) The directions and comments to the students reflect normal, live classroom usage. 4) Background noise

and sound effects are included to encourage students to listen selectively for information. 5) Students must commit themselves to some active choice or written answer in response to the recorded information; passive listening is not allowed. 6) A story line with recurring identifiable characters provides an interpretable social setting for the language introduced. 7) An explanation of grammar points, the meaning of new vocabulary, and the cultural implications of the language heard are provided in a form the student can understand—in the student's native language if possible. 9) No student has access to a script of what is heard, in order to force reliance upon listening abilities alone. 9) The types of response tasks constantly change to encourage close attention to the material on the tape.

Lab materials to teach listening skills should conform to all or most of the nine characteristics listed above. If they do, they will be sufficiently interesting to hold students' attention long enough to get them involved in real learning in the language lab.

Individualization of instruction, of which good lab materials may be examples, has been receiving great attention in this decade, with many writers describing ways to individualize second language instruction (Ahman 1977, Disick 1977, and Valette and Disick 1972). For instance, Altman writes:

Accommodation of the instructional program to meet individual needs, interests, and abilities may take any or all of the following forms:

1. individualization of pacing
2. individualization of instructional goals
3. individualization of the mode of learning
4. individualization of the learner's expectations.

(Altman 1977:77)

Library language lab materials fit at least the first two forms on Altman's list; students select just those programs that fit their particular interests and needs, and then move through those materials as rapidly as they can assimilate them.

6. Conclusion

The technology of electronics continues to provide ESL/ EFL teachers with new and wonderful ways for getting students exposed to English. However, even the most sophisticated and expensive language lab installation is only as good as the software played for the students. A \$29.95 cassette recorder (durability and maintenance considerations aside), using well-conceived English teaching cassettes with an accompanying workbook may still be a more viable "language lab" than the boothed and carpeted learning centers which play tapes that no intelligent student really wants to hear.

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The Goals of Advanced Composition Instruction

Thomas Buckingham

An operational definition of levels of instruction in the teaching of composition is based on the description of the sets of subskills at each level. Level I includes all skills required for the production of a single word; Level II includes all skills required to produce a single sentence of any complexity; Level III subsumes I and II and includes the additional skills required to produce text greater than a single sentence. The last level is equated in this essay with the less specific term "advanced." At Level I the subskills are essentially psychomotor; at Level II they are concerned with the application of syntactic structure to writing and the use of lexical items; at Level III, there are six goals: to become independent of controls imposed by text and teacher; to write for a variety of communicative purposes; to extend and refine the use of vocabulary and syntactic patterns; to write conceptual paragraphs; to write longer units of discourse; and to use awareness of cultural differences in writing.

Early audiolingual approaches to the teaching of second languages emphasized oral language to the neglect of the written language (Paulston 1972), especially at intermediate and advanced levels. A rationale for the delayed use of writing was grounded in principles of behavioral psychology and structural linguistics: written language was essentially a recoding of speech, and a learner could code writing only through reference to the oral code which was previously and thoroughly mastered. Writing was, moreover, seen as less critical. In the natural process of language learning, it was often considered quite appropriate to wait a fairly long time before the initiation of writing/composition instruction.

Early texts for writing and composition did not attempt to specify the subsets of skills necessary for the production of writing, a failing still demonstrated, by more recent manuals. Explicitly or implicitly, early texts defined goals, objectives, levels of instruction, and other aspects of writing in arbitrary and subjective language, if they defined them at all. Texts and metrological treatments on writing are filled with terms which are inconsistent and so personal in meaning that they contribute little to a general theory of second language writing/composition.

Regardless of the instructional methods used, it has always been difficult to meaningfully specify differences between levels of language learning. Beyond the initial stage the boundaries between beginning, intermediate and advanced level students remain ill-defined, largely because of the lack of agreement on the nature of the component skills at each level and because of a lack of

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precise ways to categorize these skills. One often hears or reads that “intermediate students know all of the basic structures of English and basic English vocabulary.” However, specification of what these basic structures are and what constitutes a basic English vocabulary are themselves never precisely specified nor defined.

It is here proposed that the continuum of writing/composition skills be described as having three levels, each based on a hierarchy of linguistic units. Level I includes all skills essential for the production of a single word. Level II subsumes Level I and includes all skills essential for the production of a single sentence of any complexity. Level III skills subsume Level II and Level I, and additionally include all skills essential for the production of any discourse longer than the sentence. For our purposes, “advanced composition will mean writing instruction beyond the level of single sentences, Level III in the taxonomy above. Many teachers might disagree with this but it is at least a functional definition—one which demarcates clearly the boundaries between skills at different levels of instruction.

This article describes the nature of instructional goals at the “suprasentence” level and in so doing, it is hoped that goals of composition instruction at all levels will be brought into sharper focus, and that further differences may be defined through empirical investigation of both theoretical and pedagogical questions.

There are additional advantages of a categorization system based on objective and quantifiable observations. One of the problems in dealing adequately with instructional strategies for the teaching of composition, for the construction, adaptation, and use of materials in writing, and for the testing of writing abilities, is that there is no clear way presently available for professionals to talk about their craft. The levels of instruction seem to be “understood among teachers and methodologists, but one wonders how much real commonality exists about just what is “understood.” Take, as example, the use of terms like *beginning*, *intermediate*, and *advanced* as used by methodologists and text writers. Paulston and Bruder (1976), in a section discussing the teaching of writing, frequently attribute some skills as appropriate for more than one level; “intermediate” skills are often grouped with beginning level skills, and are sometimes viewed as similar to those of advanced classes. Taylor (1976), avoiding the problem altogether, simply uses “low-level ESL composition.” In the introduction to one writing text (Friend 1971), the terms are used without definition, and additional undefined terms are included—*remedial*, for example.

A second advantage is that the definition of these three proposed levels of instruction can as well be applied to any language skill, receptive or productive, spoken or written. It is a concept whose generality will permit more precise discussion of instruction, testing, and curriculum.

This paper discriminates between goals and objectives. *Goals* refers here to statements of intent which are broad and general, conceptually stated; *objectives* to statements which are specific and restricted, written in terms of student

activity. The present purpose is to propose goals, not to provide specific objectives.

1. Discriminating Three Levels of Instruction

Level I is reserved for the acquisition of skills which are best described as automatic, skills commonly taught through rote memorization and repetition of the same act or class of acts until the specific actions are invariantly evident in students' responses. It would be difficult, in the presence of the appropriate stimuli, for the proficient student not to respond in a predictable manner at this level. What operations fall into this class of writing behaviors? Association of written symbols with appropriate auditory and visual stimuli provides one example. Upon hearing the phoneme /b/, the student responds by producing a recognizable representation of one of its corresponding graphic forms. It would be easy to assume that these amount to very easy, perhaps even trivial, acts; such is not the case, however, since human stimulus-response bonds are never characterized by simple rules. An example of the difficulty of training performance at this level is provided by a simple exercise: with the hand you do not ordinarily use for writing, pick up a pencil and try to rapidly write your own name. It is not uncommon to find students at every level of language proficiency who lack some or all of the training at this level. Other writing acts which fall within this level of performance include learning letter shapes (with: out reference to the phonic correlates), left to right page orientation, instrument control, connection of individual letters, and forms of graphic production (lower and upper case, manuscript and cursive). These tasks are obviously typical of the subsets of skills included under Level I, the production of a single word.

At the next level, Level II, performances are concerned with the production of written language involving more than a single word but not more than a single sentence, however complex. Obviously, most instruction at this level will be concerned with the practice of sentence writing at levels of complexity from very simple sentences to very complex ones. Structure and vocabulary are the two basic aspects involved.

Since Level II writing involves these two basic aspects, how is instruction in writing different from instruction in other aspects of the total language development of the student: word study, vocabulary enrichment, spelling, structure, punctuation? Except for the fact that the students use pencil and paper rather than voice for production, it is often difficult to tell, as Taylor (1976) has pointed out, how the writing class is in any sense a different experience for them than, say, the grammar class. The development of more specialized and extensive vocabularies, and the production of acceptable English sentences is also the point of oral practice. This observation led to the conclusion by some that teaching *writing* is uniquely teaching the selection and organization of thought. Thus, at least to some teachers, writing is that part of the production of written language only concerned with selection, organization, and style. Clearly, these are inappropriate subskills at Level II, where only single sentences are involved.

One of the goals of instruction at Level II must certainly be to reinforce what is taught in other aspects of the student's language program. Yet another equally important goal is the development of an awareness of how spoken and written language may be different in the choice of more formal structures and lexical items. While logical arrangement of ideas in several related sentences is properly a goal of the next level, *intrasentence* logic is a legitimate goal of Level II.

Since students at Level II are often engaged in producing paragraphs through the use of the controlled composition technique, it could be argued that they are already writing beyond the level of the single sentence. Only in a superficial sense, however, are students writing paragraphs. While they are learning the physical characteristics of paragraphing, and while the sentences they produce are usually logically related in controlled composition exercises, such production involves no conscious choice on their part: the students' attention is focused on the correctness of production sentence by sentence, with few exceptions.

Skills required for performance at Level III include the intersentence connectors, the use of referents which bridge sentence boundaries, and the use of an appropriate logic in the selection and development of concepts requiring more than a single sentence. Hence Level III skills are those which require students to produce anywhere from two logically connected sentences to entire paragraphs, themes, and longer units of discourse.

As instruction in English language proceeds beyond the very first lessons, teachers often observe that students forget (or did not learn) earlier material; and that they often produce language not taught in the classroom. For both teacher and student, learning is not an episodic sequence of acts and clearly identifiable achievement levels. Therefore, the identification and specification of levels does not imply an inflexible instructional pattern. The learning of writing, as any other language aspect, is not entirely sequential. While Level I skills must be mastered to some degree of proficiency before students are able to write sentences, some problems with even Level I skills are apparent in the writing production of very proficient Level III students, and they must be remediated. Such overlap is to be expected, since the learning of language skills is a continuum: clearly identifiable units of language arranged in a logical or hierarchical sequence for learning is simply not a possibility. Furthermore, it would be economical to begin teaching such things as the rudiments of paragraphing or the sequencing of ideas in controlled composition at Level II even though they are skills which ordinarily belong to Level III.

With levels of writing performance thus broadly defined we next turn to the goals of writing/composition instruction for Level III. Certainly equating *advanced* composition with Level III (and *beginning* and *intermediate* with Levels I and II) in this way will not conform with traditional subjective definitions of advanced writing and composition. In most references, the word *advanced* connotes writing which has characteristics of complexity and fluency. *Advanced* perhaps implies levels of vocabulary usage of several thousand words

and the use of sentences with at least several levels of embedding. Such definitions would not designate as “advanced the conjoining of two simple sentences by logical relationship alone. This is, however, where Level III begins.

At Level III, the concern is with the abilities of students to write prose which requires a synthesis of knowledge and skills to produce extended arguments, descriptions, narrations, and explications. Now, such skills as were learned at lower levels are only tools, used more or less unconsciously to permit the writer to communicate elaborated ideas. We must say more or less because all writers at certain times find it necessary to bring rules of grammatical, logical, and lexical appropriateness to the conscious level.

The second-language writer who can efficiently produce communicative written language needs to recognize very clearly those areas where previous training has provided little guidance and few rules. It is the task of this paper to identify those areas, which are the learning goals at Level III. Keep in mind that they are the goals of the student. It is the teacher’s function to help students identify these goals and to help them achieve them through the use of appropriate materials, procedures, and course design.

2. The Goals

Goal 1: *To become independent of the controls imposed by the teacher or text.* Most student writers, even at the termination of their training, are still quite dependent on the guidance and controls imposed by the writing instructor and thus the accusation has often been leveled against controlled composition that it does not prepare students to write independently. I have complained elsewhere (Buckingham and Pech 1976) that student writers who complete a course in controlled composition seldom have had an opportunity to write for their own purposes; even when they have had some experience with “free” writing, there has been structure imposed from outside. One goal of composition instruction at the advanced level then ought to be to provide ample opportunity for students to write for their own purposes, and to make them independent of the teacher and text in the matter of choice of structure, content, and purpose.

An aspect of the goal of independent writing, free from the controls imposed by instructor and text, is that student writers should now be prepared to fulfill those monitoring functions which the teacher previously provided. The teacher has heretofore acted as proofreader for the student, who is thus relieved of editorial responsibility, assuming the teacher will surely catch any error. Often this amounts to the student making a good first guess, but letting the writing go at that, never bothering to recheck to try to determine on his own, before the teacher sees it, what errors it might contain.

It might be said that every good writer performs two functions, more or less simultaneously. The first is the act of composition: finding the concepts and providing the language which will best achieve the intended effect on a specific reader or readers: and the second phase, the monitoring of what has

been written in order to discover errors. The strategies for doing this are probably individual: some no doubt catch errors before the ink flows, others only after the entire passage is down on paper. Some probably stop and re-read frequently, others not at all until the whole is finished. Whatever the strategies—and the teacher should be quite flexible in this—the student must be encouraged to develop them at this advanced level.

Goal 2: *To write for a variety of communicative purposes.* Writing is no less communicative in intent than speech. Recent attention to communicative competence, with its emphasis on sociolinguistic factors of language use, has led to the erroneous impression that communication is an oral phenomenon. A little thought dispels that notion. Writing, like speech, is intended to reach a specific audience with specific, recognized characteristics, and has the intent of inducing, maintaining, or eliminating specific mental or physical behaviors in the reader.

In the acquisition of writing skills at lower levels, and at the initial stages of language learning, perhaps the main purpose of providing instruction in writing is to reinforce oral language skills. At the advanced level, however, this goal should be abandoned in preference to an emphasis on the use of writing for communicative purposes. The only reason for the student to learn to write effectively is to permit communication of a variety of ideas, thoughts, feelings, impressions, and propositions to others.

There are objections to this view by those who feel that students may want to write for more personal reasons—for artistic or expressive purposes. While this may be true, the main objective in an educational setting is to provide for the more instrumental needs of students, communication of academic material through writing.

The author subscribes to a model of communication characterized by the word induction, not transmission. An induction model (Holtzman 1970) implies that the salient aspect of communication processes is effect rather than message. Effective communication, the achievement of communicative competence in language users, implies that specific behaviors are caused (induced) in listeners/readers. Writing seen as the induction of desired responses in readers emphasizes the highly individual and personal goals of writers.

There are those who propose that expository writing—writing to argue, propose, defend, clarify, elaborate, refute, attack, deny, and so on—is the only kind of value to college students. Even if academic adult students were the only ones taught, such an attitude would not be defensible. Writing, especially in an academic situation, requires composing for many purposes. What student of biology has not had to write a description of laboratory observations? What history student has not had an occasion to narrate some event in the past? A chemistry student, asked to describe a particular observation, ought to be able to describe it accurately, just as a literature major should be able to synopsise a piece of narrative poetry in an examination.

Furthermore, every student outside of the classroom has to be able to

write utilitarian kinds of prose: letters of inquiry, complaint, suggestion; application for financial aid or a driver's license; statements of purpose or goals; telephone messages, personal notes, reminders, and hundreds of other kinds of writing which are part of the daily coping with life in a foreign country.

Goal 3: *To extend and refine the use of vocabulary and sentence structure.*

In many classrooms the practice in early stages of language learning is to restrict the learning of much vocabulary until the "basic" structures of the language have been learned. The intention is to provide a core of oral language which will permit the student to communicate basic ideas to others. As a result many students know a limited number of syntactic structures, presumably using them in appropriate contexts, with a limited vocabulary of perhaps a couple of thousand words. At the advanced level, especially in writing, the student needs to increase the quantity of language—in short, to learn more vocabulary and more sentence structure in order to communicate more concepts.

But quantity is not enough. With only a limited number of structures and a limited vocabulary at his or her disposal, a student must make a small number of language units do a lot of work; many of the structures and vocabulary items will be used in contexts where more specific or more complex units would result in more effective communication. Consequently, in addition to gaining an increase in quantity, the student must be guided in the development of more precise language than at earlier language learning stages.

What does this mean to the classroom teacher who must choose texts, materials and content of specific lessons? In the matter of vocabulary the student has learned a "generalized vocabulary which is, for the most part, undifferentiated for specific registers. Lexicon, more than phonology and syntax, is a matter of highly individual need. Every learner must know the approximately forty-five phonemes of the sound system, and shares nearly the entire system with every other learner; every writer shares with every other writer of the language nearly the same set of syntactic structures. But, with a lexical system of well over a quarter of a million words, any individual's stock of acquired lexical items beyond the first couple of thousand words is likely to differ significantly in kind from the vocabulary of others.

It is at the point where the learner has acquired nearly all of the shared lexical system that the need arises to both broaden and deepen command of English vocabulary. The student must acquire several thousand more items of a writing vocabulary in order to produce more nearly adequate communicative written prose. Such items will be shared with only a small fraction of other students in most situations, though not in learning situations where English is used for specific purposes—aviation English, nursing English, or academic English, for example. The lexicon, then, becomes a matter of highly individualized learning. This significantly changes the approach which the instructor must take in the classroom.

Furthermore, the vocabulary a student has already acquired, considered basic and general, will need to be sharpened to include items which provide

less coverage but more precise expression. Whereas much of the early stages of writing instruction is parallel to the spoken language, i.e., we teach the students to write the same kind of English they speak, we must now begin to raise consciousness about the differences between spoken and written English. Speakers generally rely on fifteen or twenty common verbs, using them in combination with particles to cover a broad range of uses: *get, have, make, do, be, put, take, look, run, turn, come, go, leave*. In writing English we substitute a very large number of more specific verbs. Instead of *get*, we may use contextually appropriate alternatives like *become* (useful), *arrive* (at the airport), *acquire* (language). Whereas we use a few non-specific items with a common referent in the drill class (Betty returns to her *home* every afternoon at five.), we now provide familiarity with the more precise items which have highly specific denotative and connotative meanings: bungalow, flat, shack, residence, palace, hovel, split-level, igloo. Even native speakers may not know the specialized residential names common to New Orleans: *shotgun, double shotgun, camel*.

We have until this time been concerned with the denotative meanings of words, but at Level III, for a variety of reasons, it is essential to begin to raise student consciousness about the affective role of language. A student should begin to understand that the reaction to "Mr. Buckingham's moustache and long sloppy hair stand out," (from the reader as well as from Mr. Buckingham) may be quite different from the reaction to some alternative—"his casual hairstyle" as a possibility. Likewise, when the teacher is described as *affectionate* he or she may feel that a more accurate and less unsettling term might be *friendly*. Both denotative and connotative considerations are involved in such refinement of lexical choice, of course.

Paralleling this increased attention to appropriate vocabulary choice are the goals of increased facility and fluency in students' syntactic choices. We encourage students to make use of larger and larger units of syntactic structure characterized by more complexity and sophistication. Such complexity is one of the earmarks of adult, proficient writing, which includes more information per unit and where intricate relationships between propositions are evident in the form as well as the content of the sentence. At lower levels of composition training, especially in controlled composition exercises, it was often the aim of the instructor to inhibit the use of the complex sentence rather than to encourage it. When students begin to try out the more complex structures, usually based on knowledge of appropriate writing styles in their own languages, they make a great number of errors. We seek to prevent this at lower levels by restricting the number of embedding we allow in constructing sentences. But at Level III the use of more complex structure is encouraged; it is at this level that students are prodded to make full use of the creative and generative capacities of language. It is the instructor's task at this level to teach students new processes of subordinating and conjoining clauses to provide more interest and to clarify for the reader the precise relationships which obtain between ideas.

Once again, as with learning the lexicon of the language, the student must become aware of differences between spoken and written English. That we ordinarily speak in shorter units with fewer embeddings is apparent to students once it has been pointed out. It is also likely to be apparent that completeness and well-formedness are characteristics of writing rather than speech. That writing differs syntactically from speech may not be at all as apparent to students, as it is not apparent to many native speakers who “write like they talk.” This of course depends on the level of formality in both the speaking and the writing situation. Nevertheless, consider the probability that this sentence would often be heard in ordinary conversation: “We shall not have had enough time to consider your response by next Tuesday.” The likelihood is that the simple future would be the appropriate choice: “We won’t be able to talk about your answer until Tuesday.”

Finally, the emphasis on syntactic choices at the suprasentence level must shift from generalized, non-specific registers to the usefulness of specific structures for particular student needs. This again is a matter of individual concern, and the instructor needs to be aware of the range of specific communicative needs of students learning to write. It has often been assumed, erroneously, that the use of specific registers involves only, or at least primarily, a shift in the lexical subset. Such is not the case. Technical English, for example, utilizes specific kinds of structures at a higher rate than “ordinary” English, (Lackstrom et al. 1973). A glance at a dissertation should reveal that personal references, except euphemistically (*the present writer*) are not ordinarily found in formal academic writing. It is also true that the structure of paragraphs and even larger units of discourse are different in technical English. The selection of syntax and the organization of ideas are often idiosyncratic.

Generally, then, such adjustments in the focus of both vocabulary and structure teaching are intended to produce in advanced student writers an increase in the clarity, complexity, and specificity of the linguistic units selected for communication. Students are encouraged to produce writing which is mature and capable of conveying precisely the ideas to produce the desired effects in readers.

Goal 4: *To write the conceptual paragraph.* By “conceptual” paragraph we intend to distinguish the physical aspects of paragraphing from the idea of a paragraph as a unitary element of discourse. Teaching the paragraph as a physical unit is quite easy but rather mechanical, and it can be taught at very early stages in controlled composition exercises. The idea of a conceptual paragraph is more difficult and complex.

In English the roots of the conceptual paragraph reach deep into classical rhetoric; most guidelines and constructs for the teaching of paragraph development may be traced, with few significant innovations, to Aristotelian logic. (See Leggett, Mead and Charvat 1978; Troyka and Nudelman 1976; and Bander 1978 for examples.) They involve, basically, the selection of ideas, their logical

arrangement, and appropriate wording. In traditional teaching of rhetoric, texts usually refer to the use of unity, coherence, and emphasis.

What is logical in a language is culturally determined, and because such culturally learned patterns are so far below the awareness of writers, the non-native speaker succumbs easily to the irresistible urge to select and organize ideas in second language writing in the same way that they are selected and organized in the first language. The student is therefore entrapped in the use of processes which are entirely logical in the first language, but which result in peculiarly un-English discourse in the second.

A conceptual paragraph is united by a single theme. Students need to understand that any unit produced as a physical paragraph must have certain characteristics: it must develop an idea completely; it must contain no unrelated material; a central unifying idea can be stated; and certain rhetorical devices must be present which formalize the unity of the conceptual paragraph.

The presence of extraneous ideas is usually easy to spot for a native speaker. Teachers of ESL composition know, however, that even the better foreign students have difficulty determining what is relevant to an English speaker and what is not. The selection of ideas is an important part of English rhetorical tradition, and is as much culturally bound as any other linguistic system. What one chooses to talk about—what specific content is relevant—is culturally determined. Foreign student writing often seems to wander off the point—but in other cultures it is not wandering at all.

In addition to appropriate selection of ideas, the writing of a conceptual paragraph also requires the use of appropriate sequencing of ideas. Any good reader recognizes that writers use a variety of means of sequencing ideas to achieve a particular desired effect, but teachers of English to both native and non-native speakers have formulated traditionally favored patterns of sequencing. These seem to be: general to particular, particular to general, temporal, spatial, increasing importance, decreasing importance, question to answer, effect to cause. Some are quite common, others less so; some are nearly always connected to specific modes of discourse (temporal sequencing seems to be the favored pattern used in narrative writing, for example), and others are of less particular use. The use of these patterns or arrangement is so common that it is difficult for a native English speaker to imagine what other “logical” arrangements might be possible.

Certain means for formalizing the sequencing of ideas in a logical fashion are available to the writer of English. For example, the repetition of words and phrases from sentence to sentence, and from paragraph to paragraph, demonstrates in the form of the composition the logical relationships of the content. Likewise, the writer may use repeated abstract structures to formalize the relationships of ideas, known as parallelism. Still other devices are the use of pronoun reference and demonstratives to indicate relationships. Punctuation is yet another way. The choice of coordinate versus subordinate structures helps the reader determine the nature of the logical connection of ideas. Certain

relational words and phrases in the language also help: *consequently, moreover, nevertheless, yet, again, first, finally, on the other hand*. Appropriate control of these devices must be mastered by the advanced student writer who wishes to write with the preferred logic patterns of English prose.

Goal 5: *To write longer units of discourse.* Students at lower levels of instruction have dealt successively with words, sentences, and controlled paragraphs, but nothing longer. At the advanced level, we are interested in continuing the sequencing of progressively longer units of composition to include essays, themes, “compositions,” or even longer units of discourse.

Most texts in ESL, like those intended for native speakers of English, tend to relate the structure of paragraphs to the structure of such longer units. Some text writers (and some teachers) seem to feel that once a student can write a paragraph the same structure can be applied to larger units without further assistance. But how alike are paragraphs and larger units of discourse? While essays, like paragraphs, may have beginnings, middles and ends, that is perhaps as far as the analogy will reach. Paragraphs written as part of longer units seldom stand independently.

Naturally, a paragraph cannot be expected to communicate as much as an essay or a book. But the student at the advanced level, in order to write longer units of discourse, must see and practice the idea that any unit of discourse must be complete within its context, that any idea may, in isolation, be complete, or, in context, only part of a much larger picture, structured in such a way that readers’ attention is focused appropriately on the right part of the picture.

What of the differences in coherence, the transitions between sections of the discourse unit? Within single paragraphs such transitions are more than simply sequencing ideas in some kind of logical arrangement. They involve the use of referents, repeated words, specific transitional expressions and words, and punctuation, to move the reader easily along from idea to idea, to guide progress through a proposition, and to emphasize the prominent ideas of the writer.

In longer discourse units, such coherence may be achieved by quite different devices. Repeated words and phrases are still of use, especially in providing transitions from one paragraph to another. The use of specialized transitional expressions are used to signal sequencing of ideas, and the enumeration of arguments, steps, phases, divisions, classes and the like.

Other rhetorical devices, topic sentences, summary sentences, transitional or concluding sentences, may become much longer units—paragraphs in themselves, though they seldom are structured in the same way as conceptual paragraphs. Look at this transitional paragraph from Lenneberg’s *Biological Foundations of Language* (1967):

The last type of handicap to be considered in this chapter is congenital, profound deafness. The following observations apply only to peripheral nerve deafness in children who are otherwise well, particularly from a neuropsychiatric viewpoint.

The purpose is clearly transitional, service at once to signal to the reader

that the following discussion will introduce a final category in a predetermined number of categories and to introduce the general topic and thesis of this final argument.

The necessity of teaching such differences in paragraph and discourse structure is apparent in the failure of too many foreign students (and too many native writers), to use them. Abrupt, choppy shifts in focus from one paragraph to another are all too evident in such writing, and many instructors find themselves ill-equipped to deal with them adequately. It is clear that paragraph connectors, like sentence connectors, must be taught.

Goal 6: *To utilize awareness of cultural differences in writing.* Many of the ideas already discussed relate to the idea that communicative writing in English may be quite different from the way acceptable composition is achieved in the student's native language. One such difference is in the syntactic choices the writer makes. The writing of different languages, as Kaplan (1967) has pointed out, is often characterized by favored methods of linking one idea to another. Arabic, for example, uses many coordinated clauses, their use signaling that the writer uses another valued writing style. English readers find the use of many coordinate clauses childish and imprecise. In English, the accepted style is elaborated and complex, with subordination as the favored means of achieving it.

Another cultural difference may be found in the kind of proof which is selected and valued from culture to culture. English writing is usually dependent on the use of logical proof: examples, illustrations, statistics, facts, observations, enumerations—generally, data. Other cultures may rely more heavily on other kinds of proof—such as comparisons or analogies, imagery, and such examples as may affect one's feelings rather than one's sense of logic. Many examples may be discovered in Japanese novels, Zen writing, and Aesop's fables. Consider the following letter, sent to Dr. Joyce Valdes, as an additional example of the kinds of appeals regarded as legitimate in another culture:

Joyce M. Valdes
Chairman
University of Houston
Houston, 77004

Dear Sir,

I have the pleasure to write to your Honour and request you for a personal favour. I am an undergraduate (External) in the University of Ceylon reading for the Degree (B. A.) examination with English, Pali and Br. Civilisation as my subjects.

Professionally I am a Second Language teacher teaching English in schools in Ceylon. I have been teaching the subject for the last 15 years and I have a relentless desire to study more in the field.

When I contacted the U.S. Information Service here in Ceylon I was informed of your esteemed seat of learning and of the ideal course available in T.E. S.L.

Sir! It would be a worthy cause if you could help me in my endeavour to study. My financial resources are rather poor and weak that I cannot afford to follow a University

course. As such I beg your Honour very humbly to see whether your esteemed office could work out a scheme for me to follow this most coveted course with you, free.

I am so devoted and painstaking for further knowledge in the field that I am prepared to do each and every mean work either in your residence or in the University or in both with no cost in return for the greatest help you do for me.

I trust you would not leave me in despair.

I remain Sir
Yours
Very Truly

Levels of formality are indicative of another kind of cultural difference. The highly formal and flowery expressions evident in much foreign student writing, which the letter reproduced above amply illustrates, makes this writing seem quaint, insincere, often having the opposite communicative effect from that intended. The use of honorific expressions, appeals to emotional proof, over-formal sentence structure, unusual and often archaic lexical choices, and highly elaborated sentences produces negative reactions in readers who are anxious to get to the point, becoming impatient with writers who cannot.

Finally, the non-native writer often lacks the cultural referents which are so essential to English. Again, the letter provides a number of examples. Lack of understanding of the geopolitical structure of the United States is evident in the lack of a state name. Typical male and female names are not known—"sir" in reference to Joyce.

3. Summary

The tasks of the writing teacher at the beginning and intermediate stages are frequently clear, and the procedures by which they are achieved well defined; techniques for teaching the writing process are fairly standard. But tasks and effective teaching processes at the advanced level are less clear.

The overriding concern of the teacher of advanced composition skills is to provide students with means of becoming independent writers, able to monitor their own writing and to know the means to solve, on their own, problems of effective written communication.

As students grow in writing skills, they must achieve increasing flexibility in the kinds of writing they will need to produce, as well as in the use of advanced vocabulary and sentence structure. Furthermore, increased control over the logic of thought in English, reflected in standard means of representing that logic, is required. In addition, student writers must satisfy demands in most situations to sustain writing activity for the extended development of ideas. Finally, the problem of the interaction of cultural thinking patterns must be recognized by students, and used in composition practice.

The identification of sharper boundaries between levels of skill provides the composition teacher with a way to focus on the major tasks appropriate to each level. This then permits the more exact description of the goals and techniques. Finally, such a division permits us to combine the sets of activities

involved in writing into a unified whole, stressing the nature of writing as process. All activities may then be related to each other as parts of that process, each serving a necessary function in the acquisition of writing skills.

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Reviews

SUGGESTOLOGY AND OUTLINES OF SUGGESTOPEDY. Georgi Lozanov. New York: Gordon and Breach, Science Publishers, 1979. Pp. v + 377.

As this decade draws to a close, we can clearly observe that one of the major changes in foreign language teaching which has characterized the seventies has been the contribution of disciplines other than general linguistics to our field. I think most of us will agree that these contributions, by and large, have been efficacious. One can cite many examples: the increased reliance on the tools and methods of statistics, both descriptive and inferential, in second language acquisition research; the insights from developmental and cognitive psychology in our increased understanding into the nature of language learning; the therapeutic approaches of clinical psychology found in some of the new methodologies; the development of materials for special purposes in response to demands from industry and technology; and the increased sensitivity and understanding about the language needs of minority communities through the contributions of anthropologists and sociologists. It is important, therefore, that the possible contributions of the well-published work of the Bulgarian educator and psychiatrist, Georgi Lozanov, should be carefully considered by the TESOL membership, especially since there already exist several organizations in North America and Europe which are active in the proselytization of his approach and its application to a method for teaching English as a foreign language. Consequently, it is with a grave sense of responsibility that I have accepted the task of reviewing the first English translation of his major work.

Before examining the book itself, I would like to establish what I think is an appropriate perspective from which to review the potential impact of Lozanov's work on the field of language teaching, because it is important to realize that part of the contribution (or lack of contribution) that a scientist makes to the field from an outside discipline is not just the substance of the theory itself, but the direct claims that he may make about the relevance of his work to the field. Thus, many of the embarrassing attempts to apply the formalisms of transformational-generative grammar directly to pedagogical materials, both in mother tongue and second language classes, would have never been undertaken had the writers of these materials taken seriously the famous remarks by Chomsky about the irrelevance of transformational-generative theory to the field of language pedagogy. Conversely, because Lozanov and his followers do indeed make substantial claims about the beneficial changes that suggestology can effect on second language learning performance, it is important that we language teachers take him seriously and give suggestopedya,

the pedagogical application of theory of suggestology, a thorough and attentive review. According to the publicity release distributed by the publisher, "Suggestology is a hyper-rapid learning technique which—by making possible the assimilation and comprehension of up to 1,000 new words daily—is revolutionizing the teaching of foreign language." Descriptions of the almost unbelievable successes of suggestology have appeared in *Psychology Today* (August, 1977) and *Parade* magazine (March 12, 1978), a Sunday supplement that has an estimated readership in the United States of over thirty million. On the day following the publication of the *Parade* story, I was approached by a neighbor, a friend of a university administrator, and a rather opinionated graduated student from another department, all three encouraging me as an applied linguist to urge the adoption of suggestology by language departments in our university. They, and many others of the educated lay public, were thoroughly convinced on the basis of the brief *Parade* article alone, that suggestopedy was a revolutionary alternative to current language teaching methodologies.

The strong claims made about the potential benefits of suggestopedy do not come solely from his publishers or disciples, however; they emanate, in fact, from Lozanov himself. In Chapter 2 of the book under review, the claim is made that "As seen from the results obtained in experimental groups, memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method is accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods. This means the efficiency of intellectual work is raised 2500 per cent—hence the great savings in time of the method (p. 13). Furthermore, Lozanov goes on to write that "any time of the day or night is suitable for suggestopedic lessons" (p. 13) and that, "the degree of memorization of suggestopedically learning words varies from 96 to 100 percent" (p. 14). If this is not enough to whet a teacher's interest in suggestopedy, other claims made further on in the book certainly should. "It has become clear," Lozanov writes in Chapter 4, "that suggestopedy not only improves memory processes (in the presence of the respective suggestive setup), but it is able to activate the whole creative personality in the process of teaching and learning (also in the presence of the respective suggestive setup)" (p. 118). Language teachers would be interested in knowing that if they employ the method in a 24 day foreign language course (in any language) with four lessons a day (and virtually no homework), the students will have assimilated, on the average, 90% of a 2,000 word vocabulary, will be able to "speak within the framework of the whole essential grammar," and perhaps most astounding of all, be able to read any text (p. 171.). And what teacher would not be enchanted to have a student write these words about a course just completed, one of several testimonials that Lozanov unabashedly cites in his book. "In the Institute, I felt far away from all worries and trouble. I felt reborn, or intoxicated if you like. I find that I now have a wish to be better to everyone, and that I have begun to contemplate life and the reality which surrounds me more philosophically" (p. 135). Finally, in perhaps the strongest claim of all,

Lozanov begins his work by proposing that his theory has a place not only in psychotherapy and pedagogy, the two fields to which he has attempted to apply its principles, but that it is applicable to literature, music, sport, advertising, and commerce. "In fact," he concludes with a flourish, "there is no sector of public life where suggestology could not be useful" (p. 2). From the perspective of Lozanov's own enthusiasm about the efficacy of his method, and from the concomitant ardor of his followers who have employed his method in foreign language programs, it is readily apparent that suggestology cannot be ignored by EFL teachers. Consequently, the central issue around which this review of the first English translation of Lozanov's major work revolves is the question: does suggestology present one of the major contributions of this present decade, and perhaps future ones, to the field of second language pedagogy, or does it fall short of this ambitious goal, so short as to be considered useless? I believe that a careful perusal of *Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy* by any fair-minded and knowledgeable reader will provide a convincing and unequivocal answer.¹

Lozanov's work is no lightweight monograph. Interspersed among some 200 pages of legal size galleys are 47 tables, 58 figures, an appendix which includes, as a possible lesson plan, an excerpt in Italian from Dante's *Inferno* (forgive the pun, but what a hell of a class that must be to teach!), and a 637 item bibliography favoring the fields of neuropsychology, psychiatry, and parapsychology. It is the reviewer's hope that the bibliography will be made as accurate as it is lengthy in the published version of the manuscript. Again and again, one is disappointed to find references in the body of the text which do not appear in the bibliography (sample omissions: Azetinsky and Kleitman's work on rapid-eye-movements in sleep, three different publications by Anokhin, and the works by the two Pavlovs). Aside from these mechanical faults, there also appear to be gaps in content as well. I am disappointed, for example, to discover that Lozanov, an East European psychiatrist, heavily influenced by the impressive work of Soviet psychologists, fails to cite any of Luria's works—especially remarkable is the failure to mention *The Mind of a Mnemonist*, Luria's well-known book on hypermnnesia, the principle topic of Lozanov's research. What emerges from a casual glance at the text therefore is a weighty scientific tome, replete with references to empirical experiments and at least superficially impressive: in fact, and the word is chosen carefully, even *suggestive* of the notion that Lozanov speaks with the authority and collective wisdom of scientific proof. Unfortunately, a careful reading of this book reveals that there is precious little in suggestology which is scientific, and that viewed in the context of the zealous claims about its success launched by Lozanov and his

¹ One disadvantage has prevented me from making a completely responsible critique. Because a final published version of Lozanov's work was not available at the time the book was reviewed, I was given an advance galley. Naturally, there were various typographical errors and other mechanical mistakes in the manuscript which one would not expect in a final printed version. The reader should be advised that page numbers and other textual references in this review refer to the galley proofs and not to the published edition.

supporters, suggestopedy, taken as a self-contained method for language instruction, offers at best nothing much that can be of benefit to present day, eclectic EFL programs, and at worst nothing more than an oversold package of pseudoscientific gobbledygook!

The book deals with two central themes: suggestology, the theoretical approach which Lozanov takes towards the power of suggestion, and suggestopedy, the actual method whereby this theoretical approach is applied. A long chapter on the general theory, actually half of the book, is sandwiched in between shorter chapters dealing with suggestopedy, the latter of more interest to language teachers because it contains reports of pedagogical experiments and outlines of what foreign language curricula employing the suggestopedic method should look like.

The key to Lozanov's theory of suggestology is, of course, the power of suggestion, a psychological construct which he was able to identify and measure through many years of experience first in psychotherapy and now, more recently, in pedagogy. It is interesting to note that suggestopedy has several features in common with some of the other methods that have become popular during the seventies—a case in point being the application of psychotherapeutic insights to foreign language learning situations, a perspective that links Lozanov's suggestology/suggestopedy to some of the principles that Curran expounds in the Counseling-Learning/ Community Language Learning approach. Indeed, a few sentences from Lozanov's work read like they were penned by Curran himself: "This global approach explains why a well-trained lecturer using the suggestopedic system is educator and therapist at the same time" (p. 150). In the fourth, and by far the lengthiest chapter of the book, entitled "Towards a General Theory of Suggestion," Lozanov takes great pains to describe what his concept of suggestion is and is not. It is not, for example, to be confused with conformity; that is, it is not the passive kind of group hysteria that prompted the mass suicides in the Jonestown tragedy; neither is it a glib act of fooling all of the people some of the time as in Hans Christian Andersen's story of "The Emperor's New Clothes." Furthermore, he goes to great lengths to emphasize that what occurs to students in suggestopedy is quite different from what happens to subjects under hypnosis or in a state of sleep; this point he documents with innumerable references to the psychiatric and neuropsychological literature which punctuate almost every paragraph of this chapter. His notion of suggestion is, in his own words, close to the idea of "conviction," and it is transported, according to Lozanov, by "peripheral" (subliminal) stimuli which are constantly bombarding us from our environment with subtle but powerful suggestions. At the end of this chapter, he offers the following definition: "Suggestion is a constant communication factor which chiefly through unconscious mental activity can create conditions for tapping the functional reserve capacities of personality" (p. 120),

From this theory of suggestion which comprises the field he has named "suggestology," Lozanov moves on to demonstrate how this approach can be

applied as an actual pedagogical method in suggestopedy. One of the stylistic drawbacks of the book is that the actual sequence of chapters is so arranged, or misarranged, if you will, that the reader is exposed to three short chapters on suggestopedy at the beginning of the book, before being introduced to the fourth chapter on Lozanov's theoretical perspective, historically earlier in the evolution of his entire educational philosophy. Then, after having spent almost half the book digesting this theoretical background, the reader is plunged back into two final chapters on suggestopedy. In my opinion, the book would read much better if it were arranged in two parts, reflecting its title—several chapters on suggestology followed by several more on outlines of suggestopedy. In addition, the section on suggestology would be much more enjoyable if there were more prudent uses of the neuropsychological literature; much of Chapter 4, as it now stands, reads like a turgid annotated bibliography of the field, and a somewhat dated bibliography at that. Leaving aside these stylistic criticisms, the sections on suggestopedy will prove to be most interesting to the language teacher because it is here that Lozanov has attempted to grapple with the problems of language acquisition. Now and again, the reader will encounter useful bits of advice, insightful comments, and classroom techniques and procedures of proven merit. The importance of the classroom environment is acknowledged by almost every teacher, and Lozanov has some interesting ways of enhancing a healthy atmosphere for memorization (and perhaps even learning, although, as will be pointed out, I am not quite certain that Lozanov fully appreciates the difference between the two). The most publicized feature of Lozanov's method is the concert session, where students sit in armchairs listening to new vocabulary items spoken by their teacher in various intonations, while submerged in a background concert of Haydn's Symphony No. 67 in F major, or Beethoven's Concerto No. 5 in E Flat for Piano and Orchestra. To be fair, this is but one aspect of Lozanov's curriculum, and it is just as unjust to judge his possible contributions to the field of language instruction on the basis of the concert session as it is to judge the success of the Silent Way on your attitude toward cuisenaire rods, or the contributions of Community Language Learning on your reactions to seating students in a circle. Still, looking at the concert session by itself, *ceteris paribus*, I admit to a degree of amusement when I contemplate the opportunity of employing even a reasonable facsimile of such a session in the EFL classes at the foreign language institute in Northern China, where I am presently employed. My choice, and the choice of most EFL teachers throughout the world, is not between whether I can play Haydn or Beethoven (much as I enjoy them both), but whether I can overcome the numerous negative suggestions of my limited physical resources—specifically, the blaring loudspeakers across the street, the dry, dusty air penetrating our classroom, or the persistent cold whose ubiquitous presence is more eloquent in its own distracting way than even the mighty strains of a Beethoven concerto!

What I find most attractive about Lozanov's discussion of suggestopedy

is several references to the notion that language learning involves more than simply the ability to memorize vocabulary items or even the ability to recall those items on a later date. I do not know if this awareness is indicative of a more recent development in his thinking, perhaps through contact with language teachers, or whether it represents an interest that Lozanov has harbored all along. In any case, it is heartening to find a rare quote like the following. "An example of such a reversal in the foreign language suggestopedic course is the directing of the students' attention not to vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but to the act of communication" (p. 109). There are other bits and pieces of information about the kind of program that Lozanov presumably runs in his native Bulgaria and which he would like to see emulated abroad. Some of his recommendations for the "psychological maintenance" of a language institute listed toward the end of his book are whimsically prescriptive; he believes that "ail the staff of the Institute with whom the students come in contact should show or suggest [n.b, There's that word again!] confidence in the teachers and the method" (p. 161). He encourage teachers to be fastidious in manners, reactions, and dress and to possess "a solemn attitude toward the session." Furthermore, he decrees that "alcoholic drinks are banned in the Institute as is improper behavior and sexualization or modernization of the students" (p. 161).

My chief quarrel with suggestopedy, however, does not reside in these peripheral issues of whether it is possible to play classical music in vocabulary classes or if there should be modernization, alcoholic drinks, or even sexualization in the classrooms; it lies with the much more substantive issue of Lozanov's position on the role of memorization in language acquisition, especially as it is presented in this important work. Despite the one or two references to the possibility that language learning comprises much more than the memorization of lexical items and patterns, the entire thrust of Lozanov's pedagogical method is directed at enabling students to memorize large quantities of material in short periods of time. These hypermnesic abilities are emphasized again and again throughout the book and are the substance of almost every experiment reported and almost every suggestopedic application explored. Even in the one sentence where the author attempts to extricate himself from the trap of equating memorization with learning, he compromises his disclaimer in the very next breath. "The main aim of teaching is not memorization, but the understanding and creative solution of problems. However, the main obstacle encountered in teaching is memorization, automation, and the assimilation of the material presented" (p. 146). I find it difficult to delineate, in the context of the above quote, any genuine difference between "main aim" and "main obstacle." More importantly, the innumerable references to experiments on memorization and the recurrent discussions of hypermnesia, *to the total exclusion* of references to "understanding" and/or "creative solutions of problems" convinces this reviewer at least that suggestopedy, as it is outlined in this book, is an attempt to teach memorization techniques and is not devoted to

the far more comprehensive enterprise of language acquisition. But the real failure of Lozanov's work in my estimation is not the limited applicability of suggestopedy as a method for foreign language instruction; it is the inability of the author to substantiate his speculations about suggestology with empirical proof. Because Lozanov begins his book by paying lip service to "science's strongest argument—the facts of experimentation" (p. 3), and because I am apprehensive about the possibility of many classroom teachers being persuaded by the superficial impressiveness of Lozanov's experiments, just as the readers of the *Parade* article who approached me about suggestology seemed to be, I feel it is my obligation as an applied psycholinguist to review the experimentation underlying suggestology as prudently as I have attempted to assess the pedagogical implications of suggestopedy.

Difficulties in interpreting the author's scientific documentation emerge with the very first experiment reported in the book. The experiment was undertaken in the fall of 1965 with 75 students, presumably native speakers of Bulgarian (although this is never elucidated) learning either French or English or both (again, unclear) using the Lozanov suggestopedic method. The students were divided into six groups, three experimental and three control, with teachers being assigned to teach two classes each, one experimental and one control; hence an attempt was made to control for the variable of the teacher's personality. The students were older adults who took the classes as part of a two hour evening program and had little opportunity during the twenty day period of the experiment to study outside of class due to their daily work commitments. Lozanov was careful to avoid describing the nature of the experiment to the students and presumably, an attempt was made to treat each group alike except, of course, that the experimental group was taught by the suggestopedic method whereas the controls were instructed by "conventional methods."

My initial quarrel with this experimental protocol is the complete lack of information about the instructional program of the control group, an information gap that looms ominously in the description of nearly every pedagogical experiment whose results Lozanov so proudly records throughout his book. Even in the one experiment where Lozanov goes so far as to name the methods practiced by the control groups (summarized in Table 40), we are given no further information about the control groups except that they employed the "conventional," "audiolingual," and "audiovisual" (?) methods. The validity of any experimental reporting in psychology depends just as much on an adequate description of the control group as it does on providing sufficient data about the experimental one; an absence of information about the former is as compromising to the validity of the experiment as the lack of information about the latter. I might add that in some of the experiments reported on later in his work, Lozanov does not even bother to establish control groups (e.g. in his discussion of "suggestopedy and intellectual capacities" on p. 133). About halfway through the experiment, when the vast amount of material to be

memorized appeared to exhaust the control students, while, at the same time, it did not seem to tax the energies of the experimental group, Lozanov allowed the control group to learn via suggestopedy, although again, in another departure from typical experimental protocol, the original experimental group did not, in turn, switch to the "conventional methods" employed by the former control group. It was at this point in the program that, in Lozanov's own words, the control students were "on the verge of a nervous breakdown" (p. 8). I am surprised that an investigator trained in psychiatry would make such a statement without any attempts to describe in clinical terms how he knew that the control subjects had reached such an emotional extreme. Even if we accept this statement as a literal expression of the truth without further substantiation, we are left with a diminished opinion of the moral integrity of an investigator, trained in clinical psychology, who admittedly allows volunteers in an experiment to be thrust to the very threshold of an emotional breakdown. A written test of the material to be memorized in the language classes (again, no information is presented on what was memorized by either group, but I presume it was the second language vocabulary, identified by mother tongue transitions) was given shortly before the control group was transferred to a suggestopedic curriculum, and the results are provided in Table 2, copied exactly as printed in the advance galley proofs.

TABLE 2
Results of the First Written Tests

Type of group	Experimental			Control		
Group Index	Ia	IIa	IIIb	Ib	IIb	IIIa
N of students in group	11	11	14	12	12	13
Percentage of words learned by group	92.0	93.6	94.7	80.6	80.0	58.2
Mean percentage	93.6-5.68			72.1-14.8		

^aguaranteed probability 0.95

Let me dispense with a few minor quibbles concerning this table before progressing to more important observations. The footnote at the bottom of the table remains uncited in the table itself. It certainly does not refer to the lower case letters "a" and "b" which remain themselves curiously undefined as part of the "Group Index." I assume that it refers to the fact that with the number of subjects involved, the probability that chance did *not* enter into the difference between the mean percentages of the two groups was 95% (i.e. the results of a test of significance revealed a $p < .05$). The figures 5.68 and 14.8 given after the two mean percentages probably refer to the standard deviation found among each respective group. I hope that these details, along with many other mechanical flaws, are corrected in the final published version of the text.

More importantly, there are arithmetic errors in this table that even the most statistically naive reader can immediately identify. The mean percentages

for each group are both incorrectly computed, and accidentally, both errors go in the direction of enhancing the superiority of the experimental subjects over the controls (i.e. the experimental mean of 93.4 is incorrectly reported as 93.6 and the control mean of 72.9 is incorrectly given as 72.1). Thus, instead of a difference between the two groups of 21.5% that Lozanov refers to in his discussion of the results, the difference is slightly less, actually 20.5%. It is not the difference of 1% that I find disquieting, but the inaccuracy and sloppiness that confronts the serious reader in the very first experimental report. I regret to say that this appalling lack of scientific rigor pervades almost every experiment reported in the work under review and leaves this reviewer with the indelible impression that Lozanov is not nearly as interested in scientific validity as he is in dressing his unsubstantiated claims about his own theory with the superficial trappings of experimental psychology. Before leaving Table 2, we might note, in addition, the heterogeneous nature of the control group vis-a-vis the homogeneous composition of the experimental subjects. What would immediately interest a statistician, for example, is the comparatively poor scores of control group IIIa; if their scores are not included in the control group mean, the difference between the controls and the experimental subjects slips from 20.5% to about 13%. Why did this third group perform so poorly? This question and many others are left unexamined, unexplained, and unanswered.

I have dwelt in some detail on this one experiment because I believe that the problems which one encounters at this microscopic perspective are magnified correspondingly at a macroscopic level when one examines the broad claims that Lozanov makes about the validation of his theory and, in turn, at an even higher level when these claims are reported in the popular press. Even giving Lozanov the benefit of any doubts and accepting the results of this single experiment as if it were a well-documented and tidily presented piece of empirical work, how does an increment of 20% in the ability to reproduce memorized material justify the outlandish claim that is made only a few pages further in the book that "the efficiency of intellectual work is accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods" (p. 13)? I find such blatant balderdash difficult to swallow even as science fiction; when it is subjected to "science's strongest argument—the facts of experimentation" (p. 3), I find it unpalatably repugnant!

It would be understandable if this first experiment were an exception to the rule, an aberration that carelessly found its way into an otherwise well-conceived compilation of data, but, unfortunately, time and time again, this reviewer was faced with a shoddiness of thought and presentation that was intolerable. There is one series of experiments, for example, designed to measure the degree to which the rapidly memorized material was retained over time, an important fact to establish if one wants (as Lozanov of course would) to demonstrate that the vast quantities of material memorized during suggestopedic sessions last long enough to be of value to the language students. A major problem in these experiments, and one that emerges throughout the book, is the problem of varying subjects numbers (Ns). For example, in comparing Tables 19, 20, 22,

and 25, as the percentage of retention ability rises (from about 93% retained over time to about 100%), the Ns decrease, from 416 subjects in the first experiment to only 7 in the last. One immediately wonders why only 7 subjects are reported on in the final experiment, the one with the best results, and one immediately considers the possibility that the subjects were handpicked from the larger group. In none of the experiments does Lozanov attempt to explain why the number of subjects fluctuates so haphazardly. Once again, even if we accept these percentages as “scientifically” attested measures of retention of vocabulary items over time (sometimes as long as 22 months), how do we know that we are not simply measuring the ability to recall words which were originally learnt in introductory classes but which were continually reinforced through constant use in either subsequent formal language study or in informal use? I, for example, would display an equally amazing 100% retention rate of all the Thai words I ever studied in my first few weeks of Thai lessons fully fifteen years ago, not because of the efficacy of the quasiaudiolingual method presented in a hot and noisy classroom by a semi-conscious teacher to a particularly dull student, but for the simple reason that I have heard and spoken those words over and over again during the intervening period of time!

One way to measure the retention rate of items memorized in suggestopedic classes that would avoid this problem would be to test the ability to remember nonsense syllables, an ability which would not be influenced by continual usage of the terms originally learnt. I was pleased to see that this was precisely one of the experiments Lozanov sought to undertake. Alas, unlike the language material whose retention rate was so accurately measured for up to 22 months in time after initial memorization, the nonsense syllables, which could not be reinforced through usage over time, were measured only up to *three hours*, with little apparent decline in retention scores. Amazingly enough, no efforts were made to measure the retention ability past this minuscule period of time, and our only evidence that there was little decrease in the ability to remember nonsense syllables over time lies in the authoritative words of the author. “The tendency toward a decrease in reproduction in our experiments came to an end relatively quickly, and we did not observe that it continued beyond the third hour after the material had been given the students” (p. 132). What about “decreases in reproduction” after 22 months, the inquisitive reader is prompted to inquire. The problem with Lozanov’s experimentation is not simply that he employs a different experimental paradigm, one that is based on Eastern European and Soviet philosophy and psychology—this particular point being one raised in his defense by Jane Bancroft of the University of Toronto, a person who impresses me as one of the most prudent and responsible reporters on the suggestopedic method that I have read. This defense rapidly evaporates if one compares his work to the father of Soviet psychology, Pavlov, whose early experiments in classical conditioning are considerably more carefully constructed and more impressively recorded than Lozanov’s disappointing attempts at scientific validation.

Aside from the inadequacy of his scientific documentation, Lozanov can also be criticized for making sweeping generalizations which are not even dimly veiled by a vestige of experimental evidence. Several times throughout his book, Lozanov refers to the claims that his students did not suffer any fatigue from the intense sessions of memorization in which they so enthusiastically participated (e.g. "Such tiredness and exhaustion, however, are not observed in suggestopedic memorization" p. 132.) Aside from a few testimonials by selected students, Lozanov does not attempt to document these claims with empirical support. On page 113, in his discussion of infantilization, the intriguing notion that an adult learner becomes childlike in many ways, he writes, "It is well-known that the child can memorize much more information than the adult." Well-known by whom? What kind of information? In what kind of experiments? The intelligent reader is left with nothing but unanswered questions. The absence of any experimental documentation or professional references for incredible statements such as this is accentuated by pages of footnotes on other topics of interest to the author such as hypnosis and parapsychology (e.g. pp. 120-125). At times, it appears that Lozanov strains at gnats but swallows elephants.

A final example of the unscientific nature of Lozanov's work appears in Chapter 5, when the author, in summarizing the work of two collaborators, Kokova and Balevsky, writes the following:

Of 123 subjects who were suffering from neurotic disorders and who studied foreign languages by the suggestopedic method, 72% were cured or very much improved on completing the course while 23% did not show any change, and the state of health of 5% deteriorated temporarily because of reasons that apparently had nothing to do with the course. (p. 136)

A careful reader will find the logic of this comment amusing, if not downright faulty. Of the 5% who "deteriorated" during the course, note that 1) the deterioration was *temporary* (is one to assume that the 72% who were cured were done so permanently?), and 2) the course had nothing to do with their deterioration. (Again, is one to believe, conversely, that the course had everything to do with the salubrious improvement of the 72%?) There are other flaws observed in the reading of this manuscript, but I have dwelt long enough on the negative aspects of this book and would like to conclude on a more positive note. I regret that this review has been of such a contentious nature, but I believe that I was able to justify the rigor of my criticism in light of the amount of publicity Lozanov's method has received and in light of the extravagance of the claims that he himself has initiated.

The happy note on which I would like to end is the recommendation that there are techniques and procedures in suggestopedy that might prove useful in a foreign language classroom. I commend Lozanov for emphasizing, more than anyone else I have read in the area of foreign language pedagogy, the importance of the physical environment of the learning situation and of the possible influence, both beneficial and detracting, of subliminal messages which exist in every setting. For those teachers who can do something about the

physical setting of their classes, the use of comfortable furniture, well-dressed, attractive personnel, and, yes, even classical music, should be explored for certain parts of the curriculum. Another of Lozanov's techniques that might be employed is the use of a new name and identity in the second language with students, a strategy that is not unique to suggestopedy, of course (Rassias employs it in the "Dartmouth method"). These minor recommendations I make would be anathema to Lozanov I am sure, because he is unequivocally clear in expressing his belief that suggestopedy cannot be incorporated by bits and pieces into a more eclectic method, but must be approached as a self-contained, autonomous method and taken lock, stock, and suggestion. Even deviations from the ten classical pieces recommended for the concert session are frowned upon. More importantly, he declares, "Any eclectic combination of suggestopedy with other methods brings a risk of lower effectiveness and of fatigue in the students" (p. 175). Such dogmatic narrow-mindedness is peculiar, considering the fact that Lozanov ardently advocates eclecticism in clinical psychology when he discusses his ideas about "integral psychotherapy;" such liberality is not tolerated in pedagogy however, and because of the inflexible views he espouses on the possibilities of incorporating parts of his method into eclectic language programs, language teachers in North America who have adapted suggestopedy to the needs and demands of their own individual institutions are not, in all honesty, proponents of "the Lozanov method" or "suggestopedia." To the extent that they have diverged from the general principles described in *Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy*, they should be applauded. If we have learnt anything at all in the seventies, it is that the art of language teaching will benefit very little from the pseudoscience of suggestology.

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OXFORD PICTURE DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH. E. C. Parnwell. New York: Oxford University Press, 1978. Pp. 77 + 9 (index).

In its five-hundredth anniversary year, Oxford University Press has given the American TESOL and bilingual education community a welcome and useful present. The new paperback Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English is a real treat for teachers and learners of English. The Dictionary is available in three versions: the Monolingual English Edition, the English/Spanish Edition, and the English/French Edition, with a very reasonable price tag, \$3.50 per copy, making it accessible to large groups of users.

Forty-two thematic units with contextualized vocabulary 'are presented in tastefully drawn full-color pictures. These situational illustrations are expressive and highly synoptic. Most of the thematic units provide indispensable vocabulary items concerning American life, habits, culture and institutions (e.g., *The Law, Fire and Medical Services, Education, Recreation*). More complex areas are appropriately subdivided: the unit called *The Human Body* contains five pictures/diagrams referring to five separate vocabulary clusters (Skeleton, Body, Face, Eye, Insides). Similarly, the area of *Travel* contains detailed sections on Travel by Road, by Train, by Water, by Air. In complex illustrations, every object (e.g., every part of the human body) displays a number referring to the respective word carrying the same number on the bottom of the page.

A special area of *Occupations/Professions* consists of thirty mini-pictures succinctly characterizing various jobs including carpenters and clowns, doctors and dressmakers. One interesting thematic unit enumerates *Nouns of Quantity*, listing thirty expressions bordering on idioms, such as *bunch of flowers, flight of stairs, swarm of bees*, etc.

Three out of the forty-two thematic units are arranged according to functional rather than semantic criteria: verbs (73 quite essential verbs with ingenious illustrations of each action), adjectives (a total of 64 adjectives listed and depicted in contrasting pairs, such as *clean—dirty, shallow—deep, solid—hollow*. Two pages of illustrations and text are devoted to prepositions, intelligently and effectively demonstrating such relations as against, around, across, beyond and many others. (Just remember how difficult it was for you the other day to show these relationships to your students.)

A nine-page appendix contains an alphabetic index of all words used in the dictionary (approximately 2,000). The spelling of each word is accompanied by its pronunciation in phonemic transcription and by numbers referring to the picture-page (and to the item number on that page) where the word occurs.

ESL and bilingual education teachers who sometimes use home-made pictures and slides as an integral part of their instruction will find this new aid extremely useful and time-saving for many purposes: from simple vocabulary building to advanced group conversations and even controlled composition. Using an opaque projector, with all lexical items covered, pictures can be projected to test vocabulary retention, encourage sentence formation and modification and stimulate discussion in oral practice. Written exercises can

focus on brief factual descriptions of a given illustration or on more demanding thematic essays, and even on short stories combining several pictures.

The variety of uses makes the new Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English a useful and versatile tool suitable for different levels and age groups in ESL/EFL instruction.

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TEST OF ABILITY TO SUBORDINATE. David M. Davidson. Language Innovations, Inc., 1978. 2112 Broadway, Room 515, New York, N.Y. 10023.

If you are looking for a practical and reliable diagnostic test that measures control of certain structures of subordination in writing, try the *Test of Ability to subordinate*, designed for intermediate or advanced adult ESL students. It is one easy-to-use writing test in which examinees actually do some writing. In the accompanying Teacher's Manual, the test is described as "an easily scoreable, objective test that would measure students' ability to manipulate particular grammatical structures generally regarded as indicative of mature writing." and it lives up to these claims.

How is it possible to do all this in a non-multiple-choice test? Mr. Davidson employs the technique of sentence-combining. For each item, the test booklet presents two or three sentences which the examinee is expected to combine into one sentence by filling in the missing words in a given sentence frame. For example, the examinee sees the following in the test booklet:

- a. He used to buy the paper every morning. b. He stopped.

He stopped _____

On the answer sheet, the examinee is expected to fill in:

He stopped buying the paper every morning.

Each of the 45 items that make up the test has the same format and is constructed in such a way that a native speaker would in most cases find only one correct way to complete the frame while maintaining the meaning of the original sentences (except, of course, variations in relative pronoun slots, e.g., *which* for *that*, and a few other variations). The Manual also states that some responses, though grammatically correct, are not acceptable for this test because the overwhelming majority of native speakers who took the test did not give that answer.

This 45-item test measures students' ability in 9 kinds of subordination: 1) prenominal adjectives, 2) adverbs, 3) prepositional phrases, 4) infinitive phrases, 5) participial phrases, 6) gerund phrases, 7) adverbial clauses, 8) relative (adjectival) clauses, and 9) noun clauses. Each of these areas is tested in five separate items. The grammatical structure tested in each item, along with the changes required to arrive at the correct answer, is described in detail in the Teacher's Manual. This is something that few diagnostic ESL tests do, even

though theoretically it is one of the most important bits of knowledge necessary to permit correct diagnosis of students' language deficiencies.

In interpreting the test results, one needs to look at the percentage of correct responses in each of the nine grammatical categories tested. If a student responds correctly to 80% (4 out of 5) or more of the items in a category, he is considered to be proficient in the use of that subordination structure. This is an arbitrary figure, but a seemingly reasonable one. Other problems, such as subject-verb agreement, which are not specifically tested, can also be diagnosed by examining the parts of sentences constructed by examinees in responding to the items.

A detailed discussion of the test development and pre-testing of items is available on ERIC microfiche (ED 135247), but the Teacher's Manual does report on the validity and reliability of the test. To insure validity, items were submitted to linguists and to English and ESL teachers for verification of anticipated responses. In addition, items were pre-tested on native as well as non-native speakers of English. In comparing scores on the TAS with scores on writing samples, a correlation of .65 was found. This is not as high as one might wish, but it seems satisfactory, considering the difficulty of rating compositions reliably. Also, considering the fact that the TAS attempts to measure only one facet of competence in writing, it cannot be expected to correlate highly with results of a composition test, which includes all aspects of writing rather than just those included on the *Test of Ability to Subordinate*. Seemingly, the only objection in the area of validity would come from those who maintain that combining sentences is not writing, but, as pointed out earlier, this test does have students write something so that their ability can be diagnosed. Reliability of the TAS using formula KR_{20} with the split-half technique was .88, while the Spearman-Brown formula gave a reliability coefficient of .90. All data were gathered from a sample of 219 students in New York City, most of whom were Hispanics living in the U.S. for 5 years or less.

In reporting all this, the Teacher's Manual does not ignore the test limitations. It clearly states that it is a diagnostic test of subordination (not a proficiency or placement test, although it can aid in placement) and nothing more. It also states that the TAS seems to be most accurate for students scoring 22 or more correct out of the 45 items.

The test package includes a Teacher's Manual, 30 test booklets, and 60 answer sheets in a plastic bag with handle. The price is \$10.00 and answer sheets can be re-ordered at \$2.00 for 100.

There is one typographical error in Example 4 on the answer sheet: the word *arena* has been omitted from the frame. This may cause minor problems in giving instructions. Also, a time limit of 35 minutes for the test only becomes clear through reading the detailed instructions in the Teacher's Manual. From the instructions, it would appear that students are not to be told in advance about the time limit. Is this wise?

The *Test of Ability to Subordinate* clearly points out what it sets out to

do and the needs it attempts to fill. It meets a very specific need and does it quite well; it does not pretend to be a panacea for placing ESL students or for diagnosing all their problems. It sets out to measure specific abilities in the use of subordination in written English and does that well without ignoring its limitations. Teachers who need the kind of information the TAS gives would do well to use it.

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READING TECHNICAL BOOKS. Anne Eisenberg. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978. Pp. x + 241.

The growing concern among ESL professionals on how to make their teaching relevant to the needs and interests of their students has resulted in a proliferation of English for Science and Technology (EST) courses and programs. Since the non-native student's greatest strength in this area is usually his ability to *read* technical material, most of the textbooks available focus on this, rather than speaking or writing skills (Weissberg and Buker 1978: 321). Anne Eisenberg's new book, however, is the kind that can effectively function as the backbone of an EST course by not only capitalizing on that reading ability but also providing a framework around which oral and written work can be structured as well. As the introduction points out, "It is a step-by-step program that you can do by yourself, or in a classroom." The clarity and sequencing are such that the book practically teaches by itself; yet at the same time the creative teacher will find it well-suited for group instruction.

Although intended for native speakers, the book is ideal for college-bound international students at advanced levels of ESL instruction for several reasons. The text's emphasis on skills rather than concepts is exactly what these students need. A definite learn-by-doing approach is reflected in the fact that the book consists primarily of exercises. The explanation sections are quite thorough and should help the students a great deal, but the text is really a workbook and therein lies its real usefulness, since it not only focuses on the skills but breaks them down into manageable steps so the students can learn practical strategies for attacking reading comprehension problems. These steps are ordered (within both chapter and book) in a manner that allows the students to move confidently from simple controlled exercises to passages taken from college textbooks. The passages used in the exercises are general enough to fit the needs of most EST students and cover a sufficient variety of topics to hold their interest. Yet the selections are not so general as to be abstract and artificial like many EST textbook essays (e.g. Ewer and Latorre 1969) that attempt to be all-inclusive by discussing science in general rather than some specific technical problem related to a particular field.

The book is divided into three parts, the first a six-chapter section called

“The Basics of Technical Reading,” Each of the first five chapters focuses on a different rhetorical mode; beginning with definition, then moving in a logical progression through *exemplification*, *classification*, *contrast*, and *cause-effect*, the students are taught both to recognize the type of writing they’re dealing with and how to analyze it for the information they need. Each chapter incorporates the skills from the previous chapters; the sixth chapter on main ideas provides a sort of cumulative review.

“Using a Technical Book,” the second section, attempts to add to the student’s ability to handle these rhetorical modes some generalized skills applicable to all types of technical writing. The section’s opening chapter shows how to interpret different types of technical illustrations, especially line graphs. The following three chapters emphasize skills associated with notetaking, surveying, marking a book, and outlining.

The concluding section consists of a pair of chapters intended primarily for individual study. One demonstrates to the student how to use affixes and dictionary skills to increase technical vocabulary; the other deals with taking lecture notes and preparing for taking examinations.

Each chapter is similarly set up. There are several pages of well-organized explanation enhanced by numerous examples. The short “Looking Ahead” section which follows is useful to the teacher in planning and evaluating because it lists several clear behavioral objectives for the chapter. Next, the “Summary” consists of about five numbered statements listing the main points of the chapter. The bulk of the chapter then is the exercise section, which has about ten well-sequenced practices, designed to reduce the skills to components so the student can get a handle on them. The exercises usually start with single sentences, progress to short simplified paragraphs, then ultimately to entire textbook passages. Each exercise is preceded by instructions and helpful examples where needed.

Most chapters end with a “Springboard section intended to ease the transition to the real world by giving the students a practical project to apply the skill taught in that chapter to a section of a textbook they’re using in one of their science/ technology courses. Also, there are four “Quick Progress Tests” inserted at appropriate intervals. These can be used to check the students’ ability to use the skills in combination.

All of these features make *Reading Technical Books* an effective text for advanced classes in an intensive English program but an ideal one for classes of students who are taking courses in their majors along with English. The author sets out to write a book which “builds chapter by chapter a pair of basic skills: how to shake all the information you need out of a technical textbook and how to organize it so you’ll remember it . . .” and she has succeeded in providing ESL teachers with a very valuable tool.

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COMP: EXERCISES IN COMPREHENSION AND COMPOSITION. L. G. Alexander and E. T. Cornelius, Jr. New York: Longman, Inc. 1978. Pp. vii + 135, paper.

Comp is the American English version of *A First Book in Comprehension Precis and Composition*, by L. G. Alexander. Teachers who would have liked to use the well known Longman publication but hesitated because of the text's British English slant can now lay aside their doubts; in this new text there are no lorries or greengrocers to puzzle students in an American setting, and narrators tell about a trip to Chicago rather than London.

Comp is more than a semester course in controlled composition, although it would certainly lend itself to that purpose. The authors intended the book primarily as a writing curriculum to be used over several years of English language instruction. A student with a basic 500-word vocabulary, and familiarity with simple present and past tenses, can begin to use this text to write 50-word paragraph summaries and gradually advance to produce 250-word original essays at the 2000-word vocabulary level. The book consists of four sections: The Simple Sentence, The Compound Sentence, The Complex Sentence, and Comprehension and Composition. Each section contains twenty reading passages graded in length, vocabulary and structure and is introduced by a sample lesson explaining to teachers and students the aims of the section, with detailed directions and examples for doing the assignments. Satisfactory results can be obtained only if the directions are carefully followed.

The book is based on the idea that the development of reading comprehension skills and elementary writing skills are complementary activities. The aim is to teach paragraph writing and composition through the use of reading comprehension exercises. Each lesson contains a brief narration on a topic of general interest, followed by comprehension questions. The student answers these questions in complete sentences joined to form a paragraph of a specified word limit. This method forces the student to think about how he will structure his sentences, rather than allowing him to slip into the habit of merely copying the original passage. The purpose here is to develop simplicity and economy of language rather than needless verbosity. The teacher should spend some time explaining the procedures to be followed and closely guide the student through the early exercises.

The sections on compound and complex sentences are perhaps the most crucial to developing adequate control of sentence structure. Here the student is given hints for summarizing the main points of the passage by using certain

connectors or subordinating phrases. By practicing such specific sentence combining techniques, the student can achieve much writing flexibility.

In the final section of the book the student is given the chance to apply all he has learned about sentence structure and word order without extensive teacher assistance. He does brief vocabulary exercises, supplying synonyms for certain words in the passage. From the beginning of the book he has been paraphrasing the reading passages, and these synonym exercises provide a further means of increasing his control of the language. In addition to the basic paragraph summaries, the student now writes original compositions related to the reading passage. This type of exercise serves to bridge the gap between controlled composition and free writing, a step not adequately dealt with in many composition texts.

By following the sequence of assignments over an extended period of time, the student should develop sufficient mastery of vocabulary and structure to enable him to express his ideas coherently. Rhetoric and expository writing techniques are not dealt with in this book, as the emphasis is on developing basic sentence control in narrative prose.

All in all, *Comp* is a well thought-out text with a simple, solid approach to teaching essential composition skills. This flexible book merits consideration as a compact composition text for a one-semester review course or as a basic writing guide for many an ESL curriculum

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FOCUS ON COMPOSITION, Ann Raimes. New York: Oxford University Press, 1978. Pp. xxxii + 181.

In the introduction to this book—which is substantial for a composition text—is the heading, “To the Teacher: How to use this book.” This section informs the prospective teacher that *Focus on Composition* is to be used for: “intermediate-advanced learners of English as a second language at the high school or college level;” “native speakers of English at the high school or college level who are ‘basic writing students.’”

Simple math affirms that second language speaker + native speaker + college level + high school level represents at least four different groups that the text could be used for. And that is quite a spread—at one end a ninth grade inner-city student and at the other a graduate student in petroleum engineering from Iran. The only thing they may have in common is that they have trouble with English.

The question that arises at the very outset is, can a book which promises so much to so many deliver on those promises? The answer, unfortunately, is no. *Focus on Composition* has some serious shortcomings as a text for ESL students.

This is not to say that the book does not deliver a great deal; it does. In fact, it is an extraordinary book, and deserves careful attention from all sorts of English teachers because of its considerable merits. Those merits are worth admiration, copying, stealing even. The weaknesses—well, one hopes, Ms. Raimes is working on those right at the moment.

The prime merit of the book is its organization, which consists of a series of core compositions, and exercises, or tasks, to go with them. The core compositions provide the springboard for everything that follows in each lesson. They also provide the backbone of the book, which is rhetorical rather than grammatical or syntactic, covering more or less the traditional content of a composition course. Also, the grammar lessons are tied to the composing process rather than to any traditional or psycholinguistic canon of learning order. Thus, though subject/predicate recognition comes in chapter one, relative clauses and noun clauses are introduced in chapter three, and the -s inflection on nouns and verbs appears in chapter four.

Each core composition in the book consists of a stimulus such as a painting or a piece of writing followed by a series of discussion questions on the stimulus and, finally, a writing assignment based on, or generated by, the stimulus. Lesson one, "Describing a Static Scene," for example, is based on a painting by Rene Magritte, "The Portrait." From this stimulus the students are led, through a series of discussion questions, to a writing assignment which, after suitable revision, is handed to the teacher.

It is at this point that *Focus on Composition* begins to justify its name. The core composition segment is finished; the essays are in the teacher's hand. Now the teacher turns to the tasks section of the lesson, and in so doing performs a series of focusing operations. These operations are designed to make each student's homework assignment fit his syntactical and rhetorical needs.

First the teacher, in grading the papers, focuses on those items under consideration in the lesson, not bothering to indict the student for the whole range of his errors. Second, the teacher selects appropriate exercises which will address the problems of the particular student. This involves selecting tasks which are appropriately syntactic, rhetorical and difficult. The organization of the tasks makes this selection a natural one. They are divided into *Focus A* (syntactic) and *Focus B* (rhetorical), and each further subdivided into *average level* and *challenging*.

We are familiar with Focus A tasks from writing books. Raimes, however, uses nearly all the types of exercises available to us today. In chapter one, for example, the first task is to separate sentences into subject and predicate. Task two (challenging) is to locate fragments by making yes/no questions of the sentences under investigation. Task three (average) is to punctuate and capitalize a paragraph. And so on, up to task twelve, which is a sentence combining task. The idea, again, is to give students a task that will address their writing problems. If the students have none of the average level problems, they are given a challenging task (there are only two of twelve challenging tasks

in lesson one, but by lesson fourteen, four of nine focus A tasks are challenging).

The rhetorical focus B tasks deal with the structure of writing in English, and are for the most part further writing assignments which are structured enough to give the student practice in doing the kind of writing the chapter is about. Since chapter one is entitled "Describing a Static Scene," most of the writing tasks are descriptive: describing an oil painting, a photograph, the student's ideal home, and so on. By chapter fourteen, "Arguing and Persuading," the focus B tasks involve writing persuasive letters, analyzing arguments, and even some role playing. By this time the student has also run the whole gamut of rhetorical types that one usually finds in a composition textbook.

I have described the structure of *Focus on Composition* in some detail, because I wish to make two points about it: first, this book is a complex work. The seven page *Guide to the Teacher* is a mini teacher's manual, and, if a teacher expects to get full measure from the text, being acquainted with how it works should be a primary concern. Second, teaching from this text requires an enormous amount of teacher involvement. The teacher must: A) read the individual composition, B) decide what the student's problems are (within the bounds of the lesson), and C) prescribe specific rhetorical tasks. Instead of dealing with, say, a class of fifteen, the teacher is dealing with fifteen classes of one. While it is true that many of the tasks can be done as group activities, they are clearly designed to be done in small groups or as individual assignments. Therefore, a great deal of teacher preparation and follow-through are needed.

So far so good, and I suggest that the book is a major achievement. But *Focus on Composition* has, in my opinion, a near-fatal flaw. It doesn't seem to work nearly as well for non-native speakers of English as it does for native speakers. The fault is not in the nature of the writing assignments or foci, but in the nature of the stimulus assignments from which they spring.

At first, the stimuli are no problem. Lesson one uses an oil painting; lesson two uses a photo of Gary Cooper in *High Noon* and the painting *American Gothic*; lesson three used another painting and a photograph, and so on. Since these are all chapters on description, the student and the teacher are on fairly safe, because visible and concrete, ground. The pictures are laden with cultural and ethnic overtones, but they are also a-linguistic, and therefore relatively harmless.

However, when the text leaves the comfort of visible images and starts chapter four, "Describing what people do," it runs into trouble. The stimulus for this chapter is a selection from an interview with Truman Capote on how he writes. Following is a portion of the reading:

I am a completely horizontal author. I can't think unless I'm lying down, either in bed or stretched on a couch and with a cigarette and coffee handy. I've got to be puffing and sipping. As that afternoon wears on, I shift from coffee to mint tea to sherry to martinis . . . Essentially I think of myself as a stylist, and stylists can become notoriously obsessed with the placing of a comma, the weight of a semi-colon.

This reading selection would be difficult for foreign students, for two reasons. First, there are Mr. Capote's stylistic touches:

- . . . either in bed or stretched out on a couch *and* with a cigarette and coffee handy.
- . . . stylists can become notoriously obsessed with the placing of a comma, the weight of a semicolon.

These are subtle patterning, and belong more in a text on style than one for beginners. In other words, if the reader can easily understand Mr. Capote's style, he doesn't need the information *Focus on Composition* is offering.

A second objection springs out of the first. In order to illustrate this objection, let me add some more information. The second selection in chapter four is from Eldridge Cleaver's *Soul on Ice* (which uses a poker hand as one of its central metaphors). The fifth chapter uses as one of the reading stimuli a scene from Hammett's *The Maltese Falcon*; A cloze assignment comes from Joan Didion's *Play It as It Lays*, and so it goes. Chapter thirteen has a long excerpt from Steinbeck's "A Primer on the Thirties," (the word *primer* is not glossed).

The reading selections are, then, by and large literary, as opposed to practical. Literary pieces are by no means bad, but are less than satisfactory in this context. They require that the reader bring a wealth of experience and knowledge to the reading act which foreign students simply don't have. Even the most educationally deprived basic writing student shares with the author of *Focus on Composition* an ocean of presupposition, constructs, and paradigms that the foreign student doesn't possess. As Frank Smith suggested about reading (1971), what is in the head is more important than what is on the page. The richness, the allusiveness, the multidimensionality of the literary essay is mostly lost on foreign students, and they can't understand at all why the teacher is so enthusiastic about, for instance, the little bit by Capote, when to the knowledgeable teacher it is so, well, so—Capote.

There is yet a third objection (a rather picky one) to the reading stimuli, but I voice it all the same. The essays and readings in the text are not very good models for the students to follow (if we assume that they are models and are to be followed). Unless a student is going to write literary essays for the *Saturday Review* or the *Atlantic*, he won't use the literary essay, either in school or later. He'll write memos, reports, letters, and an occasional research report. But not essays. Essay questions, perhaps, but not essays (nowhere near the same thing). For a target group of ESL students, it would make a great deal of sense to use, as a basis for composition, readings which increase knowledge of the ethnolinguistics of the United States rather than ones which depend on weak or non-existent knowledge. At the same time, those readings could serve as much stronger models of expository prose than do the ones which Raimes uses.

My disenchantment with *Focus on Composition* is, then, not with its structure—which is superb—nor with the concept of the core composition, but with

the nature of the stimuli. Nor need it be a permanent disenchantment. It would be relatively easy to replace those stimuli with ones better suited to ESL students. To do so would not, I think, harm the book's effectiveness for basic writing students, and it would insure that *Focus on Composition* would live up to the advertisement at the beginning of the book.

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FROM COMPREHENSION TO COMPOSITION. L. A. Hill and S. Chohan. London: Evans Brothers Limited, 1978. Pp. iii + 76, paper.

Among the myriad of composition theories there is one which proposes that students can learn to write by reconstructing written passages in their own words. *From Comprehension to Composition* is based on this theory, and instructors who subscribe either partially or fully to it may find this little book useful as a source of anecdotal paragraphs for students to practice prose writing. Although the book is British in orientation and language use, it will be reviewed from the standpoint of an American university instructor.

This book aims to "help students understand written English better and will help them improve their style of writing English compositions" (p. iii). The book contains 59 one-paragraph stories, arranged in difficulty from easier to more difficult. These selections are of the same anecdotal nature as L. A. Hill's Elementary, Intermediate, and Advanced *Stories for Reproduction*, though sans the Nasreddin stories. The passages are self-contained and do not relate in content to one another. Following each story is a series of about eight comprehension questions which follow the sequence of the story, so that by answering them a student reconstructs the original passage. The authors present suggested model answers at the end of the book, and they point out that the students' paragraphs may differ somewhat from these models. A structural index is included to identify at which point in the book a particular structure is introduced.

The selections are graded, and could be used by students in lower intermediate to higher intermediate college ESL courses. In their introductory page, Hill and Chohan recommend that the paragraph selections be handled in the following way: first, the student reads the story carefully, looking up in his dictionary any unfamiliar words. Next, he re-reads the passage, noting the main points. He then reads the questions following the story and writes a paragraph by answering each question in sequence. The student reads over his paragraph carefully, and corrects any errors. Last, he gives it a title.

Although the techniques noted above are seemingly simple to follow, the book's lack of instructional content of any kind will undoubtedly cause many instructors to turn elsewhere for a composition textbook. The book is limited

and is not suitable as the sole text for a writing course. Conversely, the lack of instructional material may be a strength of sorts because in this way the passages might be useful and compatible with a variety of teaching philosophies. Not to be overlooked is the possibility of having the text as a reference tool, since the stories are generally amusing and could be utilized in a variety of writing and non-writing ways. This point leads me to observe that the book's introductory page is too sketchy and does not provide the reader with any kind of rationale for using the techniques set forth. The authors could have increased the appeal of their book by explaining in greater detail how their method helps students improve their writing.

The strengths of *From Comprehension to Composition* are that it provides intermediate students with the opportunity to paraphrase paragraphs and to practice reported speech in writing. Other skills are practiced as well, but these two stand out as particular to the technique. Both skills are important for ESL students who plan to attend an English-speaking university. However, since most college writing is non-fictional and expository, intermediate students will need to proceed from the retelling of anecdotes. The type of writing practiced in this book could form a step towards the goal of producing full-length themes, but prospective users should bear in mind the limited usefulness of fictional prose writing for a college student. What we intermediate-level instructors need now is a book similar to *From Comprehension to Composition*, but with non-fictional passages.

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Research Notes

Research Article

FOREIGN STUDENTS' MENTAL STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN LEARNING ENGLISH VOCABULARY

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The purpose of this experiment was to discover the relationship between the number of mental strategies that foreign students utilize in learning new English word pairs and the success of their learning.

Procedures and Results

In the presentation part of the experiment, the students looked at fifteen written English-English word pairs such as *newel = post* for fifteen seconds each. Then, they took a test in which they had fifteen seconds to write down the second word as they looked at the written first word. The first words were in random order. After the test, the students worked on a grammar exercise for fifteen minutes. Next, they took a retention recall test in which the same procedure as for the first test was repeated. The first words were again in random order. Finally, the students looked at a list of the word pairs and wrote down what mental strategies they had used in connecting the two English words. They had thirty seconds in which to write down their strategy for each word pair.

The experimenter selected the first word in each word pair from Thorndike's listing of words which occur no more than seven times per eighteen million words. All first words were two syllable nouns. The second word in each pair was a one or two syllable common noun which was a definition or synonym of the first word. In addition, the second word was a concrete, highly visual noun such as *stream* in the *runlet = stream* pair.

The students studied Level IV Grammar in the Six-Week Summer Intensive Course at the Intensive English Language Institute of the State University of New York at Buffalo. The students' native languages were Arabic, Farsi, French, Japanese, and Polish. Nine of the twelve students were in the seventeen to twenty-two age group. Eight males and four females participated in the experiment.

The initial test and the retention test consisted of the same fifteen word pairs which were tested through recall. There was a .91 reliability between the two forms of the same test.

The experimenter analyzed the students' strategies. A strategy was accepted only if it definitely connected both words in the pair. For example, the strategy of "sounds queer" was not accepted nor was "picture of post office" for the word pair of *newel = post*. "In the post (mailbox) there is news each day" was acceptable for the *newel = post* pair as was "In Poland there are big round posts in the cities on which the most important news is glued to." The number of acceptable strategies which each student employed was recorded.

Next, the experimenter correlated the number of strategies for an individual with that subject's test scores. For the forty-one acceptable strategies there was a mean of 3.42 and a standard deviation of 3.58. For the first test the mean was 4.92 correct,

with a standard deviation of 2.84. The retention test had a mean of 4.67 with a standard deviation of 2.84. The analysis revealed that the number of strategies had a .85 correlation with the test score. Furthermore, the number of strategies had a .81 correlation with the retention test.

The results of this study have to be considered in terms of some possible limitations. The students' proficiency level in English may have had an effect on their writing more than on their strategies. Students who natively speak other languages may have performed differently in this study. If the number of students participating in the study was increased, there might also be a change in the results.

Discussion

The results do indicate that the more mental strategies foreign students employed in learning English word pairs, the better they learned these words. The foreign students who were flexible in their mental processing of English word pairs were also those students who did well on the recall tests of English word pairs. The students who were able to describe how they learned were the students who did best on the tests. Some students provided strategies which did not connect the two words in the word pairs; these students tended to score lower on the tests.

This research generates some additional questions: Which strategies are used most often in vocabulary learning? Which strategies are the most effective in allowing their users to achieve high test scores? How can teachers help their students to increase the number of mental strategies which they use in learning new words?

Abstracts

A METHODOLOGICAL STUDY OF ACCENTED SPEECH

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Comprehension of accented English speech was evaluated before and after a brief (3.5 minutes) indoctrination period. When the indoctrination material was English prose read by a non-native speaker having a pronounced accent, listeners were able to significantly improve their comprehension time. The comprehension task required subjects to listen to one and two syllable English words presented orally with a pronounced accent (Japanese). Listeners then repeated the word they heard as rapidly as possible and their responses were tape recorded. The analysis showed that an accented prose indoctrination period significantly shortened listener response time whereas non-accented prose indoctrination had no effect. Pronunciation errors were approximately equal for the two conditions. It was concluded that the improvement that most listeners experience in understanding accented prose after a period of indoctrination may be due to a facilitation of temporal processing. That is, the time required to decode and process auditory information is shortened because the listener has learned efficient decoding strategies for the accented speech.

Modern information-processing theory holds that verbal recognition depends, in part, upon the brief time span of an auditory echoic-memory. Incoming auditory information is retained in this memory for one or two seconds and then the memory trace fades. Decoding of a message must occur before the trace fades. Efficient decoding strategies reduce processing time for an auditory message and hence increase the likelihood that sufficient material is processed to permit verbal recognition.

THE READING ABILITIES OF BLACK-ENGLISH-SPEAKING AND STANDARD-ENGLISH-SPEAKING CHILDREN AND THEIR PERCEPTION OF STANDARD ENGLISH INTONATIONAL PATTERNS

Mary Katherine Gallowich, CESL Program, Portland State University

The purpose of the research is to examine two major factors: (1) to investigate if any relationship exists between ability to perceive standard English intonation patterns and the reading ability of 98 Black-English-speaking and white standard-English-speaking second and fifth grade children in a Portland, Oregon school district; (2) to investigate if any difference exists between the white standard-English-speaking children's ability to perceive the standard English intonation patterns and the Black-English-speaking children's ability to perceive these patterns.

The majority of the research in the area of black dialect study of listening comprehension and reading has been conducted on the phonological and syntactic levels, but it is thought that the suprasegmental level of Black English warrants attention as well. The technical research conducted in this area of Black English is discussed linguistically, by viewing prosodic features as an additional source of dialect interference for the Black English speaker who has to learn to speak and read standard English, and sociolinguistically, by viewing these patterns as meaning-bearing elements which carry the potential to convey attitudes and emotions on the part of the speaker. Review of the research reveals that the prosodic features exhibited by Black English speakers are affected by the type of situation in which the speaker is placed. The effect this may have on the Black-English-speaking child and the white standard-English-speaking teacher in the classroom and in reading development is discussed.

Due to the specific and divergent areas of the research, the testing is largely experimental in nature. An intonation test, consisting of nonsense words, was devised to test the children's aural perception of the most common intonation patterns present in standard English statements and general questions. The overall results are: (1) the white standard-English-speaking children scored higher in ability to perceive the standard English intonation patterns than did the Black-English-speaking children; (2) both the Black-English-speaking and the white standard-English-speaking students' intonation test scores correlated with their reading scores and/or level of reading ability in the two fifth grades and in one second grade; (3) in one second grade, the Black-English-speaking students' intonation scores did not correlate with their teacher-assessed reading levels.

The implications of these results are that the intonation test may be considered a useful tool in predicting a student's reading ability. It may also be helpful as a diagnostic tool in aiding teachers, specifically in the early elementary grades, in detecting standard-English-speaking and Black-English-speaking children.

Further implications for public education are that more thorough testing of Black-English-speaking students at the early elementary level is needed in order to determine the degree to which these students are dialectal. In addition, teachers should be made more aware of the dialect interference caused by Black English and the sociolinguistic factors present in teaching children who speak Black English. It is suggested that by capitalizing on the Black-English-speaking student's rich tradition of stressing the aural/oral aspects of language, the teacher can better facilitate development of reading skills in the child.

(From a MA in TESOL Thesis, Portland State University, 1978)

TEACHING ENGLISH TO PUNJABI SPEAKERS

Eunice Baxter, Department of Sociology, University of Victoria, British Columbia

Punjabi immigrant children have been enrolling in Pacific Northwest schools in increasing numbers in recent years. This, and their frequent failure to learn English rapidly when put directly into regular classes with native speakers, prompted a pilot program of the "transitional" type.

The children were primarily recent immigrants with little or no knowledge of English. They lived in a large Canadian city (Vancouver, B. C.) in a suburb containing the highest concentration of Punjabi-speakers in the city. The children were enrolled in a small (maximum 20) ungraded kindergarten to Grade II class, and taught by a teacher of Punjabi origin, fluent in both Punjabi and English. Both languages were used for instruction with English gradually replacing Punjabi; all teaching materials were in English. Once children had acquired a sufficient grasp of English, they were transferred to a regular classroom.

At the end of the third year, all children (N = 32) who had been in the class for eight months or more and were still in Vancouver schools were given a standardized reading test. Kindergartners took the Stanford Early School Achievement, and Grades I to IV took the appropriate level of the Metropolitan Achievement Test.

Group scores were computed by grade level for children still enrolled in the experimental class, for those who had transferred, and for both groups combined. Comparisons were made to national norms, and (for Kindergarten to Grade II students) to the scores of a control group. This group were Punjabi speakers from the same school who had been enrolled in regular classes since starting school.

Kindergarten and Grade I children still enrolled in the experimental class compared favorably with controls and with national norms; in fact, experimental kindergarten students were somewhat superior to controls, and both experimental and controls exceeded national norms on some subtests. Grades I to IV experimentals who had transferred to regular classes, however, consistently performed below national norms and did more poorly than controls. This difference increased with grade level and with length of time in a regular class. Scores on spelling subtests showed less deterioration than other reading subtests.

Two interpretations of the data are possible. First, the special program was at least as good as a regular class for teaching English in the short run, but detrimental in the long run. A second interpretation is possible because control subjects were generally younger and probably knew more English before starting school. Under this interpretation, the experimental program was beneficial in the short run, but its effects did not carry over into regular classes. Under either interpretation, it appears that the children should have stayed in the program longer, or that the program should have been extended to higher grades.

INTELLIGIBILITY—AN EVALUATION OF SOME FEATURES OF ENGLISH PRODUCED BY SWEDISH 14-YEAR-OLDS

Margareta Olsson, School of Education, University of Gothenburg, Sweden

The purpose of this study was to establish how errors in spoken and written language influence intelligibility.

More than 500 English students listened to or read English sentences and texts which contained errors typical for Swedish school children. The task of the English students was to write down what they thought the Swedes had tried to say.

The intelligibility of the utterances or written phrases varied, but on an average proved to be high. Inherent qualities in the errors, for instance, degree of acoustic deviance, were not of prime importance to the interpretation of the sentence. Of greater significance was the ability of the addressee to apprehend the error and to assign an interpretation to what he heard or read. The chances of the intended interpretation being chosen were determined by the extent to which other plausible interpretations could compete with the intended one.

Grammatical elements are limited in number. Thus there are not many alternatives to choose from, should a grammatical item be incorrect. Being frequent, such items are not heavily loaded with meaning. For these reasons, overt grammatical errors have been hypothesized to interfere less with communication than lexical errors. This was confirmed by the results of the study.

(From a Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Gothenburg, 1977)

Announcement

A group of scholars at the University of Pennsylvania have begun a long-term research project on the attrition of language competencies, particularly in second languages. They are interested in hearing from anyone who has done research on language skill attrition, knows of publications or has data available on this topic.

If you can help, please write to: Dr. Barbara Freed, Department of Romance Languages, 502 Williams Hall/CU, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104.

The Forum

Comments on Robert J. Di Pietro's review of *Educational Linguistics*, by Bernard Spolsky (*TESOL Quarterly*, December 1978).

The review of Spolsky 1978 makes a number of criticisms which seem to me to be irrelevant to evaluation of the book. Since non sequiturs and other illogical remarks creep into just about every review, the present case might be forgiven if it were not for the fact that they comprise almost the totality of the review, and are combined with a tone of animus and vituperation which seem unjustified. Expressions of strong opinion and condemnation in a review are occasionally welcome and refreshing, but surely they should then be accompanied by careful argument and appropriate factual statement. I note the following incomplete list of objectionable criticisms found in the review.

1) *Educational Linguistics* is accused of vainly offering "a new science of language which will answer all the needs of first and second language teachers" (464). But Spolsky never says this, and indeed his critic fails to cite the offending words.

2) Spolsky is criticised for not answering Chomsky's 1966 claim that, in the reviewer's words, "there was no connection" relating "linguistics of any kind to language teaching" (465). Chomsky made no such blanket denial; but even if Chomsky had made such a statement, those who, unlike Chomsky, claim to know something about both linguistics and language teaching might consider it more sensible to ignore than to debate.

3) Chapter 3, concerned with language barriers to education, Di Pietro finds objectionable since on reading it "one is left to wonder about the case of those immigrants who already spoke a variety of the new country's chief language before arriving" (465). The chapter might equally be criticised for leaving us to wonder about, say, the rising price of gasoline, or the mind-body dichotomy.

4) Chapter 4 is criticized because it "depicts Guaraní as the language of 'poor, inconspicuous, cigar-smoking women,'" an objectionable depiction since "Guaraní is used in many types of interactions not only among women but also between the sexes" (466). What Spolsky actually says is as follows: "In contrast situations—when the country dweller comes to town, or at school, or in formal and official transactions—the use of Spanish is assumed. The typical speaker of Guaraní is a poor, inconspicuous, cigar-smoking woman; of Spanish, an educated townsman" (44). Clearly Spolsky's characterization of Guaraní as the language of "poor, inconspicuous, cigar-smoking women" is meant to apply only to typical contact situations; and just as clearly, Di Pietro's criticism is irrelevant.

5) Similarly, the fact that Spanish is easier for Portuguese speakers to under-

stand than vice versa does not, as Di Pietro suggests, contradict the claim, falsely attributed to Spolsky, that “the closer the relation is between two languages, the easier it will be for speakers of one to learn to understand the other” (466). What Spolsky actually says is that “How long it takes a person who can speak one variety to learn another is probably as good a measure as any of the distance between the two” (Spolsky, 51).

6) The reviewer calls attention to the example of the Pennsylvania Dutch, “[who have] not had any large replenishment of speakers from the outside for 100 years” (467), in objecting to Spolsky’s conclusion that “the greatest factor leading to language maintenance [in the U. S.] is large and periodic replenishment of the stock of speakers” (466). But this single exception among the seven languages showing gains in the number of speakers does not negate Spolsky’s generalization.

7) *Educational Linguistics* is accused of “skip [ping] around from one linguist’s proposal to another;” one linguist is “abandoned after less than a full page;” the discussion of animal language is referred to as an “excursion of four pages;” Spolsky “apparently thought he should get serious,” and so “dips into the various grammars proposed by Chomsky and Chafe” (neither of whom, by the way, has proposed “various” grammars) (467). This criticism, if valid, could easily be made explicit by telling us just how many pages each of these topics and authors is properly due. Perhaps Di Pietro could then go on to answer the question, “How long should a book be?”

8) Fault is found with the book since, “strange as it may seem, the practical matters of how to write a test and evaluate its effectiveness are completely ignored (468). Since a book must, above all, be reviewed in its own terms, which is stranger: to omit things from a book without saying why, or to criticise it for an omission without saying why (in particular an omission of something the inclusion of which would change the cohesion and character of the book)?

9) Where is the contradiction in saying, as Spolsky is accused of saying, that (a) Osgood’s semantic differential work is “highly significant” and also (b) “very limited in its application to language as a whole” (468)? This merely reinforces our understanding of the complexity of language and of the multiplicity of the factors which contribute to our understanding of it.

10) Spolsky is criticised for the “almost incredible” claim that there are “no fundamental differences between the processes of second-language learning and second-dialect learning” (469). Since the relationship of two varieties as either dialects or languages is a matter of a *continuum* of intelligibility, it is hard to fault this (nowadays quite common) claim, particularly since Di Pietro has ignored the associated statements (a) that “the task of acquiring a second language is different in degree rather than in kind from the task of acquiring a second dialect,” (b) that “the key distinction is in the status of the learner’s own variety and the one to be acquired,” (c) that “each of these two situations clearly produces different pressures affecting fundamental differences in attitudes and thus . . . , in motivation,” and (d) that “it is probably quite wrong, from a

sociolinguistic point of view, to lump together the teaching of a second dialect and the teaching of a foreign or classical language, for it suggests a greater difference between standard and local dialect than the learners perceive" (Spolsky, 174).

Any book concerned with language use in education must make generalizations in the face of apparently conflicting facts and countervailing pressures, linguistic and non-linguistic. Such generalizations are bound to be considered extreme or premature by some, and consequently such a book is bound to be controversial. It can be reviewed fairly only when logical arguments are couched in reasonable language. Di Pietro's review does little to satisfy the need for a rational and balanced appraisal of Educational Linguistics.

Grover Hudson
San Diego State University

Comments on P. L. Hartman and E. L. Judd's "Sexism and TESOL Materials" (TESOL Quarterly, December 1978).

The minimum but basic requirement of decent scholarship is to get facts straight. This is especially true if an article is written from a viewpoint of marked social ideology and contains severe criticism of others' work. That Mary Bruder should be criticized for our *Roleplays* (Paulston, Britton, Brunetti & Hoover, 1975) is not only unfortunate but so sloppy as to make one question everything else in the article. Hirasawa and Markstein (1975), for example, are criticized for referring to Margaret Mead as Miss Mead, "not even Dr. Mead (p. 389), a comment which simply shows linguistic ignorance of academic address behavior. At prestige institutions, the use of the title *Dr.* tends to be considered non-U and is frequently avoided. One would expect Mr. Judd (*Sic* N.B. editor's usage, p. 383; I doubt that this can be construed. as an example of sexist anti-masculinism) who teaches sociolinguistics to know this.

Another requirement, one would think, is not to fall into the same sort of behavior that one is criticizing, H & J blithely do. In a paragraph which criticizes the division of labor in *Roleplays*, they mention an "ambassador and *his* aide" (emphasis mine) (p. 387) and then complain that women are not assigned such prestigious roles. Now, in that particular roleplay, "The News Conference," (1975:20) there is never any mention of the particular sex of the ambassador because of our intent that either a man or a woman be able to play it. H & J just assumed that an ambassador would be a man, which, as assumptions go, is fairly safe in the real world. Actually the roleplay contains directions for how to address a female ambassador. We especially called the State Department to ascertain the correct form and at first they didn't know; there seem not to be too many.

What irritates and embarrasses me, as a scholar and a woman, about all this is the frequent tendency of feminists (female and male) to set up their framework and then stuff facts in willy-nilly, whether they fit or not. Nobody

would make a mistake like “the ambassador and his aide” when mid-page is listed “Madam Ambassador” if the presumption weren’t already there, simply waiting to be buttressed with data, accurate or no. It is a dishonest way of inquiry, and supports rather than discourages anti-feminism; hence my irritation. The notion of bias and discrimination in textbooks is an important one which deserves better than to be belittled by such careless work.

Another form of dishonesty in investigation is unrepresentative and biased sampling. For any quotation from Rutherford (1975) that might be interpreted as down-putting to women, it is easy to find one that puts down men; such passages are not mentioned. Actually Rutherford is just being funny:

Ernie: We’ve always had a special arrangement: she (his wife) makes all the little decisions and I make all the big decisions.

Pete: How does it work out?

Ernie: Fine, except that no big thing has come up yet. (1968:294)

This is not an MCPS remark on the social institution of marriage, but a joke which works exactly by pricking the male ego. I find it dishonest *to* portray Rutherford as a sexist who uses “women as a class as the butt of jokes” (p. 385). Everyone is the butt of Rutherford jokes and to claim anything else is distorted scholarship. And please, how about a sense of humor?

Apart from the weaknesses of H & J’s “Sexism,” and I won’t continue with them, the article brings to light some issues in textbook writing which deserve a constructive discussion, and we have been remiss in that aspect. Let me mention a few issues that we need to think about.

One must remember that, while writers may write for the love of it, commercial publishers publish for money, and that fact of life has implications for textbook writing. Often there may be a tension between, say concern for large sales (surely also shared by the writer) and the writer’s ideas of efficient language learning. I think for instance that highly topical or present political events are good topics for class discussion: students can be assigned to read the newspapers, American cultural reaction to events can be explained, etc. Nixon and Watergate was probably the most successful topic for the roleplay “The Radio Talk Show” (1975:28), yet the published version has no mention of it. One learns not to overtly date material because a few years later that makes the materials seem hopelessly out of date.

I also believe that the more contextualized, functional, and personally relevant text material can be, the more the students care to learn from them. But I also realize that such concerns are in direct contrast to creating texts that have a general applicability to the largest possible audience. So one compromises. H & J mention without comment that *Roleplays* contains 26 characters whose sex cannot be determined. In their sexism-hunt, this did not interest them, but surely in a consideration of the division of labor between sexes, it merits some attention

that an inordinately high number of characters lacks sexual identity. What happened in the writing of those materials was this: Men and women at times use different language and in working on the roleplays we paid a lot of attention to male and female speech, partially because we are linguists and it interested us, but mostly because we wanted to achieve as authentic language use as possible. But in trying out the materials, the teachers reported repeatedly that the students disliked playing a part of the other sex, and so in the interest of versatility and practicality of the materials we threw out much of the sex-linked speech and “unisexual” many of the characters, and so lost in detailed verisimilitude. But the gain was worth the loss, and I would make the same decision today. However, I would make one change. In looking over *Roleplays* again, I see to my chagrin that in spite of our care to use “double-sexed” proper names like Pat, Chris and Terry which can equally well be taken to refer to men or women, the pronoun *he* creeps in every so often and blows the game. These days I would settle for *s/he* (with a note to the teacher to discuss this usage), awkward as it is, because I think the gain in versatility is worth it.

What is not worth it, I think, is the de-sexing of cultural scenes. It is virtually impossible to write culture-free materials (science fiction is the closest) and certainly not desirable either. This leads straight to the dilemma whether one accurately portrays the culture or presents some kind of idealized version in conformance with one’s ideology. H & J cites *English For Today* (Slager, Norris and Paulston, 1975) without much approval, which I find strange because no book can have been more carefully watched for sexism, implied or otherwise. Too carefully watched, I think. The first edition had a chapter set on an Ohio farm where the mother was in her kitchen cooking, the father in the fields plowing with the big tractor, etc. Just rural America. But, no, it was clearly sexist stereotyping, and so in the second edition out went Mom’s kitchen and in came a *person-kitchen* or the family’s kitchen or something equally silly, and by the time the reading was all desexed, the Ohio farm was like no farm in the Midwest I have ever known. I can understand that a feminist objects to the sex roles on a Midwest farm, and you won’t find me living there, but that does not grant me the license to falsify a cultural phenomenon. That chapter is a thorn in my flesh and I won’t do it again; I think it was intellectually dishonest in the interest of a publisher’s expediency. (It was the result of official McGraw-Hill policy.)

Finally, the last issue that I would like to bring up concerns the problem in material writing of having the text meet the specific demands of its genre. For instance, in a dialog you have to have people speak, and that means a style of spoken English the way live people talk and not of the “I am pleased to meet you/ Are you pleased to meet me?/ I am not pleased to meet you” variety (Samelson 1974:7). Natural sounding dialogues are remarkably difficult to achieve.

In roleplays, if they are to “work” in a classroom, if they are to generate

some excitement in the playing, there must be some sort of conflict to be resolved. One of the easiest ways to achieve such conflict is to make the characters rather disagreeable. When *Roleplays* went to press, the typesetter (an ardent feminist) refused to set the manuscript because of its sexist portrayal of women as unpleasant creatures, she claimed. So I had to go through all the male roles and list their characteristics to show her that the males were, if anything, even worse than the females. She consented to set the ms., but clearly she didn't think much of what she held to be our world-view. However, she was quite wrong in this her interpretation, for the disagreeable people in *Roleplays* are not our commentary on *la condition humaine* but a requirement of the genre. Similarly, Rutherford put-downs are an expedient way of achieving humor in dialogues, a very difficult trick, as a myriad of dull dialogues bears witness to.

I bring up the issue about genre requirements because material writers need to be conscious of them. It is much easier than one might think to be selectively critical, condescending or ironic, and always pick on women or salesmen or squareheaded Swedes without really meaning to. In such a situation not only H & J, but all of us, would have cause for complaint.

I have mentioned three problem areas in materials writing as they relate to the portrayal of women and women's role in society, which readily came to my mind. A systematic analysis of requirements and decisions that must be met during the process of designing and writing materials would of course turn up more such problem areas. My purpose with these comments has not been to be exhaustive; rather I wanted to indicate the need for the direction of a critically positive approach with which we can deal with the problems of sexism in materials. Social discrimination in any form is abhorrent, nonetheless so if it is done unwittingly. The matter deserves serious attention rather than a trivial treatment which recommends "equal quantity of sex-linked referents" and the avoidance of words like mankind (p. 392). Such attention needs neither feminism or *machismo* but shared humanism (and I, for one, refuse words like *hupersonism*). We do need to sort through the problems and help each other: No man is an island, entire of itself.

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Christina Bratt Paulston
University of Pittsburgh

A Reply from Judd and Hartman.

Accuracy is indeed an essential feature in research. Unfortunately, errors do sometimes occur, and when they do, they should certainly be corrected. We feel, however, that much of Professor Paulston's direct criticism of the article is arguable.

At the outset, we wish to apologize to Mary Bruder for our incorrect citation on p. 387. The count of 129 characters and the ensuing discussion was based not on Bruder's *MMC: Developing Communicative Competence in English as a Foreign Language*, but on *Developing Communicative Competence: Roleplays in English as a Second Language*, by Christina Bratt Paulston, Dale Britton, Barry Brunetti, and John Hoover. We regret this error, but do not feel that it invalidates the observations and suggestions of the entire article.

A rereading of the Mead example will show that the point had nothing to do with whether or not the title *Dr.* is sometimes avoided at prestige institutions, but with whether men and women of the same status are referred to in the same way within a single publication. Hirasawa and Markstein refer to male Ph.D.'s by full name, by last name only, or by the titles *Professor* or *Dr.* (pp. 1-2, 35-36, 90-91, 105-106). *Mr.* is not used. Thus when Mead, a woman, is the only Ph.D. in the book referred to by the *Miss/Mr./Ms/Mrs.* set, the result is to single her out on what appears to be the basis of sex, whether intentionally or not. We noted in the article some of the possible implications of that sort of differentiation.

As to the question of the ambassador in *Roleplays* (p. 20), we are accused of having made up a male ambassador when none exists. The argument states that "Nobody would make a mistake like 'the ambassador and his aide' when mid-page is listed 'Madam Ambassador' if the presumption weren't already there, simply waiting to be buttressed with data, accurate or no." A reexamination of the data shows that the term "Mr./Madam Ambassador" does in fact appear in the middle of the page. Two lines later, however, we find "Mr. Ambassador, would you please comment on . . ." and three lines later, "Mr. Ambassador, has there been any change regarding . . ." None of these "useful expressions" employ the form *Madam Ambassador*; hence the easy assumption that in this roleplay, the ambassador is male. Perhaps this is another case where the intentions of the writers are excellent, but sex-linked words have crept in to "blow the game," as Paulston says of *he*.

In evaluating humor for sexism or racism, it is important to look at the speaker, if there is one. In the example Paulston cites, the joke is self-deprecating. It does not poke fun at an entire class, labeled *men*. We should find our

laughs in the foibles of individuals who display *human* pride and inconsistency, among other things, but surely there is plenty of humorous material available without having to resort to the tired stereotypes of the female jokes. Rutherford clearly does not put down everyone; not, at least, members or classes that it has become impolite to put down, such as Polish or Jewish people or any other ethnic group.

Our purpose in writing an article on sexism in teaching materials was to encourage discussion, not hunt witches. Again we would like to state that instances of sex bias do not mean that textbooks may not be excellent in other respects. Professor Paulston is calling for “a critically positive approach,” which we agree is much needed. This does not exclude guidelines. It is unfortunate that our final suggestions were labeled trivial. “Mankind was cited as an instance of an unclear generic for which some substitution might be made if not linguistically awkward. The point is that at some stage we need to make choices that will further equality if there are not compelling reasons such as lack of comprehensibility (hupersonism) or hopeless awkwardness (Everyone should keep his or her foot out of his or her mouth), which keep us from selecting alternate patterns. The suggestion that we try for a *roughly* equal quantity of sex-linked referents is a self check, a reminder, not an unbreakable quota. Our suggestions—and we do offer several others that Paulston does not mention—are meant as a start, not an exhaustive list, and we do hope that they will be expanded.

The issue of sexism and publication is indeed a sensitive one, but one that merits further discussion. Recently, at the TESOL Convention in Boston, the Committee on Sociopolitical Concerns of Minority Groups asked that a committee be formed to try to create guidelines on sexism and racism for ESOL publications. We invite Dr. Paulston and all others who are interested to join in this endeavor. (All recommendations and inquiries to the Committee to Formulate Sexism/ Racism Guidelines should be addressed to Elliot L. Judd, Department of Linguistics, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio 45701.)

Elliot L. Judd
Patricia L. Hartman
Ohio University

Comments on the TOEFL Test

This letter concerns achievement testing, a topic we've all probably had to think about during our language teaching careers. More specifically, I would like to discuss the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and my dismay at its negative effect on language education in Indonesia.

In 1977 after two years of ESL overseas teaching experience and two years of work-study, I graduated from the University of Hawaii with an M.A. in ESL. My experience and my degree had made me aware of the many exciting discoveries the English teaching field is making in attempting more relevant and

effective language education. I saw context and rhetoric as important topics the language teacher has only recently become sensitive to. The nascent English for Special Purposes movement seemed a promising step towards relevance. The field of ESL looked tantalizingly open to new ideas, including those aimed at humanizing the language teaching-learning process. And then I returned to Indonesia.

Not yet jaded by the realities of the real world I was anxious to get on with what I most wanted to do—teach English. No sooner had I begun to talk with future students and employers however than I realized that teaching English must always be considered subservient to what is viewed as a much more noble goal here: “Passing the TOEFL.”

To understand why this is so, we must understand that the majority of adult Indonesians who study English do so to be able to do degree work abroad, particularly in the United States. Their dream of study in America is impossible however, unless they get a score of between 450 and 550 on TOEFL (the usual requirement is 500). Another reason the TOEFL is revered is that it provides students with a gauge of their English ability. Little contact with English speakers and the desire we all have for a reward for our efforts makes TOEFL the only objective judge of their accomplishment.

Facing a class of “TOEFL speakers” can be a harrowing experience for the idealistic teacher. If she is interested in teaching English for Science she is quickly told that TOEFL does not test scientific English and ESP is therefore irrelevant. If she wants to stimulate discussion she is warned that “you don’t have to speak for the TOEFL.” Writing is an equally worthless subject to be replaced by writing ability in which the students have to pick out mistakes in single uncontextualized sentences. The more arcane the grammar taught the better since *who* and *whom* are still important in the TOEFL language and “The chairman suggested he be hung” is absolutely indispensable to any conversation.

The worst comes however when the students get their scores, whether you’ve taught the class your way or TOEFL’S. Djoko, who’s worked day and night for months, gets 30 points less than he did the last time he took the test. Sri, who is competent but no more fluent than Djoko, gets 50 points more than he does. Suhud’s score is the same as it was *before* he took 320 hours of English. Chairil is depressed because his wife got 6 more points than he did. All the teacher can say after all this is “Cheer up. I know what your ability is.” Unfortunately neither the numbers nor Cornell University is on her side.

The Educational Testing Service are not the villains. They are attempting to aid foreign students and American Universities in the selection process, a process we all know is never perfect and certainly never easy. Ostensibly they are also not trying to tell us how to teach, I say ostensibly because any test of English ability must define for itself what English language competence comprises. This is the source of my dismay.

By testing *General English* (whatever that is) TOEFL is telling graduate

scientists that being able to survive in the laboratory, knowing hundreds of scientific terms, having a firm grasp of the rhetoric of a journal article, are only subsidiary skills. What the student must know before he is admitted to an American university, says the test, is how to read an aspirin bottle or how to understand a tour guide. Presumably, the more technical English will come when the student is flunking out of his first semester in Plant Physiology.

So, readers must be asking, how do we rectify this state of affairs? How do we avoid Chairil's depression at his wife's superior performance? How do we convince Suhud that he should study scientific English and still give him the training necessary to pass the test? I have three suggestions.

First, the test should be validated based on external criteria such as graduate school performance and teacher ranking. Perhaps it already has been, but none of the literature I have received from ETS has indicated so. Second, special forms of the test should be prepared for graduate scientists. These would admittedly still be general but at least the scientists would not be excessively penalized for their lack of knowledge in the arts. They would also thus be encouraged to study English as they will be expected to use it in their work. English would then be seen less as a barrier and more as a vehicle. These "TOESL" forms would be more difficult to prepare. The price however would be well worth the reward. Third, the 800-point scale should be eliminated as misleading. ETS warns against cut-off scores and freely admits the 15 point standard error of measure (66% confidence interval)* of the test, but human nature will always cling to numbers. Chairil's wife will be "better" than he is until he lays down another \$20 and adds 10 points to his score. What should be adopted is the more realistic scale used by the ALIGU or Davis tests in which the student is categorized but not given an imprecise "precise" score. A scale from 1-8, for example, might be adequate for selection purposes.

I make these suggestions most humbly, knowing the problem is a big one. Achievement testing is important, but in its present form the TOEFL is a dragon breathing down the neck of most adult Indonesian students of English. It's time for the ESL professional community to harness the dragon to the goal we've all set ourselves to—the teaching and learning of English.

Barbara M. Wiggin
English for Agricultural Training Project
Bogor, Indonesia

A Reply from ETS.

The situation described by Ms. Wiggin is by no means unique to Indonesia. The pressures imposed upon students who take tests as part of their application

* "In comparing the total TOEFL scores of two candidates, one should not conclude that one score represents a higher level of proficiency in English than the other unless there is a difference of at least 30 points between them. . . ." *Manual for TOEFL score recipients*, P. 14.

to colleges and universities are very great indeed. The millions of American students who annually go through this process are witnesses to that fact. And when considerations of international travel (sometimes with a family), adaptation to a new culture, and adjustment to a new academic environment are added, testing can understandably be even more threatening.

In order to adequately assess the points made by Ms. Wiggin it will be necessary to consider testing, and in this case the TOEFL, from four points of view—the student, the teacher, the producer of the test, and the academic institution to which the student is applying. All are important. Ms. Wiggin's remarks focus primarily on the first two and even here with certain inaccuracies. She begins her letter by referring to TOEFL as an achievement test. Many of the comments which follow are then based on this assumption, viz, that TOEFL should be a measure of how well students have mastered a particular set of materials or proceeded through a certain course of studies. And when students appear to have done well in their English courses but not so well on TOEFL then it is the test which is at fault. In fact, however, there is no direct link between the two. TOEFL is meant to be a measure of English proficiency. In particular, it indicates how well students can understand and use English no matter where or how they have learned it. As such, it is more closely related to what students are aiming for than to what they have already completed.

An equally important distinction to be kept in mind is the basic difference between teaching and learning on the one hand and testing on the other. Both students and teachers must realize that the purpose of the former is to train students in those English skills which will be necessary for success in their studies. Even for graduate students in technical fields such as Plant Physiology, reading skills in the broad sense of the term are important. The ability to understand spoken English is vital as well. Testing, however, is merely an indirect means of assessing a person's ability to perform these skills. Excessive preoccupation with learning the test may, even if successful, be counterproductive in the sense that it will detract from what should be the ultimate goal: mastery of important practical skills in using English. There is of course also the possibility that heavy emphasis on testing will not be successful. The anxiety expressed by many students such as those Ms. Wiggins describes is frequently the cause of poor test performance, not the result of it. For students who have never been exposed to standardized tests such as TOEFL some initial familiarization even in the form of practice can serve a purpose. But for no student is constant reference and concern over tests ever of benefit.

When we consider test scores, there are some additional points which require clarification in Ms. Wiggin's letter. The reference to fluency is one. Among the large numbers of foreign students coming to the United States today there are many who appear fluent in terms of their ability to express themselves if fluency is taken to mean willingness and ease in talking without concern for accuracy. At the same time these students exhibit significant defi-

ciencies in coping with written English. Since it is to a large extent written English which TOEFL measures, comparisons cannot really be made between a person's fluency and his/her performance on TOEFL. Neither, of course, should references to a student's lower test scores than his wife's be taken very seriously. As is often the case, it is easier to find fault with a test than to raise questions about the performance of the individuals involved be they students or teachers.

For the institutions reviewing an application for admission from a foreign candidate it is important that some information be available on the applicant's proficiency in English. Prior to the availability of tests such as TOEFL reports on an applicant's English proficiency were frequently based on the amount of time he or she had studied English or on impressionistic evaluations gained from brief interviews. Neither proved satisfactory. It cannot be denied of course that having access to a measure such as TOEFL leads to other abuses. Institutions can and do use test scores to exclude students who might in some cases succeed. It is at this point that we must determine the responsibility of the test producer. Educational Testing Service is charged with the task of producing a statistically sound and valid measure of English proficiency and of providing its consumers with clear guidance on how the measure should be interpreted. In the most recent edition (1978) of the *TOEFL Test and Score Manual* information is given on using the test in the admissions process. In addition, numerous regional and national workshops are held each year at which such information is presented and discussed. Finally, an extensive research effort currently supports the TOEFL program as well. As data are accumulated which affect the composition or interpretation of the test they are disseminated to the relevant audiences and incorporated into the lengthy test development process.

With regard to the specific suggestions made by Ms. Wiggin, much has already been done. Validation studies of the type she proposes have been conducted in the past. Other studies matching performance on TOEFL with actual English skills required and performed in both graduate and undergraduate programs are currently in progress. Her second suggestion that special forms of the test be prepared for graduate scientists is largely impractical. An English test for engineers (an as yet undefined subject) would soon be found inadequate because of its lack of specificity and then separate tests for civil, electrical and mechanical engineers would seem necessary. In actual practice there does not appear to be such a pressing need for these field specific tests. Material from the arts is not included on TOEFL. Moreover, there is no conclusive evidence to show that a nonnative speaker's ability to process technical English is significantly different from his/her ability to process non-technical English. It is for this reason that curriculum specialists have chosen to incorporate ESP materials as an adjunct to their programs but not as a substitute for the basic approach to teaching reading, writing and other English skills in a second language context.

Finally, it should be pointed out that any scale used for scoring is arbitrary. Raw scores are never used but are converted to indicate how a candidate's performance relates to that of all others who have taken the test. Using a 1-8 scale is of course possible. It would perhaps allow Chairil and his wife to fall within the same level. But this "advantage" would be offset by the fact that it would be much more difficult for a person to move from one level to the next.

In summary, testing, in the words of Ms. Wiggin, is important. In particular, a test such as TOEFL is important. Also, because of its importance it is understandable that to the student it might appear to be a ruthless dragon. But the problem is one of attitude. Ms. Wiggin can rest assured that for all parties concerned the principal goal is the teaching and learning of English. Her letter serve as a reminder that students must not be forgotten in all that goes on in testing.

Paul Angelis
Educational Testing Service

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Announcements

Meetings of Interest to TESOL Members

July 13-14, 1979. TESOL Summer Meeting. UCLA Campus, Los Angeles. Plenary sessions, presentations, demonstrations and reports. Write to Wm. E. Norris, Program Chairman, TESOL Summer Meeting, 455 Nevils Bldg., Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20057.

August 2-4, 1979. Linguistic Society of America summer meeting, Salzburg, Austria. For information, write to Directorate of the Linguistics Institute, Salzburg Summer School. Universität Salzburg, Institute f. Sprachwissenschaft, Imbergstrasse 2/III, A-5020 Salzburg, Austria.

September 14-15, 1979. Fourth Annual Boston University Conference on Language Development. The deadline for submission of abstracts is June 1, 1979. To obtain abstract guidelines and information on preregistration and local arrangements, contact: Language Development Conference, Box F, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts 02215, Phone (617) 353-3085.

November 23-25, 1979. Japan Association of Language Teachers' Annual Language Teaching in Japan Conference. Abstracts are solicited for presentations ranging from 30-minute papers, demonstrations, to 6 hour workshops on topics relevant to language teaching and learning. Send two copies of a 200-word abstract plus 50-75 word bio-data statement before August 31 to: Kenji Kitao, Department of English, Doshisha University, Kamigyo-ku, Kyoto, 602 Japan.

Fullbright-Hays Awards in Linguistics and TEFL

Announcement of opportunities available to American scholars for 1980-81 were published in March 1979. Registration for personal copies of the announcement is now open to U.S. citizens with university or college teaching experience. Forms are available from the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, Suite 300, Eleven Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.

Applications are still being accepted for 1979-1980 awards in a few countries: Central African Empire—English language/American civilization (fluent French essential); Poland—theoretical or applied linguistics; Romania—both linguistic and TEFL.

1980-82 Advanced Research Fellowships in India

Twelve long-term (six to ten months) and nine short-term (two to three months) research awards, without restriction as to field, are offered for 1980-81 by the Indo-U.S. Subcommittee on Education and Culture. Applicants must

be U.S. citizens at the post-doctoral or equivalent professional level. The fellowship program seeks to open new channels of communication between academic and professional groups in the United States and India and to encourage a wider range of research activity between the two countries than has previously existed. Therefore, scholars and professionals who have limited or no experience in India are especially encouraged to apply.

Fellowship terms include: \$1,000-\$1,500 per month, depending on academic/professional achievement and seniority, \$350 a month payable in dollars and the balance in rupees; an allowance for books and study/travel in India; and international travel for the grantee. In addition, long-term fellows receive international travel for dependents; a dependent allowance of \$100-\$250 per month in rupees; and a supplementary research allowance up to 34,000 rupees.

The application deadline is July 1, 1979. Application forms and further information are available from the Council for International Exchange of Scholars, Attention: Indo-American Fellowship Program, Eleven Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036, Phone (202) 833-4980.

New Publication Available

The 1978 issue of *CATESOL Occasional Papers* is now available at \$3.50 a copy. It includes articles by Joshua Fishman, Doug Brown, Tippy Schwabe and others. It may be ordered from: CATESOL, 750 Eddy St., San Francisco, CA 94109.

Publications Received

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How to Use Picture Book 6, Play Book 6, Picture
Cards 6, Plays and Say Tapes 6.

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PUBLICATIONS AVAILABLE FROM THE TESOL CENTRAL OFFICE

Reference Guides . . .

- Directory of Teacher Preparation Programs in TESOL and Bilingual Education. 1978–1980.** Compiled and edited by Charles H. Blatchford. Fifth edition. Contains up-to-date survey on state certification requirements in the field. Washington: TESOL, 1979. 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: ESOL 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.
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From Other Publishers . . .

- Adapting and Writing Language Lessons.** Earl W. Stevick. Washington: Foreign Service Institute, 1971. 431 pp. Paper. \$5.15.
- Collected Papers in TESL and Bilingual Education: Themes, Practices, Viewpoints.** Richard L. Light and Alice H. Osman, eds. New York: NYS ESOL BEA, 1978. 248 pp. Paper. \$5.00.
- 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.

- 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.

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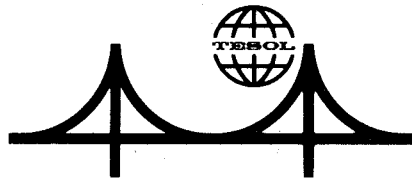
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We are on the threshold of a new decade and new challenges for TESOL. The critical issues which have developed during the 70's will create a new thrust for TESOL in the 80's. By necessity, each teacher of English as a second or foreign language or a second dialect must become concerned not only with what happens in individual classroom settings but must become involved in the larger scenario. Our tasks as educators enlarge as we become aware of the increased need for international communication, expanded ESOL and ESD teacher training, and articulation between all levels from kindergarten to college and university as well as between researcher and practitioner, educator and businessman, native speaker and non-native speaker. We have much to learn from each other. Let TESOL International provide the forum for further enhancing and enlarging the network of cooperation and understanding which exists between us now. Together we can clarify and attempt some direction toward dealing with the issues posed by research, politics, socio-economic factors and demographic factors.

We are interested in proposals from all members—classroom teachers, teacher trainers, curriculum designers, material developers, evaluators, researchers. We encourage educators, linguists, anthropologists, psychologists and sociologists to submit proposals. We invite *you* to join us in ensuring that this TESOL International Convention in San Francisco will help us all meet the challenges of the 80's.

Janet Cameron Fisher, Convention Chairperson, (Los Angeles Unified School District)

Mark A. Clarke, Associate Chairperson, (University of Colorado at Denver)

PROCEDURES FOR SUBMITTING CONVENTION PAPERS AND DEMONSTRATIONS (March 6-8)

Due Date: September 1, 1979

Mailing Address: Janet Cameron Fisher
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We are asking for proposals for TESOL 1980 in five different categories. For clarification, brief definitions of each have been prepared. Two appear here and three in the procedures for submitting Intensive Study Sessions which follow.

TESOL PAPER

A paper tells about something you are doing or have done in relation to theory and/or practice; often this information is accompanied by the use of audio-visual aids and/or handouts.

The abstract should be a summarized version of the conceptual content of the paper (central idea, issue, or purpose—details of description, procedures, evidence, or argument—a summary, conclusions, applications, or implications). Papers selected for TESOL 1980 presentations *should not have the conceptual content changed substantially after acceptance. Papers already presented or scheduled to be presented at another national or international meeting or which have appeared in print are ineligible.*

TESOL DEMONSTRATION

A demonstration shows how you do something. Techniques used in teaching, testing, or gathering research data often lend themselves well to this kind of presentation.

The abstract should include a brief statement of your rationale and a description of *what* you will demonstrate and *how* (i.e., video demonstration + narration, audience participating as "students" or "subjects," etc.)

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1. On the top of the page, indicate whether it is a proposal for a paper or a demonstration.
 2. Due to space restrictions we request that you submit proposals for half-hour presentations which can be expanded to one hour if time and space allow. Please indicate if you would like to have your proposal considered for expansion to one hour.
 3. Limit the title to nine words.
 4. Use plain white paper. (Xerox copies, please)
- b. Immediately below the abstract, *and on the same page*, indicate the primary audience(s) for whom your presentation is intended. *From each one* of the lists below, choose a minimum of one and up to a maximum of three categories:

1. *TESOL Special Interest Groups*

Teaching English Abroad
ESL in Elementary Schools
ESL in Secondary Schools
ESL in Adult Education
ESL in Higher Education
ESL in Bilingual Education
Standard English as a Second Dialect
EFL for Foreign Students in English Speaking Countries
Applied Linguistics

2. Classroom teachers (new and/or experienced)

Administrators
Teachers/students in training

*If the paper/demonstration involves more than one presenter, the information required in both *a* and *b* should be included for each participant. For administrative reasons, however, correspondence will be addressed to the first person listed.

Teacher Educators/Trainers
Material Developers
Curriculum Designers
Teacher/Program Supervisors
Other (specify)

- c. If you wish, attach *six* copies of a two-page double-spaced type-written summary of your paper for use by the panel of readers. Prepare *two* copies with your name ON, and *four* copies with your name OFF.

II. Include *two* copies of a separate sheet which contains:

- a. A 50-75 word bio-data statement. Prepare this as you want it to appear in the program. Follow the format used for the bio-data statements which accompany articles appearing in the *TESOL Quarterly*.
- b. The following information with items 1-4 as you wish them to appear in the program:
1. preferred name
 2. preferred title (one)
 3. preferred affiliation
 4. preferred mailing address
 5. preferred telephone number (for TESOL contact)
- c. A list of *all* equipment that you require (from a simple blackboard or lectern to more complex equipment). We request that the use of electronic equipment be kept to a minimum. Papers may be rejected if an inordinate amount of equipment is needed.
- d. If the number of participants that you will accept is limited, please indicate maximum acceptable. Sessions will be considered open unless otherwise specified.
- e. If a special seating arrangement is desired, please specify.

PROCEDURES FOR SUBMITTING INTENSIVE STUDY SESSIONS

(Mini-Courses, Colloquia, Workshops) (March 4 and 5)

Due Date: September 1, 1979

Mailing Address: Mark A. Clarke
Bilingual Teacher-Training Program
University of Colorado at Denver
1100 14th Street
Denver, Colorado 80202

TESOL MINI-COURSE

A mini-course is intended to be an intensive study session on a specific topic, a semester-in-brief. Typically, one or more lecturers delivers a series of talks on a narrowly focused area of TESOL research and/or classroom practices. The abstract *must* include a description of the overall content of the mini-course and a list of the sub-topics to be included.

TESOL COLLOQUIUM

A colloquium is designed to provide a forum for a group of scholars to discuss current pedagogical, political and research issues in TESOL. Ideally, a colloquium format permits the exchange of papers in advance by participants, and the opportunity for formal responses to the presentations. It is the responsibility of the chairperson to secure the participation of a number of representative people in the field.

TESOL WORKSHOP

A workshop provides participants with the opportunity to have "hands-on" experiences in developing methods and materials, analyzing research data, or solving a specific research/teaching problem. A workshop is *not* a mini-course or a colloquium. In a workshop there is very little lecturing by the leader(s); rather, the emphasis is on the participants *doing* something. The abstract *must* include a description of the goal(s) of the workshop, a theoretical framework or approach to be used, and the tasks to be performed by the participants.

PROCEDURES: *

I. *Before September 1, 1979*, send the following items to the above address:

- a. *Six* copies of your 200 word typewritten abstract, *two* copies with your name ON, and *four* copies with your name OFF. Prepare the abstract as you would wish it to appear in the program.

Notes:

1. On the top of the page, indicate whether it is a proposal for a mini-course, a colloquium or a workshop, *and* the length of the presentation:

Mini-courses:	6 hours (1 day)
	12 hours (2 days)
Colloquia:	6 hours (1 day)
	12 hours (2 days)
Workshops:	3 hours ($\frac{1}{2}$ a day)
	6 hours (1 day)

2. Limit the title to nine words.
3. Use plain white paper.

In addition to I, a (1, 2, 3) as just specified above, please follow procedures I, b (1, 2), c; and II, a. b. (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), c, d, and e, outlined in the procedures for submitting papers and demonstrations.

* Proposals for mini-courses, colloquia and workshops should be accompanied by a cover letter which specifies the names, affiliation and specific contribution of each contributor/participant.

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- _____ English as a Second Language in Higher Education
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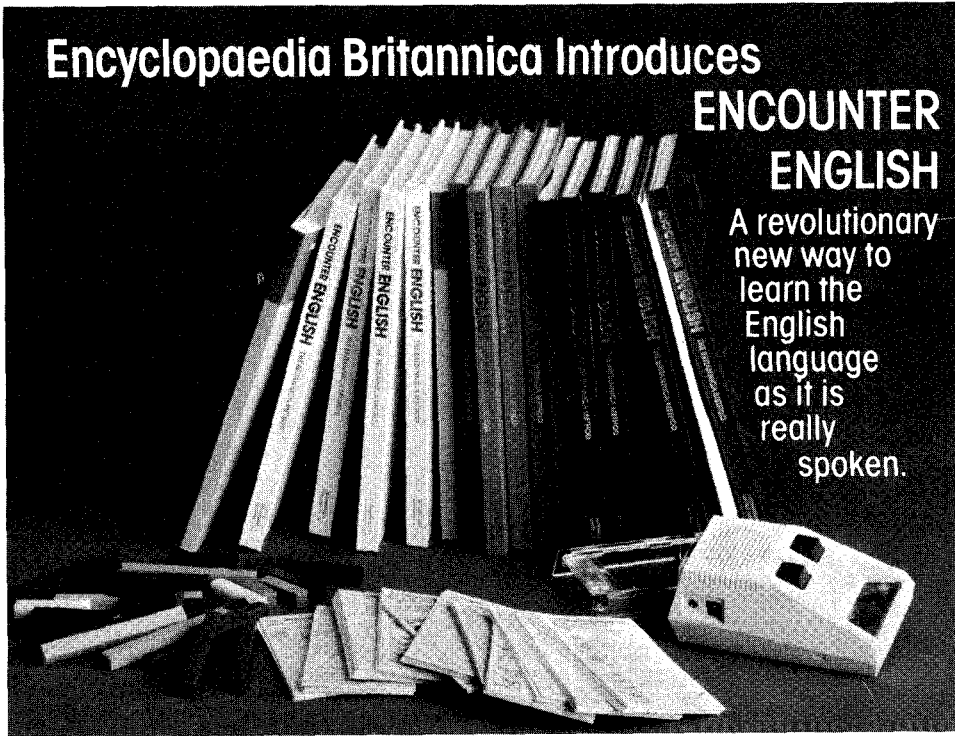
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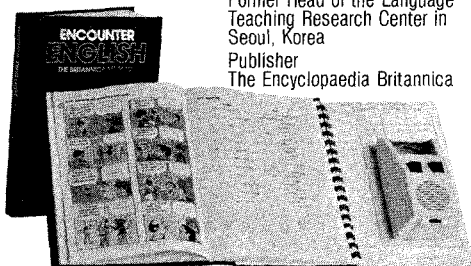
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