THE ORTESOL JOURNAL

JOURNAL OF THE OREGON TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

Volume 7 1986

ORTESOL is a not-for-profit organization whose purposes are to raise the level of professional instruction in TESOL by providing opportunitities for discussing, studying, and sharing information about TESOL and Bilingual Education, and to cooperate in appropriate ways with other groups having similar concerns. Benefits of memebership include all issues of the ORTESOL Newsletter and the ORTESOL Journal, special members' rates for the Annual ORTESOL Conference, and a variety of other services and opportunities for professional development.

Advertising in all ORTESOL publications is arranged by Debbie Anholt, ISALC, Lewis and Clark College, 0615 S.W. Palatine Hill road, Portland, Oregon 97219.

ORTESOL Journal subscription information may be obtained by writing to the Editor, Jeanette S. DeCarrico, Center for English as a Second Language, Portland State University, Portland, OR 97207.

Copright © 1984
Oregon Teachers of English to
Speakers of Other Languages

Credits
Typesetting by Mary Dozark, Portland, Oregon
Printing by Portland State University
Covers by Farley Printing Co., Portland, Oregon
Binding by Northwest Bookbinding Co., Portland, Oregon

THE ORTESOL JOURNAL

VOLUME 7 1986

Lexical Phrases, Functions and Vocabulary Acquistion .... James R. Nattinger 1

Learning About First and Second Language Reading Strategies by Analyzing Oral Reading Miscues .... Marjorie S. Terdal 15

Problems in Multiple Choice Test Items .... Chen Muzhu 43

REVIEW ARTICLE

Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. Diane Larsen-Freeman New York: Oxford University Press, 1986. Pp. xiii + 142 ......

Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers. Cambridge-Cambridge University Press. 1986 .. Pp. viii + 171 .... Reviewed by Pat Rounds and Virginia Samuda 58

NOTES AND COMMENTS

Using Children's Literature With Primary ESL Children .... Sheila C. Cullen 70

Project Bite: A Demonstration Project ..
in the Use of Computers in ESL ....
Instruction ....
.... Norman Johnson 83

Teacher As Researcher ....
.... Sarah J. Klinghammer 86

Aspects of English Teaching in China.
Why Can't Foreigners Confer With ...
Chinese Learners Successfully? ....
.... Ho Yeh-hua 92

LEXICAL PHRASES, FUNCTIONS AND VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

James R. Nattinger
Portland State University

When we think of vocabulary, we immediately think of single words on flashcards, in lists, underlined in texts or defined neatly in the pages of Reader's Digest. It may be advantageous to think of it in much broader terms, however, for in many ways phrases, sentences, and sometimes whole chunks of discourse act very much like single words do. Viewing vocabulary in such a way would be helpful, not only in bringing this part of ESL closer to current research in language performance, but also in helping connect some valuable insights of Communicative Language Teaching and Notional-Functional Grammar. Such an extended view of vocabulary may also be helpful for learning the grammatical system of a language.

These broader vocabulary categories consist of chunks of language of varying length, some of which never vary, others which vary to a certain degree, although all of them for one reason or another are stored as units in memory much as any single word. These chunks are usually referred to as 'formulaic' or 'prefabricated' speech, though they have been given several other labels.

Prefabricated Speech and Current Research

Formulaic speech has become the subject of a great deal of attention lately, in such diverse areas as natural language processing (Becker 1975), linguistic anthropology (Bauman 1977), first language acquisition (Wong-Fillmore 1976; Peters 1983), and second language acquisition (Krashen and Scarcella 1978; Yorio 1980).

This work takes a direction contrary to that of most linguistic theory, not only in focusing on language performance, but also in using other measures of economy to evaluate explanation. Linguistic theory accounts for structure in minimal and non-redundant terms, thus making the most efficient (and desirable) description of language the one that uses fewest number of units to account for the data. Descriptions of linguistic performance, however, seem to require different measures of economy. Many researchers feel that the storage capacity of memory is vast but that the speed for processing those memories is not (Crick 1979:219), so that we must learn shortcuts for making efficient use of this processing time. Many theories of language performance thus suggest that vocabulary is stored redundantly, not only as individual morphemes, but also as parts of phrases, or even as longer memorized chunks of speech, and that it is oftentimes retrieved from memory as these preassembled chunks (Bolinger 1975). This prefabricated speech has both the advantage of more efficient retrieval and of permitting speakers to direct attention to the larger structure of the discourse rather than keeping it focused narrowly on individual words as they are produced.

A Description of Pre-fabricated Speech in ESL

Vocabulary teachers have always recognized the need to include more than single words in their lessons. Two- and three-part verbs (put up, put up with) and noun compounds (elevator operator, card player) are usually treated no differently than other vocabulary. Many teachers have stretched the category to include idioms as well, phrases like kick the bucket, bite the bullet and on the dog, reasoning that such phrases are actually unvarying units, frozen into that particular shape and not analyzable by the regular rules of syntax. Kick the bucket will not recombine into the passive *The bucket was kicked

as will the similar kick the dog, for example. Many teachers thus see language as a dichotomy opposing 'vocabulary', which is any stretch of language in some way single and frozen, against the rest of language, which is multiple and generated from 'scratch'.

In 1978 Krashen and Scarcella, summarizing previous research, describe a third, intermediate category--language that is not completely fixed but is at the same time limited in the shapes it can take (Krashen and Scarcella 1978). They refer to phrases such as 'a little while ago' or 'down with the king' which permit some variation ('a year ago,' a month ago,' a short time ago;' down with fuedalism,"up with people,' away with all pedants') yet still are relatively fixed in shape. These they call 'semi-fixed patterns,'which have alternatively, and more helpfully, been described as 'formulaic frames with analyzed slots' (Wong-Fillmore 1979). Peters summarizes research that takes the idea further and claims that ordinary conversation consists almost entirely of 'institutionalized clauses,' which, unlike idioms, can be analyzed by the normal rules of syntax, yet because of their usefulness or frequency in conversation are stored and produced as single units (Peters 1983). If we broaden the definition to include such stretches of language, Peters feels, then any sharp distinction between vocabulary and syntax collapses into a dynamic and fluid continuum, ranging from the completely fixed to the completely original.

Even though researchers do not agree about the extent of prepackaged language in actual speech, they do agree that there are such conventionalized structures that occur more frequently and have more automatic, idiomatically determined meaning than language that is newly put together each time. One attempt to describe these structures for teaching purposes was work based on research in natural language processing

(Nattinger 1981). This research sees language use as basically a 'compositional' process, one of 'stitching together' preassembled phrases into discourse, and describes the following six types of 'lexical phrases' in terms of functional and structural characteristics:

(a) Polywords: short, fixed phrases, whose meaning often is not analyzable by the regular rules of syntax. They can substitute for single words, so are often treated like regular vocabulary in ESL lessons: idioms ('kick the bucket'), euphemisms ('powder room'), slang ('better half'), two- and three-part verbs ('put up,' put up with').

(b) Phrasal Constraints: short, relatively fixed phrases with slots that permit some variation, many being non-canonical forms ('a year ago,' by pure coincidence,' down with the king'): greetings ('how do you do'), partings ('see you later'), exclamations ('you can't be serious!'), insults ('you creep').

(c) Deictic Locutions: short to medium length phrases of low variability, consisting of clauses or entire utterances. They are essentially monitoring devices, whose purpose is (1) to direct the flow of conversation by marking attitudes, expectations, concessions, challenges, defenses, supports, retreats ('as far as I know,' don't you think,' if I were you,' for that matter,' frankly,"I mean to say,' 'further to my letter of'), or (2) to exercise social control ('hey, wait a minute,' now look,' see here,' shut up' and then what').

(d) Sentence Builders: phrases up to sentence length, highly variable, containing slots for parameters or arguments. These provide a skeleton for the expression of the entire idea. They are often non-canonical and discontinuous, and are used in a wide variety of social contexts ('not only X but also Y,"if I X, then I Y,"the er X, the er Y').

(e) Situational Utterances: usually complete sentences, amenable to the regular rules of syntax and highly dependent on the social context. They provide the framework for particular social interactions--greetings ('how are you today'), partings ('I'll see you next week'), politeness routines ('thanks very much for [1]), questions ('could you tell me ')--and much of the language of social maintenance ('what's new,' cold enough for you,' I won't tell another living soul,' how have you been getting along with ').

(f) Verbatim Texts: entire texts of different length with extremely low variability. Used for quotation, allusion, or frequently, as in the case of institutionalized chunks, direct use. These are memorized sequences (numbers, the alphabet, the days of the week), aphorisms ('the public seldom forgives twice''), proverbs ("a rolling stone gathers no moss'), and all of those chunks that a speaker has found efficient to store as units. Some of these may be general units, used by everyone in the speech community, while others may be more idiosyncratic, phrases that an individual has stored because they have been found an efficient and pleasing way of getting an idea across.

Reasons for Teaching Lexical Phrases

This view of vocabulary for the classroom gains support from the fact that it is similar to one emerging from other work in cognitive science and language performance. Lexical phrases have been found to be natural ways of chunking language and of thus making storage and retrieval more efficient, for example. They are also consistent with the types of short-cutting devices that inevitably develop in mature, well-learned systems of knowledge (Peters 1983). These phrases also parallel those described in first language acquisition research, which describes children

as learning language not by gradually accumulating and arranging small pieces into larger ones, but by beginning with large units which they learn to break apart into increasingly smaller ones. In this view, the child first acquires a socially relevant fixed phrase, and then, after comparing it with similar phrases, analyzes it as a semi-fixed phrase with slots, until finally breaking it apart into conventional lexical items and analyzing it by regular syntactic rules (Wong-Fillmore 1979).

Such an explanation of first language learning is an intuitively satisfying description of how one begins to master a second language. My first fumbling attempts at Spanish had me using the phrase 'tengo que comer' in any situation that called for the general meaning 'I am hungry.' Later, after hearing similar phrases used in other contexts, ones like 'tengo que ir' and 'tengo que comprar,' I was able to break apart the previous fixed phrase into a semi-fixed phrase with a slot that could be filled by several different words, 'tengo que .' And after hearing other similar yet distinct phrases such as 'tengo hambre' and 'tengo demasiado,' I was able to break the phrase apart further into conventional lexical items.

This theoretical justification for teaching lexical phrases is encouraging, but perhaps the most immediate reasons for teaching them are practical ones. First, these phrases provide raw material for later analysis and segmentation, as will be explained below. They also provide practice with intonational patterns in the language since they usually consist of intonation or 'rhythm' groups (Brown 1974). Such phrases will likewise enable students not to violate certain lexical restrictions (*'an intense rock') nor produce as many incongruities of register ("Whadaya mean I am unable to go!'). Perhaps most importantly, these phrases will lead to fluency in speaking and writing, for they relieve learners of concentrating

on each individual word as it is used by allowing them to focus attention on the larger structure of the discourse and on the social aspects of the interaction.

Methods for Teaching Lexical Phrases

One method of teaching lexical phrases is to get students to make use of them the same way that first language learners do, that is, by starting with a few basic fixed phrases, which they then analyze as smaller, increasingly variable pieces, finally breaking them apart into individual words and thus finding their own way to the regular rules of syntax. More specifically, such a method might be put to work as follows. Pattern practice drills could first provide a way of gaining fluency with certain basic fixed phrases (Peters 1983). The challenge for the teacher would be to use such drills to allow confidence and fluency, yet not overdo them to the point that they became mindless exercise, as has often been the unfortunate result in strict audiolingualism. The next step would be to introduce the students to controlled variation in these basic phrases with the help of simple substitution drills, which would demonstrate that the phrases learned previously were not invariable patterns but were instead frames with open slots. The range of variation would then be increased, allowing students to analyze the patterns further. The goal is not to have students analyze just those phrases introduced in the lessons, of course, but to have them learn to segment and construct new phrases of their own on analogy with the kind of analysis they do in the classroom. It is when a student learns this that creative control of the new language begins.

But there must be more. We not only have to ask how learners go about learning language, we need also ask why they learn it; and from research in first

language acquisition, as from that in other cognitive research, it seems clear that the answer has to do with social motivation: children learn language as a part of a social interaction in which they have something they want to say. Language is best learned, that is, when it connects `with our plans, with our most important memories and with our needs° (Stevick 1976:36). This sociolinguistic dimension provides the cognitive depth that is crucial to successful acquisition of lexical phrases.

To include this affective dimension, we would design a beginning lesson to treat a single, predictable situation focused on some needed communicative function, and offer a few simple lexical phrases for dealing with that situation. Later materials would introduce the students to sets of more complex phrases that could also be used to express the same function, a kind of 'theme and variation' (Peters 1983:113), whose range of variation would broaden as learners became more skilled. These phrases would thus be presented in a cyclical rather than linear fashion, much as Wilkins suggests for his notional-functional syllabus (Wilkins 1976:59), so that students would return to the same functions throughout the course and learn to express them in an increasingly sophisticated manner. Many Communicative Language Teaching activities would provide a framework for introducing these phrases, especially those exercises that have students consciously plan strategies for interacting with others (DiPietro 1983).

What follows is an attempt to group routines in a way that will be pedagogically useful for this sort of language teaching. These groups are not traditional grammar or semantic categories, but are to some extent based on Wilkins' notional-functional categories, where emphasis is on the lexicon needed to perform specific speech 'functions' (Wilkins 1976). I have called these groups 'Social Interactions,' 'Necessary Topics,' and 'Discourse

Devices,' and list some examples of each below:

SOCIAL INTERACTIONS

greetings/closings: 'hello,' good morning'/'good-bye,' see you later'
politeness routines: 'please,' if you don't mind'
question/answer: 'do you ---,"are there ---'/'of course, "yes, there---'
requesting: 'may I---,"would you mind if I ---'
granting: 'of course,' sure thing'
refusing: 'of course not,' no way'
etc.

Although this category, as well as the two that follow, contains all six types of lexical phrases mentioned earlier, it is characterized mostly by phrasal constraints, situational utterances and polywords.

NECESSARY TOPICS

language: 'do you speak ---,"how do you say---'
shopping: 'too expensive,' department store'
autobiography: 'my name is ---,"I'm from ---'
quantity: 'how much is ---,"a great deal'
time: 'what time ---,"for a long time'
location: 'where is ---,"what part of the ---'
etc.

These are characterized mostly by situational utterances and sentence builders.

DISCOURSE DEVICES

fluency devices: 'you know,' it's been said that

conjunctions: 'which means,' 'less likely that'

subordinators: 'in other words,' not only --- but also ---'
logical connectors: 'as a result,' in spite of'

temporal connectors: 'the day after ---,' 'yesterday'
reinforcers: 'o.k.,"and then what happened'
probability/certainty
   a. modals: 'might,' may have'
   b. sensory predicates: 'it seems to me,' I think that ---'
etc.

These are often characterized by deictic locutions and sentence builders.

Social Interactions and Discourse Devices provide lexical phrases for the framework of the discourse, whereas Necessary Topics provide them for the subject at hand. Most linguistic encounters are composed of a patchwork of routines from all three of these categories. For example, one such typical encounter might consist of formulas for greetings, questions and politeness (all kinds of 'Social Interactions'), formulas for time (a 'Necessary Topic'), and those for fluency devices (one of many 'Discourse Devices'). Part of such an encounter might be described as follows:

> 'Good morning (greeting:SI)
> Could you tell me (question:SI0fluency device:DD) what time it is (time:NT)?
> Thanks very much (politeness:SI).'

'Could you tell me' bears a double function above. It is a Social Interaction, for it is a routinized way of introducing a question, while at the same time it is a Discourse Device, namely a fluency device, because it is a bigger piece stitched into the discourse than the similar phrase in the encounter

below. Being a bigger chunk, it gives the speaker more time to play for the next routine, and thus promotes fluency:

"Good morning (greeting:SI).
What time is it (question:SI)(time:NT)?
Thanks very much (politeness:SI).*

Students already 'know' these three categories, of course. What they have to learn is how to produce them fluently in the new language, by using the right lexical phrases on the right occasions.

Further Research

As promising as a lexical phrase approach appears to be, there are many questions about it that have to be answered. Just what sorts of routinized language is used in particular encounters needs to be explored and then assigned to appropriate categories. The categories themselves must be evaluated, not only pedagogically but also empirically and theoretically. It is quite possible that the distinction among Social Interactions, Necessary Topics, and Discourse Devices obscures rather than clarifies, and more realistic ways of grouping are possible. There are also many questions about the method for introducing these phrases to students. It is clear that the best time to introduce controlled variation should come after students have automatic control of basic patterns but before these patterns have become fossilized and resistant to change. Just when such an optimum segmentation period occurs, though, needs to be investigated.

In spite of the uncertainties with method and description, a lexical phrase approach offers a promising new direction for vocabulary acquisition, and for language learning in general.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Among the many labels suggested have been the following: 'idioms' (Fraser 1970), 'holophrases' (Corder 1973), 'praxons' (Bateson 1975), ' 'preassembled speech' (Bolinger 1975), 'routines' (Krashen and Scarcella 1978), 'frames' (Wong-Fillmore 1979) and 'conventionalized forms' (Yorio 1980).

REFERENCES

Bateson, M. 1975. Linguistic models in the study of joint performances. In Kinkade, M., Hale, K., and Werner, O. (Eds.), Linguistics and Anthropology: in Honor of C.F. Voegelin. Lisse: Peter de Riddler Press.

Bauman, R. 1977. Verbal Art as Performance. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Becker, J. 1975. The phrasal lexicon. In Nash-Webber, B. and Schank, R. (Eds.), Theoretical Issues in Natural Language Processing 1. Cambridge, Mass.: Bolt, Beranek and Newman.

Bolinger, D. 1975. Aspects of Language (2nd ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Brown, D. 1974. Advanced vocabulary teaching: the problem of collocation. Relc Journal 2: 1-11.

Corder, S. P. 1973. Introducing Applied Linguistics. Baltimore: Penguin Books, Inc.

Crick, F. 1979. Thinking about the brain. Scientific American 9: 218-232.

DiPietro, R. 1982. The open-ended scenario: a new approach to conversation. Tesol Quarterly 16: 15-20.

Fraser, B. 1970. Idioms within a transformational grammar. Foundations of Language 4: 109-127.

Krashen, S. and Scarcella, R. 1978. on routines and patterns in language acquisition and performance. Language Learning 28: 283-300.

Nattinger, J. 1981. A lexical phrase grammar for ESL. Tesol Quarterly 14: 337-344.

Peters, A. 1983. The Units of Language Acquisition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Stevick, E. 1976. Memory, Meaning and Method. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Wilkins, D. 1976. Notional Syllabuses. Southampton: Oxford University Press.

Wong-Fillmore, L. 1976. The Second Time Around: Cognitive and Social Strategies in Second Language Acquisition. Doctoral dissertation: Stanford University.

Wong-Fillmore, L. 1979. Individual differences in second language acquisition. In Fillmore, C., Kempler, D., and Wang, W. (Eds.), Individual Differences in Language Ability and Language Behavior. New York: Academic Press.

Yorio, C. 1980. Conventionalized language forms and the development of communicative competence. Tesol Quarterly 14: 433-442.

LEARNING ABOUT FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE READING STRATEGIES BY ANALYZING ORAL READING MISCUES

Marjorie S. Terdal
Portland State University

INTRODUCTION

Many of the ESL students in secondary schools today have arrived in the United States with limited literacy skills. Although these students usually develop good oral skills after beginning levels of ESL training, they often have difficulty coping with the reading and writing demands of the American educational system. Some students who have completed two or three years of ESL instruction later find themselves unable to compete academically in secondary classes that require a higher level of proficiency in reading and writing than they have attained. This need for greater proficiency in reading and writing has become even more evident with the renewed emphasis on testing in many schools. The emphasis in the 1980s on *academic excellence* has spurred an increase in minimum competency testing, with ESL students required to demonstrate reading ability on standardized tests.

Concern with literacy skills of ESL students led to the question which this paper addresses: is ESL students' level of skill in reading in their first language related to their progress in developing literacy skills in English? Dunn (1985) raised a similar question in her review of current research on the transferability of reading skills from first to second language. She found a need for more study of transfer between European and non-European languages. The study reported here is intended to provide preliminary data on the reading process in English and in the first language of Southeast Asian secondary students, as revealed by the analysis of oral reading miscues.

MISCUE ANALYSIS

Miscue analysis offers a way of looking at the reading process and evaluating how well readers can interrelate all aspects of language as they read. Goodman and Goodman (1977) describe how miscue analysis can be used to gain insight into reading strengths and weaknesses. The word "miscue' rather than 'error' is used to label 'an unexpected response.' Miscues can occur when a reader reverses, substitutes, omits, inserts, transforms, or in some other way changes the original text in oral reading. A miscue may involve a single letter, word, phrase, clause, or sentence. Some miscues are acceptable within the language context, and some are not. Some miscues are self-corrected, and some are not.

An analysis of miscues reveals how well a reader is comprehending while he or she is in the process of reading. If the miscues produce acceptable sentences or are self-corrected, it seems the reader is concerned with making sense as he or she reads and is thus a proficient reader. The open-ended retelling of the story after reading provides an index of the reader's comprehension. Miscue analysis also reveals the strategies that the reader is using to get meaning from the text. Less successful readers seem to rely more on graphic cues than do proficient readers. McKenzie (1977) notes that weaker readers are more likely to make miscues that fit the grapho-phonemic rules but do not make sense in the syntactic or semantic context. Gallimore and Au (1979) report a case in which minority students who had been taught a phonics approach to reading relied on graphic cues and ignored semantic cues.

Uncorrected syntactic and semantic miscues may be attributed to the reader's unfamiliarity with grammatical structures or concepts in the text. Goodman and Goodman (1977) state that two factors making

reading most difficult are complex grammatical structures and unfamiliar concepts. The level of difficulty depends on the reader's linguistic and conceptual background. Readers who are unfamiliar with a structure or concept are more likely to produce a fully unacceptable miscue, which they do not (can not) correct.

At the 19th annual TESOL convention Zukowski/Faust (1965) discussed textual features, such as unfamiliar vocabulary, length and complexity of sentences, sequence of verb tenses, number of prepositional phrases, and number of substantives, which take more effort for the ESL reader to process than they do for a proficient first language reader. Lack of prior knowledge of or interest in the topic also creates problems for ESL readers.

Only a few studies have been reported comparing oral reading miscues in first and second languages. Romatowski (1980) used miscue analysis with elementary students reading in Polish and English and noted that surface level changes did not always lead to great losses of comprehension. In a study of German college students reading in both German and English, Mott (1980) found a strong relationship between proficiency in reading in first language and reading in English, as reflected in relatively high rates of grammatical and semantic acceptability and in retelling scores. Like Romatowski, Mott concluded that readers were primarily concerned with 'making sense" as they read.

On the other hand, Clarke (1980) suggests that although there are some universal processes in reading, language proficiency is also a significant factor in second language reading. Limited control over the language causes a reader to revert to 'poor reader strategies' when the reading task becomes difficult (Clarke, 1980, p. 78). Benitez (1985) also found that bilingual Spanish-English subjects who were equally proficient in both languages used

effective reading strategies in both languages, whereas those not equally proficient used less effective reading strategies in their second language. This is similar to Cziko's (1980) conclusion that intermediate students of French as a second language relied more on graphic information than did advanced students, who used syntactic and semantic contextual information to a greater extent.

METHOD

The data reported here were obtained as part of a larger ethnographic study of Southeast Asian students conducted throughout the 1984-85 school year in two ESL classes at a high school in Portland, Oregon. The two groups of students are identified here as beginning level and advanced level. The beginning level consisted of seven students, ages 15-20, all male: Krut, a Cambodian; Shing Re, a Hmong from Laos; Dung and Xuan, both Vietnamese; and Chinh, Hien, and Trach, ethnic Chinese brothers from Vietnam. All had received from 0 to 5 years of formal schooling in their native countries, but Shing Re had attended school for 7 years in a refugee camp. Their length of time in the United States at the time of this study varied from six months for Shing Ke to 4 years for Krut, but was approximately 12 months for the five students from Vietnam. In the advanced level there were five Southeast Asian students, ages 15-19: two males, Bang and Chau, from Vietnam; two females, Lan and Ngoc, from Vietnam; and Sae Yoon, a female Mien from Laos. Sae Yoon had 3 years of schooling in a refugee camp, and the other four students had 7 to 10 years of schooling in Vietnam. Their length of time in the United States ranged from two to nearly five years. Demographic and academic characteristics of students in both groups are presented in Terdal (1985).

In this study, students were asked to read orally in both their first language and in English. Since the purpose was to examine individuals' reading strategies, a variety of texts was made available. All were folk tales, ranging in length from 81 to 1071 words. Folk tales were selected because both groups of students had been reading English folk tales in their ESL classes and the advanced students had written English versions of folk tales from their own countries. Therefore, the structure of a folk tale was assumed to be familiar to them. When some students in the beginning level had difficulty reading any of the folk tales, they were given an opportunity to read a 208-word passage, as yet unassigned, from their textbook, The New Arrival. Both the English language and first language texts chosen for the beginning level were judged to be at grade 3 or 4 level, while those chosen for the advanced level were considered to be more difficult, about grade 6 or 7 level.

Students were told to read the story as well as they could and then to tell what it was about. Students who persisted in asking for help with unfamiliar words were told to try to say it or to skip it and continue reading. After reading each passage, the students were asked to retell the story as completely as possible. If they offered only a few words, they were prompted by questions to determine the extent of their comprehension. They were allowed to retell the first language story in their first language if they preferred. Both the reading and the retelling were audiotaped.

Audiotapes of students' readings were compared with the original text. All miscues were marked on a photocopy of the original text, but only the first 25 miscues were coded. Each reading sample was scored using the Modified Miscue Analysis developed by Pappas (n.d.). Miscue analysis is a complex system in which each miscue (any deviation from the printed

text) is coded on 12 variables. First, all miscues are identified as being substitutions, omissions, insertions, or reversals. Substitutions are coded as being graphically similar to the text or not, and omissions are coded as being made with or without inspection. Next, all miscues are coded as to whether or not they are syntactically and semantically acceptable with the previous context at the point when they are made, and then whether or not they are syntactically and semantically acceptable at the end of the sentence. Then, all miscues are coded according to whether or not correction *was* attempted and/or successful. Finally, each miscue is coded to indicate whether or not it represents a significant change in meaning and was not successfully corrected.

Frequencies on each variable are totaled, and percentages computed to determine the extent to which the reader is using all three sources of information (graphic, syntactic, semantic) in making substitution miscues, is stopping to inspect the text before omitting it, is making miscues which are syntactically and semantically appropriate, is successfully correcting miscues, and is leaving meaning changes. Then the reader's miscue rate is computed as an index of fluency in oral reading. (The Appendix provides *an* example of scoring with the Modified Miscue Analysis).

A high percentage of substitution miscues showing use of all three sources of information indicates a proficient reader who is using an interactive reading process, whereas a high percentage of substitution miscues showing use of graphic information only indicates a reader over-relying on phonics as a strategy in reading. A high percentage of semantically unacceptable miscues being corrected successfully indicates a proficient reader concerned with making sense as he/she reads, whereas a high percentage of miscues leaving a meaning change indicates a less successful reader. Miscue analysis thus provides a way to assess quantitatively and qualitatively a reader's reading strategies.

According to Weaver (1980), the important difference between good readers and poor readers is not the quantity but the quality of their miscues. Weaver explains that good readers' miscues fit both the preceding and following syntactic and semantic context. Effective readers use the preceding context to predict what is coming next and the following context to confirm or correct their interpretation. In contrast, ineffective readers treat each word as if in isolation, so nothing prompts them to correct their miscues. Weaver asserts that the percentages of miscues either acceptable syntactically and semantically or corrected are the most crucial factors in assessing the reader's ability to comprehend during the process of reading. For these two items in the analysis, Weaver suggests 60-100% indicates a highly effective reader, 40-79% moderately effective, 15-45% somewhat effective, and less than 15% ineffective (1980, p. 167).

The scoring of miscues for the English samples was done by the researcher. A graduate student in Teaching English as a Second Language was shown how to use the modified miscue analysis form and scored two English samples to determine inter-judge reliability. Reliability ranged from .67 on syntactic and semantic acceptability at point of miscue to 1.0 on omissions and corrections. Use of cell agreement for determining reliability is a conservative measure because it requires that each item be scored independently rather than simply considering group totals for each category on the matrix.

Two judges (both native Vietnamese-speaking university students) were instructed by the author in the use of the scoring system. They practiced together on one English sample and on one Vietnamese sample. Then each judge listened to and scored another sample independently. Inter-judge reliability on each miscue variable for the Vietnamese judges was computed for all categories. Reliability ranged

from .73 on graphic similarity to 1.0 on several categories. The Vietnamese judges scored the remaining Vietnamese samples, consulting with the author when they experienced difficulty. Since there were only one Hmong sample and two Chinese samples, these samples were each scored by only one person (a native Hmong-speaking university student and a native Cantonese-speaking university student). Both consulted with the author throughout the scoring process.

MISCUE RESULTS FOR FIRST LANGUAGE READING

Table 1 shows the results of the miscue analysis in first language for both groups of students. Shing Re's miscue analysis profile shows that he was a more proficient reader in his first language than were other students in the beginning level. In the 399-word story written in Hmong, Shing Re made only 15 miscues, a rate of 4%, indicating that this was probably not a difficult story for him to read. Only 2 (or 13%) of his miscues left meaning change. Fifty four percent of his substitution miscues showed use of all three sources of information--graphic, syntactic, and semantic; 8% showed reliance on syntactic/semantic information only; and 38% showed reliance on graphic information only. The fact that Shing Re corrected successfully 50% of the miscues that were semantically unacceptable suggests that he was concerned with making sense as he read. His retelling of the story in English included not only the main idea of the story but also many of the details.

TABLE 1. Miscue Results for Oral Reading in First Language

Student	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	Change meaning	Miscue rate
Chinh	8	0	0	0	80	92	0	8	0	0	0	96	52
Diep	17	13	0	0	79	83	0	16	12	100	9	88	16
Hien	0	0	0	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	96	44
Krut	-			_		_		-		-	-	-	-
ShingKe	54	54	8	8	38	38	100	60	60	100	50	13	4
Trach	0	0	10	10	20	0	0	4	0	0	0	100	58
Xuan	36	9	18	18	50	77	0	48	24	0	0	80	9
Bang	50	50	0	0	50	50	0	55	55	100	20	36	1
Chau	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	100	100	0	0	1
Lan	50	50	0	0	50	50	50	73	73	0	0	27	1
Ngoc	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	100	100	0	0	0	1
SaeYoon										...		.	

All numbers are percentages.

All other students in the beginning level had difficulty reading in their first language. The stories selected for them were at their frustration level. Krut, the Cambodian, was unable to read in Cambodian. Hien and Trach, ethnic Chinese brothers from Vietnam, each attempted to read a short folk tale in Chinese because they said they could not read Vietnamese. Hien made miscues at a rate of 44%; 96% of his miscues left a meaning change. Trach made miscues at a rate of 58%; all of his miscues left a meaning change. They omitted many words, and their substitutions were common Chinese words with no graphic, syntactic, or semantic relation to the text. As one would expect, they were unable to retell the story. Their brother, Chinh, looked at both the Chinese and Vietnamese texts, then chose to read in Vietnamese rather than Chinese, explaining that he could not read Chinese. He made miscues at a rate of 52%; 96% of his miscues left changes of meaning. It appears that Chinh, like his brothers, was non-literate in Vietnamese as well as Chinese.

The two Vietnamese students were very limited readers in their first language. In the folk tale which they read, Diep made miscues at a rate of 16%; 88% of his miscues left changes in meaning. Part of his problem was unfamiliarity with the diacritical marks used in Vietnamese to mark tonal features. He omitted or misread many of them, thus altering the meaning of the text. His retelling indicated that he did not understand the gist of the story. Xuan was somewhat more successful in reading in Vietnamese. He made miscues at a rate of 9%, but 80% of his miscues left changes in meaning. It was not possible to determine the extent of his understanding the story because he refused to retell it, saying °I don't know' to each question.

To summarize, results of the miscue analysis for first language reading for the beginning students indicate that only Shing Ke, and possibly xuan, could

be considered literate in their first language. Shing Ke was the most effective reader in his first language, the one most able to use all three coding systems, and the only one able to retell the story. The other students, except for Hien and Trach, who had many omissions, relied heavily on graphic cues and showed little ability to use syntactic or semantic information to derive meaning from print.

In contrast, the advanced students were highly effective readers in Vietnamese, their first language, with the exception of Sae Yoon, the Mien girl, who said that she was unable to read or write Mien, although she could read a little Thai. All four advanced Vietnamese students read with ease the story selected for them, a translation in Vietnamese of a folk tale, "A Grain as Big as a Hen's Egg,• written by Tolstoy. None of them made 25 miscues in their reading, indicating that for them the passage was quite easy. The miscue rate for each was 1%. Their miscues left meaning changes at rates ranging from 0% to 36%. Fifty to 100 percent of their substitution miscues showed use of all three sources of information--graphic, syntactic, and semantic. Fifty-five to 100 percent of their miscues were syntactically and semantically appropriate.

There was, however, a difference in the quality and quantity of the retelling of the Vietnamese story. Ngoc's retelling was quite sparse, although she seemed to understand the gist of the story. Lan began her retelling in English, then switched to Vietnamese and retold the story in great detail. Both Bang and Chau were able to retell the story in English, but Chau's retelling was more detailed and more fluent. Chau and Lan were the only students in both groups who retold the story rather than summarize it.

MISCUE RESULTS FOR ENGLISH READING

Table 2 shows the results of miscue analysis for both groups reading in English. As with the reading in his first language, Shing He was also the best beginning level reader in English. His reading of the selection from The New Arrival produced only 8 miscues, a rate of 4%; therefore, he was also asked to read a Chinese folk tale written in English. He made 12 miscues, a rate of 7%. The low rate of miscues in each of Shing He's readings indicates that he was able to read fluently, in the sense of using graphic cues to pronounce words correctly. There were, however, differences in the strategies he used in reading these two English samples and in his comprehension, as revealed by the retellings.

TABLE 2. Miscue Results for Oral Reading in English

Student	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible] unacceptable	Change meaning	Miscue rate
Chinh	13	9	0	0	83	83	50	12	8	100	13	80	20
Diep	30	0	0	0	70	100	60	28	4	100	13	72	16
Hien	33	6	0	0	67	94	100	24	4	100	8	92	31
Krut	40	30	0	0	50	40	100	36	28	0	0	80	32
ShingKel	40	50	20	0	40	60	0	63	25	50	20	50	4
ShingKe2	25	8	8	8	66	83	0	33	17	100	0	75	7
Trach	38	0	0	0	63	100	88	16	4	0	0	94	18
Xuan	50	50	0	0	50	50	20	48	48	100	8	52	13
Bang	20	15	10	5	70	75	33	40	32	0	0	64	5
Chau	25	25	10	10	65	65	0	44	40	100	30	40	4
Lan	45	23	5	5	45	68	0	56	36	100	25	44	4
Ngoc	31	26	16	16	58	47	0	56	48	100	15	44	5
SaeYoon	33	33	20	33	47	47	57	52	44	100	14	48	4

All numbers are percentages.

Shing Xe 1--reading from <u>The New Arrival</u>
Shing Re 2--reading Chinese folk tale

111111111

The selection from his textbook, The New Arrival, was easiest for Shing Ke. He showed evidence of using all three sources of information: 40% of his substitution miscues indicated use of graphic, syntactic, and semantic information; 20% use of syntactic/semantic information only; and 40% use of graphic information only. Sixty three percent of all of his miscues were syntactically and semantically appropriate at the point made, and he corrected 20% of those that remained semantically unacceptable at the end of the sentence. Thus, he was using predicting and confirming strategies. Fifty percent of his miscues left meaning changes, but his retelling indicated comprehension. Although Shing Re's miscue rate for the short folk tale which he read was only 7%, he had more difficulty with this story. Seventy-five percent of his miscues left meaning changes. Only 25% of his substitutions reflected use of all three sources of information, whereas 66% showed use of graphic information only. Only 17% of his miscues were syntactically and semantically appropriate at the end of the sentence, and he did not correct any of those that were not appropriate. In this story he seemed to be reading words as though in isolation rather than using predicting and confirming strategies. The only thing he could retell was that the story was about two fish and that people laughed at the fish. Other beginning students read in English less successfully than Shing Ke. Their total miscue rate ranged from 13% for Xuan to 32% for Krut. Their miscues left meaning changes varying from 52% for Xuan to 94% for Trach. Their substitution miscues reflected high reliance on graphic information only and no use of syntactic/semantic information only. As with the first language reading, Xuan was more successful than his classmates, showing higher use of all three sources of information (50%). None of these students was able to retell the story spontaneously, but Xuan and Diep were able to make limited correct responses to prompting questions.

The story chosen for the advanced students to read in English presented a greater challenge than the story which they read in Vietnamese. This was a Chinese folk tale, "The Pointing Finger," printed in Cricket, a magazine for children ages 6-12. A few of the difficult words (tedious, taint, avarice, cupidity, gratitude, canted, and decisive) were glossed in the margins, but, although each of the readers struggled with pronunciation of these words, none seemed to notice the definitions in the margins. All of the readers made 25 or more miscues in this 610-word text, but the rate of miscues was almost identical for all--4% to 5%.

Several of their substitution miscues might be attributed to pronunciation problems. They struggled with pronunciation of several unfamiliar words--isle, avarice, lane, elm, laments, boulder, cupidity, frown. These were coded as non-words and thus unacceptable syntactically and semantically, based on the assumption that if a person can not pronounce the word, he/she probably is not familiar with that word. There was no evidence in the retellings that they knew what these words meant, but none was essential to the gist of the story. The more familiar word selfish appeared in the story and provided some of the meaning lost by not recognizing avarice and cupidity. The Vietnamese students often dropped the plural morpheme (s) on plural nouns and the past tense morpheme (a) on past tense verbs. Both were coded once and were considered syntactically and semantically correct. This can very likely be attributed to a pronunciation problem, possibly due to language interference since Vietnamese does not inflect nouns or verbs.

The reading strategies in English were similar for all of the advanced students. The total rate of miscues was 4% or 5% for each, and miscues left meaning changes ranging from 40% to 64%. Their use of all three sources of information ranged from 15% to

33%. Their reliance on syntactic/semantic information only ranged from 5% to 20%, whereas their reliance on graphic information only ranged from 45% to 75%. Only Sae Yoon had more than 3 omissions. She often paused before omitting a word; other times when she came to an unfamiliar word, she paused, looked questioningly, then pronounced the word correctly using graphic information. The percentage of miscues that were syntactically and semantically appropriate ranged from 32% to 56%, and the rate for successfully correcting unacceptable miscues ranged from 0% to 30%. The heavy reliance on graphic information and high rate of meaning changes indicate that these students were only moderately effective readers in English.

The quality of retellings varied considerably. As with the reading in the first language, Chau gave the most complete and spontaneous retelling of the story, including an understanding of the moral. He ended with "and he's the most selfish guy of everybody he met.' Lan's retelling indicated that she understood the story quite well, but she did not offer to explain the moral of the story. Ngoc said at first, "I didn't understand the story,' but her responses to questions indicated understanding of the main idea. Bang was able to retell the story successfully, but only with numerous prompting questions. His retelling, thus, like Ngoc's, was a series of one-sentence responses to questions. Sae Yoon had the most difficulty understanding the story. After she had read about five sentences, she paused and said, 'This too hard.' Her retelling was brief and indicated only limited understanding. She knew only that a man could turn stone into gold, but she thought that people were throwing a stone at him, and she did not seem to understand the gist of the story.

DISCUSSION

A few generalizations can be made about the reading strategies of students in these two groups. There were close connections between rankings for beginning level students between first and second language literacy. The two best beginning level readers in their first language, Sing Re and Xuan, were also the best readers in English. They made fewer miscues and showed more use of predicting and confirming strategies than their classmates. But they were more proficient in reading their first language than in reading English, perhaps because they have had more experience with it than with English. The third best reader in English, Diep, was also the third best reader in his first language. His miscue rate and reading strategies in both languages were quite similar. Students who could neither read nor write in their first language were least proficient in reading in English. Chinh, Hien, Krut, and Trach, were all more successful in reading English than their first language. Trach, and to a lesser extent Hien, was more likely to omit an unfamiliar word than try to sound it out. A similar tendency to omit rather than produce non-words was noted in Hadad's (1980) study comparing reading strategies of non-literate and literate Arabic children reading in English. All the beginning students reading English showed a heavy reliance on graphic cues and little integration of all sources of information, as do most beginning readers in a second language (see Benitez, 1985, and Cziko, 1980).

There were also connections between first language literacy and reading ability in English for the advanced level students. All of the students in the advanced level who were skilled readers in their first language were less successful in reading English than in reading Vietnamese. They showed much

greater reliance on graphic cues when they read in English and more difficulty in retelling the story than when they read in Vietnamese. The quality of the retelling was the best indicator of their comprehension. Chau's retellings of both the first language and the English stories were more detailed and spontaneous than the retellings of the other students. The only advanced student who was not literate in her first language, Sae Yoon, was also the one who had most difficulty comprehending the English story, even though she read it orally as fluently as the other students. Her miscue analysis was not particularly different from that of her classmates, but she was unable to retell the story, even with prompting questions. The difference between quantity of miscues and quality of retelling for students like Sae Yoon *supports* Romatowski's (1980, p. 26) conclusion that "the ability to read for meaning consists of more than the accurate production of sounds for each printed symbol.' Reading for meaning is facilitated by shared life and language experiences of author and reader.

The acquisition of literacy, according to Olson (1977, 1980a, 1980b), enables a child to change his/her orientation to meaning and thus provides the means for achieving higher levels of analytical thinking and formal reasoning. This is the mode of thought that we in the West associate with literacy and formal education (Stotsky, 1983). According to Olson, literacy enables the child to develop different processing strategies for oral and written language. In oral communication the interpersonal function is primary, whereas in written text the ideational, or logical, function is primary.

Parallel to Olsons distinction between the interpersonal and ideational functions of language is Cummins' (1980) distinction between two levels of second language proficiency--basic interpersonal communicative skills (BIOS) and cognitive/academic language

proficiency (CALP) needed for success in decontextualized academic situations. Cummins maintains that the cognitive/academic proficiencies underlying literacy skills in the first language and the second language are interdependent and that fluency in interpersonal communicative language does not necessarily imply proficiency in cognitive/academic language. He argues that "acquisition of grade appropriate English CALP may take considerably longer than the acquisition of English BICS" (1980, p. 42). Thus, students who are literate in their first language should be more successful in developing literacy skills in a second language. Results from the analyses of students' oral reading miscues and retelling of stories from the analyses of their writing lend support to this concept.

IMPLICATIONS

Because this study looked at Southeast Asia students in only two secondary classes, results can not be generalized beyond the groups studied here. With these students there was a fairly strong relationship between first and second language literacy, but a hypothesis about such a relationship should be investigated further with larger populations. Analysis of oral reading miscues shows promise as a means for looking at the reading behavior of second language readers.

A researcher must, however, deal with the question of dialect interference. As Mott (1980, p. 57) points out:

> It became a difficult task to determine whether, in some cases, an item was a nonsense word, signalling a loss of meaning, or whether the reader recognized the

> item and understood its meaning in the context of the story but simply did not yet have full productive control over its production. ...only the retelling can ultimately verify whether the items are comprehended within the context of the story.

Further miscue work with second language readers should devise a means for identifying miscues which might be attributed to dialect interference and for measuring their effect, if any, on comprehension. Clarke (1980) also raises the issue of equating oral reading with silent reading. He suggests that the oral reading task restricts the performance of subjects and thus might not be indicative of their silent reading strategies.

This study also has implications for reading instruction at all levels. Reading teachers should emphasize those strategies used by proficient readers: recognition of syntactic and semantic cues; de-emphasis on mechanical decoding of words; making predictions to confirm or reject; and willingness to take risk. Reading materials should relate to students' prior knowledge and experience as well as interests.

Students who are proficient readers in their first language probably continue to use it outside of school for social and functional purposes. In this study, Chau, the best reader in the advanced group, was often seen reading Vietnamese novels during class, whereas other students reported that they had no time to read in their first language for pleasure and/or that they had few first language books in their homes. Adding more first-language books to the school library, not only fiction but also materials on academic content areas, would give these students more choices for reading in their first language.

For students less proficient in first language reading and writing, teachers may need to understand that substantial teaching will be necessary to prepare them for mastery of second language literacy skills. It may be unrealistic to expect teenage students who arrive with limited schooling to complete high school and to reach required competency levels in four years. This does not mean that the focus should be to teach competency in first language skills as a prerequisite to the acquisition of second language skills (particularly at the secondary level). Rather it means that transfer from first language literacy to second language cannot be assumed; thus, a learning curve may be at a much slower trajectory for students who have limited first language literacy.

APPENDIX

READING SAMPLE CODED WITH MODIFIED MISCUE ANALYSIS

Marking Sheet

A SPECIAL FRIEND

ǐ elee iv P et Jr:tic
There' pretty Hmong girl in my English clap.
Her name is 'ehue Vue. Chue Vue id Pao:A26Mifi t
We live near each other. Sometimes we walk home together. When I visit Lee Pao, she someti mp s WW1 over too. All three of us study English enetb et e. eR

Sometimei) wg walk to 47 au p4.14Pnear cal t We usually have a picnic rHPII e a ways have a t of fun. Lee Pao andkis family usually come with us. Chue Vue has two c fter brother&. Sometimes they cang with us too. I like Chue VueSbrothers. They re friendly.

oThelf
Chue Vuel-)alggq buither wants me to marryili i5
This is a diffiaklecision for me toVa t a!" single man. Sometim1DI get lonely. It might be fun to have a wife. I don't know if I love Chue Vue. 1'0 known her for only a ut rortire 1a11 I don't know lot about Hmong 014 A. 1$ di erent from d lip
r*- If 1
Hmong dressfAamptly. They eat different
They have a di:ReMT religion.

TA
There are other proble99. I'm a poor man. I don't have enyinh money to buy a wife. I'll have to think about il"cfor a long time before I make thi s decision. Maybe I will marry her!

	TEXT	READER	SUBS	GRAPHIC SIMILAR	OMISSIONS w/o I	w/o I	OTHER	SYNTAC ACCEPT AT PT	SEM ACCEPT AT PT	SYNTAC ACCEPT	SEMANT ACCEPT	CORRECT ATT	CORR SUC	MEANING CHANGE
	[illegible]	[illegible]						accent						
	pretty	pristing		✓										
	is	ish						accent						
	cousin	[illegible]												
	[illegible]	card												
	[illegible]	[illegible]												
	ionic	[illegible]												
	there	--												
9	a lot	lots		✓										
10	older	other												
11	[illegible]	[illegible]	✓	✓										
12	oldest	other	✓	✓					W					
13	difficult	difisical												
14	to make	take/to make												
15	I'm	I						accent						
16	[illegible]	[illegible]												
17	I've known	I know						accent				✓		
18	[illegible]	cooker		✓										
19	different	delicious		✓										
20	dress	dens												
21	differently	diferesly												
22	different	df---												
23	foods	--												
24	there are	[illegible]												
25	have to	[illegible]												

Analyzing the Oral Miscues

1. To what extent is the reader using all 3 sources of redundant information (i.e., graphic, syntactic, and semantic) when making substitutions? (This % will be high for a proficient reader.)

   A. Number of miscues having a (14 in Column 5 + 9 + 10 ▮g
   Total of Column 4 AO

   B. Number of miscues having a (0) in Column 5 + 11 + 12 to 470
   Total of Column 4 -*"›"θ

2. To what extent is the reader using syntactic/ semantic information only in making substitutions? (This % will be low for a proficient reader.)

   A. Number of miscues having a (v1 in Column 4, no (01 in Column 5, but a (P1 in Column 9 + 10 ite' =.0
   Total of Column 4fA4

   B. Number of miscues having a ('1 in Column 4, no 4.4 in Column 5, but a WI in Column 11 + 12 o
   Total of Column 4 1̄0' 1"

3. To what extent is the reader using graphicin-formation only in making substitutions? (This % will be low for a proficient reader.)

   A. Number of miscues having a tri in Column 5, and no (i) in Column 9 + 10 io ,
   Total of Column 4 ;if

   B. Number of miscues having a (V) in Column 5, and no (01 in Column 11 + 12 O .50
   Total of Column 4 5170''

4. To what extent is the reader stopping and inspecting text before (s)he omits it?

   Total of Col.7 (w/I)
   Total of Col.6 + 7

5. To what extent are miscues syntactically and semantically appropriate?

   A. Number of miscues having a (✓) in Column 9 + 10 / Total miscues (25) — 1.1 / 2 . 0

   B. Number of miscues having a (re) in Column 11 + 12 / Total miscues (25) — 13 / 51 . it

6. To what extent is the reader successful in the corrections (s)he attempts?

   Total of Col.14 (Successful Correct) / Total of Col. 13 (Attempted Correct) — 1 / 1 : 1.0

7. To what extent is the reader successfully correcting semantically unacceptable miscues?

   Number of miscues having a (e) in Col. plarldno wlisk Col.12 --- / Total miscues (25) - total in Col.12 — y / 13 . o2

8. To what extent does the reader leave meaning changes?

   Total in Column 15 / Total miscues (25) — 13 / 51 : i..).

9. What is the reader's miscue rate?

   (1) Count all words in text stopping at the reader's 25th miscue.

   (2) Divide 25 by the number obtained in (1).

   25/189 = .13

REFERENCES

Benitez, Diana. 1985. A Bilingual Monoliterate?: Implications for Reading Instruction. ERIC/CLL News Bulletin 8,2: 1, 7-8.

Clarke, Mark A. 1980. Reading in Spanish and English: Evidence from Adult ESL Students. In Learning to Read in Different Languages, Sarah Hudelson (Ed.), 69-92. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Cummins, James. 1980. The Entry and Exit Fallacy in Bilingual Education. National Association of Bilingual Education Journal 4,3: 25-59.

Cziko, Gara A. 1980. Language Competence and Reading Strategies: A Comparison of First- and Second-Language Oral Reading Errors. Language Learning 30,1: 101-116.

Dunn, Linda C. 1985. The Transferability of Reading Skills from First to Second Languages. ORTESOL Journal 6: 1-10.

Gallimore, Ronald and Kathryn Hu-Pei Au. 1979. The Competence/Incompetence Paradox in the Education of Minority Culture Children. The Quarterly Newsletter of the Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition 1,3: 32-37.

Goodman, Kenneth S. and Yetta Goodman. 1977. Learning about Psycholinguistic Processes by Analyzing Oral Reading. Harvard Educational Review 47: 317-333.

Haddad, Frances Trix. 1980. First Language Illiteracy—Second Language Reading: A Case Study. In Learning to Read in Different Languages, Sarah Hudelson (Ed.), 32-44. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

McKenzie, Moira. 1977. The Beginning of Literacy. Theory into Practice 16: 315-324.

Mott, Barbara Willoughby. 1980. A Miscue Analysis of German Speakers Reading in German and English. In Learning to Read in Different Languages, Sarah Hudelson (Ed.), 21-26. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Olson, David R. 1977. From Utterance to Text: The Bias of Language in Speech and Writing. Harvard Educational Review 47,3: 53-58.

Olson, David R. 1980a. On Language and Literacy. International Journal of Psycholinguistics 7: 69-83.

Olson, David R. 1980b. Some Social Aspects of Meaning in Oral and Written Language. In The Social Foundations of Language and Thought, David R. Olson (Ed.), 90-108. New York: W. W. Norton.

Pappas, Christine C. n.d. Modified Miscue Analysis. Unpublished manuscript. University of Oregon.

Romatowski, Jane A. 1980. A Study of Oral Reading in Polish and English: A Psycholinguistic Perspective. In Learning to Read in Different Languages, Sarah Hudelson (Ed.), 21-26. Washignton, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Scotsky, Susan. 1983. The Politics of Literacy Teaching in the 1980s. Harvard Educational Review 53: 60-67.

Terdal, Marjorie S. 1985. Learning to Read and Write in English: Case Studies of Two Southeast Asian Students in a Northwest Urban High School. Ph.D. dissertation. University of Oregon.

Weaver, Constance. 1980. Psycholinguistics and Reading: From Process to Practice. Cambridge, MA: Winthrop.

Zukowski/Faust, Jean. 1985. Reading: Language Processing, Information Processing and Metaprocess. Paper presented at the 19th Annual TESOL Conference, New York.

PROBLEMS IN MULTIPLE CHOICE TEST ITEMS

Chen Muzhu
Hunan Medical College
People's Republic of China

In China, the English test has become more and more significant, because it is instrumental in determining the selection of overseas scholars, the admission of students to graduate studies, and most importantly, in determining academic promotion at various levels. Therefore, whether the test papers can really reflect the testees' English proficiency is an issue of considerable importance.

Since 1970, the multiple choice item has been widely adopted in English tests in China. It has these advantages over the essay-type item: easier grading, greater objectivity, and wider coverage of test items. However, there are quite a few disadvantages. The most troublesome one is that sometimes one multiple choice item may have more than one correct answer, but there is only one designated key to it. If the testee chooses one of the correct possibilities rather than the answer designated by the key, his answer will be marked wrong. In such cases, not only is it unfair to the testee, but it will also influence the reliability and variability of the test. Thus, when writing test items, the test developer should deliberate on all possible correct answers and make sure that such items have one and only one correct answer. All distracters should be definitely wrong.

What are the criteria of correctness of a test item? Should it be based on only one variant of English? Is written English the only criterion of correct English? In writing test items, the test developer should take these problems into account. As a matter of fact, there are American English, British English and some other variants of English. The main

variants to be considered are American English and British English. Among them, there are differences in grammar as well as in the use of vocabulary. In teaching English to Chinese students, we have introduced both American English and British English variations to them, though the emphasis on either has varied with different teachers. Furthermore, many of the testees will go to study in various English-speaking countries. Thus, it is not appropriate to regard as wrong those items which are acceptable in any of the English variants. We should avoid testing such items as are controversial, especially those which are known to depend on the distinct differences between American and British English. Even if an expression is acceptable only in spoken English, we cannot say it is wrong.

Under the guidance of Mary Ann Hood of the American University (Washington, D.C.), I reviewed ten sets of three kinds of national English tests of China--EPT (English Proficiency Tests), WHO (English Tests for the Applicants of WHO Fellowships) and GET (English Tests for the Entrance Examination of Graduate Students)--, and found there were quite a few multiple choice items with more than one correct answer. They can be classified according to the following causes.

I. The differences between American English and British English were not duly taken into consideration.

1. He talked as though he ____ my father.

   A. was B. is
   C. were D. being

Answer C "were" is accepted by speakers of both American English and British English. However, British people accept "was' as well as "were" in this kind of sentence.

Jesperson (1954) says 'The tendency to use 'was' after 'as if' is certainly strongest if the time spoken of belongs to the past: 'she spoke as if she was ashamed' (not were), but 'she speaks as if she were ashamed' (or was).

The form of verbs in clauses introduced by 'as if/though' is the same as that in the object clauses after 'wish', 'was' or 'were', and can be used for the first and third person singular; e.g.,

It seems as if it was/were spring already.

He acts/acted as if/though he were/was an expert'.

Thus, in test item (1), both answers A and C are right.

2. I'd rather that you ________ the operation right away.

A. perform B. should perform
C. will perform D. performed

According to British English, 'I'd rather that you performed the operation right away' is correct. Similar sentences can be found in The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English:

I would rather you came tomorrow than today.
I had rather (that) you told him than (that) did.

I discussed this item with several American editors and experts of linguistics. They all said

'I'd rather that you perform the operation right away" is acceptable as well. And it is hard to say whether perform or performed is more acceptable. Since the native speaking professionals take both answers as right, how can we rule out one of them?

3. It is necessary that you ____ be present at the meeting.

A. should B. could
C. may D. will

The keyed answer to this item is 'should'. This item tests one of the well-known differences between American English and British English. In American English, 'You be present' is perfectly right, and some Americans don't even admit the expression 'you should be present'. In British English, "you be present" is also used in formal documents, though they accept"you should be present' in the informal usage.

Examples can be found in the following:

It is expedient that he arrive by tomorrow.
It is necessary that he come without delay.
It is necessary that he (should) be sent there at once.

In American English, the tendency is to use the subjunctive verb in this kind of clause, either formally or informally, in written or in oral usage. In this kind of clause, should + base verb or just base verb is used for the predicate. In modern English, especially in journalistic articles, diplomatic documents, proposals and spoken English, the latter form is more commonly used. American people tend to use the latter form. Now the former form is not used as commonly as before.

Therefore if the testee does not put anything in the blank, we cannot say he is wrong. This is a grammatical point which should be avoided in test items.

4. I'd just as soon   rudely to her.

   A. you not speak
   B. you not speaking
   C. that you won't speak
   D. you hadn't spoken
   E. you did not speak

Answer E 'you did not speak" is the designated answer. But answer A 'you not speak' is acceptable in American English. This item also has two correct answers.

II. By adhering too much to some grammatical rules, other possibilities in ordinary discourse were not taken into consideration.

1. The doctor tried both penicillin and sulfanilamide; penicillin proved to be _____

   A. the more effective
   B. the most effective
   C. more effective
   D. most effective

When we teach the comparison of the adjective, we usually stress the general grammar rule that no definite article should be used before the comparative degree of the adjective, while a definite article must be used before the superlative degree. Answer C 'more effective' is no doubt the correct answer. But sometimes the definite article can be used before the comparative degree of the adjective to express one of the two; for example,

John is the more stupid of the (two) boys.
He is the stronger of the two.

Accordingly, answer A 'the more effective' is a possible answer, too. As for answer D 'most effective*, it has the meaning of 'very effective'. If we don't want to compare the two medicines, answer D is also right.

Thus, answers A, C, and D are all possible. From this item we learn that when teaching grammar, we must be careful not to be too rigid, but rather to be flexible.

2. The physician insisted on ______ on a diet.

A. I should be　　B. me being
C. my being　　D. me to be

In formal English, only 'my being* is acceptable, while in spoken English, we often hear people say: 'would you mind me smoking here?', i.e., the objective case of the personal pronoun is used here instead of the possessive case.

According to Eckersley and Ewart's Comprehensive English Grammar, (1960), p. 245) 'This construction, (possessive case + gerund) however, is a literary one rather than a conversational one. In colloquial speech it is fairly common to hear a personal pronoun instead of the possessive adjective, e.g., ...because of him being; ...annoyed at your saying; ...excuse me for interrupting you; ...used to William grumbling; ...to Mary coming*.

Thus, this item has two possible answers.

3. I am afraid there is little ______ we can do for you.

A. which B. that
C. of which D. where

In Modern English Grammar by Jesperson (1954, p. 94), there are two sentences with 'little' as the precedent of the adjective clause, i.e.,

His writings contain little that is *new* or startling.
I have introduced little which can be termed modern.

From these two examples, both 'that' and 'which" can be used to introduce an adjective clause after "little". Therefore, answers A and B are both possible.

4. I have been studying here for four years, by next summer I _______.

A. shall graduate
B. shall be graduating
C. shall be graduated
D. shall have graduated

Usually, it seems to us that the word "by" is an important signal for future perfect tense: thus answer D must be the best choice. On the other hand, 'by' has the meaning of "not later than' and 'when'; it can be used together with some other tenses, for example,

Can you finish the work by tomorrow?
By the time you get there it will be dark.

Thus answer C "shall be graduated' is possible. But the word 'graduate' can be both transitive and intransitive. As the American Heritage Dictionary points out, "A strict traditionalist would insist that she was graduated from college is the only correct usage. But the usage 'she graduated from

college' is by now entirely acceptable...". For this reason, answer A 'shall graduate* is acceptable. Moreover, if we consider the meaning of "to graduate* as a process of examination, ceremonies, etc., then answer B "shall be graduating' is also possible. Thus there are four possible answers to this item.

5. Since she is angry, we ......__ __.

A. had better leaving her alone
B. should leave her alone
C. might as well leave her alone
D. had rather leave her alone
E. must leave her alone

The key to this item is C 'might as well leave her alone'. But grammatically, B, D, and E are correct, and they are acceptable in ordinary discourse, depending on what the situation calls for. Both 'should leave her alone" and "must leave her alone' mean ought to leave her alone and not to irritate her any more. Answer D has the meaning of 'we had rather leave her alone than keep her company". The real problem is that the situation indicated in the item is not definitive enough to eliminate some of the choices as incorrect.

III. Without further context, different prepositions can be used to complete a sentence with different resultant meanings.

1. I promise to look the matter, as soon as I get back to the head office.

A. into B. for
C. in D. after

Either 'into" of 'after" is correct in the item. If we say "to look into the matter', it means we will investigate or examine the matter carefully. For example:

The police are looking into the past record of the suspect.

If we say "to look after the matter', it means to take care of the matter. For example:

Who is going to look after your correspondence while you are away?

Accordingly, answers A and D are possible.

2. John did it   his will.

A. at
H. in
C. to
D. against

"Will" in this sentence may have two meanings, which can make entirely different senses of the sentence. It may mean one's volition/choice, or last testament. "John did it against his will" may mean 'John did it against his volition'. "John did it in his will" means "John did it in his last testament". Thus, either against or in is right in this sentence.

3. We went to see the exhibition ________

A. for all the storm
B. notwithstanding the storm
C. in spite of the storm
D. despite of the storm

Notwithstanding means in spite of. They are synonyms. For example:

They travelled on, notwithstanding the storm.
He came notwithstanding the rain.

They went in spite of the rain.

It is not appropriate to use synonyms as distracters. Answers B and C are right in this sentence.

IV. Without further context, different words filled in the same blank can make different senses in a sentence.

1. He was afraid he would have to ______ her invitation to the party.

A. refute
B. refuse
C. return
D. ignore
E. decline

Answer E "declines is designated as the key. But answers B, C and D are acceptable. It depends on what the speaker wants to say. To refuse (A) her invitation is similar to decline her invitation. If he meant to invite her in reciprocation, i.e., he would have to return (C) her invitation. If he meant to have no interest in her invitation and would have to disregard it, then he would have to ignore (D) her invitation.

Therefore, the four answers are possible, each having a different meaning.

2. The medicine smells ______.

A. nicely
B. good
C. well
D. great

The keyed answer is B "good'. Why don't we say *The medicine smells great'? Both good and great are adjectives used as predicatives in the sentence. We

have similar sentences taken from A Grammar of Contemporary English by Quirk et al (1972):

The food tastes good.
marvelous.

Thus answer D 'great" is also a correct answer.

3. ___ pills may have wholesome effects.

A. Sweet B. Sour
C. Bitter D. Acrid

Without a context, we cannot say any of the four answers is wrong in ordinary discourse, because sweet, sour, bitter or acrid pills may have wholesome effects.

V. Synonymous words or phrases are used as distracters.

1. When they asked me to make a speech, I was at a loss for words.

A. elated B. dumb
C. surprised D. tongue-tied

Answer D *tongue-tied' is the keyed answer. According to Oxford Illustrated Dictionary (1975), "dumb' means temporarily bereft of speech from astonishment, shock, etc.; "tongue-tied* means speechless, dumb, form embarrassment, shyness, etc. Therefore, both B 'dumb' and D 'tongue-tied' are correct responses in this item.

2. ....that the price per piece would be higher on such a big order than it would be if a small order were placed.

A. certainly B. really
C. only D. simply

Answers C and D are correct, because 'simply" has the meaning of only.

3. The country has a system of , most of which date back to the nineteenth century.

A. watercourses B. rivers
C. canals D. channels

Look at the interpretations of these words by the American Heritage Dictionary.

Watercourse: A waterway; a waterway is a navigable body of water, such as a river, channel or canal.

Canal: A manmade waterway, or artificially improved river used for irrigation, shipping or travel.

Channel: An official route of communication.

Without further context, answers A, C and D are possible.

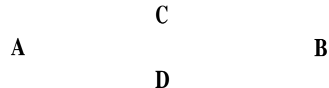
VI. Ambiguity in the meaning of the stem may cause more than one answer to be correct.

1. If you are at a crossing where the traffic has the green light, you should

A. make sure that drivers have enough time to give way to you.
B. cross the road in the same direction as the traffic.
C. wait until there is a traffic hold-up.

D. wait until the light for the traffic changes to red.

Both B and D are possible, depending on which direction one wants to take. If one wants to go from



A to B, he may cross the road in the same direction as traffic AB. If one wants to go from C to D, then he must wait till the traffic light for AB changes to red.

2. The dosage for children .

A. should be fixed
B. should vary with age
C. should be the same as that for adults
D. should be 2 or 3 capsules daily

The direction given by the passage item is '2 or 3 capsules daily according to age'. Answer D is correct for the first part of the direction °2 or 3 capsules daily'; while answer B is correct for the second part of the direction "according to age, only the phrase 'according to' is changed to 'vary with'. So both answers are partly correct, but neither is precisely correct.

To summarize, unlike physics or mathematics, language cannot be completely formulated by rules and principles. Especially in ordinary discourse, one can express one's idea in several ways. Without a context, a single sentence can be understood with

various meanings. Moreover, the variants of English have different rules and principles. These cause increased difficulty and complicatedness of the developing of English test items. The analysis of the multiple choice items chosen from various existing English tests in this article is aimed at drawing the attention of English test developers so as to improve the work of testing as an instrument.

The analysis of the test items was conducted under the direction of Mrs. Mary Ann Hood (The American University). I am very much indebted to Dr. Henry G. Widdowson (University of London), Dr. Wilga Rivers (Harvard University), Dr. Jeannette DeCarrico (Portland State University), Mrs. Phyllis Van Horn, Mrs. Susan Kalish and Miss Dina Rudolph for their kind help and advice.

Bibliography

American Heritage Dictionary edited by William Morris. 1975. New York: American Heritage Publishing Co.

Chen, Shou-jung. 1971. Concise English Chinese Dictionary, Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Dixson, Robert J. 1971. Essential Idioms in English, New York: Regents Pub. Co.

Eckersley, J. M. and Charles Ewart. 1960. A Comprehensive English Grammar, p. 245, London: Longman.

Hornby, Albert Sydney, E. V. Gatenby, and H. Wakefield. 1963. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, London: Oxford University Press..

Jesperson, Jens Otto Harry. 1954. A Modern English Grammar, Vol. IV, London: G. Allen & Unwin.

Oxford Illustrated Dictionary edited by J. Coulson, illus. by Helen Mary Petter. 1975. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Quirk, Randolph A., et al. 1972. A Grammar of Contemporary English, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973; New York: Seminar Press.

REVIEW ARTICLE

Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching.
Diane Larsen-Freeman. New York: Oxford University Press, 1986. Pp. xiii + 142.

Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching.
Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1986. Pp. viii + 171.

Reviewed by
Pat Rounds and Virginia Samuda
University of Oregon

Both Larsen-Freeman and Richards and Rodgers have written books that are potentially useful for teacher-trainees and practicing teachers. In both cases, the aim is not to proscribe but to help teachers make informed judgments and decisions about their own teaching. Each, however, takes a somewhat different means of approaching the task of presenting a comprehensive view of the language teaching styles that are sufficiently distinct to be identified as 'methods.'

Both books acknowledge the classic distinction made by Anthony (1963) between approach, method and technique, and both books redefine those terms for their own purposes. Larsen-Freeman takes "method' to comprise both 'principles," i.e., the theoretical framework, and "techniques,' i.e., the classroom activities and procedures derived from an application of the principles. Thus, the author's primary intent is to present the principles upon which eight methods of foreign language teaching are based, and the techniques associated with each method.

Larsen-Freeman's book is divided into eight major chapters, each devoted to a specific method:

The Grammar-Translation Methods
The Direct Method
The Audio-Lingual Method
The Silent Way
Suggestopedia
Community Language Learning
The Total Physical Response Method
The Communicative Approach.

Larsen-Freeman notes that these methods were chosen because they are all currently practiced: however, she points out that her intent is not to convince the reader of the superiority of any one method, nor is the inclusion of a method to be considered endorsement of the method.

A second purpose of the book is to encourage all language teachers--novices as well as experienced--to examine their beliefs about teaching and learning and how each of us puts these into practice. The stated goal is to help us better understand why we do what we do. The teacher is urged to neither abandon current practices nor to reject a method outright. Instead we are counseled to examine certain techniques that are presented, the associated methods, and the principles from which they are derived. Larsen-Freeman contends that most techniques can be adapted to any teaching style and situation, and that the way a teacher works with a technique 'makes the difference.'

Rather than simply being provided with a description of each method, the reader is presented with an opportunity to 'observe' a classroom in which a particular method is being practiced. After each observation, we are asked to think about the experience. This is accomplished by listing the observations and inferring the principles on which the techniques and behaviors are based. For example, in the chapter on the communicative approach, we observe that, *The teacher distributes a handout that has a copy of a

sports column from a recent newspaper." From this, we are to infer that this behavior is based on the principle that, "Whenever possible, 'authentic language'--language as it is used in a real context--should be introduced." By such pairings of observation and principle, the author intends that teachers will be led to identify principles they believe in and associated techniques they can creatively adapt to their own situation, since 'you are limited only by your imagination."

The reader is further led to develop an understanding of each method and to identify differences among them by attending to the answers the author provides to the ten questions which follow each Observations/Principles section. The questions involve five aspects of the language teaching process: the teacher, the learner, the teaching process, the learning process, and the target language/culture. They consist of the following:

1. What are the goals of the teachers who use the method?
2. What is the role of the teacher? What is the role of the students?
3. What are some characteristics of the teaching/learning process?
4. What is the nature of student-teacher interaction? What is the nature of student-student interaction?
5. How are the feelings of the students dealt with?
6. How is language viewed? How is culture viewed?
7. What areas of language are emphasized? What language skills are emphasized?
8. What is the role of the students' native language?
9. How is evaluation accomplished?
10. How does the teacher respond to student errors?

An expanded review of the observed techniques follows this discussion. Finally, the author

provides two types of exercises which are consistent with the stated dual purpose of the book: the first type checks the readers understanding of the book; the second type asks the readers to apply what they have understood about each method. An example of the latter type of exercise is the following, again taken from the chapter on the Communicative Approach:

> Imagine that you are working with your students on the function of requesting information. The authentic material you have selected is a railroad timetable. Design a communicative game or problem-solving task in which the timetable is used to give your students practice in requesting information.

At the end of each chapter, Larsen-Freeman provides a number of sources for 'Extra Reading,' and addresses from which materials and books on certain of the methods may be obtained.

This short book is written in a very straightforward, easy-to-read style. In fact, since it is written in the second person, the reader has more of the feel of listening to a well-organized lecture by a friendly professor, than of reading a major publication examining modern second and foreign language teaching and learning. The sometimes conflicting arguments regarding language and learning theory which form the bases for these methods are approached inductively, but never explicitly stated in the form of guiding theories. The reader is asked to evaluate each method on its own merit; no mention of omissions or shortcomings within a method is offered. Furthermore, no attempt is made to present a comparative view of how different techniques are employed in the service of the same principles in different methods. Neither is any attempt made to contextualize the relative importance of these methods within the realm of current practice. Giving equal time and treatment to each method might be misleading to teacher trainees

who could be led to believe that they would have equal chance of seeing any of these methods employed if they were to enter a language classroom. At the same time, they might be confused upon finding that the great majority of language classrooms do not swallow any of these methods whole. Indeed, what would they see in an ordinary classroom? Probably nothing that quite resembles anything described in this book, or perhaps they would see everything described here, but under one roof.

Like Larsen-Freeman, Richards and Rodgers present an overview of some of the major trends in 20th century English language teaching. Although they cover much of the same ground, share many of the same goals and address a similar readership, they have produced a book with a very different feel. Unlike Larsen-Freeman's, their book encompasses a historical perspective, as well as a more detailed consideration of the theoretical underpinnings of each approach.

Rather than simply allowing each approach to 'stand on its own,' Richards and Rodgers attempt to highlight the similarities and differences between them by applying the same descriptive framework to each in turn. This framework, which looks at language teaching from the perspective of approach, design and procedure, was originally proposed by Richards and Rodgers in 1982, as an expansion of Anthony's original approach, method and technique (Anthony 1963). In many ways, their book can be considered an example of that framework in action, since it is this tripartite distinction that is used to organize the information on each approach.

Readers who are familiar with the earlier Richards and Rodgers work may be a bit confused when comparing the titles of the earlier article ('Method: approach, design, and procedure') and the present book (Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching), since in the former, approach is subsumed under

method, and in the latter, approach and method are equal entities. The second chapter of the book should help to clarify the distinctions being made:

a. approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning;
b. design encompasses objectives of the method, syllabus, learning tasks and teaching activities, roles of the learners and teachers, and the role of instructional methods;
c. procedure refers to how the techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method are integrated into lessons.

The book begins with a brief historical sketch, followed by the rationale for the authors' descriptive framework, which is then applied to eight different approaches. Unlike Larsen-Freeman, Richards and Rodgers do not include Grammar-Translation and the direct method as full chapters (the reasons for this are given below), but discuss instead the Oral Approach/Situational Language Teaching and the Natural Approach. The final chapter, °Comparing and evaluating methods: some suggestions° attempts to draw all the threads together and concludes with a brief discussion of some of the problems encountered in studies which attempt to compare or evaluate methods.

In general, Richards and Rodgers take a slightly more international perspective than Larsen-Freeman. For example, in the chapter which presents a brief history of language teaching, they make some useful and interesting distinctions between the Direct Method, as it originally evolved in Europe at the turn of the century, and the Oral Approach together with the later Situational Language Teaching, as they developed in England from the 1920s through the 1960s. Larsen-Freeman follows the more conventional American definition of the Direct method, which is

often variously, and confusingly, also referred to as the Oral Approach by many people. Hence, what Larsen-Freeman characterizes as the Direct Method more closely resembles what Richards and Rodgers characterize as the Oral Approach/Situational Language Teaching. This is all very confusing to readers of both books, but this kind of confusion is presumably what originally prompted Richards and Rodgers to develop their approach-design-procedure model. On another level, this confusion also quite accurately mirrors the kinds of confusion we face in the real world of language classrooms, where, as we show below, methods and approaches do not always fall between neatly drawn lines.

Richards and Rodgers' international perspective also allows them to trace the differences between British and American approaches to language teaching and show how these two traditions have evolved from quite different bases. This is a particularly useful distinction in light of subsequent developments in language teaching, where the influence of the British tradition was the impetus for the currently influential Communicative Approach.

Leaving aside the question of perspective, let us now see how far Richards and Rodgers' framework really helps teachers to make informed decisions about what they do.

First, the three-way distinction of approach, design and procedure leads to a certain amount of repetition since we are introduced to certain techniques as a part of design and then the same techniques are discussed again under procedure. This repetition may be confusing to the novice teacher. Equally confusing is the way in which a rigorous application of their framework leads Richards and Rodgers to seemingly different conclusions from Larsen-Freeman. According to the Richards and Rodgers framework, Grammar Translation cannot be considered

an approach since it has no strong basis in either linguistics or education, while in Larsen-Freeman's book it can; such fine distinctions may be troublesome to the inexperienced teacher.

Although the application of Richards and Rodgers' model may potentially lead to a greater rigor in defining methods and approaches, there are a number of omissions and contradictions in the book, and it is not always clear whether these represent a weakness in the editing or a weakness in the tripartite distinction itself. An example of this is the number of contradictory statements regarding the roots of the Oral Approach/Situational Language Teaching in relation to the Direct Method. On page 61, for instance, the authors draw attention to the similarities between audiolingualism and situational language teaching (SLT), but note that the major difference between them lies in the fact that SLT evolved from *the earlier Direct Method' and did not have the strong ties with linguistics and behavioral psychology that audiolingualism did. However, on page 42, the authors have described SLT as a development of 'the earlier Oral Approach, and on page 33 have argued that the Oral Approach, as mediated by British applied linguists like Palmer and Hornby, should not ▪be confused with the Direct Method.' Inconsistencies of this order make it hard for 'the method to speak for itself' or indeed for 'readers to make their own appraisals' (p. viii).

There are a number of instances in the book where approaches do not appear to fit neatly into Richards and Rodgers' framework, but ooze messily across categories. Two examples of this can be found in the discussion of cognitive code learning theory and communicative language teaching (CLT).

Cognitive code learning is characterized as 'temporary relief" from audiolingualism, but is dismissed from serious consideration because *no clear-cut

methodological guidelines emerged, nor did any particular method incorporating this view of learning' (p. 60). It is briefly summarized as relating to 'any conscious attempt to organize materials around a grammatical syllabus while allowing for meaningful practice and use of language' (p. 60). However, this description closely resembles the description of Situational Language Teaching: "knowledge of structures must be linked to the situations in which they can be used' (p. 35). Not surprisingly, the reader is curious to know in more detail exactly what differentiating features raise SLT to the status of approach and demote Cognitive Code to 'temporary relief."

At another level, this apparent dismissal of the contribution of Cognitive Code learning might give the novice teacher the impression that classrooms in the United States swept from audiolingualism to communicative language teaching almost overnight. This of course misrepresents the reality of many classrooms, where the influence of cognitive code learning is still clearly in evidence today. In fact, its influence is probably much more clearly felt than the influence of Suggestopedia or Community Language Learning, to which the authors devote considerably more time and space. Although Richards and Rodgers allude to the period of confusion which marked classroom practice in the wake of audiolingualism and preceding the onset of the Communicative Approach, they do not subject this period to any rigorous analysis, possibly because it does not fit the mold of approach, design and procedure.

In their discussion of the Communicative Approach, however, Richards and Rodgers frankly admit to a lack of 'fit' within their paradigm. According to the authors there is "no single model that is universally accepted as authoritative" (p. 66), and its theoretical base is characterized as 'rich ... if somewhat eclectic,' as if this were essentially problematic. Yet, given that the Communicative Approach

endorses a view of language that is dynamic and variable, and hence significantly more complex than the views endorsed by earlier approaches, we must surely expect it to span broader bases. Nevertheless, Richards and Rodgers seem determined to make it 'fit' by speculating that in the future its eclectic nature might be resolved and it might achieve *a status similar to other approaches and methods.' However, rather than making the approach fit the paradigm, it might be more appropriate to consider this lack of fit as the Communicative Approach's at empt to serve the learning/teaching process in ways other approaches do not.

In both books, there are several curious omissions. There is no discussion of English for Specific Purposes, content-based teaching or of more recent moves towards task-based learning. Furthermore, there is little principled discussion of the procedures for the testing and evaluation normally associated with each approach, although Larsen-Freeman makes a perfunctory move in this direction. The avoidance of this issue unfortunately perpetuates the dangerous isolation of testing procedure from teaching procedure.

In general, these books offer teachers both a service and a disservice. Compartmentalizing major trends in language teaching pedagogy into eight or nine chapters can give the impression that lines can be neatly drawn around different approaches, methods and techniques. Perhaps the current popularity of such books is due, in part, to approaches, like Suggestopedia, the Silent Way and Community Language Learning, which, in their strong forms, do appear to have marked boundaries that make them obviously distinct from other approaches. But in their strong forms, these approaches reflect only minutely the kinds of classroom practice that characterize the teaching of English around the world today. Neither book, however, makes any attempt to assess the spread

of any one approach on a worldwide basis. It might be illuminating for teacher trainees to realize that Grammar-Translation, in global terms, far outstrips Community Language Learning, for example. This sense of the real world is not captured in either book.

Furthermore, approaches are anchored in idealized classrooms, peopled with idealized learners. We are never invited to view an approach from the most important perspective: that of the learners themselves. As a result, we are left with the impression that in the world of methods books, there are no TOEFL scores, no prescribed texts to follow, no overworked teachers, no overcrowded classes, no faulty equipment and no bored or unmotivated students. And yet all practitioners know that real classrooms are marked by fuzzy boundaries and gray areas. In order to help us really examine why we do what we do, perhaps our starting point should be a consideration of the fuzziness and the grayness, rather than the analysis of idealized methods, presented as a set of 'finished products.' These two books take us some--but by no means all--of the way.

REFERENCES

Anthony, Edward M. 1963. Approach, method, and technique. English Language Teaching 17:63-67.

Richards, Jack C. and Theodore Rodgers. 1982. Method: approach, design, procedure. TESOL Quarterly 16(2):153-168.

USING CHILDREN'S LITERATURE WITH PRIMARY ESL CHILDREN

Sheila C. Cullen
Lake Oswego School District

In light of recent trends in teaching ESL, trends encouraging methods which are less grammar-based and more holistic, teachers of ESL students in the primary grades should consider using the rich resources of children's literature. By selecting books carefully and using appropriate methods of presentation we can provide our young students with comprehensible input in the language, with examples of conversational style, with their new language in rich context, and with many aspects of their new culture. This paper suggests criteria for selecting appropriate and profitable books for primary ESL students, characterizes twenty-five such books according to those criteria, and outlines several considerations in the use of the books. The intelligent use of chidren's literature can assist young ESL students in their efforts to achieve competence both in their new language and their new culture.

There is a lingering myth, even in educational circles, that young children will 'pick up' English as fast as is necessary with virtually no assistance. Teachers of elementary ESL students know, however, that the time between the child's arriving in an English-speaking culture and achieving competence in English can be a painful period of isolation, helplessness, and diminishing self-esteem. Therefore, it is important to both student and teacher that efficient teaching methods be used to shorten this stressful time. Adaptation of methods used for older students have been tried, but grammar-based methods are difficult to use with primary children since the children are not mature enough for the kinds of abstractions often presented in those systems. More and more ESL

researchers are advising teachers to increase comprehensible input for their students and to present language naturally and in context. As the trend in ESL pedagogy moves away from grammar-based methods toward more humanistic and interpersonal approaches (Raimes 1983), teachers of elementary children look for specific ways in which to implement the new insights for the benefit of their students.

One potential source of much that is colorful and communicative in the English language is literature in English. There are some references in research to the use of literature with ESL students but these usually refer to adult literature for adult or near-adult students. The methods used usually depend on sophisticated and abstract language usage. In her article about using literature in the ESL classroom, McKay emphasizes the value of presenting language in discourse, within a social context (McKay 1982). This advantage of presenting language in context can be exploited just as effectively with young children as with high school or college level students. Contextual use of language can help the student build listening comprehension because, as Schacter points out, one facilitator of comprehension is an enriched context, one which makes a substantial contribution to the meaning of an utterance.' (1983, p. 182) These concerns of context are part of the previously mentioned shift in perspective in ESL teaching. Taylor says (1982, quoting Brumfit, 1980) "the current climate seems to favor a somewhat less structured approach to language teaching--one which reflects the fact that linguistic functions and situations are flexible, fluid, dynamic and negotiable.' H. Taylor emphasizes the importance of helping students learn to 'tolerate language they don't know," letting it 'flow by' while "concentrating on words or phrases they can identify.' (1981, p. 43)

John Oller, Jr. summed up many of the benefits of using literature in ESL teaching in an article

entitled *Storywriting Principles and ESL Teaching" (1983). He suggested that techniques employed in story telling can help ESL instruction by making materials meaningful through using experience organized into texts, comprehensible through utilizing the expectancy inherent in the experience of listening to a story, and recallable by organizing the texts into episodes, which are easier to store in the memory and to recall than non-episodic material. Certainly children's literature is as rich in meaningful, comprehensible, recallable language for children as adult literature is for adults.

Selecting Children's Literature When we consider using children's literature, it is necessary to decide what our objectives will be, and therefore, by what criteria appropriate material will be selected. This paper considers the needs of beginning ESL students in primary grades who are pre-reading or beginning readers in their own language. These children may have very limited association of print, sound and meaning. They may lack what mainstream teachers refer to as *reading readiness.' Children's literature can help build reading readiness by strengthening the print:sound:meaning association. It can provide comprehensible input. By presenting language in context, often aided by vivid illustrations, it can help the young ESL learner to a more comfortable familiarity with the new culture. Through the simple conversations and amusing repetition found in many favorite children's books, conversational style, appropriate intonation and stress patterns, and certain set phrases can be easily acquired by the young listener. Finally, children's books provide the students with ways to vent some of the feelings which have had no means of expression in their new language. So, for the past four years we have been using a large variety of children's books to meet five basic needs:

a. comprehensible input including certain basic, concrete vocabulary

b. familiarization with conversational style
c. context and cultural familiarization
d. phrase and set pattern acquisition
e. expression of feelings.

The books which have best met these needs have been selected according to the following criteria:

1. There is little text in the books; some have none. Many wonderful books--folktales and the like--are not appropriate for the students in question and should be used at a later stage; they contain too much incomprehensible language and are just so much frustrating noise to the young listeners. (Some of them, however, can be used for the illustrations alone.)

2. The text is illuminated by appropriate and charming illustrations. (Charming is clearly a question of individual taste; the books which work best please both students and teacher.)

3. There is either interesting and important vocabulary material presented--colors, numbers, clothing words, prepositions, and the like--or there is a simple story which can be well understood with the aid of the illustrations.

4. In some books there are simple conversational exchanges which introduce the student to certain set patterns of communicative language.

5. Books dealing with feeling expression in simple, understandable language are highly desirable.

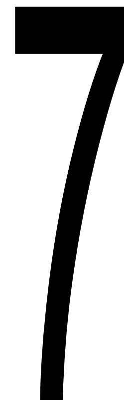
Analysis of Representative Books Figure 1 (see p. 77) is a chart analyzing twenty-five books which meet the criteria above. This list is meant to furnish representative examples and to demonstrate the selection process. Many equally suitable books exist; by using the criteria listed above, a

children's librarian can help the ESL teacher find other effective books.

The vocabulary column in Figure 1 refers to specific lexical items included in the book such as colors, animals, etc. The alphabet is included under this heading; for an ESL child in a mainstream primary classroom, the alphabet is one of the more easily learned and frequently alluded to areas of the language. By doing some work toward familiarization with the alphabet--not working zealously for memorization--we help our students to make sense of one more aspect of their linguistic environment and to begin to reduce the chaos in their schoolroom lives.

The cultural information referred to in Column 2 Includes such broadly defined areas as family life, birthday celebrations, schoolroom activities, etc. Conversation (Column 3) is measured by a percentage which is calculated by dividing the number of lines of dialogue by the number of lines of text in the book. Set Phrases (Column 4) are such expressions as *I don't like...,' question words (*What's a ...?*), *Good morning,* etc., which are acquired by children as wholes rather than as grammatically reasoned constructions. Column 5 notes feelings directly expressed or dealt with in the book. Examples are fear, happiness, death of a grandparent and the accompanying feelings.

<u>Method of Using Children's Literature</u> Working with the ESL students and these books must be done in very small groups--twos and threes. All children must be able to see the pictures clearly, and at times the text, as they hear the story read. This will be a difficulty in some teaching situations where the class is rather large. There are many elementary ESL arrangements, however, which involve small numbers of children or some time of individualized instruction. In those situations which do not offer these opportunities, the reading of the



books--only ten minutes or so a day--can often be delegated to an aide, a parent volunteer, or even a sympathetic and able older child. The important elements of this method are 1) that the ESL students be able to see the book easily and examine each page as thoroughly as they like, 2) that they hear the text read clearly, meaningfully, and enthusiastically, and 3) that they have someone to turn to for verification of their language hypotheses. By this third element I do not mean a translation check. I mean that someone should be there to respond appropriately when the student chortles, "He scared!" or 'Yummy!" The responding person--teacher, aide, or helper--by quick, affirmative and encouraging response to these "trial balloons* can do much to build the child's confidence that English can make sense, that it is possible to express meaning in the new language, and that books are pleasing and communicative.

Recording a story on a cassette for use by the child is a possibility, but the teacher must be certain that the students have been thoroughly trained in the use of a cassette player and can be relied upon to turn the page at appropriate times. This method makes the comprehension confirmation mentioned above more difficult and it is a less-reliable method, but it can be used for students in a large class or in a mainstreamed class.

<u>Summary</u> Many language teachers and researchers are convinced that language acquisition requires broad exposure to the target language: hearing langauge used meaningfully, and hearing a variety of registers and styles used in their appropriate contexts. Nowhere is language used more colorfully, more meaningfully, or with more gusto than in a well-written book for children. Bringing our young ESL learners and these books together can help build the kind of contextual and cultural familiarity the students need to master their new language. At the same time, we can bring our students more quickly to

confident and meaningful communication with their English-speaking peers, and out of their linguistic isolation.

Figure 1. NALTsts OP REPRESENTATIVE cumnREN's NOOKS

VOCABULARY	CULTURAL	elVERSATION	SET PHRASES	
1. THE SCHOOL by Dick Brune				
colors school Items	school day rhyming	16%	Goad morning Happy birthday Good-bye	
R. LITTLE MOHSTER'S COUNTING BOOK by Mercer Ha				
body parts common nouns	amusing monsters	none	How many...?	
1. ANIMAL BABIES by Ylla				
baby animals farm/zoo	zoo farm	tWARI.	teacher may use: This in a .... These are....	FEELINGS
4. ED EHBERLEY'S ABC by Ed Ember ley				
alphabet animals verbs	Fantasy humor animals as people	none		
5. THE SPOODOLD TREE by Stan and iperenstain				
prepositions common verbs	humor Halloween rhyming	none	three little bears home again	spookiness' Feeling safe

6. DIRTY LARRY by Bobbie Hamsa

body parts	child's daily activities rhyming	none	get dirty adjective/noun placement	

7. BUSY DAY: A BOOK OF ACTION WORDS by Betsy and Guido Maestro

verbs i-ing form) animals	circus animals as people	none		

R. NOAH'S ARK by Peter Spier

animals weather	Noah's ark story	no text	Teacher may use: What's this? What's that?	

9. WHAT TABBIT THE RABBIT FOUND by Jean lee Latham

colors prepositions toys	household	64%	...is not here Wire is.... Where is...?	

10. LITTLE BEAR by Else Hinarik

vegetables animals clothing	birthday birthday cake mother/child relationship	751	Happy birthday ...to put on Go out to play. Thank you. Good-night.	affection

11. ARNO'S JOURNEY by Mitsumasa Anno

common verbs common nouns	folktale references in illustrations farm and small town Northern Europe)	no text	Teacher may use: Where is...? There is.... Look at the....	

12. TRAFFIC: A BOOK OF OPPOSITES by Betsey and Guido Maestro

opposites traffic words verb to go	travel forms city patterns	none		

13. HAVE YOU SEEN HY BROTHER? by Elizabeth Guilfolle

community workers locations In town family	helpful police officer brother relationship	691	Have you seen...? Let's go....	Being lost

11. FROG AHD TOAD TOGETHER by Arnold Lobel

animals common verbs	making a list planting a garden theatre	501	things to do Therel I am not.... all the way	bravery impatience friendship remorse

15. THE DAY JIMMY'S BOA ATE THE HASH by Trinka Noble and Steven Kellogg

farm animals past tense verbs	school field trip farm pet snake	1001	Men g ... Question words Hot really.	hilarity excitement fear

SIN3WW03 aNy cn to 1-3 ON

16. PEACE AT LAST by Jill Murphy

household	family bedtime	226	I can't stand....	annoyance
rooms of a house			fie got up.	
			went to sleep	

17. IF I BUILT A VILLAGE by Razue Mizumura

geographical terms	concern for ecology	none	If I....
animals			Use of conditional
prepositions			

18. WHERE IN THE WHILE' IS HENRY? by Lorna Dalian

prepositions	household	100%	Where In the world....
location words	surprise ending		

I . GREEN EGGS AHD HAM by Dr. Seuss (T. Geisel)

prepositions	fantasy	la0%	I do not like....
animals	humor		Thank you.
common nouns			Would you...?
			Could you...?

20. HALLOWEEN WITH MORRIS AND BORIS by.Bernard Wiseman

Halloween vocabulary
customs 59%
household vocabulary
knowl amusement
pin-the-tail-on-the-donkey

Halloween
Hooray! fear
games: bobbing for apples'
Trick-or-Treatl
Let me do it.

NOTES AND COMMENTS

21. RED FOX AHD HIS CANOE by Nathaniel Benchley

animals	Native American boy	451	All right.	cockiness
possessives	people/animals conversing		Oh, boyl	panic
			get rid of	
			Get outl	

22. THE CAT IN THE HAT by Dr. Seuss IT. Geleeli

household	rhyming	571	something to do	fear
common verbs	fantasy		Look at mei	excitement
modals			That's not all.	

22. TEDDY BEARS' MOVING DAY by Susanna Gretz

household	moving day	!11	fast asleep	being lost
	acceptability of crying			sadness
				being teased

24. WITCH, GOBLIN,AnD GHOST by Sue Alexander

common verbs	sharing	531	hide-and-neck	courage
	cooperation		I'm sorry.	fear
	picnics		I'm hungry.	loneliness
			Once upon a time...	

25. NAHA UPSTAIRS, NAHA DOWNSTAIRS by Tomie de Paolo

household	visiting grandmother/ great-grandmother	271	I would....	love for
				sadness at
				death

[i] Aithough we do not follow a rigid order, these books are listed in approximately the order they would be used.

REFERENCES

McKay, Sandra. 1982. 'Literature in the ESL Classroom.' Tesol Quarterly 16:4.

Oiler, John W., Jr. 1983. *Story Writing Principles and ESL Teaching.* Tesol Quarterly 17:1.

Raimes, Ann. 1983. 'Tradition and Revolution in ESL Teaching.* Tesol Quarterly 17:4.

Schachter, Jacquelyn. 1982. 'Nutritional Needs of Language Learners." On Tesol.

Taylor, Barry P. 1982. 'In Search of Real Reality.* Tesol Quarterly 16:1.

Taylor, Harvey M. 1981. 'Learning to Listen to English.' Tesol Quarterly 15:1.

PROJECT BITE: A DEMONSTRATION PROJECT IN THE USE OF COMPUTERS IN ESL INSTRUCTION*

Norman Johnson
Lane Community College

Project Bite, located at Madison High School in Portland Oregon, is a federally funded demonstration program for bilingual education. The project planners set out to strengthen writing by ESL students at the secondary level through the use of computer-assisted instruction in conjunction with bilingual classroom aides. Project Bite has focused in particular on the writing needs of intermediate and advanced ESL secondary students from Indochina. These students, many of whom came to the U.S. as refugees in large numbers in the period from 1975 to 1983, often lack the background in formal education of their peers and have proven a challenge to integrate into the academic orientation of contemporary secondary schools. The bilingual aides are adults selected from each of the ethnic populations from Indochina represented in the Portland Schools. They explain directions for the completion of assignments and assist students with the operation of the classroom equipment.

During the first CAI ESL course, students are introduced to computers and their operation along with a simple word processing program. Students are taught the steps of the writing process - pre-writing, first draft, revising, editing, and preparing a

---

*This article appeared in CALL Digest, Vol. 1, No. 9. Reprinted by permission.

final draft. They are also taught three different writing styles - narrative, descriptive, and explanatory. Students work on grammar and usage problems as needed on an individualized basis with the help of drill and practice software programs. (Grammar and usage is taught in the regular, non-CAI ESL classes that all ESL students are required to take.) Students in CAI II learn some BASIC programming, continue to develop skills related to the writing process, and expand writing work to include journal writing, various types of correspondence, resumes and completing job applications. Finally in CAI III students are introduced to a second word processing program, taught how to use a variety of graphics packages to illustrate their writing and are taught to do persuasive writing, an autobiographical sketch, a biographical sketch, and poetry.

It should be noted that CAI ESL is an elective that ESL students can select if they meet the entrance requirements. At present there are approximately 200 ESL students at Madison High School and 53 of these are enrolled in Project Bite classes. Each class meets for 45 minutes each school day and most students spend about three days a week doing work on the computers. The rest of the time is spent in teacher directed activities, writing out first drafts with pen and paper, and completing grammar and vocabulary worksheets as needed.

As a federally funded demonstration project, Project Bite planners have had the funds to develop a variety of support materials including a curriculum guide with learning objectives cross-referenced with available computer software programs; student profile cards for keeping track of individual student progress; class record books to facilitate grouping of students where appropriate; a large teacher handbook with tests, suggested materials, and teacher directed activities; and a staff training manual. (These materials will be available to other interested programs

in a limited supply from the Project Bite office in the spring of 1986.) They have also maintained careful records of student test scores on city-wide standardized achievement tests in comparison with similar students not receiving the computer-assisted instruction. After one year the project has shown substantially greater gains in both reading and writing scores by the CAI ESL students when compared with non-CAI ESL students in other programs across the city.

Cynthia Cosgrove of the Project Bite staff shared the following observations on the benefits of CAI for ESL students and the conditions for successful program implementation. She observed that during the course of the year the CAI ESL students became more independent learners. They showed higher levels of motivation than their peers and greater self-confidence. She found that they were better able to organize their thinking and to stay on task to the completion of an assignment. Cynthia reflected that in order for a CAI program to be successful it needs to be recognized as important by the school administration - that means full credit as a high school class in this case; teachers need to know the software to be used; they need clear goals for the computer use; and they need pre- and post-testing to validate learning. For further information about Project Bite contact Cynthia Cosgrove at Project Bite, Portland Public Schools ESL/Bilingual Program, 531 SE 14th Ave. Rm. 101, Portland, OR 97214 USA.

TEACHER AS RESEARCHER

Sarah J. Klinghammer
University of Oregon

Recently, there has been interest displayed in the role of teacher as researcher and self-evaluator. However, there has been little direction available to guide teachers who might be interested in doing their own classroom-oriented, practical research of evaluation. This paper, a synopsis of a presentation at TRI-TESOL 85, is an attempt to make the idea of research more plausible to teachers; to explain various types of research teachers might use and give examples of simple classroom research that might be undertaken. The paper is divided into three parts; 1) practical and relatively simple things we can do to examine our classes more objectively, 2) a short description of types of research that are used in the behavioral sciences, and 3) focus on one type of research (single subject design) that has potential for classroom use.

First we need to look at two definitions of research. Academic research is defined as the process of discovering the relationships between two or more variables. It requires careful, disciplined procedures. However, the classroom teacher has usually neither the time nor the money to engage in rigidly designed, carefully controlled research. Rather we can think in terms of Webster's definition of research, "a studious inquiry, examination, or investigation,' in our case investigation into what is really going on in our classrooms.

We in the field of ESL tend to operate under an *it works' mentality. We try something in our classes and then decide, often based on rather nebulous results or feelings ("the students had a good time"), whether 'it works" or not. We tell a friend

about it or present it at a conference where other teachers think it's a good idea (or not) and try it in their classes. At the end of such trials, we are apt to claim that 'the students* are 'able to do" this or that. Who are 'the students?' What does 'able to do" mean?

There is still much unknown about learning, but one thing is known; classes do not learn, individuals do. 'It works' leaves the teacher at the class level. It often means that two or three students do the thing well, three do it fairly well, another three-five do it better than before, three-five sort of get the idea, and three-five can't do it at all (but their attention/attendance wasn't good anyway, so they don't count). We need to look more closely into the results of our teaching. In fact, we need to look more closely at our teaching, at ourselves. Why do various techniques 'work' for some teachers and not others, with some classes and not others?

There are some excellent ways of looking at our own classrooms to discover what's happening there. Most of them are techniques which have long been used in the field of education (or at least talked about) and which ESL teachers in the public schools are, no doubt, already familiar with.

LOOKING AT THE CLASSROOM

How many of us have seen, or heard, ourselves teach on video or audio tape? Probably not many. If we have, what information was received from the experience and how was it used? Were behavior patterns affected? Probably not much. When viewing ourselves on video we usually become aware of mannerisms, clothes, and verbal tics (okay, you know), but seldom are able to see our own problems of substance. These must be pointed out by a 'neutral other." Therefore, for such data to be effective we need to monitor it

with a trusted peer or supervisor. And it cannot be done in a "Let's see what you've done wrong' spirit. This approach merely raises defenses and blocks useful communication. Before doing the monitoring both parties should know something about peer coaching or clinical supervision techniques. See Acheson and Gall (1980) for a good description of these. A first step, then, is to look at ourselves, objectively.

A second step could be to look at the classroom. It is possible to set up a camera to video tape the whole class, or to ask an observer to come in to take notes or make charts showing student-teacher verbal interactions, student-student interactions, question-answer patterns, physical movement, use of time, at-task behavior, etc. It is also possible to analyze discourse, looking at the same types of things, as well as teacher directions, verbal and non-verbal messages conveyed, etc. For examples of how to do some of the above see Acheson and Hansen (1973) and Good and Brophy (1984).

A third step could be to look at testing. There are some fairly simple procedures for making a test more reliable and valid, from having someone read it in advance to check for errors and confusing questions, to doing an item analysis, to having someone else grade it. Some suggestions for writing and analyzing tests are in Hopkins and Stanley (1981).

All of the above suggestions are ways of looking more objectively at our classrooms. They are all what I am calling research, or investigation. And looking carefully at classrooms can raise other questions, questions which can stimulate other kinds of research. In contemplating this research, there are two preliminary questions to ask; 1) What do I want to know, and 2) How can I get that information? Because different information is desired for different purposes, there are different types of research.

TYPES OF RESEARCH

Following is a brief summary of five general types of research designs, techniques used in each, and the kind of question that each might answer. For a more detailed explanation see Borg and Gall (1983).

Ethnographic research is done for the purpose of describing and interpreting cultural behavior. It uses interviews, surveys, observations, and written material, such as diaries, life histories, etc. It might be used to answer the question, "What belief systems are evident in the teaching approaches used by the teachers in our school?'

Descriptive research is done to characterize a sample of students, teachers, school buildings, textbooks, etc., on one or more variables. It uses observation, survey, questionnaires, and interviews. Questions such a design might *answer* are, "How is classroom space utilized,' or 'What is the frequency of student initiated verbal interaction?' (This is an excellent design for looking at classrooms.)

Correlational research is done to explore relationships between variables and predict scores on one variable from scores on another. It compares subjects in whom a pattern is present with similar subjects in whom it's absent. This kind of research shows relationship, but not cause. It might answer a question like, 'Do students who take TOEFL classes do better on the TOEFL exam than those who don't?"

Experimental research is done to establish cause-effect relationships between two or more variables. This kind of research limits itself to two variables and is very carefully controlled, usually in a laboratory. It is difficult and expensive. A question might be, 'Does cigarette smoking cause cancer in mice?"

Single subject or Single case design is done to determine the effect of an intervention on one subject or a small group of subjects. It is particularly useful in the social and biological sciences. It uses such techniques as visual inspection, replication, marking behavior over time, and social validation. It might be used to answer a questions such as, 'Does this instructional program I've developed change the spelling behavior of the two students in my *class* who have serious spelling problems7 [6]

It is this last design that I feel has interesting potential for the ESL classroom. It was originally developed for the purpose of gradually changing behavior patterns and could be used effectively in dealing with spelling, handwriting, subject-verb agreement, and other chronic problems in the ESL classroom.

In summary, the message is that research in the classroom is both possible and desirable. And it is only through research that we will be able to see the objective reality of our classes, thereby establishing a foundation for substantial rather than merely facile improvement.

REFERENCES

Acheson, K. A. and Gall, M. D. 1980. Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers. New York: Longman.

Acheson, K. A. and Hansen, J. H. 1973. Classroom Observations and Conferences with Teachers. Tallahassee, Fla.: T.I.P.S. (P.O. Box 20011-Zip 32304)

Agar, M. 1980. The Professional Stranger; An Informal Introduction to Ethnography. New York: Academic Press.

Borg, W. R. and Gall, M. D. 1983. Educational Research. New York: Longman.

Good, T. L. and Brophy, J. E. 1984. Looking in Classrooms. New York: Harper and Row.

Hopkins, K. D. and Stanley, J. C. 1981. Educational and Psychological Measurement and Evaluation, sixth edition. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Kazdin, A. E. 1982. Single-Case Research Designs. New York: Oxford University Press.

ASPECTS OF ENGLISH TEACHING IN CHINA: WHY CAN'T FOREIGNERS CONFER WITH CHINESE LEARNERS SUCCESSFULLY?

Ho Yeh-hua
Tongji Medical University
People's Republic of China

"Foreign visitors to China often complain that they can not hold a sustained conversation with Chinese who are eager to talk with foreigners and anxious to improve their English," a correspondent said in a report. Why can't some Chinese learners keep their conversations lasting smoothly? The causes are many and varied. The speakers may not share the assumed topics of a conversation, Chinese speakers may not be quite familiar with the topics they choose, or they may have a poor foundation in English, but one of the primary causes worthy to be mentioned is due to the present English teaching in China.

A successful conversation involves a large field of approaches as well as strategies, including principles of conversational co-operation, strategies for the realization of speech acts, adjacency pairs, openings and closings, topic choice, turn-taking and repair tactics. My paper, based on some of the above, aims at analyzing the present status of English teaching in China, which hinders a conversation from lasting with success between a Chinese and a foreigner. And therefore I hold that a prompt improvement should be made.

For a long time, the grammar-translation approach has prevailed in China. English teaching in China stresses surface structures but neglects deep structures. When the surface structures agree with their deep structures, the understanding of foreign partners is realized and the conversation goes on.

NOTES AND COMMENTS

Very often the surface structures disagree with their deep structures and thus the disagreement will bring about some misunderstanding and a conversation can't go on successfully.

(1) A: Where did you buy that shirt?
B: I bought it in the supermarket.

In (1), A's utterance is a special interrogative question inquiring the place where B bought that shirt. Because of the agreement of the surface structure with its deep one, B's *answer is* to the point.

(2) A: Would you mind getting me a glass of water?
B: No, I wouldn't.

In (2), the surface structure of A's utterance is that of a yes/no question but its deep structure is equivalent to that of an imperative -- 'Please get me a glass of water." B's misunderstanding, of course, results in 'No, I would not.' In language teaching, Chinese teachers of English tend to treat all questions, especially yes/no questions, as if they belonged to a single adjacency pair, namely request for information-answer. Thus they teach students to reply to yes/no questions with yes/no plus repetition of the verb or auxiliary used in the question. As a consequence, many students are capable of short stilted replies such as yes, I am, no, I'm not, which, while grammatically right, may be functionally inappropriate. In example (2), A must be disappointed at B's response and the conversation can't go on successfully. Consider the following example:

(3) A: Are these apples fresh? (at home)
B: Yes, they are.
B: I just bought them, help yourself.

B has misunderstood the function and made a yes/no response which A doesn't expect, whereas B has given the correct answer to what A implies.

Over a long period, dictionary meanings of words have been taught. English teaching in China stresses literal meaning of an utterance, but neglects its speech acts , illocutionary acts in particular. When the literal meaning of an utterance happens to agree with its indirect speech acts , a conversation can last, but otherwise it may break down.

(4) A: Are you a foreigner? (to a stranger)
B: Yes, I'm. I'm from England.
(5) A: Isn't it hot in here? (in an office)
B: Yes, it is.
B: Let me turn on the air-conditioner.

In (4) A's utterance has functioned as a question, so B's response is right. In (5), A's utterance has to a large extent functioned as a request, being equivalent to 'Please open the windows' or 'Please turn on the air-conditioner.' so B's response is pointless, but B's is appropriate. In (4), the literal meaning is a questionable matter and A's indirect speech act is a question, while in (5), its literal meaning is a questionable matter, but A's indirect speech act is a request. They are not in accordance with each other and thus B's ignorance of that causes B's inappropriate answer.

There are hundreds of verbs in English like ask, request, direct, requite, order, command, suggest, 222, plead, etc., which mark speech acts. These verbs show the similarity between literal meaning and any further meanings--between direct speech acts and indirect speech acts.

(6) A: I warn you not to touch it again. (warning)
B: Yes, I see. Thank you.
(7) A: I suggest that you see a psychiatrist as soon as possible.
B: I will if time permits.

But the speech acts are not simply equivalent to the verbs which name them. Without those verbs in an utterance, Chinese learners are usually unaware of those and fail in conversations. Consider the following examples:

(8) A: Hello. Is Mr. Simatapung there please?
(indirect speech act: summons)
B: Yes. (response to a question-failure)
A: Oh,...may I speak to him please?
(indirect speech act: request)
B: Yes. (response to a question-failure)
A: Oh,...are you Mr. Simatapung?
(indirect speech act: question)

B: Yes. This is Mr. Simatapung.
(response to a question - success)

Here B answers A's questions as if they were existential ones rather than a summons or request, and thus the failure for B to interpret the intended speech acts makes the conversation redundant.

The above mistake is often made by Chinese learners, who tend to stick too close to the surface literal meaning of an utterance, and as a consequence, they often miss the intended illocutionary meaning. A conversation is a more difficult task to accomplish. Let's read the following dialogues to see how well the conversational partners co-operate.

(9) A: Jimmy. (summons)
B: Coming mother.
A: You left the tap running. (blame)
B: It wasn't me.
A: It's half past six. (warning)
B: Sorry I'm late.

(10) A: Can I have some more coffee?
(request)
B: Sure. Help yourself.

A: Do you have the time? cigarette.
(offering)
B: I don't smoke, thanks.

For a long time, Chinese teachers of English have been busy in class, teaching one word after another, one subject after another and one skill after another. They stress the surface literal meanings of words, phrases and idioms of an utterance but neglect the introduction of the felicitous conditions in which an illocution is used with them. Native speakers of English and Chinese learners have different customs, beliefs, life-styles and behaviors--different cultures, in short. As Chinese learners know little about the felicitous conditions of an illocution and about cultures of a target country, they often use the targe language in an infelicitous condition of even in a wrong way, thus often causing troubles in a conversation.

Sometimes Chinese learners of English offer foreigners help by saying *What do you want?" instead of 'Can I help you?"

Sometimes they express their politeness by answering 'No, not well at all." to the praise 'You speak English very well." instead of 'Thank you."

Sometimes they give their suggestions indiscriminately by saying 'You should..., you ought to..., you'd better...," etc. instead of "I would like you to..., would you (please)..., would you mind doing...,' etc.

Of course the inappropriate offering, greeting, thanking, or apologizing makes American or English friends rather puzzled, confused and even annoyed, and the conversation is uncomfortable. Ignorance of the felicitous illocutions, mainly because of the cross cultural differences, gives rise to the mistake of Chinese learners. Expressions would not be

felicitously applied or a conversation couldn't last harmoniously unless Chinese teachers of English paid proper attention to the introduction of the circumstances the expressions are used in as well as some cultural background information about them.

No doubt the traditional grammar has played significant roles and still needs to be applied in our teaching. The problem is that some newer linguistics theories should be further studied and taught in colleges or in universities on the basis of the knowledge of grammar. No doubt English can be mastered through practice. The problem is how more efficient practice is performed under the direction of linguistics. It's wrong if a teacher of English holds that it is enough for him to get himself acquainted with grammar, remember as many words as possible and practice better skills in reading, listening, speaking and writing, and that he needs to pay little attention to the study of linguistics and the role a linguistic theory plays in his teaching. Are the troubles in the conversations not reasonable? Are they not stimulating examples that some of the Chinese teachers of English neglect the study of linguistic theory? Is it worthwhile pondering over how the language teaching and learning is made more efficient under the direction of linguistics? It is obvious that without the direction of linguistic theory, our teaching has presented many defects and Chinese learners have suffered from the present teaching. So certain improvement in our teaching and adjustment of course programs are necessary and more desirable. In this connection, I would like to conclude by providing the following proposals:

a) Chinese teachers of English should not stick only to grammar, which can't solve all language problems or explain all language phenomena, but give importance to the study of linguistics and put it into practice in their teaching. Linguists and experts both in the U.S.A. and in Britain should

X AL ih. 111=111 L Mill

introduce more theoretical books to Chinese readers and learners.

b) It's necessary that Chinese university students majoring in English make a detailed study of linguistics. They should not make just a brief survey of linguistics. A course of linguistics should be designed thereby.

c) It's also necessary that Chinese university students not taking English as their major course make a brief survey of linguistics. A course of or lectures on linguistics should be designed thereby.

d) Chinese teachers of English who are working in colleges and universities should study or restudy linguistics or should be trained or retrained by linguists, both at home and abroad, step by step in a planned way.

Mr

FOOTNOTES

[1] Speech acts are meaning perlocutions and illocutions: 'Perlocutions' are responses made by the hearer to an utterance, and 'illocutions', acts performed by the speaker making the utterance.

[2] Illocutionary acts (illoctuions) are acts made by the speaker making the utterance.

[3] lndirect speech acts are some additional meanings which are not stated directly by the speaker. Direct speech acts are the literal meanings stated most directly by the grammatical form and vocabulary of the sentence uttered.

REFERENCES

Austin, J. L. 1962. How to do Things with Words, by J. O. Urmson. Oxford University Press, New York.

Grice, H. P. 1975. Logic and Conversation. Harvard University Press.

Hurford, J. R. 1984. Semantics: A Course Book. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. H. 1969. Speech Acts. New York: Cambridge University Press.

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

EDITORIAL POLICY

The *ORTESOL Journal,* a professional, refereed journal, encourages submission of previously unpublished articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, especially in elementary and secondary schools, and in higher education, adult education, and bilingual education. As a publication which represents a variety of cross-disciplinary interests, both theoretical and practical, the Journal invites manuscripts on a wide range of topics, especially in the following areas.

1. psychology and sociology of language learning and teaching; issues in research and research methodology

2. curriculum design and development; instructional methods, materials, and techniques

3. testing and evaluation

4. professional preparation

The *Journal* particularly welcomes submissions which draw on relevant research in such areas as applied and theoretical linguistics, communication, education, English education (including reading and writing theory), anthropology, psycholinguistics, psychology, first and second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, and sociology and then address implications and applications of that research to issues in our profession. It also especially welcomes articles which focus mainly on direct application in the classroom (methods, materials, techniques, and activities, at all levels of instruction.

GENERAL INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

1. The ORTESOL Journal invites submissions in four categories:

Full-length Articles Manuscripts should usually be no longer than 20 double-spaced pages. Submit three copies to the Editor of the ORTESOL Journal:

Jeanette S. DeCarrico
Center for English as a Second Language
Portland State University
Portland, Oregon 97207

It is also preferred, though not required, that three copies of an informative abstract (not more than two hundred words) be submitted together with the manuscript.

Review Articles The Journal invites articles which are critical reviews of recently published scholarly texts related to the profession. The review article manuscripts should usually be no longer than 20 double-spaced pages, but may be much shorter (no restriction on minimum length). Submit three copies to the Editor, at the above address. (Abstracts preferred; see specifications for abstracts for full-length articles given above.)

Notes and Comments The Journal welcomes comments or rebuttals of published articles (either in the ORTESOL Journal or elsewhere), and welcomes articles with an emphasis on direct application in the classroom. These would include instructional methods, materials, techniques, and activities at all levels. Manuscripts should usually be no longer than five pages.

Submit three copies to the Editor, at the above address (no abstracts).

2. Since all manuscripts are anonymously reviewed, please include a title page with your name and your school (or other affiliation. At the top of the first page of the text, type only the title and not your name.

3. All submissions to the Journal should conform to the same requirements as those for the TESOL Quarterly, detailed in Guidelines for the Preparation of Manuscripts, which is published in every December issue. Exceptions are as follows: references should be cited in parentheses in the text by last name of author and date; footnotes should be reserved for substantive information and kept to a minimum; footnotes should be typed on a separate sheet, immediately following the footnotes page.

4. All submissions to the Journal should be accompanied by a cover letter which includes a full mailing address and both a daytime and an evening telephone number.

5. Manuscripts cannot be returned to authors. Authors should be sure to keep a copy for themselves.

6. It is understood that manuscripts submitted to the ORTESOL Journal have not been previously published and are not under consideration for publication elsewhere.

7. The Editor reserves the right to make editorial changes in any manuscript accepted for publication to enhance clarity or style. The author will be consulted only if the editing has been substantial.