SOUTHERN CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

SILVER ANNIVERSARY CONFERENCE

PERSPECTIVES AND HORIZONS
DIMENSION: LANGUAGES '89

Edited by
T. BRUCE FRYER and FRANK W. MEDLEY, JR.

REPORT OF SOUTHERN CONFERENCE
ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

PREFACE

SCOLT'S TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY CELEBRATION

The commemoration of the Silver Anniversary of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching, held in Little Rock, Arkansas, was a special celebration of the first 25 years of the organization. It was a time to reflect on the past and to recognize the contributions of those who had worked diligently to lay a strong foundation for an association which would benefit foreign language educators in the Southeast. The success of their efforts has been evidenced each year through attendance at the popular annual meetings, through the growing numbers of Sponsors and Patrons, and through SCOLT"s contributions to the strength of the foreign language teaching profession.

The program for SCOLT's Silver Anniversary Conference was prepared by Rosalie Cheatham, 1989 Program Chairperson. The agenda reflects the organization's growth through the number and the diversity of conference sessions.

The highlight of the Silver Anniversary Celebration was a luncheon, which was planned and organized by Laura Walker. Herman Bostick, James Gates, and Joanna Breedlove Crane, who had played critical roles in the founding of SCOLT, were on hand to describe various states of its history. Robert Terry addressed the challenges and responsibilities which lie "on the horizon."

The theme of the Twenty-Fifth Anniversary Conference, "Languages: Perspectives and Horizons," provided participants with the opportunity to look at the future of foreign language teaching and of SCOLT in view of a quarter century of experience. This volume of Dimension gives you, the reader, that same opportunity; from twenty-five years of Dimension the editors have selected articles which are representative of the important trends and issues that have helped shape the direction of foreign language education over that period of time.

In the first part of the volume, the article entitled "SCOLT: THE FIRST TEN YEARS," appears in the form of an introduction to the very beginnings of the Southern Conference on Language

eaching. Prepared by Herman Bostick of Howard University and
n eyewitness and leading force of the time, this article relates
ie establishment of the organization and gives some insight into
ie temperament of the years between 1964 and 1974.

Nelson Brooks' article, "Language Teaching: Concepts,
oblems, Opportunities," describes the changes that took place
uring the sixties, both in the perception of language learning
id in its teaching. Before the advent of the "Audio-Lingual
ethod," language was perceived as an element to be learned,
an important "mental exercise." Nelson Brooks and his
lowers introduced the teaching of language as a means of oral
id written communication.

This same ten-year period was also characterized by a
neral lack of direction in education; students were given
eedom of choice," and experiments with "open classrooms" were
ing conducted. Characterizing this period is an article by
rraine Strasheim entitled "A World Without Walls," in which
eign language educators are urged to build bridges to their
dents and to their colleagues in other subject areas in an effort
become "TEACHERS first, FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS
ond, and GERMAN, FRENCH, SPANISH, ITALIAN, RUSSIAN
LATIN TEACHERS third."

In the second part of the volume, James S. Gates, Executive
cretary of SCOLT from 1973-1988, characterizes the years
ween 1975 and 1989 as "Years of Progress." He describes
growth and change in the organization during those years.

The articles chosen by the editors to represent that period
demonstrate the changes that were taking place in the
roach to foreign language teaching. Theodore Kalivoda
usses the audio-motor unit in his article entitled "Multi-Sensory
rcises: An Approach to Communicative Practice." He
cribes the use of multi-sensory modes in communicative drills,
ange from the impersonal, mechanical drills so common to
audio-lingual classroom.

In "The Reusable Communication Format," Barbara González
ts out the benefits of the small group format for facilitating
ningful communication at beginning levels of language
ing. She discusses the characteristics of the "good" activity;
she presents examples of six different reusable small-group
munication formats.

The Proficiency Movement has highlighted the past ten
years, and real changes have been made in foreign language
education; proficiency has involved almost everyone in the foreign
language teaching profession in some way. Albert Valdman's
"The Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language
Proficiency: Challenges to the Profession" raises some important
and thought-provoking questions regarding the Oral Proficiency
Interview and the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines. Valdman
concludes that our first priority "must be the development of
proficiency tests which specialists in testing and second language
learning believe to be sufficiently valid, reliable, and fair to be
made an integral part of the training of our FL specialists,
including those entrusted with the teaching of FL's as a
fundamental part of a general education."

Three articles were selected from papers presented at the
25th Anniversary Conference in Little Rock form part of the years
of progress. The first deals with the proficiency movement which
brought with it a recognized need to use authentic materials in
the teaching of foreign languages at all levels. John I. Liontas'
article, "Using Authentic Materials to Develop Functional
Proficiency in Writing," discusses both what writing is and is not,
using the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines for writing as a basis for
discussion. Liontas presents a number of practical suggestions
for the teaching of writing at various levels and for the
development of writing activities. The article also provides several
sample activities in German, which can be adapted to any
language class.

In the second 1989 article, "Loosening the Leash on Writing:
The Adult Language Learner," Carol Strauss-Sotiropoulos makes
a case for the teaching of writing at the beginning levels of adult
classes. She characterizes the adult learner, and outlines adult
learning problems and strategies. An advocate of in-class writing
practice and of conferencing, the author recommends many of
the native language writing workshop techniques for foreign
language classes.

In the third Silver Anniversary paper, Ken Fleak and Carolyn
Hansen give a comprehensive, up-to-date approach for preparing
teaching assistants (TA's) to cope with the demands of the
proficiency-based syllabus in "A New Approach Toward Foreign
Language TA Supervision." Taking into consideration the fact that

CONTENTS

SCOLT:
YEARS OF PROGRESS
1975-1989

James S. Gates
Spelman College

From its founding, the Southern Conference has existed with the principal mission of producing for language teachers an annual meeting or conference. This meeting has been devoted to language teaching and language learning. It is the big event of the corporation, the raison d'etre which attracts attendance as does a championship game. Without a large membership roll or endowment, the corporation has depended for survival on the success of this annual meeting. A lack of attendance has created financial problems.

Many components make up the production of this big event. The site has to be chosen; the hotel arrangements have to be negotiated; the teachers have to be lured by promise of excitement, innovation and new ideas applicable to their teaching situations.

Through 1975, the annual meeting site was determined by a conference policy which stated that the site had to alternate between Atlanta and some other city in the southern region. In 1976, the policy was changed for economic reasons as well as the need to carry the meeting areas in the southern region. During recent years, more cities have constructed convention facilities adequate for a SCOLT annual meeting. Moreover, these thriving new areas have proven to be good drawing cards to SCOLT participants many of whom have brought their families and distinguished guests with them. New Orleans, with its history of elite tourism, has always been a good site; Charleston, discovered by the planners in recent years, has become a viable alternative to the Crescent City. Central Florida, notably the vast Orlando area, has been a rewarding meeting place because of the numerous attractions and climate, and the significant support received from the teachers of the State of Florida. Since 1977,

therefore, the Conference has carried its program to teachers in all sections of the southern area: from Richmond to New Orleans, from Orlando to Little Rock, from Charleston to San Antonio.

The task of attracting teachers and other interested persons to the annual meeting has been of prime importance. "What are they doing at SCOLT this year?", "Who are the key speakers?", "What is the theme of the conference?". The answers to these questions often determine whether a language teacher attends an annual conference. The themes of the SCOLT annual meetings, therefore, have reflected the emphases and interests in foreign language learning as they have changed during the past twenty-five years. SCOLT was on the front line as the pendulum swung from audio-lingualism to proficiency with intermediate stops between. Serious consideration has always been given to the theme since, at times, particular interest or lack thereof in a region had to be addressed. Viewing the themes of past conferences reminds one of the proverb: plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose.

1975	Lifelong Language Learning
1976	Language: Our Richest Heritage
1977	The New South: An Expanding Center of Language Study
1978	Ahead to What? Second Language is Still Basic
1979	ACTFL/SCOLT: Unity in Diversity
1980	Progress: Promise
1981	Foreign Language Teaching: Building On Our Successes
1982	Foreign Language Teaching: Is The Present Perfect?
1983	Shrinking World/Expanding Horizons
1984	Expanding Horizons: Business and Industry
1985	Perspectives on Proficiency
1986	Planning for Proficiency
1987	New Challenges and Opportunities
1988	Language in Action: Theory and Practice
1989	Languages: Perspectives & Horizons

The quality of the conference has always been good, and SCOLT has enjoyed a reputation for presenting a beneficial conference.

therefore, the Conference has carried its program to teachers in all sections of the southern area: from Richmond to New Orleans, from Orlando to Little Rock, from Charleston to San Antonio.

The task of attracting teachers and other interested persons to the annual meeting has been of prime importance. "What are they doing at SCOLT this year?", "Who are the key speakers?", "What is the theme of the conference?". The answers to these questions often determine whether a language teacher attends an annual conference. The themes of the SCOLT annual meetings, therefore, have reflected the emphases and interests in foreign language learning as they have changed during the past twenty-five years. SCOLT was on the front line as the pendulum swung from audio-lingualism to proficiency with intermediate stops between. Serious consideration has always been given to the theme since, at times, particular interest or lack thereof in a region had to be addressed. Viewing the themes of past conferences reminds one of the proverb: plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose.

1975	Lifelong Language Learning
1976	Language: Our Richest Heritage
1977	The New South: An Expanding Center of Language Study
1978	Ahead to What? Second Language is Still Basic
1979	ACTFL/SCOLT: Unity in Diversity
1980	Progress: Promise
1981	Foreign Language Teaching: Building On Our Successes
1982	Foreign Language Teaching: Is The Present Perfect?
1983	Shrinking World/Expanding Horizons
1984	Expanding Horizons: Business and Industry
1985	Perspectives on Proficiency
1986	Planning for Proficiency
1987	New Challenges and Opportunities
1988	Language in Action: Theory and Practice
1989	Languages: Perspectives & Horizons

The quality of the conference has always been good, and SCOLT has enjoyed a reputation for presenting a beneficial conference.

For years, the program was the domain of the vice chairperson and the chairperson. The latter invited principal speakers who worked on behalf of the conference. Following the restructuring of the board of directors, a member of the board or a special consultant has been responsible for the planning and execution of the program. This adjustment made consequently good programs into better ones.

The format of the conference has been fairly constant. The program has opened on Thursday afternoon and closed on Saturday afternoon. However, in Atlanta in 1974, and in Richmond in 1982, the sessions were concentrated on Friday and Saturday. At one time, a special fee was charged for Saturday attendance only. A significant, but not necessarily an annual, feature has been the pre-conference workshop. In 1978, in conjunction with ACTFL, Lorraine Strasheim presented a workshop in San Antonio; in 1980 a standing-room-only audience attended a dinner workshop in Charleston to hear and see John Rassias; in 1981, Woody Woodford presented a workshop at the joint SCOLT-FLAG meeting in Atlanta; Vicki Galloway was the guest for the workshop in Atlanta in 1985; Robert DiDonato presented in 1986 in Orlando, and Constance Knop, in Charleston in 1988.

Rising costs forced the elimination of the conference banquet during the seventies. Meal functions have been handled since that time by the local organizations although the Rassias workshop was a dinner meeting, and, the annual meeting of the Advisory Board is a breakfast. In 1988, the local committee in Charleston sponsored a boat ride complete with dinner as an extra-conference activity.

Over the years, SCOLT has developed a set of criteria which a hotel property must be able to meet in order to host an annual meeting of the conference. Meeting these qualifications in recent years has been less taxing than in the earlier years of the conference. Not only must sleeping rooms and eating facilities be available, but there must be space for numerous exhibits. SCOLT has reached a high of forty exhibit booths; hence, considerable space has had to be set aside for three days for these pertinent expositions of books and hardware. In addition, SCOLT has needed as many as twelve breakout rooms in order to stage an annual meeting. Reaching these criteria, while at the same time keeping both the cost of accommodations and registration within reach of the teachers who attended without support of their institutions, became a serious game for the

convention planners to play; most often, SCOLT has been a winner. In this vein, SCOLT has been quartered in old, restored monuments, in spatial resorts, in modern state-of-the-art complexes, in other structures which no longer exist, in locations which ranged from downtown main streets to isolated suburban areas.   Rates have ranged from $20.00 in the mid-1970's to nearly $60.00 in the fading days of the 1980's. As an example, the pre-registration fee for the 1975 conference in New Orleans was $7.00, including a copy of the Proceedings, and the hotel rate was $20.00 for a single room.   On the other hand, pre-registration fee for the 1989 conference in Little Rock was set at $30.00 including a copy of the Proceedings and the single room rate was $59.00, a figure which matched the previous high of that in 1983 for the conference in New Orleans. The 1983 conference was additionally significant in that it marked the third time the annual meeting had been held in New Orleans, previous years being 1968 and 1975. On several occasions, a separate fee had been charged (i.e., $5.00) for the official publication of SCOLT: Dimension.   This option in the registration package proved impractical and costly and was abandoned in 1985. Since then, the cost of a copy of the proceedings has been included in the registration package as had been the case originally.

The following chronology displays the convention sites (cities and hotels) for the period 1974 through 1989.

1974	Atlanta	Stouffers
1975	New Orleans	Hotel Monteleone
1976	Atlanta	Atlanta Biltmore
1977	Orlando	Carlton House
1978	San Antonio	The Saint Anthony
1979	Atlanta	Hyatt Regency
1980	Charleston	The Francis Marion
1981	Atlanta	Sheraton Airport
1982	Richmond	The John Marshall
1983	New Orleans	Sheraton New Orleans
1984	Birmingham	Birmingham Hilton
1985	Atlanta	Ramada at Capitol Plaza
1986	Orlando	Sheraton Orlando
1987	Atlanta	Westin Peachtree Plaza
1988	Charleston	Charleston Marriott
1989	Little Rock	Arkansas Excelsior

convention planners to play; most often, SCOLT has been a winner. In this vein, SCOLT has been quartered in old, restored monuments, in spatial resorts, in modern state-of-the-art complexes, in other structures which no longer exist, in locations which ranged from downtown main streets to isolated suburban areas. Rates have ranged from $20.00 in the mid-1970's to nearly $60.00 in the fading days of the 1980's. As an example, the pre-registration fee for the 1975 conference in New Orleans was $7.00, including a copy of the Proceedings, and the hotel rate was $20.00 for a single room. On the other hand, pre-registration fee for the 1989 conference in Little Rock was set at $30.00 including a copy of the Proceedings and the single room rate was $59.00, a figure which matched the previous high of that in 1983 for the conference in New Orleans. The 1983 conference was additionally significant in that it marked the third time the annual meeting had been held in New Orleans, previous years being 1968 and 1975. On several occasions, a separate fee had been charged (i.e., $5.00) for the official publication of SCOLT: Dimension. This option in the registration package proved impractical and costly and was abandoned in 1985. Since then, the cost of a copy of the proceedings has been included in the registration package as had been the case originally.

The following chronology displays the convention sites (cities and hotels) for the period 1974 through 1989.

1974	Atlanta	Stouffers
1975	New Orleans	Hotel Monteleone
1976	Atlanta	Atlanta Biltmore
1977	Orlando	Carlton House
1978	San Antonio	The Saint Anthony
1979	Atlanta	Hyatt Regency
1980	Charleston	The Francis Marion
1981	Atlanta	Sheraton Airport
1982	Richmond	The John Marshall
1983	New Orleans	Sheraton New Orleans
1984	Birmingham	Birmingham Hilton
1985	Atlanta	Ramada at Capitol Plaza
1986	Orlando	Sheraton Orlando
1987	Atlanta	Westin Peachtree Plaza
1988	Charleston	Charleston Marriott
1989	Little Rock	Arkansas Excelsior

During the years 1975 and 1976, the Board of Directors of SCOLT had opted for a joint meeting between SCOLT and a state foreign language teacher organization. The only precedent for such an arrangement had been a meeting jointly held in Atlanta with ACTFL in 1972. A decision was reached to venture a joint conference with the Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA) based on the recommendations of members of the SCOLT board who were also members of the FFLA board and influential teachers in the state of Florida.

The first year in Florida in 1977 was extremely successful since FFLA had a history and tradition of having a strong annual meeting and good attendance was assured since teachers statewide were given a professional leave to attend the meeting. More than 700 attended this meeting. In most cases, SCOLT has sought to work with the state language teachers associations, all of which have varied in degree of organization, influence, and presence from state to state.

The agreement signed by SCOLT and FFLA remained the model for joining conferences with state teachers organizations. The professional objective has always been that of bringing to the state with combined resources and personnel a much better conference that either of the groups could achieve alone. This objective has been met again and again throughout the twelve years of this program.

Organizations with SCOLT:

1977	Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA)
1978	Texas Foreign Language Association (TFLA) and Texas Teachers of English as a Second Language (TEXTESOL)
1979	American Council on Teaching Foreign Language Teaching (ACTFL)
1980	South Carolina Conference on Foreign Language Teaching (SCCFLT)
1981	Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG)
1982	Virginia State Department of Education
1983	Louisiana Foreign Language Teachers Association (LFLTA)
1984	Alabama Association of Foreign Language Teachers (AAFLT)

1985	Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG)
1986	Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA)
1987	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
1988	South Carolina Conference on Foreign Language Teaching (SCCFLT)
1989	Arkansas Foreign Language Teachers Association (AFLTA)

SCOLT has never been a rich conference. Money was borrowed for its founding and many believe that the early founders used their personal funds to defray expenses of those early conferences. Following a small turnout in Memphis in 1973, the coffers were nearly empty. The board rose to the emergency and through frugality and wit managed to survive and keep the organization afloat on an uncertain economic sea. Fortunately, succeeding endeavors provided adequate funds for the production of the annual conferences.

The major expenses of the corporation have been mainly those connected with the production of the annual conference. These have included but have not necessarily been limited to honoraria for speakers and workshop presenters, publication of the conference program and the proceedings, and expenses for publicity. Nevertheless, in January 1975, at the winter meeting, the SCOLT Board of Directors voted to compensate the Executive Secretary at a rate of $25.00 per month; and in 1977, the salary was raised to $50.00 per month. Then in 1982, the salary was increased to $2500 per annum. Moreover, in 1982, the board adopted a precedent setting policy relative to appropriations and expenses when it voted to defray a portion of each member's expenses in attending the winter meeting. As a safety valve, two conditions had to be met: as a cap of $200.00 was placed on the amount that one could receive and was payable only if the member could not procure funds from other sources, and, the corporation would pay for expenses only so long as funds were available in the treasury.

SCOLT derived its income principally from sponsors/patrons, exhibitors and registrations for the annual conference. A concerted effort on the part of the board has been made for years to keep the expenses within reach of teachers who wanted to attend the meeting but who had no financial support from this institution or school districts. The registration fee of $35.00 in

1985	Foreign Language Association of Georgia (FLAG)
1986	Florida Foreign Language Association (FFLA)
1987	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)
1988	South Carolina Conference on Foreign Language Teaching (SCCFLT)
1989	Arkansas Foreign Language Teachers Association (AFLTA)

SCOLT has never been a rich conference. Money was borrowed for its founding and many believe that the early founders used their personal funds to defray expenses of those early conferences. Following a small turnout in Memphis in 1973, the coffers were nearly empty. The board rose to the emergency and through frugality and wit managed to survive and keep the organization afloat on an uncertain economic sea. Fortunately, succeeding endeavors provided adequate funds for the production of the annual conferences.

The major expenses of the corporation have been mainly those connected with the production of the annual conference. These have included but have not necessarily been limited to honoraria for speakers and workshop presenters, publication of the conference program and the proceedings, and expenses for publicity. Nevertheless, in January 1975, at the winter meeting, the SCOLT Board of Directors voted to compensate the Executive Secretary at a rate of $25.00 per month; and in 1977, the salary was raised to $50.00 per month. Then in 1982, the salary was increased to $2500 per annum. Moreover, in 1982, the board adopted a precedent setting policy relative to appropriations and expenses when it voted to defray a portion of each member's expenses in attending the winter meeting. As a safety valve, two conditions had to be met: as a cap of $200.00 was placed on the amount that one could receive and was payable only if the member could not procure funds from other sources, and, the corporation would pay for expenses only so long as funds were available in the treasury.

SCOLT derived its income principally from sponsors/patrons, exhibitors and registrations for the annual conference. A concerted effort on the part of the board has been made for years to keep the expenses within reach of teachers who wanted to attend the meeting but who had no financial support from this institution or school districts. The registration fee of $35.00 in

Charleston in 1988 was the highest in the history of SCOLT, yet in comparison with registration fees of other similar conferences it was very reasonable. Likewise, the fee of $40.00 for an institution as a sponsor was a new high when voted in 1987. For 25 years, SCOLT has had to do a lot with a little when it came to finances. Sponsors and patrons have been the most reliable source of income for the conference since its founding. Some colleges and organizations have been sponsors and/or patrons for years without interruption whereas others have come and gone, reflecting the changing perception of the worth of the conference as personnel have changed in their organizations. Since there are no membership dues, the contributions of the sponsors and patrons have been indispensable in providing the conference with seed money for carrying out its mission.

The corporation, Southern Conference on Language Teaching, Inc., is personified in a group of eight educators who are known as the Board of Directors of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching. It is they who are responsible for the operation of the corporation and the implementation of an annual meeting for teachers of languages in the region covered by the conference.

During the early years following its founding, the SCOLT Board of Directors was theoretically composed of persons who represented the twelve states served by the Conference. As a result, following the dissolution of the original Steering Committee, the Incorporators of the Conference (Sanford Newell, Karl Pond and George Wilkins) chose 12 vas the number necessary to compose the Board of Directors. In 1982, the change was approved in 1982 to lower the number to eight members, by electing over a period of four years only two rather than three new members to the board.

Wisely, the founders did not empower the board to perpetuate itself as is the case in many such groups. The Advisory Board, composed of representatives of those who support SCOLT financially, (i.e., sponsors and patrons) elect each year those persons who have been placed in nomination by a committee made up of persons from the Board of Directors and the Advisory Board. The board has had staunch members who took their position seriously and promoted the cause of the organization.

As the members of the Board of Directors of SCOLT became aware that they could make a more significant contribution by

working in the month -to-month operation of the organization, working committees (program, finance, exhibits, editorial, publicity) were formed and began to make noticeable improvements in the operation of the organization. Most obvious to public view have been the program, editorial, and publicity endeavors.

Following the 1984 meeting in Birmingham, the Board appointed co-editors for the Proceedings of that year. Since that time, T. Bruce Fryer and Frank Medley have served as co-editors of the Dimension. In 1988, an editorial board of leading educators who publish was formed to referee articles chosen for publication. Thus the proceedings of the annual conference have been elevated from a compendium of papers read at a regional meeting to a prestigious journal of refereed scholarly articles with national renown. Some of those who consented to serve on the editorial board made significant contributions to SCOLT through other publications. In 1979 Genelle Morain edited a special edition of Dimension entitled Folklore: Linking Life to Language; and Thomas C. Cooper, edited a special publication of the ACTFL/SCOLT Task Force on Research in Foreign Language Education entitled Research Within Reach in 1985.

Providing a program that SCOLT conference participants have come to expect and which has substance as well as attraction has been no easy feat. The reputation of SCOLT in this arena has been outstanding. Coordinating and staging such an event have required time, patience, ingenuity and brains. This monumental task has been efficiently accomplished during the past five years by Rosalie Cheatham of Arkansas and Laura Walker of Oklahoma.

The following list shows the chairpersons of SCOLT, 1974-1989:

1974	Genelle Morain	Georgia
1975	Joanna Crane	Alabama
1976	Max Gartman	Alabama
1977	Mary Metz	Louisiana
1978	Frederick Jenks	Florida
1979	William Heflin	Tennessee
1980	Caro Feagin	Georgia
1981	Jack Brown	Mississippi
1982	Howard Altman	Kentucky
	Martha McClure	Georgia
1983	William Holdbrooks	Alabama
1984	William Holdbrooks	Alabama

working in the month -to-month operation of the organization, working committees (program, finance, exhibits, editorial, publicity) were formed and began to make noticeable improvements in the operation of the organization. Most obvious to public view have been the program, editorial, and publicity endeavors.

Following the 1984 meeting in Birmingham, the Board appointed co-editors for the Proceedings of that year. Since that time, T. Bruce Fryer and Frank Medley have served as co-editors of the Dimension. In 1988, an editorial board of leading educators who publish was formed to referee articles chosen for publication. Thus the proceedings of the annual conference have been elevated from a compendium of papers read at a regional meeting to a prestigious journal of refereed scholarly articles with national renown. Some of those who consented to serve on the editorial board made significant contributions to SCOLT through other publications. In 1979 Genelle Morain edited a special edition of Dimension entitled Folklore: Linking Life to Language; and Thomas C. Cooper, edited a special publication of the ACTFL/SCOLT Task Force on Research in Foreign Language Education entitled Research Within Reach in 1985.

Providing a program that SCOLT conference participants have come to expect and which has substance as well as attraction has been no easy feat. The reputation of SCOLT in this arena has been outstanding. Coordinating and staging such an event have required time, patience, ingenuity and brains. This monumental task has been efficiently accomplished during the past five years by Rosalie Cheatham of Arkansas and Laura Walker of Oklahoma.

The following list shows the chairpersons of SCOLT, 1974-1989:

1974	Genelle Morain	Georgia
1975	Joanna Crane	Alabama
1976	Max Gartman	Alabama
1977	Mary Metz	Louisiana
1978	Frederick Jenks	Florida
1979	William Heflin	Tennessee
1980	Caro Feagin	Georgia
1981	Jack Brown	Mississippi
1982	Howard Altman	Kentucky
	Martha McClure	Georgia
1983	William Holdbrooks	Alabama
1984	William Holdbrooks	Alabama

1985	Frank Medley	S.Carolina
1986	Christa Kirby	Florida
1987	Robin Snyder	W.Virginia
1988	John Austin	Georgia
1989	Paula Fordham	S.Carolina

Those persons who have been members of the Board of Directors of the Southern Conference during the years 1975-1989 are listed below:

Howard Altman	1978-1982	Kentucky
Francis Amelincx	1988-	Louisiana
John Austin	1985-1989	Georgia
Rilda Baker	1980-1981	Texas
Wendolyn Bell	1973-1977	Tennessee
C. Lee Bradley	1984-1988	Georgia
Shirley Briggs	1979-1983	Tennessee
Jack Davis Brown	1977-1981	Mississippi
Carol Cargill	1986-	Florida
Rosalie Cheatham	1980-1983; 1985-1986; 1987-	Arkansas
William Clapper	1976-1980	Virginia
Joanna B. Crane	1971-1975; 1987-	Alabama
Dorothy DiOrio	1975-1979	Alabama
Gregory Duncan	1982-1985	Georgia
Caro Feagin	1976-1980	Georgia
Wayne Figart	1986-	North Carolina
James Ford	1979-1980	Arkansas
Paula Fordham	1980-1981; 1985-1989	South Carolina
Ernest Frechette	1976-1977; 1980-1984	Florida
T. Bruce Fryer	1976-1980	South Carolina
Max Gartman	1972-1976	Alabama
James S. Gates	1973-1974	Georgia
Barbara Gonzalez	1977-1981	Texas
Clemens Hallman	1974-1978	Florida
William Heflin	1975-1979	Tennessee
William Holdbrooks	1980-1984	Alabama
Fredreick Jenks	1974-1978	Florida
Mary Johnson	1971-1975	Florida
Christa Kirby	1983-1987	Florida

Frank Medley	1981-1985	South Carolina
Mary S. Metz	1974-1978	Louisiana/ Maryland
Martha McClure	1978-1982	Georgia
Genelle Morain	1971-1975	Georgia
W. Guy Oliver	1988-	Georgia
Evelyn Page	1981-1985	Virginia
Jeanne Palyok	1972-1976	South Carolina
Gloria Patron	1978-1982; 1985-1986	Louisiana
Marilyn Phillips	1979-1983	West Virginia
Flossie Foxx Rann	1977-1980	North Carolina
Sue Reynolds	1972-1976	Tennessee
Helen V. Saunders	1975-1979	West Virginia
Arlene Schrade	1982-1985	Mississippi
Robin Snyder	1983-1987	West Virginia
Laura J. Walker	1984-1988	Louisiana/ Oklahoma
George Wilkins	1973-1977	Louisiana

In conclusion, many organizations devoted to language learning, teaching and research have maintained the ncessary continuity and, to some extent, established their identity through an officer of the organization. The Executive Secretary of SCOLT has been the key person in the operation of the Corporation from its founding. Whereas chairpersons have served usually only a year, the Executive Secretary, elected by the Board, has served many terms, ex officio. Bostick, Epting, Gates and Bradley, with a few short-termers interspersed, have served the organization as Executive Secretary during these first twenty-five years, and the Corporation and the conferences have been stamped by their personalities, styles, and competencies.

The duties of the office have changed through the years from those of being a general secretary to those of being the chief executive officer who has been given the legal responsibilities of serving as custodian of the funds, the seal and the legal documents of the corporation. The Executive Secretary has always worked with the conference chairperson and more recently with the program chairperson in planning, developing and carrying out the annual conference, a feat of tremendous portions. Until the establishment in 1984 of the

Frank Medley	1981-1985	South Carolina
Mary S. Metz	1974-1978	Louisiana/ Maryland
Martha McClure	1978-1982	Georgia
Genelle Morain	1971-1975	Georgia
W. Guy Oliver	1988-	Georgia
Evelyn Page	1981-1985	Virginia
Jeanne Palyok	1972-1976	South Carolina
Gloria Patron	1978-1982; 1985-1986	Louisiana
Marilyn Phillips	1979-1983	West Virginia
Flossie Foxx Rann	1977-1980	North Carolina
Sue Reynolds	1972-1976	Tennessee
Helen V. Saunders	1975-1979	West Virginia
Arlene Schrade	1982-1985	Mississippi
Robin Snyder	1983-1987	West Virginia
Laura J. Walker	1984-1988	Louisiana/ Oklahoma
George Wilkins	1973-1977	Louisiana

In conclusion, many organizations devoted to language learning, teaching and research have maintained the ncessary continuity and, to some extent, established their identity through an officer of the organization. The Executive Secretary of SCOLT has been the key person in the operation of the Corporation from its founding. Whereas chairpersons have served usually only a year, the Executive Secretary, elected by the Board, has served many terms, ex officio. Bostick, Epting, Gates and Bradley, with a few short-termers interspersed, have served the organization as Executive Secretary during these first twenty-five years, and the Corporation and the conferences have been stamped by their personalities, styles, and competencies.

The duties of the office have changed through the years from those of being a general secretary to those of being the chief executive officer who has been given the legal responsibilities of serving as custodian of the funds, the seal and the legal documents of the corporation. The Executive Secretary has always worked with the conference chairperson and more recently with the program chairperson in planning, developing and carrying out the annual conference, a feat of tremendous portions. Until the establishment in 1984 of the

post of Editor of the Proceedings, the Executive Secretary received from the chairperson the manuscript of Dimension and had the task of getting the work copyrighted, published and distributed. The reduction in size of the Board in 1982 resulted, among other things, in members becoming more involved in the operation of the organization from conference to conference. The Executive Secretary became less the tireless toiler and more the shrewd coordinator of all the many activities being carried out and designed to culminate in an outstanding annual conference. Remuneration for this officer began with a "thanks for a job well-done" and became a tangible in 1975 with an honorarium of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum. A great professional commitment has been demonstrated by the persons who have served as Secretary-Treasurer and Executive Secretary of the Southern Conference.

Looking back historically, one can recall that in the eighteenth century only a few political theorists dreamed that the United States of America would rise to the stature of a world power; only a few educators in the nineteenth century believed that such a vast number of the colleges and universities founded in that century would survive as prestigious centers of learning; and, only a few language teachers thought that the Southern Conference would survive in the turbulent twentieth century. Not only has the Southern Conference survived, it has, in the words of a famous Southern writer, prevailed. As the years have passed, the Conference has grown and has triumphed because of those who demonstrated their devotion, commitment and loyalty either as officers, Board members, attendees, sponsors, patrons, presenters, presiders, exhibitors or well-wishers. Those who were involved during this year in the history of the organization would be likened unto a runner in a relay race who received the baton from the founders. Taken smoothly and without breaking stride, the baton was carried carefully so that the next runner had neither time nor distance to make up as the course turned into the nineties. From the successful hands of those of the years of progress into hands of even greater potential, the legacy of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching, with all its vicissitudes, has been fervently passed. Selah.

1975-1979
MULTI-SENSORY EXERCISES: AN APPROACH TO COMMUNICATIVE PRACTICE

(Reprinted from <u>Dimension: 1975</u>)

Theodore B. Kalivoda
The University of Georgia

During the 1950's and 60's drills as a learning and practice technique dominated the language scene. The concept fit into the philosophy of the time which stressed formation of new and automatic language habits. The present decade brought a new emphasis. Tired of tedious repetitions, substitutions, and transformations which were made without thought for the messages behind them, the profession underscored the importance of meaningfulness--a quality which is realized when learners feel they are really communicating something of value to them.

The idea of practicing with drills has been almost lost in this new communication trend. The present direction is to let the learner say what is meaningful to him--a powerful motivational force, but a rather quixotic dream when not tempered with the reality of laying a foundation of basic structural competence. There is no easy way to learn foreign languages. A student either comes to grips with learning structural and syntactic elements or he does not learn to communicate, unless he is to be content with a Tarzan-type system ("Me Tarzan, you Jane").

What can realistically be expected of a student left to his own devices for language practice? Chances are he will be hard pressed to come up with ways to use what he has studied cognitively. He needs help, and he looks to the instructor to provide some context for going beyond the analysis stage of language learning. What kind of context must it be? Certainly it cannot replicate that of the artificial and boredom-producing drills of the fifties and sixties. Somehow it must be meaningful and

communicative and at the same time be structured sufficiently to give practice toward functional command of basic grammatical components.

I shall pursue this quest in this paper, first by presenting a brief review of the communicative status of drills, and second by sharing a technique which may hold the promise of bringing drill activity closer to communication than perhaps it ever has been.

My first step is to make a plea for moderation. It is tempting to give ourselves to every new idea or trend that comes along, our enthusiastic support of which often causes us to deny or at least to forget the wisdom gained from accumulated learning of the past. Applying the concept of moderation to practicing the foreign language in the classroom, I suggest we hold up the caution sign to those who, in their zeal for communication, would have us alienate ourselves from anything reminiscent of drill practice. We rightly confess the limitations of the drill era of past decades, but likewise we can attribute to it certain strengths.

Although drills are characteristically mechanical in nature and have suffered extensive abuse, they provide a means of gaining functional control of linguistic units which otherwise might not be acquired. Illustrative of this point are the repetition drill and the substitution drill. The former is often done in pronunciation practice aimed at refining production of certain sounds. Emphasis here is on articulation, and no pretense is made to hide its mechanical nature. The substitution drill can be carried out with structural or lexical changes to develop automatic use of linguistic units in varied contexts. Although some teachers undoubtedly use this type of drill on a purely mechanical level, probably most recognize its potentially damaging effect on student interest, and in one way or another, attempt to get students to think about what they are saying during the exercise. This is done easily with nouns. Wilkins[1] points out how in the stimulus--"I'm looking for the watch."--the noun can be cued with a picture or, better yet, with the object itself. Teachers with a good understanding of "audiolingualism" enhanced their drill work with this kind of visual impact. They likewise brought in meaningfulness with other elements too, for one need not stop with nouns but can deal meaningfully with verbs as well. It is true that verbs are often of an abstract nature (for example, hope, feel, want) whose meaning is hard to define thorough visual aids. When no other recourse exists on such items, a rapid-fire translation may prove of value. But in many situations (for

communicative and at the same time be structured sufficiently to give practice toward functional command of basic grammatical components.

I shall pursue this quest in this paper, first by presenting a brief review of the communicative status of drills, and second by sharing a technique which may hold the promise of bringing drill activity closer to communication than perhaps it ever has been.

My first step is to make a plea for moderation. It is tempting to give ourselves to every new idea or trend that comes along, our enthusiastic support of which often causes us to deny or at least to forget the wisdom gained from accumulated learning of the past. Applying the concept of moderation to practicing the foreign language in the classroom, I suggest we hold up the caution sign to those who, in their zeal for communication, would have us alienate ourselves from anything reminiscent of drill practice. We rightly confess the limitations of the drill era of past decades, but likewise we can attribute to it certain strengths.

Although drills are characteristically mechanical in nature and have suffered extensive abuse, they provide a means of gaining functional control of linguistic units which otherwise might not be acquired. Illustrative of this point are the repetition drill and the substitution drill. The former is often done in pronunciation practice aimed at refining production of certain sounds. Emphasis here is on articulation, and no pretense is made to hide its mechanical nature. The substitution drill can be carried out with structural or lexical changes to develop automatic use of linguistic units in varied contexts. Although some teachers use this type of drill on a purely mechanical level, undoubtedly probably most recognize its potentially damaging effect on student interest, and in one way or another, attempt to get students to think about what they are saying during the exercise. This is done easily with nouns. Wilkins[1] points out how in the stimulus--"I'm looking for the watch."--the noun can be cued with a picture or, better yet, with the object itself. Teachers with a good understanding of "audiolingualism" enhanced their drill work with this kind of visual impact. They likewise brought in meaningfulness with other elements too, for one need not stop with nouns but can deal meaningfully with verbs as well. It is true that verbs are often of an abstract nature (for example, hope, feel, want) whose meaning is hard to define thorough visual aids. When no other recourse exists on such items, a rapid-fire translation may prove of value. But in many situations (for

example, "I'm looking for the watch.") students' memory on the meaning of the verb can be jogged through dramatization, if the instructor can cope with a certain amount of clownish behavior without feeling foolish in front of his students.

Professional literature has its recommendations and descriptions of drills which are supposed to make language practice more meaningful and hence more palatable to students. Many of the attempts, however, tend to share a common feature of superficiality of intent, for it is obvious that as they are conducted, the instructor is not really interested in the responses for the sake of their message, but rather for language practice itself. Such a tendency is often seen in question answer practice; for example, "Are you cold?" or "Do you like to go to the beach?" Although such questions conceivably could arise out of situations which elicit sincere concern on the part of the instructor toward the student's state of feelings, they are generally intended for mere practice of structural forms. We can expect the student to be rather bored with the whole activity because, as Rivers says, he ". . . is not communicating anything that is of real import to him nor receiving any genuine message."[2]

A drill which comes somewhat closer to reality is one called the communication drill.[3] Here, according to Paulston, "The student has free choice of answer, and the criterion of selection here is his own opinion of the real world--whatever he wants to say." The question "What did you have for breakfast?" for example, although likely to elicit a reply about food, still gives the learner a choice of foods, but furthermore allows the possibility of an answer like "I overslept and skipped breakfast so I wouldn't miss the bus." Students must be instructed to answer truthfully to make this kind of drill successful. It is obviously a drill for more advanced students.

Another attempt toward communication with drill is made by Palmer, in which a hypothetical situation is established for student response. He suggests, for example, that students be presented with the following stimulus: "Karen, if you and Susan came to class at 8 a.m. and it was winter and the room was dark at 8 a.m., what would you tell Susan?"[4] Although this drill may have merit with foreign students learning English and perhaps with learners of some other languages, it unfortunately has shortcomings with a language like Spanish. In eliciting the answer--"I would tell Susan to turn on the light"--it is limited for use with advanced students having studied the conditional tense

and the past subjunctive. But more serious is that, like so many other drill approaches intended for meaningful practice, it has no built-in indicators to insure that students will understand the meaning of the various language elements contained in the stimulus. The idea of understanding the stimulus is a most important point, for no student can proceed with the problem to be practiced when he is confused over the elements of the very first step.

We are faced, therefore, with the task of finding a type of drill which applies to any level of a language and which at the same time stimulates and maintains student interest as well as makes the meaning of the units being drilled crystal clear. A strategy believed to provide the foundation for a drill with this unique combination of elements is the Audio-Motor Unit--a technique designed initially for developing listening comprehension[5] and later extended successfully to the teaching of culture.[6] Further use of the Audio-Motor Unit at the University of Georgia has shown its promise as an important means for conducting meaningful drill.

The Audio-Motor Unit basically involves a series of commands on a central theme which is presented orally and acted out by the teacher for students to listen to and observe. Later, students are asked to join in the motor activity as they hear the commands. These steps capitalize on the combined effect of learning through sound, sight and physical movement. To give all members of this multi-language audience an opportunity to see the pedagogical possibilities of this technique, I shall give a number of commands in an imaginary language and act them out. I shall ask you to associate the oral utterances with the motor activity toward the end of being able to respond physically yourselves when you hear the cues.

kufasa munaki	(Raise your arms.)
kifoka zani	(Extend them sidewards.)
kifoka ná	(Extend them backwards.)
kifoka sú	(Extend them forward.)
petu manafa	(Move your finger.)
kumana munaki	(Lower your arms.)

Now listen and observe again. (Above repeated.) Now join with me in the actions this third time as you hear the commands. (Above repeated.) To test what you have learned, now obey a fourth repetition of the commands without my model movements for imitation.

and the past subjunctive. But more serious is that, like so many other drill approaches intended for meaningful practice, it has no built-in indicators to insure that students will understand the meaning of the various language elements contained in the stimulus. The idea of understanding the stimulus is a most important point, for no student can proceed with the problem to be practiced when he is confused over the elements of the very first step.

We are faced, therefore, with the task of finding a type of drill which applies to any level of a language and which at the same time stimulates and maintains student interest as well as makes the meaning of the units being drilled crystal clear. A strategy believed to provide the foundation for a drill with this unique combination of elements is the Audio-Motor Unit--a technique designed initially for developing listening comprehension[5] and later extended successfully to the teaching of culture.[6] Further use of the Audio-Motor Unit at the University of Georgia has shown its promise as an important means for conducting meaningful drill.

The Audio-Motor Unit basically involves a series of commands on a central theme which is presented orally and acted out by the teacher for students to listen to and observe. Later, students are asked to join in the motor activity as they hear the commands. These steps capitalize on the combined effect of learning through sound, sight and physical movement. To give all members of this multi-language audience an opportunity to see the pedagogical possibilities of this technique, I shall give a number of commands in an imaginary language and act them out. I shall ask you to associate the oral utterances with the motor activity toward the end of being able to respond physically yourselves when you hear the cues.

kufasa munaki	(Raise your arms.)
kifoka zani	(Extend them sidewards.)
kifoka ná	(Extend them backwards.)
kifoka sú	(Extend them forward.)
petu manafa	(Move your finger.)
kumana munaki	(Lower your arms.)

Now listen and observe again. (Above repeated.) Now join with me in the actions this third time as you hear the commands. (Above repeated.) To test what you have learned, now obey a fourth repetition of the commands without my model movements for imitation.

As you can see, comprehension of the strange sounds of a new language quickly takes place, because the meanings behind the sounds are obvious through motor response. The combination of sight, sound and motor activity seems to facilitate learning. A caution in using this strategy, which I am sure you have recognized through participation in the exercise, is to mix up the commands in subsequent practice sessions; otherwise, students tend to memorize the sequence of actions without regard for the sounds, which action is of course alien to our purpose.

Recognizing the possibility that the sample unit shown may be held by some to be too bizarre or infantile for use with their particular level of students, I call your attention to the fact that units can be designed on any number of themes, many of which fit in nicely with the classroom environment. For example:

English	Spanish
Pick up the book.	Coge el libro.
Wipe off the cover.	Limpia la tapa.
Open the book.	Abre el libro.
Put your finger on the page.	Pon el dedo en la página.
Put it at the top of the page	Ponlo arriba en la página.
At the bottom of the page.	Al pie de la página.
Go to the front of the book.	Anda al principio del libro.
Go to the back of the book.	Anda al final del libro.
Go to the middle of the book.	Anda al medio del libro.
Slam it shut.	Ciérralo de golpe.

So far we have dealt only with listening comprehension. A logical continuation is to use the Audio-Motor Unit as a foundation for speaking activity. Any one of the commands can serve as a base for extensive pattern practice either in terms of new learning or review. When the instructor utters and then acts out "Pick up the book," for example, he can provide speaking practice with both subject and verb form changes as illustrated through the following:

Instructor:	Pick up the book, John.
	What are you doing?
John:	I'm picking up the book.
Instructor:	What is John doing, Mary?
Mary:	He's picking up the book.
Instructor:	I'm picking up the book, too.
	What are you and I doing, John?
John:	We're picking up the books.
Instructor:	Pick up the books, John and Mary.
	What are they doing, Joe?
Joe:	They're picking up the books.

What has been done so far is to pull out a command learned in its Audio-Motor Unit context and to add a fourth reinforcing element--speaking--to the already experienced modalities of sight, sound and motor activity. A highly communicative drill is established through the instructor's questions followed by student understanding of the element being practiced (to pick up) through motor responses.

Without straining communication, the same questions can also be asked in the context of other tenses and modes. If we were dealing with Spanish, for example, we would find it appropriate to practice the following tenses: present (cojo), present progressive (estoy cogiendo), past progressive (estaba cogiendo), imperfect (cogía), preterite (cogí), present perfect (he cogido), and past perfect (había cogido). Even future tense can be practiced when the following kind of cue is given: "Tomorrow you'll pick up the book, John. Show me and tell me what you'll do tomorrow." Speaking practice in the imperative mode can also be provided (for example, "John, tell Mary to pick up the book").

Of course, certain stock questions with their appropriate verb forms (for example, "What are you doing?," "What did you do?,"etc.) will have to be memorized first. But once these are learned, a whole new area of communication activity is opened up.

So far, a considerable amount of interesting practice has been done with one verb only. Other forms can also be extracted from the commands and practiced within their motor contexts. "Wipe off the book," "Put your finger on the top of the page," "Go to the back of the book," etc. provide even further structural and syntactic practice.

Situation is limited only to the extent of the instructor's imagination in designing Audio-Motor Units around which drills are

e book, John.
you doing?
ʝ up the book.
ʝhn doing, Mary?
ʝg up the book.
ʝ up the book, too.
you and I doing, John?
ːing up the books.
e books, John and Mary.
ːhey doing, Joe?
ːking up the books.
ʝ far is to pull out a command
ʝit context and to add a fourth
--to the already experienced
and motor activity. A highly
ʝlished through the instructor's
nderstanding of the element being
motor responses.
ʝication, the same questions can
f other tenses and modes. If we
for example, we would find it
ʝllowing tenses: present (cojo),
ʝiendo), past progressive (estaba
reterite (cogí), present perfect (he
a cogido). Even future tense can
ʝ kind of cue is given: "Tomorrow
Show me and tell me what you'll
ːe in the imperative mode can also
n, tell Mary to pick up the book").
estions with their appropriate verb
ə you doing?," "What did you
ʝorized first. But once these are
communication activity is opened

nount of interesting practice has
ʝly. Other forms can also be
and practiced within their motor
"Put your finger on the top of the
book," etc. provide even further
ə.
ːo the extent of the instructor's
Motor Units around which drills are

built. Commands requiring students to respond physically and then to talk about the response can produce highly interesting and even hilarious situations which, of course, not only provide talk with understanding but which also hold the attention of the entire class.

This approach to language practice is not entirely now. Drills presented by means of sequential situations were recommended by Gouin[7] in the nineteenth century as well as by Jespersen[8] back in 1904. In more recent times, Oller and Obrecht[9] conducted an experiment on what they termed "informational sequence" which supported learning through a sequential situation approach. Schumann[10] likewise argued for its use as he described the "Situational Reinforcement" technique of the Institute of Modern Languages in Washington, D.C. Paralleling the Audio-motor Unit idea in many respects, "Situational Reinforcement" has grown into a method for which materials are being produced commercially.[11] Like other drills, however, it contrasts significantly in its assumption that students will understand the stimulus (for example, "Juan, do you have any change?")[12] on the basis of previous learning. The Audio-Motor based drill, on the other hand, ensures meaning as it combines an oral command with physical action on the part of the teacher for all to see and then to be reinforced by motor response. A limitation, of course, is that it can deal only with verbs whose meaning can be acted out. There are hundreds of verbs, however, that fall into this category and which furthermore can be learned in a variety of structural contexts. The Audio-Motor based drill, then, holds promise for a great deal of effective practice in the classroom.

Up to now I have discussed meaningful drill practice in the context of hearing, seeing, motor response and speaking. A fifth reinforcing agent--writing--might also be added, but it would present some problems for the students in its irregularities in orthography. Other reinforcers may be more practical. The senses of touch, taste, sound and smell, for example, seem to present a means of extending even further the idea of multi-sensory exercises. Consider the following English-Spanish Audio-Motor Unit.

Pick up the bottle of wine.
Coge la botella de vino.

Run your fingers over the bottle.
Pasa los dedos por la botella.

It's smooth.
Es lisa.

Touch the neck of the bottle.
Toca el pico de la botella.

Touch the fat part.
Toca la parte de abajo.

Touch the cork. It's dry, isn't it?
Toca el corcho. Está seco, ¿verdad?

Squeeze it. It's spongy.
Apriétalo. Parece esponjoso.

Throw it up in the air.
Tíralo al aire.

It's light.
Es liviano.

Smell the wine.
Huele el vino.

Take out your handkerchief.
Saca tu pañuelo.

Pour a little wine on it.
Moja el pañuelo con el vino.

Feel the wet part.
Toca la parte mojada.

Pick up a glass and the bottle.
Coge un vaso y la botella.

Clink the bottle and the glass.
Suena la botella con el vaso.

le.

it?
erdad?

Listen to the clink.
Escucha el sonido.

Pour a little wine.
Sírvete un vaso de vino.

Taste it.
Pruébalo.

How sour! Make a face.
¡Qué agrio! Haz una mueca.

Pound the bottle against the table
Golpea la botella contra la mesa.

Listen to the loud sound.
Escucha el sonido que hace.
Es alto, ¿verdad?

Pound the bottle against your hand.
Golpea la botella contra la mano.

Listen to the thud.
Escucha el sonido que hace.
Es bajo, ¿verdad?

A quick analysis of this unit shows its construction to be centered around four additional sensory perceptions: (1) touch (for example, "Run your fingers over the bottle. It's smooth."); (2) taste (for example, "Taste it. It's sour."); (3) sound (for example, "Listen to the clink."); and, (4) smell (for example, "Smell the wine."). Accompanying the already built-in reinforcers of the basic Audio-Motor Unit (hearing, seeing and motor activity), the additional senses of touch, taste, sound and smell all combine to create a practice exercise replete with meaningfulness. Insertion of speaking practice extends the usefulness of the exercise even more.

As a final part of this discussion, I will make a few comments about testing procedures with multi-sensory exercises. I will limit my remarks to paper and pencil tests in a group setting, an approach which I see as decidedly inferior to face-to-face testing

of individual students, but which is more practical in terms of time required for administration.

The listening portion of an Audio-Motor Unit can easily be tested by translation of the foreign language commands to English. Although translation holds the disadvantage of forcing the student to switch from one linguistic system to another, it takes advantage of the native language to determine quite precisely the extent of listening comprehension skill. Its strength lies in its requirement for active production on the part of the student rather than for selection of multiple choice items which is mere recognition or passive knowledge.

Going beyond listening comprehension, students can be asked to respond in writing in the foreign language as the instructor utters an oral command followed by a question eliciting description of the related motor activity; for example,

Instructor's oral command: Pick up the bottle of wine.

Instructor's oral question: What am I doing?

Student's written reply: You're picking up the bottle of wine.

The second approach is similar to the first except that in place of the oral command the instructor acts it out. Students associate the language they learned which accompanies the motor activity, and in the foreign language they write what the instructor is doing. Of course, as with the actual drill sessions used for learning the language forms, tense changes ("What did I do?," "What have I done?," etc.) as well as pronoun changes are employed for testing.

In conclusion, I think it is fair to admit that there is an element of quixotism in all this talk about communication in the foreign language classroom unless we are talking about teachers who have a good deal of language proficiency themselves. Perhaps this is the reason why some, recognizing their limitations, resort to teaching merely the forms of the language. Gaarder[13] suggests aiding them by furnishing a manual which contains the language needed for the communicative venture. This may be useful, but it cannot help but fail to provide all the language, especially that which so often must occur spontaneously. What is needed is a personal command of the language of common everyday speech, which is difficult to acquire except through extensive linguistic contact with native speakers. Some teachers may be fortunate to have this opportunity available to them in their own communities, while others, at considerable sacrifice, may have to seek it out elsewhere, even to the point of taking up

h is more practical in terms of time

n Audio-Motor Unit can easily be
foreign language commands to
holds the disadvantage of forcing
ιe linguistic system to another, it
/e language to determine quite
ı comprehension skill. Its strength
ve production on the part of the
n of multiple choice items which is
ιowledge.

comprehension, students can be
in the foreign language as the
nd followed by a question eliciting
ιr activity; for example,
ck up the bottle of wine.
at am I doing?
picking up the bottle of wine.
ιr to the first except that in place
ιstructor acts it out. Students
learned which accompanies the
ιgn language they write what the
, as with the actual drill sessions
forms, tense changes ("What did
.) as well as pronoun changes are

is fair to admit that there is an
talk about communication in the
ιess we are talking about teachers
ιnguage proficiency themselves.
ϡome, recognizing their limitations,
ͻrms of the language. Gaarder[13]
hing a manual which contains the
ηunicative venture. This may be
fail to provide all the language,
ηust occur spontaneously. What
ιand of the language of common
fficult to acquire except through
native speakers. Some teachers
opportunity available to them in
others, at considerable sacrifice,
ϡre, even to the point of taking up

periodic residence abroad. The important point is that some kind of continual growth in competence with the foreign language be experienced by all of us. Through our design of multi-sensory exercises we will undoubtedly be confronted by our inadequacies with common everyday forms of our second language. We talk easily about lessons in the textbook, but can we handle the myriads of other situations that make up ordinary speech? As we attempt to write meaningful exercises for use in our classrooms we will undoubtedly falter at one time or another. But here is where contact with native speakers will avail us in both design of materials and increase in personal language proficiency.

Teaching for communication calls for a supportive relationship between communicative techniques and teacher competence in the language. I believe we must be continually concerned with both elements, for without them, it will be difficult to make our foreign language teaching really very exciting and meaningful.

NOTES

1. D.A. Wilkins. Linguistics in Language Teaching (London: Edward Arnold, 1972).

2. Wilga Rivers.

3. Christina Bratt Paulston. "Structural Pattern Drills: A Classification," Foreign Language Annals: 4 (1970): 187-93.

4. Adrian Palmer. "Teaching Communication," Language Learning 20(1970): 55-68.

5. Theodore B. Kalivoda, Genelle Morain and Robert J. Elkins. "The Audio-Motor Unit: A Listening Comprehension Strategy That Works," Foreign Language Annals 4(1971): 392-400.

6. Robert J. Elkins, Theodore B. Kalivoda and Genelle Morain. "Teaching Culture Through the Audio-Motor Unit," Foreign Language Annals 6 (1971): 61-67.

7.   Francois Gouin.   The Art of Teaching and Studying
Languages, trans. Howard Swan and Victor Betis. London: G.
Phillip and Son, 1892.

8.   Otto Jespersen.   How To Teach A Foreign Language.
London: Swan Sonnonschein, 1904.

9. John W. Oller, Jr. and Dean H. Obrecht. "The Psycholinguistic
Principle of Informational Sequence: An Experiment in Second
Language Learning," International Review of Applied Linguistics 7
(1969): 117-23.

10.   John Schumann.   "Communication Techniques," TESOL
Quarterly 6(1972): 143-62.

11. Institute of Modern Languages, 2622-24 Pittman Drive, Sliver
Spring, Maryland 20910.

12. Institute of Modern Languages, Teach Communication With
SR, p. 7.

13. A. Bruce Gaarder. "Beyond Grammar and Beyond Drills,"
Foreign Language Annals 1 (1967): 109-18.

Art of Teaching and Studying
an and Victor Betis. London: G.

To Teach A Foreign Language.
1904.

H. Obrecht. "The Psycholinguistic
ence: An Experiment in Second
al Review of Applied Linguistics 7

imunication Techniques," TESOL

iges, 2622-24 Pittman Drive, Sliver

ages, Teach Communication With

ind Grammar and Beyond Drills,"
367): 109-18.

1980-1984
THE REUSABLE
COMMUNICATION FORMAT

(Reprinted from Dimension: 1984)

Barbara González
The University of Texas
at San Antonio

There is great interest in the foreign language profession today in helping students to use the target language in meaningful ways, to accomplish real-life purposes via their new language. To help our students to do this, however, we need classroom activities appropriate to the objective, activities which facilitate the exchange of real information. Yet at least some of these activities must be suited to the limited repertoire of the beginner, who constitutes the bulk of our enrollments; and because teachers don't have endless time to seek out different formats, it would be very useful for us to have available formats that can be reused with different content as we move from topic to topic.

In addition, we need activities which will help students to communicate about the significant notions in the target language (common topics such as clothing, food, body parts, furnishings, etc. and common situations such as buying food, servicing a car, banking, etc.) and the more important functions in the target language (persuading, informing, implementing, apologizing, disagreeing, etc.). While we recognize students' needs to practice the linguistic structures of the language, we have decided that this practice must occur in meaningful, communicative contexts. Following a discussion of benefits of the small group format and factors to keep in mind when using it, I shall discuss characteristics of the good activity and then present examples of six different reusable small-group communication formats.

Besides needing a body of interesting activities that facilitate communicative interaction in the above four categories we also need formats for our activities which maximize the students' opportunities to use the language. A student in a class of 30 may get to speak only 1/30th of the time available for student participation. Further, the amount of time devoted to student participation may be quite small. Many studies have estimated teacher talk as taking 50 to 80 percent of total class time, as most of the types of talk in most classrooms are teacher-centered (Kramsch, 1981). Even in those whole-group activities that are directed at student oral work, the teacher speaks 50 percent of the time in the usual teacher-student interaction pattern (Valette, 1978). These statistics suggest that there is a great potential advantage in small group work. Working with the whole class at once minimizes the amount of time that any one student is directly involved and may also maximize loss of attention between "turns." In small group activities each student participates much more frequently. Teacher-talk is minimized, and a student in a group of four should be able to participate 1/4 of the time. Thus his/her opportunities for meaningful exchanges are greatly increased. Further, the student gets to communicate with someone besides the teacher. The teacher is not the only person with whom the student can have a valuable communicative exchange, and the move to communication-centered teaching calls for a move from teacher-centered to group-centered (Eckard and Kearny, 1981).

By small group we mean any grouping of from two to six persons. For second language learning purposes any larger grouping doesn't permit or ensure sufficient participation by each group member.

BENEFITS AND ADVANTAGES

The potential benefits and advantages to using small group communications activities can be great. As noted previously, an obvious first benefit is in the increased amount of time available to each student to participate. In addition, there could be numerous affective benefits. First of all, studies of students' projected goals in second language study and of their post-class reactions to second-language study indicate that the students most valued learning to speak (Westphal, 1978). A small-group

of interesting activities that facilitate
the above four categories we also
ies which maximize the students'
uage. A student in a class of 30
h of the time available for student
nount of time devoted to student
nall. Many studies have estimated
80 percent of total class time, as
st classrooms are teacher-centered
ose whole-group activities that are
the teacher speaks 50 percent of
student interaction pattern (Valette,
jest that there is a great potential
k. Working with the whole class at
of time that any one student is
maximize loss of attention between
es each student participates much
< is minimized, and a student in a
o participate 1/4 of the time. Thus
eaningful exchanges are greatly
ident gets to communicate with
er. The teacher is not the only
student can have a valuable
id the move to communication-
a move from teacher-centered to
(earny, 1981).
n any grouping of from two to six
ige learning purposes any larger
sure sufficient participation by each

ID ADVANTAGES

d advantages to using small group
be great. As noted previously, an
ncreased amount of time available
te. In addition, there could be
First of all, studies of students'
juage study and of their post-class
study indicate that the students
(Westphal, 1978). A small-group

communication emphasis offers the potential to help the students meet their speaking objectives.

Further, many second-language students are shy about speaking before a whole class. The small group format has the potential to alleviate that shyness (Paulston and Selekman, 1978). Students generally feel much more comfortable about participating in a group of three or four other learners.

Motivation is often greater in a small group activity. As previously noted, the student doesn't have to wait so long between turns when working in a small group. His/her attention is less likely to wander. Further, when real information is being exchanged, interpersonal involvement among the students is greater (Ur, 1981). Attention is less likely to wander for this reason also. Altogether then, the possible affective benefits of this format are numerous.

Small-group communication can also constitute integrated language practice. Further, this practice is occurring in a natural, contexted manner (Littlewood, 1981). In order to participate in open-ended activities, the student is called upon to synthesize his/her knowledge of linguistic structures, vocabulary domains, and registers within the target language (Yalden, 1981). While participating in more tightly structured activities, the student practices patterns that reflect a synthesis of forms, vocabulary and registers; and this practice may ultimately enable him/her to participate effectively in the open-ended activities. In addition, the student is learning to fulfill the functions of language and to communicate real needs and meanings in the target language ((Urzua, 1981). The functions become part of the synthesis as they are integrated with the aforementioned forms, vocabulary, and registers. And finally, all this integrated practice is accomplished within the appropriate cultural frame, as the student implements the target culture's particular formulas for disagreeing, apologizing, turn-taking, etc. (Eckard and Kearny, 1981).

Another benefit relates to time and material. If involving all students is a teacher's goal, this involvement can be accomplished more efficiently in a small-group situation than in a whole-class activity. A six-item activity gives each student a turn if a class of 30 is working in groups of six, whereas 30 items are required in a whole group activity if all students are to participate. Further, only six time units instead of 30 are needed to give everyone a turn. Clearly the teacher has to prepare less material and has more time available for other activities.

The small-group communication approach can be expected to motivate and relax students, to let them participate far more, and to afford them increased opportunities for integrated language use, thus meeting their own goals and those of their teachers.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER IN IMPLEMENTATION

The following represent teacher reservations about small-group activities and possible solutions:

(1) "Beginners don't know enough to do such an activity."
Actually they do, as there are many formats that make use of a quite limited range of vocabulary and structures.

(2) "Students won't stay on task."
Students need preparations for group work. They need to understand the importance and benefits of what they are doing, and they need to have ground rules (Moskowitz, 1978). They also need a clear goal for the end of the activity. Thus prepared, most will usually stay on task. In addition, the teacher can offer "check" points to a group to see if the person called on can repeat what was just said in the group."

(3) "Forming groups disrupts the class."
Don't number off or scatter to form groups. Let students work with others according to where they are already seated.

(4) "Preparing the materials takes too much time."
Time is saved by not having to prepare whatever these activities replace. Further, as noted earlier, fewer items are required to give each group member one or more turns than to give each class one or more turns in the whole group. And finally, activities once prepared can be used again and again.

(5) "Students will make errors that won't be corrected."
Students in groups engage in peer teaching, helping one another express themselves effectively. Yet, certainly, they will make some uncorrected mistakes, as the teacher cannot hear the work of all groups at once; and teachers generally feel that it is a serious matter to let students speak incorrectly. Nevertheless, the beginner at self-expression must make mistakes, and students who have the opportunity throughout their study to use the target language creatively will ultimately use the language more effectively, more

ıication approach can be expected
s, to let them participate far more,
ısed opportunities for integrated
their own goals and those of their

ɔER IN IMPLEMENTATION

teacher reservations about small-
solutions:
enough to do such an activity."
ə are many formats that make use
ɔf vocabulary and structures.
:ask."
ıns for group work. They need to
ce and benefits of what they are
o have ground rules (Moskowitz,
 a clear goal for the end of the
most will usually stay on task. In
 offer "check" points to a group to
n can repeat what was just said in

 the class."
ter to form groups. Let students
g to where they are already seated.
akes too much time."
aving to prepare whatever these
:, as noted earlier, fewer items are
 up member one or more turns than
ɔr more turns in the whole group.
 prepared can be used again and

ɔ that won't be corrected."
ge in peer teaching, helping one
ʼes effectively. Yet, certainly, they
əd mistakes, as the teacher cannot
ıs at once; and teachers generally
s matter to let students speak
ı, the beginner at self-expression
students who have the opportunity
use the target language creatively
language more effectively, more

extensively and more correctly then those who say little,
however, correct (Savignon, 1978). Further, the use of more
controlled activities for beginners will minimize errors.

(6)   "One student will do all the work."
       Build the activity so that all group members are required to
       participate.   If students are each given a part of the
       information necessary to complete the task, for example, this
       will happen.
(7)   "The students will get stuck and will revert to their native
       language."
       Several factors can mitigate this problem. Encouraging peer
       teaching will cause students to provide vocabulary for one
       another. The teacher can supply items as needed as well
       while moving from group to group.   The use of more
       controlled formats for beginners will also help, as will
       teaching/encouraging students to circumlocute in the target
       language.   Students should also be provided with the
       vocabulary in the target language that is necessary to
       complete the activity if they don't already have it (Smith,
       1981).

All in all, most potential problems in the use of small-group
communication activities can be avoided by careful planning of
the material and procedures and by preparing the students
appropriately for the work that they are to do.

RECOGNIZING/CREATING THE GOOD ACTIVITY

The primary concern in selecting or writing small-group
communication activities is finding a format that is based neither
on free conversation, as this is unlikely to be understood by less-
advanced students, nor on totally mechanical patterns that
communicate nothing meaningful (Krashen, 1981).   The format
has to be understood but yet must be partially open-ended to
allow for meaningful personalized communication. The amount of
control will be further discussed below.

Another concern is to find a format that will generate more
extended responses. Too many languages can be dealt with by
using one-word responses. While vocabulary activities have their
place, activities that call for the use of more extended responses
will go further to facilitate communications goals.   When using
games or small-group activities, teachers should look for materials
that involve the exchange or expression of real information.

Clearly such activities must be interesting to students in order to be successful. What is of interest is often difficult to determine. Personalization goes far in this direction, however. When students are expressing their own preferences, opinions and experiences to one another, they tend to be interested even if the topic in question is rather mundane. Using meaningful material about the participants rather than third-person mechanical material is also more effective (Littlewood, 1981). Students will care more about expressing what they did yesterday than about changing a group of sentences to past tense.

The task in question should be such that all students in each group can do it, assuming appropriate prior preparation, although perfection of performance is not necessary. Comprehension and participation are.

Material in such activities should relate to the syllabus, the test, or expressed student needs. It should not be the sort of activity that the students can view as a time-killer only. It should call for students to use everyday language as would be required in real-life situations, and if it also reinforces or practices the use of a structure or a vocabulary domain, all the better (Zelson, 1978). It should also have the student becoming familiar with language as used in the target culture, revealing norms of register or function appropriate to that culture.

In practical terms the activity should be reasonably simple for the teacher to prepare material for, to prepare the students for, and to implement. It should fit into the teacher's desired time frame (perhaps ten to thirty minutes), and it should be conducive to work by groups of from two to six students. If it is to be used for beginners, there should be a readily identifiable response range so that appropriate phrases and vocabulary options can be taught to the students first. The format should facilitate participation by all members of each group.

If all or even most of these criteria are met in selecting or preparing activities, success is much more nearly assured. The teacher will also be interested in identifying formats that have been successful with his/her students previously, so that these can be modified for new topics and reused.

ust be interesting to students in
t is of interest is often difficult to
ɔes far in this direction, however.
ɉ their own preferences, opinions
ɘr, they tend to be interested even
her mundane.   Using meaningful
ɪants   rather   than   third-person
nore effective (Littlewood, 1981).
ɪxpressing what they did yesterday
of sentences to past tense.
ɔuld be such that all students in
ing appropriate prior preparation,
ɘrformance   is   not   necessary.
on are.

should relate to the syllabus, the
ɘds.   It should not be the sort of
iew as a time-killer only.   It should
ay language as would be required
lso reinforces or practices the use
y domain, all the better (Zelson,
ɪe student becoming familiar with
culture, revealing norms of register
culture.

ivity should be reasonably simple
terial for, to prepare the students
ɉ fit into the teacher's desired time
ɪutes), and it should be conducive
to six students.   If it is to be used
ɔe a readily identifiable response
ses and vocabulary options can be
.   The format should facilitate
ɉ each group.

se criteria are met in selecting or
; much more nearly assured.   The
ɉ in identifying formats that have
students previously, so that these
s and reused.

SOME SAMPLE REUSABLE
COMMUNICATIONS FORMATS

Use of the following formats facilitates the development of listening and speaking skills.   The formats are reusable and can be redone with material from a variety of lessons.

Because the activities are done in small groups, each student's opportunity to participate is maximized.   He/she gets to speak one-fourth of the time in group of four, instead of one-thirtieth of the time in a group of thirty.

The material should be as "real" and as personalized as possible, as in the examples to be demonstrated.   This "realness" and personalization enhance both motivation and clarity of meaning, which often results in greater learning.   Students enjoy the face-to-face practice and the opportunity to share real information, as opposed to practicing or manipulating essentially meaningless patterns.

I. ROLEPLAY (See below)

The teacher practices the phrases, questions, and sample dialogs with students.   Then small groups create their own dialog for the incomplete dialogs and situations provided on the handout and perform them for the class.   Each group may choose a situation, or the teacher may assign them.

II. DIRECTED DIALOG CARDS

Although the cards should be based on familiar material, the teacher may wish to review the vocabulary and/or phrases to be used.   Then each group of students receives a packet of cards or slips.   Each person in turn is to draw a card and look at the "ask" or "tell" side only.   He/she then "asks" or "tells" according to the instructions, addressing another student in the group, who responds appropriately.   They can then check their performance by looking at the sample question and answer on the back of the card.   The teacher goes from group to group offering assistance. It is desirable to have three or four times as many cards as students per group.

Sample Card:

Ask someone where he/she usually studies	¿Dónde estudias generalmente? Generalmente estudio en mi recámara ___ _____.

III. CHAINS

Each group gets a set of cards, one or two per student. Each card contains a familiar statement and answer format in the target language. Each student in turn starts his/her chain, which then goes around the group. He makes the statement given on his card (e.g., "My birthday is May 13th.") and asks the related question on the card of the person on his right (e.g., "When is your birthday?") who answers and asks the same question of the third person. When this question has gone around the group, the second person begins his "chain." The teacher goes from group to group, offering assistance.

IV. ADD-ONS

Each group gets a set of cards, one or two per student. Each card contains a familiar but incomplete statement in the target language. The first student in the group starts his/her statement, (e.g., "At the store last week I bought _____."), which then goes around the group with each person repeating what has already been said and adding on appropriately. When the first statement has gone around the group, the second student starts his/hers.

V. SITUATIONS

Each group gets a packet of cards, two per student. Each card describes a situation (in the native or the target language). Each student reads a card to himself, not letting others see it. Then student #1 monologs what he/she would say in that situation in the target language for the group, who must guess the situation. For example, he reads, "You see a child crying in front of the school. You go up to him and say something" and he says "¿Qué tienes, hijito? ¿Qué te pasó?" After the others

Sample Card:

	¿Dónde estudias
Ask someone	generalmente?
where he/she	
usually studies	Generalmente
	estudio
	en mi recámara __
	_____.

III. CHAINS

.   Each group gets a set of cards, one or two per student. Each card contains a familiar statement and answer format in the target language. Each student in turn starts his/her chain, which then goes around the group. He makes the statement given on his card (e.g., "My birthday is May 13th.") and asks the related question on the card of the person on his right (e.g., "When is your birthday?") who answers and asks the same question of the third person. When this question has gone around the group, the second person begins his "chain." The teacher goes from group to group, offering assistance.

IV. ADD-ONS

Each group gets a set of cards, one or two per student. Each card contains a familiar but incomplete statement in the target language. The first student in the group starts his/her statement, (e.g., "At the store last week I bought _____."), which then goes around the group with each person repeating what has already been said and adding on appropriately. When the first statement has gone around the group, the second student starts his/hers.

V. SITUATIONS

Each group gets a packet of cards, two per student. Each card describes a situation (in the native or the target language). Each student reads a card to himself, not letting others see it. Then student #1 monologs what he/she would say in that situation in the target language for the group, who must guess the situation. For example, he reads, "You see a child crying in front of the school. You go up to him and say something" and he says "¿Qué tienes, hijito? ¿Qué te pasó?" After the others

ıple Card:

.Dónde estudias
ıeneralmente?

ぃ
ʒeneralmente
ıstudio
ın mi recámara __

_____.

of cards, one or two per student.
statement and answer format in the
ıt in turn starts his/her chain, which
He makes the statement given on
ɜ May 13th.") and asks the related
person on his right (e.g., "When is
and asks the same question of the
ıstion has gone around the group,
ıs "chain." The teacher goes from
ıtance.

of cards, one or two per student.
r but incomplete statement in the
tudent in the group starts his/her
last week I bought _____."), which
'ith each person repeating what has
ʒ on appropriately. When the first
ıe group, the second student starts

ıt of cards, two per student. Each
the native or the target language).
ɔ himself, not letting others see it.
what he/she would say in that
ʒe for the group, who must guess
e reads, "You see a child crying in
ɹp to him and say something" and
¿Qué te pasó?" After the others

guess the situation, then the second person monologs for his/her situation, etc.

IV. INTERVIEWS

The teacher rehearses a set of questions and response formats with the class. Then the students are each to interview four other people with the questions, taking note of responses. After all have finished, the teacher rehearses report formats with the students, who then each report on one item of their choice.

For example, the interview might be:
¿Cómo se llama?
¿A qué persona famosa quiere conocer?
¿Qué ciudad quiere visitar?
¿Cuál es su color favorito?

The response formats would then be:
Me llamo _____
Quiero conocer a _____
Quiero visitar _____
Mi color favorito es _____

And the report formats would be
___(name)___ quiere conocer a
___(famous person)___.
___(name)___ quiere visitar
___(place)___.
El color favorito de ___(name)___ es
___(color)___.

Interviews can also be done with cards in small groups. Each group receives a packet of six cards. Each card has from one to three familiar questions with answer and report formats (see above). Each student asks his question(s) of the others in the group. All may speak at once (in pairs), or the teacher may direct that the others listen while each one asks. Then the teacher calls for reports from several (large class) or all (small class) students.

Note: On all activities teacher should interact afterward with students, using same items, in order to doublecheck comprehension, appropriateness of responses, etc.

Teacher should also extend the activity by asking any appropriate related questions.

ROLE PLAY: INVITATIONS

I.   Expressions to practice
     A.   Asking and Explaining
     I'm having a _____.
     I'm going to _____ on _____
       at _____.
     Would you like to come?
     Can you come?
     Will you come?
     Will you join us?
     Would you be able to come?
     We'd like you to come to _____ at ____
       on _____.
     It's on _____ at _____.
     Are you free?
     How about _____?

     B. Accepting and Asking
     I'd love to come.
     I'd like to come.
     I'll be there.
     That's great!
     How nice of you!
     When is it?
     I think so.
     What time?
     I'll look forward to it.

     C. Declining
     I'm sorry but I can't.
     I'm busy then.
     What a shame! I'll be out of town.
     I hope you'll ask me again sometime.

     D. Accepting response
     I'm so glad.
     My address is _____.
     We'll see you then.

also extend the activity by asking
related questions.

ⓕ INVITATIONS

aining

_____.

_ on _____

,

ⱻme?

ɔ _____ at ____

_____.

_____?

ɟ

of town.
in sometime.

_____.

That's too bad.
Well, maybe next time.
We'll miss you.
It's at _____.

II. Sample to Practice
  A. Hi, Susie. I'm having a birthday
      party next week. Can you come?
      I'd like to come. When is it?
      It's on Friday at 4 o'clock.
      That's great! I'll be there.

  B. Hi, Bill. This is Patsy. We'd like you to come to dinner
      next Tuesday. Are you free?
      Yes, I think so. What time?
      How about 7 o'clock.
      That's fine. I'll look forward to it.
      Great. We'll see you then.

III. Dialogs to Complete
  A. Joe: Hi, Mary. I'm having a party
      on Friday at seven.
      Can you come?
      Mary: _____.
      Joe: Oh, what a shame. _____.
      Mary: _____.

  B. Judy: Paul, we're having a Christmas party on the
      23rd. Will you join us?
      Paul: _____.
      Judy: That's great. It's at seven o'clock.
          Paul: _____.

IV. Situations to Roleplay
     You want to invite a friend to your house for a party.
     You want to invite a friend to the movies.
     You want to invite a friend to dinner at your house.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brown, H. Douglas. Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1980.

Eckard, Ronald D. and Mary Ann Kearny. Teaching Conversation Skills in ESL. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1981.

Gattegno, Caleb. Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools the Silent Way. New York: Educational Solutions, 1972.

Guadiani, Claire L. "The Participatory Classroom." Foreign Language Annals 14 (1981): 172-180.

Gónzalez, Barbara. "Small Group Activities for Second Language Teaching." ED 152 102.

Hubp, Loretta Burke. Let's Play Games in Spanish. Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1974.

Joiner, Elizabeth. "Keep them guessing." In Developing Communication Skills, Elizabeth Joiner and Patricia Westphal, eds. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

Kettering, Judith Caarl. Developing Communicative Competence: Interaction Activities in English as a Second Language. Pittsburgh: The University Center for International Studies, 1975.

Kramsch, Claire J. Discourse Analysis and Second Language Teaching. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1981.

Krashen, Stephen D. Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. New York: Pergamon Press, 1981.

Kupferschmid, Gene. Y tú,: ¿Qué dices? Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath, 1982.

JOGRAPHY

es of Language Learning and
Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.,

Ann Kearny. Teaching
SL. Washington, D.C.: Center for
1.

Foreign Languages in Schools the
Educational Solutions, 1972.

ticipatory Classroom."
ls 14 (1981): 172-180.

iroup Activities for Second
) 152 102.

Play Games in Spanish. Skokie, Ill.:
1974.

m guessing." In Developing
lizabeth Joiner and Patricia
Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

eloping Communicative
Activities in English as a Second
The University Center for
75.

e Analysis and Second Language
D.C.: Center for Applied

d Language Acquisition and
ling. New York: Pergamon Press,

¿Qué dices? Lexington, Mass.:

Lee, W.R. Language Teaching Games and Contests. Oxford:
    Oxford University Press, 1979.

Littlewood, William. Communicative Language Teaching.
    Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981.

Moskowitz, Gertrude. Caring and Sharing in the Foreign
    Language Classroom. Washington, D.C.: Center for
    Applied Linguistics, 1981.

Paulston, Christina Bratt and Howard R. Selekman. "Interaction
    Activities in the Foreign Classroom, or How to Grow a
    Tulip Rose." In Developing Communications Skills,
    Elizabeth Joiner and Patricia Westphal, eds. Rowley,
    Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

Savignon, Sandra. "Teaching for Communication." In
    Developing Communication Skills, Elizabeth Joiner and
    Patricia Westphal, eds. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House,
    1978.

Smith, Clyde R. "Contextualizing Pattern Drills: The 'German
    Circle Games'." Foreign Language Annals, 14 (1981):
    203-212.

Stevick, Earl W. Teaching and Learning Languages.
    Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982.

Ur, Penny. Discussions That Work. Cambridge: Cambridge
    University Press, 1981.

Urzua, Carole. Talking Purposefully. Silver Spring, MD.:
    Institute of Modern Languages, Inc., 1981.

Valette, Rebecca. "Developing and Evaluating Communications
    Skills in the Classroom." In Developing Communication
    Skills Elizabeth Joiner and Patricia Westphal, eds. Rowley,
    Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

Westphal, Patricia B. "Moi Tarzan, Vous Jane?: A Study of
     Communicative Competence." In Developing
     Communications Skills, Elizabeth Joiner and Patricia
     Westphal, eds. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

Yalden, Janice. Communicative Language Teaching:
     Principles and Practice. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: OISE
     Press, 1981.

Zelson, Sidney N.J. "Skill-Using, Self-Expression and
     Communication: Exercises in Three Dimensions." In
     Development Communications Skills, Elizabeth Joiner and
     Patricia Westphal, eds. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House,
     1978.

ıra González

arzan, Vous Jane?: A Study of
ence." In Developing
Elizabeth Joiner and Patricia
 Mass.: Newbury House, 1978.

tive Language Teaching:
 Toronto, Ontario, Canada: OISE

ing, Self-Expression and
ses in Three Dimensions." In
ations Skills, Elizabeth Joiner and
Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House,

1985-1989
THE SYMPOSIUM ON THE EVALUATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY: CHALLENGES TO THE PROFESSION

(Reprinted from Dimension: 1987)

Albert Valdman
Indiana University

INTRODUCTION

The ETS-ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) has had a profound impact on the foreign language (FL) teaching profession over the last four or five years.[1] There is scarcely any area of the field that has not been affected by this attempt to institute a national metric based on demonstrated proficiency in a FL and, more importantly, to define achievement in language instruction in terms of functional use rather than command of a specific body of material or, as Barbara Freed has put it, mere "seat-time."

But what has come to be called the "Proficiency Movement" involves much more than the development and dissemination of a particular instrument for the evaluation of demonstrable functional use of a FL. At the heart of the Movement are the ACTFL Guidelines which are viewed by some of its proponents as a veritable blueprint for the planning and delivery of FL instruction at the high school and university level. The generic guidelines define global proficiency levels in terms of three sets of judgments; (1) the ability to carry out certain functions using the target language, (2) the ability to deal with certain topic or content units, (3) the ability to produce a range of structural and discourse features with accuracy. Proponents of the Proficiency Movement stress the experiential rather than hypothetical nature

of the Guidelines (Omaggio, p. 35), and they are confident that they can be used to specify inventories of elements whose control will lead students to attain specified levels of proficiency.

> Because these guidelines and definitions represent actual rather than hypothetical language production, teachers can amend their expectations for students' linguistic and communicative development to conform to reality. The descriptions should prove useful in designing language programs, in the sense that they outline general performance criteria and specify the kinds of contexts and situations handled with reasonable ease at each level of competence . . . . Once we have identified, at least in terms of general performance criteria, what students have to know in order to function at or beyond a given level of competence, we will have come a long way toward knowing what it is we have to teach (Omaggio, p. 35).

There is general agreement that the Proficiency Movement launched by ACTFL has invigorated FL instruction and that is has had a beneficial backwash effect on a variety of areas from teacher training to material development and pedagogical procedures. Nonetheless several aspects of the OPI and the Guidelines have elicited severe reservations on the part of FL teaching methodologists and applied linguists who, like the proponents of the Proficiency Movement, place a high priority on the acquisition of functional skills by FL students. Unfortunately there has been little direct interaction between proponents of the Proficiency Movement and its critics. Yet this interaction could be mutually profitable, for it would lead to urgently needed research that would provide a firmer theoretical and empirical basis for not only a national FL proficiency metric but also for attempts to link levels of communicative ability in a FL to stages of acquisitional development. It was precisely in order to initiate this type of interaction that a Symposium on the Evaluation of FL Proficiency was held on the Bloomington Campus of Indiana University, March 4-6, 1987. To lay the groundwork for the Symposium, a workshop was organized in conjunction with the 1986 annual meeting of ACTFL in Dallas.

Based on the favorable reactions that followed the Workshop, approximately 30 American specialists of FL teaching

p. 35), and they are confident that
ventories of elements whose control
ecified levels of proficiency.

_guidelines and definitions
'than hypothetical language
ı amend their expectations for
ommunicative development to
escriptions should prove useful
ograms, in the sense that they
ınce criteria and specify the
d situations handled with
h level of competence . . . .
, at least in terms of general
at students have to know in
ır beyond a given level of
ve come a long way toward
.ve to teach (Omaggio, p. 35).

ent that the Proficiency Movement
ırated FL instruction and that is has
effect on a variety of areas from
l development and pedagogical
veral aspects of the OPI and the
ıre reservations on the part of FL
I applied linguists who, like the
Movement, place a high priority on
kills by FL students. Unfortunately
ıraction between proponents of the
critics. Yet this interaction could be
I lead to urgently needed research
ıoretical and empirical basis for not
metric but also for attempts to link
/ in a FL to stages of acquisitional
ıly in order to initiate this type of
on the Evaluation of FL Proficiency
ın Campus of Indiana University,
groundwork for the Symposium, a
conjunction with the 1986 annual

ıle reactions that followed the
\merican specialists of FL teaching

methodology or applied linguistics were invited to prepare reports to be distributed in advance or to serve as discussants and resource persons at the Symposium.[2] They were selected from experts who have in various ways been concerned with the development of communicative ability in a FL and the assessment of that ability; (1) those involved in the development and the administration of the OPI and the elaboration of the ACTFL Guidelines; (2) those involved in the training and certification of OPI rates; (3) those involved in the elaboration of communicatively-oriented curricula, syllabuses, teaching procedures, and materials; (4) those involved in the observation and analysis of second language learning. The participants represented a broad range of second and foreign language teaching situations; the commonly taught languages (French, German, and Spanish) and the major less commonly taught languages (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian, Russian, and Subsahara African languages) in the United States; indigenous languages of Europe; and the teaching of English as a second language. In addition to the participants several overseas observers were invited, especially from Western Europe where FL teaching specialists have taken the lead in developing communicatively-oriented programs and international schemes for the definition and assessment of proficiency levels, for example the Threshold Level and the Niveau Seuil. Invitations were also extended to a small number of representatives from professional groups and federal agencies involved in research and development in FL learning and in FL teaching.

The proceedings of the Symposium, containing all the position papers, discussant reports, and summaries of discussions are now available. In this report, I will attempt to focus on the reservations expressed about the OPI and the Guidelines. I have selected four problem areas that were discussed at the Symposium: (1) the global nature of the OPI and related issues of validity, reliability, and fairness; (2) the view of communicative interaction inherent in the Guidelines; (3) the relationship between the OPI scales and the Guidelines and the nature of FL acquisition; (4) practical problems posed by the generalized used of the OPI. In the concluding section of this report I will mention some research directions identified at the Symposium.

ISSUES

1. The global nature of the OPI

For Lyle Bachman the central question in evaluating the OPI and the ACTFL-Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) guidelines is whether they constitute a valid measure of communicative language proficiency, defined as the ability to conduct culturally embedded verbal interaction with speakers of the target language community. He answered in the negative because he believes the OPI confounds the competence to be measured with the method of measurement. Developers of the OPI are confronted with a dilemma. They can aim for grater standardization and trade less content validity for more reliability of scoring; or they can expand the range of sample tasks and trade closer approximation to real linguistic interaction for reduced reliability.

Bachman views communicative language ability not as a holistic construct but one composed of three sets of constituent capabilities, each of which should be evaluated separately and each of which makes different predictions about an examinee's ability to perform specific communicative tasks. The Functional Trisection, which developers of the OPI view as its keystone, becomes for Bachman its chief liability, because the very use of the same performance sample to simultaneously evaluate content, function, and structural accuracy confuses test design with evaluation, content, and method. He also underscores the limited view of the nature of communicative proficiency reflected by evaluation guidelines that pay insufficient attention to pragmatic and sociolinguistic considerations. Instead he proposes a tripartite model in which linguistic structure, narrowly defined to encompass phonology, morphosyntax, and lexicon, forms only one of the four subcomponents of language competence. Bachman's scheme resembles the widely used Canale-Swain model in its stress on the rhetorical, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic features of interactive verbal communication. It differs, however, in that it isolates as a separate component control of motor skills, grouped under psychophysiological competence, and distinguishes more clearly between rules of language use, subsumed under pragmatic competence, and strategic competence. The latter identifies the ability to plan, execute, and assess socially embedded speech acts as a distinct and important part of communicative language ability.

SSUES

OPI

entral question in evaluating the OPI
anguage Roundtable (ILR) guidelines
a valid measure of communicative
d as the ability to conduct culturally
with speakers of the target language
n the negative because he believes
npetence to be measured with the
evelopers of the OPI are confronted
aim for grater standardization and
r more reliability of scoring; or they
sample tasks and trade closer
tic interaction for reduced reliability.
nicative language ability not as a
mposed of three sets of constituent
should be evaluated separately and
nt predictions about an examinee's
mmunicative tasks. The Functional
s of the OPI view as its keystone,
ief liability, because the very use of
e to simultaneously evaluate content,
curacy confuses test design with
nod. He also underscores the limited
municative proficiency reflected by
ly insufficient attention to pragmatic
rations. Instead he proposes a
uistic structure, narrowly defined to
phosyntax, and lexicon, forms only
onents of language competence.
les the widely used Canale-Swain
orical, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic
communication. It differs, however,
te component control of motor skills,
physiological competence, and
between rules of language use,
atic competence, and strategic
tifies the ability to plan, execute, and
speech acts as a distinct and
itive language ability.

The componential approach also characterizes the proficiency evaluation model devised specifically for Arabic and African languages by Patrick Bennett and Ann Bierstecker. As is the case with Bachman's proposal, this scheme places greater emphasis on pragmatic and sociocultural aspects of verbal interactions than does the OPI.

Looking at the OPI from a narrower psychometric perspective Elana Shohamy raised questions about its validity and reliability. She granted that with extensive and continuous training of raters, acceptable levels of interrater reliability may be attained. However, she listed other types of reliability to which developers of the OPI have not paid sufficient attention: test-retest reliability, parallel forms reliability, and interviewer reliability. Because the interviewer is an integral part of the test such factors as interviewer attitude, personality, and rapport with the individual being tested greatly influence results. Shohamy also stressed the narrow nature of the range of interactional competence tapped by the OPI, and she reported that a recent study she and her collaborators conducted showed only moderate correlations between four different types of verbal interactions: an interview, a role play, a reporting task, and a discussion. Observations such as these have led the Israel Ministry of Education to abandon an oral interview used for nearly 20 years in favor of a more varied scheme that samples verbal performance in the aforementioned four types of interaction. In addition, each part of the test is conducted by a different person.

Shohamy also mentions the need for applying criteria other than validity and reliability; utility, accuracy, feasibility, and fairness. For example, she points out that an important factor in the implementation of the OPI test is its positive backwash effect on instruction, particularly demands for higher levels of oral proficiency to be demonstrated by teachers and greater stress on the development of the oral skills. With respect to the criterion of fairness, which Shohamy defines as insuring that a test be conducted legally, ethically, and with regard to the welfare of the individuals tested as well as others affected by test results, failure to sufficiently take it into account holds great potential risks in our litigious society.

The potential legal problems raised by the use of the OPI for purposes of establishing degree requirements and for teacher certification is precisely the issue addressed by Sally Magnan in her contribution. Referring to recent court cases, she stressed

the need to establish the content and instructional validity of the test and its efficacy as a predictor of successful use of the target language and teaching competence. The link between proficiency in the language taught and pedagogical effectiveness will prove particularly difficult to establish in view of the multiplicity of objectives of general academic FL instruction and the vast array of knowledge and skills it demands on the part of teachers. Magnan cited the disquieting judicial precedent created by the 1979 case (Armstead versus Starkville Municipal Separate School District) in which the Graduate Record Examination was found unconstitutional as a criterion for the hiring and retention of high school teachers because its constituent tasks could not be proven to be directly related to good teaching. For these reasons, Magnan recommends that the use of the OPI or similar instruments for FL teacher certification should not be administered by degree granting institutions or employers of teachers but should be entrusted instead to professional teacher organizations.

John Clark and Ray Clifford outlined a program of research that would validate and provide a firmer empirical base for the OPI and the ACTFL-ILR guidelines. They admit that, paradoxically, the OPI falls considerably short as a face-and content-valid measure of communicative interaction. They suggest research involving the correlation of OPI scores with a wider variety of more face-and content-valid activities and with highly specific tasks in employment and language use settings. Clark and Clifford also granted that the developers of the OPI must resolve problems on intra- and interrater reliability, and they pointed out that another area that deserves research is that of the relative resistance of communicative ability to attrition.

2. The nature of communicative interaction

Even in their new revised form, the Guidelines stress structural accuracy and functional adequacy to the detriment of sociolinguistic and discourse competence. In response to Heide Byrnes' laudable attempt to incorporate these competencies in the OPI scales, Claire Kramsch identified three weaknesses that make the OPI a less than adequate measure of what she termed interactional competence and that doom to reductionism all attempts to broaden the scope of rater judgments. First, because of the interactional nature of communication, the rater, as a cooperative partner in the elicitation of ratable samples, introduces an uncontrollable variable. As Bachman pointed out

itent and instructional validity of the
lictor of successful use of the target
ompetence.   The link between
lught and pedagogical effectiveness
to establish in view of the multiplicity
idemic FL instruction and the vast
it demands on the part of teachers.
j judicial precedent created by the
Starkville Municipal Separate School
ate Record Examination was found
i for the hiring and retention of high
s constituent tasks could not be
ed to good teaching.   For these
ds that the use of the OPI or similar
tification should not be administered
ons or employers of teachers but
o professional teacher organizations.
ford outlined a program of research
vide a firmer empirical base for the
 guidelines.   They admit that,
 considerably short as a face-and
 communicative interaction.   They
he correlation of OPI scores with a
nd content-valid activities and with
oyment and language use settings.
ted that the developers of the OPI
ra- and interrater reliability, and they
a that deserves research is that of
imunicative ability to attrition.

itive interaction

vised form, the Guidelines stress
tional adequacy to the detriment of
competence. In response to Heide
incorporate these competencies in
ch identified three weaknesses that
equate measure of what she termed
ad that doom to reductionism all
e of rater judgments. First, because
of communication, the rater, as a
e elicitation of ratable samples,
variable. As Bachman pointed out

this results in a serious confounding of test content and test
method. Second, basing the Guidelines on specific norms is
incompatible with the evaluation of sociolinguistic competence
which requires constant shifting of norms in reaction to the subtle
changes in the social situation that inevitably occur during
communicative interaction.   Third, Kramsch pointed out the
implicit sociocultural bias of a test that places a high premium on
conversational management skills and decontextualized linguistic
features associated with certain cultural levels and social groups.
To eliminate these shortcomings, she suggested replacing the
discrete behavioristic objectives, characteristic of traditional
practice, with more abstract sociocultural constructs.

For Dale Lange one of the most serious problems for the
implementation of the Guidelines is that level definitions related
to the socio-cultural context are relegated to the upper end of the
OPI scale. As Claire Kramsch (1986) has repeatedly stressed,
genuine interactional competence, at any level, presupposes
sociocultural knowledge.

Without it, students are at the mercy of content
structure, of the words they hear or read, without being able
to recognize either the personal intentions or the cultural
assumptions behind the words (p. 368).

The adaptation of the OPI and the Guidelines to the
assessment of proficiency in languages other than the commonly
taught Western European languages (one of the topics discussed
at the Symposium) has heightened our awareness of how cultural
considerations powerfully determine the degree of acceptable
sociolinguistic deviance in learners' interlanguage.   Unlike the
Western European languages in general, those of the Far East,
for example, require speakers to constantly situate themselves
socially and choose appropriate linguistic variants with respect to
the status of their interlocutors.   It is clear that for such
languages suitable guidelines must incorporate statements about
sociolinguistic competence at the lowest proficiency levels.

3.   The relationship between the OPI scales and the Guidelines and the nature of FL learning

As Nina Garrett pointed out in her position paper on the role
of grammar in the Proficiency Movement:

The Guidelines as rating level descriptions were
originally developed on the basis of experiential data,
reflecting the job-related requirements of the population

being tested, rather than on the basis of adult classroom second language acquisition theory or theoretically motivated empirical research.

She delineated two mutually exclusive positions concerning the place of grammar in the OPI and the Guidelines: (1) relative levels of grammatical accuracy and sequences for the use of specific grammatical features are determined on the basis of experiential evidence, in which case no independent validation (for example, on the basis of psycholinguistic evidence) is necessary; or (2) such independent validation is used to legitimize claims about the developmental order of grammatical features and specification of levels of accuracy. Like several other Symposium participants, notably Dan Douglas and Dale Lange, Nina Garrett stressed the priority of theory construction and testing in determining the role of linguistic features in the acquisition of functional skills. Douglas noted that, because of the complexity of verbal communication, it cannot be claimed that the mastery of any set of linguistic features corresponds to a given degree of communicative effectiveness.

Lange pointed out that a glaring flaw in the Guidelines is that their experiential base consists of observations of adult learners. Extrapolating from this base to classroom learning involving children, adolescents, and young adults entails the assumption that FL learning processes remain constant across these various groups. I might add that another weakness involves extrapolation from the specific-purpose instruction characteristic of the various government agencies concerned with FL training and the fundamental instruction that forms the bulk of school and university FL teaching.

John de Jong, representing the Dutch agency for educational testing (CITO), suggested that at lower levels of proficiency, learners are more dependent on structural features and that, consequently, at these levels tests might need to be criterion-referenced and discrete-point. More advanced learners have deficiencies, and their proficiency can be assessed on a single dimension. These facts would lead us to question whether an instrument originally devised by FSI for evaluating a relatively high level of proficiency (S-3 on the FSI scale and Superior on the ACTFL scale) should be the model for assessing the much lower levels of competence realistically attainable by academic learners.

than on the basis of adult
1guage acquisition theory or
empirical research.
/ exclusive positions concerning the
PI and the Guidelines: (1) relative
acy and sequences for the use of
1s are determined on the basis of
ich case no independent validation
s of psycholinguistic evidence) is
1dependent validation is used to
developmental order of grammatical
1f levels of accuracy.   Like several
1ts, notably Dan Douglas and Dale
1 the priority of theory construction
he role of linguistic features in the
s.   Douglas noted that, because of
1unication, it cannot be claimed that
inguistic features corresponds to a
ive effectiveness.
a glaring flaw in the Guidelines is
consists of observations of adult
n this base to classroom learning
1ts, and young adults entails the
processes remain constant across
1ight add that another weakness
the specific-purpose instruction
overnment agencies concerned with
1tal instruction that forms the bulk of
2hing.
1senting the Dutch agency for
suggested that at lower levels of
e dependent on structural features
1ese levels tests might need to be
ete-point.   More advanced learners
proficiency can be assessed on a
1 would lead us to question whether
ed by FSI for evaluating a relatively
on the FSI scale and Superior on
the model for assessing the much
realistically attainable by academic

Another moot issue in the evaluation of FL proficiency is the construct of educated native speaker (ENS) speech, which constitutes the implicit target norm in the ACTFL Guidelines and the explicit one for the ILR version. In my own position paper, I argued that in classroom FL instruction, such a target is too restrictive, and I provided as an alternative a multi-target model of language variation according to which native speakers differ with respect to a variety of norms and the degree to which they are influenced by shared norms in particular social contexts. According to that model the speech of native speakers also varies with regard to relative planning in response to another set of social and contextual factors. I suggested that the special social context represented by the FL classroom warrants the establishment of special pedagogical norms. Because it involves the presentation in pedagogical materials of sociolinguistically stigmatized features, the notion of pedagogical norm raises the thorny issue of accuracy and fossilization. Sociolinguistic deviance is unavoidable in early-level interlanguage; even speech targeted on ENSs may be deviant in certain social contexts. The issue of the terminal 2+, around with discussions about the importance of grammatical accuracy have turned, will generate more heat than light until a solid body of empirical observations can be adduced in support of the claim that allowing learners to produce communicatively adequate but structurally deviant utterances inevitably leads to fossilization. Perhaps fossilization can be reduced by a better match between communicative demands and linguistic means available to learners. But instead of reducing functional demands in the interest of more accurate grammatical expression I suggested that, whenever possible, the level of grammatical complexity be adjusted to the learners' limited competence.

4.   Administrative and practical problems

The implementation of a national metric for the assessment of functional ability in FLs poses numerous administrative and budgetary problems. Few institutions of higher learning, and even fewer school systems, are equipped to administer a resource-intensive test of functional ability. What is the most efficient administrative structure for training qualified testers and validating training of individual teachers? Of course, the answers will vary depending on the number of learners of a given language. Whereas there are tens of thousands of learners of

French, German and Spanish, only a few dozen persons each year attempt to acquire a functional ability in such languages as Dutch, Haitian Creole, or Indonesian.

Another set of questions that must be answered concerns the various uses of national metric. At what levels of study (beginning, intermediate, advanced) should learners be administered resource-intensive tests and for what skills? Should a national metric be used for validation of foreign language study at the secondary school level? For placement in university courses? For university language requirements? For certification of language majors or prospective secondary school teachers? For admission to specialized graduate school programs?

More than five years after its introduction at the high school and university level the OPI is still not widely used. The somewhat trial nature of the test results in large part from the immense logistic and financial problems posed by its widespread and massive use. Nonetheless two noteworthy attempts have been made to assess FL learning by the use of proficiency tests. An important part of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency were progress reports of the attempts to institute language proficiency requirements at the University of Pennsylvania and at the University of Minnesota.

Barbara Freed described the University of Pennsylvania's pioneering adaptation in 1981 of a variant of the FSI test and ILR guidelines as a proficiency-based exit requirement in fourth-semester FL courses. The initiative required a two-year preparatory period during which administrative procedures were devised, student fears allayed, suitable instruments implemented, and appropriate cut-off levels determined. Although the introduction of proficiency-based exit requirements have not led to a demonstrable improvement in student performance after two years of study, it has invigorated the FL programs and markedly improved articulation between lower-division courses by providing long-term objectives independent of specific course content. Most importantly, it has shown that an evaluation instrument such as the OPI that makes special demands for staff and time and training and that induces considerable student anxiety can indeed be integrated into the curriculum of mid-size university programs.

As was the case with the University of Pennsylvania program, the University of Minnesota initiative described by Dale Lange was motivated by an educational policy decision to defined achievement in FL study in terms of demonstrable proficiency

;h, only a few dozen persons each
ictional ability in such languages as
onesian.

s that must be answered concerns
il metric.   At what levels of study
advanced) should learners be
ive tests and for what skills? Should
validation of foreign language study
·vel? For placement in university
lage requirements? For certification
)ective secondary school teachers?
graduate school programs?

ir its introduction at the high school
)I is still not widely used.   The
test results in large part from the
I problems posed by its widespread
ess two noteworthy attempts have
ning by the use of proficiency tests.
)osium on the Evaluation of Foreign
)rogress reports of the attempts to
/ requirements at the University of
·ersity of Minnesota.

d the University of Pennsylvania's
of a variant of the FSI test and ILR
based exit requirement in fourth-
1e initiative required a two-year
iich administrative procedures were
I, suitable instruments implemented,
/els determined.   Although the
sed exit requirements have not led
int in student performance after two
ited the FL programs and markedly
lower-division courses by providing
1dent of specific course content.
1 that an evaluation instrument such
al demands for staff and time and
;iderable student anxiety can indeed
um of mid-size university programs.
1 the University of Pennsylvania
1nesota initiative described by Dale
lucational policy decision to defined
terms of demonstrable proficiency

rather than time spent in study. The Minnesota program is a
bolder experiment because it involves a redefinition of both
entrance and graduation requirements in proficiency terms. A
typical midwestern state university, Minnesota has larger lower-
division FL programs than those of private institutions like the
University of Pennsylvania.   Also, changes in the entrance
requirements of public universities necessarily have a backwash
effect on local high school graduation requirements, and they
require close coordination between administrators and teachers
at both levels. These differences are reflected in the form of the
test itself and also in the guidelines that underlie the proficiency
ratings and the levels of minimal performance. As was the case
for Barbara Freed, Dale Lange did not adopt the ACTFL
Guidelines unquestioningly. On the contrary, he underscored
some of their shortcomings, particularly for the reading
requirement, and he recommended continued validation and
revision. He concluded with a thorough and candid analysis of
the problems that the implementation of any integrated
proficiency-based FL program faces given the many inadequacies
of prevalent teacher training, curriculum and syllabus design,
materials development, and, most importantly, administrative
practices in major university FL programs.

The exit proficiency levels set at the University of
Pennsylvania and at the University of Minnesota lead one to
question the emphasis that the Proficiency Movement places on
developing a national metric for the assessment of oral interaction
skills for what I have termed basic, fundamental FL instruction.
At both institutions, the oral proficiency level is fixed at the
Intermediate Mid level which is defined in the old Generic
Guidelines as the ability to satisfy most survival needs and limited
social demands in a manner that is intelligible to native speakers
used to dealing with foreigners (the revised 1986 Guidelines are
counted in somewhat different terms: the ability to handle
successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic and communicative
tasks and social situations and to be understood by sympathetic
interlocutors).   At the University of Minnesota entrance oral
proficiency levels are set at the Novice High level which is
defined in the 1986 Generic Guidelines as the ability to satisfy
partially the requirements of basic communicative exchanges by
relying heavily on learned utterances but occasionally expanding
these through simple recombination of their elements. Learners
at the Novice High level will have difficulty being understood even

by sympathetic interlocutors.   It is legitimate to ask what educational purpose is served by a test designed to measure levels of attainment so low as to pose acute problems of reliability and, ultimately, of fairness.

The gain in oral interactive proficiency between entrance and exit that the University of Minnesota testing program attempts to measure is relatively meager. Such a testing program could meet the criterion of fairness only if it could be demonstrated that the assessment met high standards of reliability. However Barbara Freed pointed out that, although the Pennsylvania proficiency test adheres to the guidelines and format of the OPI, it is administered and scored by teaching assistants who generally have not undergone the rigorous training required for ACTFL certification. Because the University of Minnesota oral proficiency tests need to be administered to hundreds of students, it takes the form of the ROPE (Recorded Oral Proficiency Examination) rather than the standard OPI. Although it is evaluated in terms of the ILR guidelines, the ROPE (Lowe & Clifford) uses a stimulus audiotape on which conversational questions of increasing complexity and sophistication are asked by a native speaker. As is the case at the University of Pennsylvania, the scoring is handled by relatively untrained graduate teaching assistants, rather than by certified teachers.

Protase Woodford emphasized the need for compromise in the generalization of a common metric. He pointed out that the University of Pennsylvania's pioneering initiative required setting standards below those needed for students to reach the functional objectives selected. For instance, attainment of the Advanced level in reading would scarcely be sufficient for the analysis of a piece of literature. He suggested the elaboration of two sets of scales. One set would provide teachers with detailed information for diagnostic purposes; a second set, couched in more general performance objectives, would be addressed to users.

John Clark and Ray Clifford mentioned attempts by government agencies to develop variants of the OPI that are less onerous to administer and that measure linguistic skills other than interactional ability.

rs.   It is legitimate to ask what
/ed by a test designed to measure
s to pose acute problems of reliability

ive proficiency between entrance and
nnesota testing program attempts to
. Such a testing program could meet
if it could be demonstrated that the
ards of reliability.   However Barbara
ugh the Pennsylvania proficiency test
s and format of the OPI, it is
/ teaching assistants who generally
jorous training required for ACTFL
liversity of Minnesota oral proficiency
ed to hundreds of students, it takes
orded Oral Proficiency Examination)
I. Although it is evaluated in terms
PE (Lowe & Clifford) uses a stimulus
ersational questions of increasing
1 are asked by a native speaker. As
ty of Pennsylvania, the scoring is
ined graduate teaching assistants,
iers.
iasized the need for compromise in
ion metric. He pointed out that the
pioneering initiative required setting
eded for students to reach the
d. For instance, attainment of the
vould scarcely be sufficient for the
e. He suggested the elaboration of
vould provide teachers with detailed
irposes; a second set, couched in
bbjectives, would be addressed to

Clifford mentioned attempts by
lop variants of the OPI that are less
it measure linguistic skills other than

CONCLUSION

Without denigrating the considerable accomplishments
resulting from the various initiatives undertaken by ACTFL, it is
fair to say that much remains to be done before the FL teaching
profession has at its disposal a common metric to measure
proficiency in the functional use of language in its various
modalities that meets generally recognized canons of face validity,
reliability, fairness and which, at the same time, is relatively easy
and economical to administer on a larger scale.   Even more
remains to be done before we can substantiate any claims about
direct links between the attainment of various levels of proficiency
and stages in second languages development, on the one hand,
or between specific levels of proficiency and inventories of
discrete linguistic, discourse, or sociolinguistic features that need
to be mastered, on the other hand.

In his perceptive synthesis of the Symposium G. Richard
Tucker remarked that much of the controversy surrounding the
adaptation of the ACTFL Guidelines and the OPI to what I have
termed the fundamental FL teaching programs of high schools
and universities (the teaching of FL as part of a liberal education)
is attributable to an attempt to meet a variety of incompatible
objectives and to please a disparate clientele.   He felt that
progress in the development of more valid and reliable testing
procedures required collaborative work in three areas.   First,
operational definitions of basic terms such as "fluency,"
"accuracy," and even "proficiency" need to be developed. Indeed,
Pardee Lowe considered this to be the most important challenge
that the FL teaching profession must take on. Without precision
and common agreement in the use of basic terms, exchange of
information and constructive discussion are nigh impossible.
Second, a proactive research program for the validation of the
OPI and the Guidelines patterned on that which has accompanied
the development and the refinement of the TOEFL test needs to
be instituted.   I have indicated some suggested topics for a
vigorous program of research and development earlier in this
program of research and development earlier in this report, but
let me mention several others: (1) comparing the scores of
various proficiency tests with actual performance in real world
language use tasks; (2) submitting proficiency test scores to
secondary analysis, for example, having academic testers score
tests rated by government agencies raters and vice-versa; (3)

determining to what extent the ability to make reliable OPI ratings remains constant over time and examining the relative resistance of various types of linguistic features to attrition and language loss; and (4) exploring which linguistic features are more likely to trigger sterotypic reactions on the part of native speakers or those who use test results. Finally, Tucker made a plea for wider sharing of information, not only within this country but on an international basis.

At the symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency, a number of concerns about the direction taken by the development of the OPI surfaced. The Proficiency Movement is still in its incipient stage. Given many of the gaps in our understanding of the nature of FL proficiency and of processes of FL learning, it seems hazardous to continue to focus on stressing the evaluation of communicative interaction. It is also risky to invest in developing the OPI to measure low-levels of proficiency. The amount of interactional skills that can be developed in our short high school language sequences or in elementary and intermediate university courses is too small and to evanescent. It would be naive to assume that when they discover that the typical four year high school FL program will only develop the ability to meet survival needs and limited social demands, students and administrators will clamor for longer periods of study that can guarantee meaningful communicative ability. On the contrary, such a realization may erase current positive attitudes toward FL study or lead to a backlash against emphasis on oral skills, such as listening comprehension and reading, where more significant results can be shown after modest periods of study. Also, these skills are more robust and less likely to be eroded than communicative ability. Speaking proficiency could be evaluated by the various types of semidirect procedures described by John Clark and Ray Clifford, and the evaluation should serve mainly diagnostic purposes.

More importantly, the limited means at our disposal should be marshalled for the development of valid and reliable tests for the evaluation of students who are learning FL's for specific purposes; undergraduate language majors, graduate students, and prospective teachers. Early indications of foreign language education majors revealed that nearly half of those tested ranged from Intermediate High to Novice High on the ACTFL scale or 1+ to 0+ on the FSI scale. Alas, we must assume that this shocking state of affairs may not have improved appreciably. Our first

Valdman

ability to make reliable OPI ratings
d examining the relative resistance
features to attrition and language
linguistic features are more likely
on the part of native speakers or
ally, Tucker made a plea for wider
ily within this country but on an

Evaluation of Foreign Language
erns about the direction taken by
rfaced. The Proficiency Movement
Given many of the gaps in our
f FL proficiency and of processes
ardous to continue to focus on
nmunicative interaction. It is also
the OPI to measure low-levels of
interactional skills that can be
school language sequences or in
niversity courses is too small and
naive to assume that when they
year high school FL program will
t survival needs and limited social
inistrators will clamor for longer
rantee meaningful communicative
a realization may erase current
idy or lead to a backlash against
as listening comprehension and
ant results can be shown after
, these skills are more robust and
communicative ability. Speaking
by the various types of semidirect
i Clark and Ray Clifford, and the
diagnostic purposes.
ed means at our disposal should
nent of valid and reliable tests for
io are learning FL's for specific
uage majors, graduate students,
ly indications of foreign language
nearly half of those tested ranged
:e High on the ACTFL scale or 1+
'e must assume that this shocking
improved appreciably. Our first

priority must be the development of proficiency tests which
specialists in testing and second language learning believe to be
sufficiently valid, reliable, and fair to be made an integral part of
the training of our FL specialists, including those entrusted with
the teaching of FL's as a fundamental part of a general
education.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Freed, Barbara F. "Issues in establishing and maintaining a
language proficiency requirement." Proceedings of
theSymposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language
Proficiency. Ed. Albert Valdman. Bloomington, IN.:
CREDLI: 263-274.

Kramsch, Claire. "From language proficiency to interactional
competence." Modern Language Journal 70(1986): 366-
72.

Lowe, Pardee, Jr. & Ray T. Clifford. "Developing an indirect
measure of overall oral proficiency." Measuring Spoken
Language Proficiency. Ed. James R. Frith. Washington,
DC: Georgetown University Press, 1980: 31-39.

Omaggio, Alice A. Teaching Language in Context. Boston:
Heinle and Heinle, 1986.

NOTES

1.   The following position papers were presented (discussant names are listed (in parenthesis) after each paper):   John L.D. Clark, Ray T. Clifford, "The FSI/ILR/ACTFL Proficiency Scales and Testing Techniques: Development, Current Status, and Needed Research;" Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, "The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines: An Update;" Lyle F. Bachman, "Problems in Examining the Validity of the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview," (Sally Magnan, Elana Shohamy); David Hiple, "The Extension of Language Proficiency Guidelines and Oral Proficiency Testing to the Less Commonly Taught Languages," (Ron Walton, Sally S. Magnan, Patrick Bennett, Erenest N. McCarus, Jos Nivette, David Singleton, Irene Thompson, John U. Wolff); Dan Douglas, "Testing Listening Comprehension in the Context of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines," (John H.A.L. de John, Harry L. Gradman); Albert Valdman, "The Problem of the Target Model in Proficiency-Oriented Foreign Language Instruction," (Pardee Lowe, Jr., John U. Wolff); Heidi Byrnes, "Features of Pragmatic and Sociolinguistic Competence in the Oral Proficiency Interview," (Dell Hymes, Clarie Kramsch);   Nina Garrett, "The Role of Grammar in the Development of Communicative Ability," (Simon Belasco, Theodore V. Higgs); Susan M. Gass, "L2 Vocabulary Acquisition," (James R. Child, Sharon Lapkin, Susanne Carroll); Barbara F. Freed, "Issues in Establishing and Maintaining a Language Proficiency Requirement;" Dale L. Lange, "Developing and Implementing Proficiency Oriented Tests for a New Language Requirement at the University of Minnesota: Issues and Problems for Implementing the ACTFL/ETS/ILR Proficiency Guidelines," (Robert C. Lafayette, Sandra Savignon, Protase Woodford); G. Richard Tucker, "Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency: Synthesis."

2. Albert Valdman, ed. Proceedings of the Symposium on the Evaluation of Foreign Language Proficiency.   Bloomington, Ind.: Committee for Research and Development in Language, Indiana University, 1987.

OTES

ipers were presented (discussant
sis) after each paper):   John L.D.
'ILR/ACTFL Proficiency Scales and
nent, Current Status, and Needed
asparro, "The ACTFL Proficiency
.yle F. Bachman, "Problems in
ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview,"
y); David Hiple, "The Extension of
es and Oral Proficiency Testing to
anguages," (Ron Walton, Sally S.
est N. McCarus, Jos Nivette, David
in U. Wolff); Dan Douglas, "Testing
e Context of the ACTFL Proficiency
John, Harry L. Gradman); Albert
ie Target Model in Proficiency-
struction," (Pardee Lowe, Jr., John
es of Pragmatic and Sociolinguistic
incy Interview," (Dell Hymes, Clarie
ie Role of Grammar in the
Ability," (Simon Belasco, Theodore
/ocabulary Acquisition," (James R.
Carroll); Barbara F. Freed, "Issues
ining a Language Proficiency
  "Developing and Implementing
a New Language Requirement at
a: Issues and Problems for
.R Proficiency Guidelines," (Robert
i, Protase Woodford); G. Richard
.anguage Proficiency: Synthesis."

edings of the Symposium on the
e Proficiency. Bloomington, Ind.:
evelopment in Language, Indiana

USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS TO DEVELOP FUNCTIONAL PROFICIENCY IN WRITING

John I. Liontas
Richmond Senior High School
Rockingham, NC

INTRODUCTION

Never before in the history of foreign language education
has there been a better time to preach and teach the gospel of
functional and authentic writing in an interdependent fashion that
does not artificially separate it from the skills of speaking,
listening, reading, and from culture. Indeed, writing for proficiency
has sparked such a national interest in the teaching of writing
across the curriculum that it continues to be the subject of much
discussion in our profession today.   This paper proposes to
establish a theoretical framework for an integrated writing plan
and offer concrete suggestions and applications around which
proficiency-based writing activities can be designed, developed,
and implemented.

SOME THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR A WRITING PLAN

As one reads the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (1985) for
writing, it becomes clear that writing is not . . .

* the forgotten fourth skill.
* just taking pen in hand and putting it to paper.
* a "composition" class.
* compulsory muscle-flexing exercise of "writing things down."
* homework exercises, quizzes, boardwork, reports, or essays
  on "My Summer Vacation."
* practicing spelling, new verb forms, and vocabulary words.
* mere transcription of speech.

* a passive skill or a by-product of other skills.
* a mass of red ink and a hard-to-explain grade.

Conversely, it is most definitively . . .

* a natural, self-directed and highly individual activity.
* a form of learning.
* a mental and physical activity.
* a rewarding risk-taking task.
* a problem-solving activity.
* a support skill for speaking, listening, and reading.
* a means of real communication, isolated in place and time.
* a slow and very often painful process to master.
* a discourse with specific rhetorical strategies, qualities, and conventions.
* a communication tool that not only reinforces other skills but also enhances the internalization of the target language and culture as well.
* a more accurate, complete, and less redundant skill than speech.
* a way of giving life to a once lifeless blank paper.

In summary, understanding that writing as a mode of expression is a support skill as well as a highly communicative act that accomplishes various expressive communicative purposes will help us structure, sequence, and choose activities that reflect the same natural and authentic purposes for which writing is actually used by the native speakers of the language within their own contexts. To meet this challenge, students and teachers of second or foreign languages must understand the reasons why we write in real life. Knowing why we write will help us identify, spiral, and progressively expand the functions needed to ascend from lower to higher levels of proficiency. This, in turn, enables us to inform, narrate, describe, persuade, question, promise, apologize, complain, express feelings and attitudes, preferences and concrete experiences, discuss ideas, and support points of view, and the like.

The ACTFL Guidelines for writing identify the multiple functions students are able to perform at each proficiency level, as well as the topics and situations in which they can carry out these functions, and the degree of accuracy with which students compose their thoughts coherently. Beyond that, this set of

ct of other skills.
d-to-explain grade.

·ly . . .

ighly individual activity.

/.

listening, and reading.
on, isolated in place and time.
 process to master.
:orical strategies, qualities,

it only reinforces other skills
ilization of the target language

ind less redundant skill than

· lifeless blank paper.

ng that writing as a mode of
; well as a highly communicative
pressive communicative purposes
, and choose activities that reflect
c purposes for which writing is
akers of the language within their
illenge, students and teachers of
iust understand the reasons why
vhy we write will help us identify,
I the functions needed to ascend
roficiency. This, in turn, enables
e, persuade, question, promise,
elings and attitudes, preferences
uss ideas, and support points of

or writing identify the multiple
jerform at each proficiency level,
ions in which they can carry out
 of accuracy with which students
antly. Beyond that, this set of

guidelines also indicates that students at the lower levels of proficiency operate primarily with memorized material (learned words, phrases, lists, single syntactic frames, etc.) and show little evidence of creating with the language. Their level is one of a word-or sentence-level performance, whereas the advanced and superior students operate cohesively and coherently on the paragraph-length level, clearly create with language, and express themselves freely and lucidly.

To be compatible with a proficiency orientation, it becomes necessary to follow a spiral continuum or progression of writing exercises. Students should be provided with authentic writing tasks tailored to their current proficiency level. This is not to say that dictations, transcriptions, manipulative exercises, lists, guided and/or free compositions, and the like are no longer of service in our foreign language classrooms. It merely capitalizes upon the need to choose writing activities that reflect functional and authentic use of the language (Magnan, 1985).

What do we as teachers of second or foreign languages need to consider before we ask students to engage in any writing activity? First of all, for any activity to be oriented towards proficiency, three key concerns need to be addressed:

1.   Are the writing activities authentic and keyed to the multiplicity of students' affective-cognitive needs, interests, abilities, ages, and styles of learning?
2.   Do the writing activities we ask students to perform contribute to the development of communicative, and linguistic proficiency within a cultural context?
3.   Will the group size affect students' language-use opportunities for purposeful functional and authentic interaction?

Only after having answered the above questions can we proceed to consider such issues as.

* the teaching of the cognitive processes, including but not limited to, organization, elaboration, definition, generalization, argumentation, explanation, awareness of the audience, comparison and contrast, and the like.
* the introduction of discourse features that reflect conventions of writing in the culture (e.g. connectors, spelling, qualifiers, punctuation, capitalization, abbreviations, clear and complete

John I. Liontas

information, elaboration and detail, organization, formalization of
style and tone, accuracy, précise word, syntactic structures, and
so on) to achieve a discourse beyond the paragraph level that
is natural, cohesive and coherent.
* the composing process of writing as a) planning, b) rescanning,
and c) revising (see Krashen, 1984, pp. 17-18).

     Beyond that, teachers at all levels need to be aware that
writing assignments.

* will become even more meaningful and purposeful, both for
students and teachers alike, if they grow out of need.
* should move from lists through descriptions and narration to
hypothesizing and logical coherent paragraphs and discourse.
* should be challenging, interesting, and practical in nature.
* should increase in range and difficulty as students ascend from
lower to higher levels of proficiency.
* must go beyond linguistic manipulation to develop flexibility,
creativity, and authenticity in the target language.

     Because writing is a much different channel of delivery than
speech and because writing does not develop as naturally as
speech, it is obvious that the old saying "If you can say it, you
can write it" is not valid.   Writing requires clearer and more
complete information, elaboration, better organization, and
accuracy   (Rivers,   1975).   Students'   control   of
grammatical/syntactical structures, instructional/communicative
contents, and socio-cultural/interactional contexts need to be
given primary consideration. Only then can they be expected to
move from conceptual through partial to full performance control
in writing at each proficiency level.   Said another way, the
audience for and the purpose of writing must be made clear to
the students just as the topics need to be carefully sequenced so
that they can first recognize the functions of writing, then
manipulate them mechanically, and finally produce them on paper
naturally for purposes of communication.

etail, organization, formalization of
ise word, syntactic structures, and
· beyond the paragraph level that
ent.
ting as a) planning, b) rescanning,
1984, pp. 17-18).

all levels need to be aware that

aningful and purposeful, both for
they grow out of need.
igh descriptions and narration to
·rent paragraphs and discourse.
sting, and practical in nature.
difficulty as students ascend from
ency.
hanipulation to develop flexibility,
e target language.

different channel of delivery than
ioes not develop as naturally as
old saying "If you can say it, you
iting requires clearer and more
ation, better organization, and
          Students' control of
res, instructional/communicative
eractional contexts need to be
hly then can they be expected to
partial to full performance control
level.   Said another way, the
of writing must be made clear to
eed to be carefully sequenced so
the functions of writing, then
nd finally produce them on paper
unication.

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR
THE PRACTICAL-MINDED

Because this paper is meant to be a practical one, some
specific suggestions need to be presented first, before discussing
the design, development and implementation of writing activities
at various levels of proficiency:

1. Set the parameters of the writing activity. Asking students
    to write about what they did over the weekend is more
    demanding and confusing in nature than writing about how
    they spent their Saturday afternoon.
2. Select a topic appropriate to the linguistic level of the
    students. Don't expect them to narrate and describe if they
    cannot yet make or put together a grocery list.
3. From the very beginning of instruction teach the process of
    writing, i.e., the way the language operates in the target
    culture with respect to organizing, focusing, logical
    sequencing, style, and tone of discourse. Do not merely
    expose students to the conventions of the written code of
    the target language.
4. Have students write a series of drafts thus enabling them to
    receive adequate feedback (from peers or teachers)
    concerning content, organization of ideas, amount of detail,
    accuracy, etc. If possible, use anonymous writing samples
    from other classes to minimize the level of self-consciousness
    of the individual writer/ reader while maximizing the level of
    a cooperative, anxiety-free writing environment among
    students.
5. Have students engage in various authentic language-use
    writing activities that require some of them to list, others to
    narrate and describe, some to take notes, and others to
    summarize.
6. Provide students with as much authentic reader response as
    possible. Why? Because outside the four walls of the
    classroom, we always write for a reason, and there is always
    a real-life receiver, even oneself.
7. Go from global to specific and from the known to the
    unknown, similar to the process of listening and reading.
8. Provide a setting for the writing assignment for two reasons:
    a) it creates in the students' minds a schema that enables

accommodate more efficiently the
ɔ existing cognitive structures, and
more meaningful and authentic in

ACTIVITIES

ınizing proficiency-based writing
 adapt, or select culturally authentic
ncy orientation and combine them
entertaining and challenging. The
g for proficiency suggests various
ıterials as cultural resources for
or productive skills (Rings, 1986;
ıd Medley, 1988). Although realia
ʒreat benefit to language learners,
trongly that it is not the content or
that determine the difficulty of the
sk students to perform based on
ples.
emonstrate how writing as a vital
ı can be introduced and practiced
ırdependent fashion. Since skills
apart from each other, so should
context and cultural framework in

usend Worte":
ısand words"]
ıums

kills of listening and speaking
ıighly interesting and challenging
t enables students to use
ırrative language within past and
es

ınd biographical information

pplying biographical information;
ɔelling pictures; describing

people, places and times; narrating events in
paragraph form

Management

    A. Have students bring to class pictures of themselves with family and friends. Compile pictures into sets.

    B. Give each student a set of pictures other than their own.

    C. Have students interview the owners of the pictures while taking notes.

    D. Using their notes as an aid, have students transcribe the interview.

    E. Have students present the interview to the class.

Ich entwerfe mein eigne Autogrammkarte
[I propose my own autobiographical sketch]

Purpose   To move students from "Me Jane, You Tarzan" responses to extended discourse

Content   Biographical and personal information

Functions   Supplying personal biographical information on forms; writing resumes with some detail in past, present, and future time frames

Management

    A. Have students, either individually or as a group, read a number of Autogrammkarten [autobiographical sketches] of celebrities in order for them to become familiar with the vocabulary, format, style, and content.

    B. Supply students with an Autogrammkarte form and have them fill in the appropriate information. Also, students can fill in additional information which they may feel is lacking from the form such as occupation, nationality, hobbies, weight, personality, etc.

C. As a preparation for Advanced-
Level writing, have students write a short
description of their "Werdegang," or in other
words, a short biographical sketch up to the
present.

D. Next, having successfully completed the above
step, have each student write a cover letter to
the editor of a magazine explaining why the
editor ought to publish the student's
Autogrammkarte.

Sprich Dich aus . . .
[Speak out . . .]

Purpose   To give students a sense of accomplishment by
practicing various functions of authentic-language
use and by blending and synthesizing the mental-
physical activity of writing with listening speaking,
and reading tasks

Content   Concrete topics relating to personal needs and
interests

Functions   Creating with the language; leaving messages on
the answering machine; writing limited formal
correspondence in paragraph form; explaining
point of view with some detail; thanking and
complaining

Management
A. Present the students with the following context:
"Something is troubling you, for example: you
had a family fight, you are quarreling with your
boyfriend/girlfriend, you were caught cheating,
you need an operation, etc. While you were
reading a magazine, you came across the
feature "Sprich Dich aus . . . " You have a
choice to either call or write.
When you call the line is busy. On your
second call you get a recording.
1. Leave your name, the time of your call, a
brief summary of the reason for your call, your

on for Advanced-
lave students write a short
their "Werdegang," or in other
biographical sketch up to the

uccessfully completed the above
:h student write a cover letter to
magazine explaining why the
publish the student's
te.

a sense of accomplishment by
functions of authentic-language
ing and synthesizing the mental-
f writing with listening speaking,

elating to personal needs and

language; leaving messages on
ichine; writing limited formal
n paragraph form; explaining
some detail; thanking and

udents with the following context:
troubling you, for example: you
ght, you are quarreling with your
end, you were caught cheating,
operation, etc. While you were
jazine, you came across the
Dich aus . . . " You have a
er call or write.
the line is busy. On your
u get a recording.
name, the time of your call, a
of the reason for your call; your

phone number, and what days and times you
can be reached at home.
2. You have been waiting for the return call for
a week now, and there is still no answer from
the editor.
Your problem still exists, so you decide to write.
Explain in detail what your problem is, the
cause of your problem, how upset you are, and
ask for advice.
3. You have received the editor's advice and
followed it to the letter.
Now, write the editor, either
a) A thank-you note because things worked
out so well, or
b) A note of complaint because the
suggestions back-fired and made your problem
even worse.

Mir liegt etwas auf dem Herzen
[Something's on my mind]

Purpose   To help students become more aware and critical
of their own writing strategies and capabilities
while engaging in a more complex simulated
authentic task that requires the use of their
expressive writing expertise such as organization,
elaboration, argumentation, appropriate style and
code, elements of cohesion and coherence in their
discourse, and the like

Content   Everyday events and preferences

Functions Writing formal correspondence; explaining,
suggesting, instructing, thanking, and comparing

Management
A. You watched a show on TV that included
controversial issues which offended you. Write
a letter to the network or the sponsors of the
show stating that.
1. you will no longer buy the products that
sponsor such programs.

2. they should remove such offensive material from public TV.

3. they should air such programs in a later time slot.

4. if they do not stop broadcasting such programs, you will organize a letter-writing campaign to persuade Congress to establish a federal code for network broadcasting.

B. You switch channels. For weeks now you have been watching quality shows. Write a letter to the network and inform them that.

1. they should continue airing such shows.

2. they should include more of this quality programming.

3. their shows exercise the First Amendment right of freedom of speech.

4. their shows gave rise to a very stimulating and long-lasting discussion with your family/ friends.

5. most of their shows, although controversial in content, have been presented in an objective manner, treating both sides fairly.

Wie es uns gefällt?
[How it appeals to us]

Purpose	To accelerate the rate of change in the students' language attitude from one of "writeophobia" to functional and authentic writing that goes beyond the four walls of the classroom while generating their own motivation to learn by minimizing performance anxiety during learning
Content	Clothing, colors, preferences, and concrete topics relating to personal interests
Functions	Listing, identifying, and labelling clothing and pictures with descriptions and vice versa; writing short paragraphs about oneself; explaining and justifying personal selections

I remove such offensive material

air such programs in a later

ot stop broadcasting such
will organize a letter-writing
ersuade Congress to establish a
r network broadcasting.
innels. For weeks now you have
quality shows. Write a letter to
d inform them that.
continue airing such shows.
include more of this quality

exercise the First Amendment
n of speech.
gave rise to a very stimulating
g discussion with your family/

ir shows, although controversial
e been presented in an objective
g both sides fairly.

rate of change in the students'
from one of "writeophobia" to
hentic writing that goes beyond
he classroom while generating
on to learn by minimizing
ty during learning

references, and concrete topics
al interests

and labelling clothing and
riptions and vice versa; writing
about oneself; explaining and
selections

Management
     A. Review clothing vocabulary with students.
     B. Have students bring to class full-size pictures of themselves which they feel best express their personalities.
     C. Have students write a short paragraph explaining why these particular clothes best exemplify themselves.
     D. Collect all writings, mix, and line them up at random.
     Have students match one or more written descriptions with only one picture and justify orally their selections. At no time,however, should students reveal their own writings.

Traummadchen -- Madchentraum
[Dream Girl -- Girl Dream]

Purpose   To make the reading of authentic texts fun and meaningful to students by asking them to engage in functions that are common in the target-language community

Content   Personal interests within the scope of very limited language experience

Functions   Supplying personal information; writing short descriptions; following directions as depicted from text; writing a short letter to the company that is promoting the contest

Management
     A. Show on the overhead projector the text with only its heading, picture, and accompanying personal information. Cover the rest of the text and have students anticipate and/or predict based on the information available what the text is all about.
     B. If students have not yet guessed the word game Madchentraum-Traummadchen, have them skim and/or scan the entire text for global comprehension again.

C. Based on their reading, have students write down in a numerical order all the directions they need to follow. For example:

I must
Ich muß . . .

1. . . . Fotomodell/Dressman werden.
    [become a model/mannequin]
2. . . . mich schminken
    [put on makeup]
3. . . . mich fotografieren(lassen)
    [have my picture taken]
4. . . . zwei Fotos (vor und nach der Verwandlung) und einen kurzen Text an die Redaktion schicken.
    [send two photos (before and after the transformation) and a short text to the editorial office]
5. EinssendenschluB ist . . .
    [the conclusion is . . .]
6. Die Anschrift ist . . .
    [the address is . . .]
(Higher-Level students should also include an accompanying letter to the company)

D. Divide the class into two major groups. All females play Fotomodell [photomodel], all males Dressman [mannequin]. Give students a specific number of days to complete the assignment.

E. Have students bring to the classroom the two pictures and present them to the rest of the class by sharing with the others their feelings after they became Traummadchen [Dream Girl] or Dressman [mannequin].

F. Reward the best work and have it published in your school's newspaper.

Beyond the reading

A. Divide the class into groups of five and give them a set of pictures to judge. They have to judge on personality, hair, style, clothes, color,

ir reading, have students write
merical order all the directions
follow. For example:

nodell/Dressman werden.
 a model/mannequin]
 schminken
nakeup]
 fotografieren(lassen)
 picture taken]
 Fotos (vor und nach der
ung) und einen kurzen Text an
ktion schicken.
ɔ photos (before and after the
ation) and a short text to the
ɔffice]
enschluB ist . . .
:lusion is . . .]
nrift ist . . .
ess is . . .]
students should also include an
ɟ letter to the company)
ss into two major groups. All
Fotomodell [photomodel], all
ıan [mannequin]. Give students a
er of days to complete the

ɟ bring to the classroom the two
ɔresent them to the rest of the
ng with the others their feelings
ame Traummadchen [Dream Girl]
[mannequin].
est work and have it published in
newspaper.

ss into groups of five and give
 pictures to judge. They have to
ɔonality, hair, style, clothes, color,

and overall photogenic appearance.
B. Each group selects a first, second, and third
place picture. The representatives of each
group meet in front of the whole class and
decide on a final first, second, and third place
picture among the top three selections of the
individual groups.

CONCLUSION

Although the writing activities presented here were generated
for students of German, foreign language practitioners at the
secondary or college level will see that they are easily adapted
to other modern languages, including English as a second
language. The author's experiences in utilizing these classroom-
tested activities have consistently underlined their success in
increasing, challenging, and stimulating students' creativity,
intelligence, and keen writing interests.

This paper has attempted to address and define writing as
a thinking process that needs to be introduced and practiced
early in the language course. It has also shown how using realia
from the target culture can be accessed and adapted to the
learner's immediate environment and everyday tasks. Further,
because writing is not only a support skill for speaking, listening,
and reading but an advanced art as well, it is of great importance
that we first teach the process and principles of writing as a
holistic construct within a larger discourse context (content level)
with rules and conventions to be followed before teaching the
individual discourse skills of writing (surface level). Expressed
differently, teaching the process and principles of expressive
writing is more vital and realistic than spoonfeeding students a
myriad of writing skills in isolation.

Whatever the individual approach, one should strive at all
times to fill the gap between the surface and the content level
and to provide students with ample opportunities to move from
the word through the sentence to well-organized cohesive and
coherent paragraph length discourse. Taking proficiency in
writing for granted or just preaching the gospel of autonomous
and expressive writing without ever getting around to teaching the
process of it, all the while hoping that through some miracle
proficient writers will emerge, is too simplistic. Furthermore, it is
pedagogically unsound and cannot be acceptable in the decades

ahead. We simply must do better. As we look toward the writing needs of the '90s, new and refined writing activities that exemplify more closely natural and authentic communication should be gathered and implemented in language programs that are sensitive to the needs and interests of both students and teachers of foreign and second languages.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines. Hastings-on-Hudson, N.Y.: American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1985.

Carrell, Patricia, and Joan Eisterhold. "Schema Theory and ESL Reading Pedagogy." TESOL Quarterly 17 (1983): 553-73.

Cooper, T. "A Strategy for Teaching Writing." Modern Language Journal 61 (1977): 251-56.

_____. "Sentence Combining: An Experiment in Teaching Writing." Modern Language Journal 65 (1981): 158-65.

Gaudiani, Claire. Teaching Composition in the Foreign Language Curriculum. Language in Education: Theory and Practice Series, no. 43. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1981.

ter. As we look toward the writing
ied writing activities that exemplify
ientic communication should be
n language programs that are
interests of both students and
l languages.

GRAPHY

Hastings-on-Hudson, N.Y.:
eaching of Foreign Languages,

rhold. "Schema Theory and
TESOL Quarterly 17 (1983):

ching Writing." Modern
7): 251-56.

An Experiment in Teaching
e Journal 65 (1981): 158-65.

nposition in the Foreign
iguage in Education: Theory
3. Washington, D.C.: Center for

Hansen, Carolyn L. "Developing Functional Proficiency in
    Writing." In T. Bruce Fryer and Frank W. Medley, Jr., eds.,
    Perspectives on Proficiency: Curriculum and Instruction.
    Report on Southern Conference on Language Teaching
    (1984-85): 39-49.

Jarausch, Hannelore, and Clare Tufts. "Writing Across the
    (Foreign Language) Curriculum." In T. Bruce Fryer and
    Frank W. Medley, Jr., eds., New Challenges and
    Opportunities. Report on Southern Conference on
    Language Teaching (1987): 63-85.

Krashen; Steven D. Writing, Research,Theory and Applications.
    Oxford: Pergamon, 1984.

Magnan, Sally S. "Teaching and Testing Proficiency in Writing:
    Skills to Transcend the Second-Language Classroom." In
    Alice C. Omaggio, ed., Proficiency, Curriculum, Articulation:
    The Ties That Bind. Reports of the Northeast Conference
    on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Middlebury, VT:
    Northeast Conference 1985.

Haugeland, ed., Mind Design. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press,
    1982.

Nerenz, Ann G., and Constance K. Knop. "The Effect of Group
    Size on Students' Opportunity to Learn in the Second
    Language Classroom." In Alan Garfinkel, ed., ESL and the
    Foreign Language Teacher. Lincolnwood, IL: National
    Textbook Co., 1985. 47-60.

Omaggio, Alice. Teaching Language in Context: Proficiency-
    Oriented Instruction. Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1986.

_____. "The Proficiency-Oriented Classroom." In Theodore V.
    Higgs, ed. Teaching for Proficiency, the Organizing
    Principle. The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series.
    Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co., 1985.

Piaget, Jean. The Origins of Intelligence in Children. New
    York: International Universities Press, 1952.

Rings, Lana. "Authentic Language and Authentic
        Conversational Texts." Foreign Language Annals 19
        (1986): 203-08.

Rivers, Wilga M. A Practical Guide to the Teaching of French.
        New York: Oxford University Press, 1975.

Rogers, Carman Villegas, and Frank W. Medley, Jr. "Language
        With A Purpose: Using Authentic Materials in the Foreign
        Language Classroom." Foreign Language Annals 21
        (1988): 467-78.

Schank, Roger, and Robert Abelson. Scripts, Plans, Goals, and
        Understanding: An Inquiry into Human Knowledge
        Structures. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates,
        1977.

Weissenrieder, Maureen. "Understanding Spoken Spanish: A
        Course in Listening." Foreign Language Annals 20 (1987):
        531-36.

John I. Liontas

Language and Authentic
s." Foreign Language Annals 19

tical Guide to the Teaching of French.
University Press, 1975.

, and Frank W. Medley, Jr. "Language
sing Authentic Materials in the Foreign
m." Foreign Language Annals 21

ert Abelson. Scripts, Plans, Goals, and
Inquiry into Human Knowledge
ə, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates,

"Understanding Spoken Spanish: A
" Foreign Language Annals 20 (1987):

LOOSENING THE LEASH ON WRITING: THE ADULT LANGUAGE LEARNER

Carol Strauss-Sotiropoulos

INTRODUCTION

As the goals of foreign language teaching and learning place greater emphasis on using the language for real communication, it becomes increasingly important to "loosen the leash" on beginning level writing tasks commonly included in FL methodology texts and articles. Most experienced teachers can provide numerous (and humorous) examples resulting from the attempts of beginning students to express themselves in writing. The abundance of errors produced by these novice FL learners often leads us to the conclusion that one should permit students to write only what they can already speak and even then only in carefully controlled patterns (Pincas, 1962; Rivers, 1968). The question at the heart of this discussion is whether or not under certain conditions there is cause or compensating reasons that would justify entry into writing, and, if so, how should these initial writing tasks be structured.

The decision by this writer to loosen the leash developed in an attempt to sustain student motivation in adult education German classes by applying findings from recent research in both adult education theory and writing workshop strategies. Annually over a ten year period groups of students ranging in age from 23 to 80 have responded to this instructor's query about their goals for the course, and have emphasized that they want to learn to speak and understand. In addition, many express strong desires to write on a variety of topics and in paragraph length discourse. Rarely do we encounter such clearly stated and largely unsolicited requests in classes of pre-adults and adolescents: Troyanovich (31) must have had the latter in mind when writing, "most second-language students have neither the psychological nor the practical need to learn to write the foreign language." (p. 435) In fact, adult learners tend to have different reasons for

studying another language, as well as different learning strategies. Through an examination of the literature on adult learning orientations as well as through our own observations we can learn to adapt our teaching style to respond to these adult needs.

TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF ADULT LEARNERS

The precepts of andragogical theory (the study of teaching to adults) introduced by Knowles (1970) in the early seventies, have been undergoing debate, refining and field-testing since that time. (Conti, 1985; Davenport, 1987; Even, 1987; Galbraith, 1989; Podeschi, 1987). Pedagogy, the term we traditionally use to refer to the science of teaching, is oriented specifically toward theories of how children learn and has resulted in methodologies of how all learners, children and adults alike, should be taught. The works of Knowles and others, based on findings that adults learn differently, suggest persuasively that teachers of adults must rethink the methods and strategies used with these more mature individuals. Andragogical concerns, steeped in studies of adult psychology, rely on models of adult maturational and developmental theory. Knowles synthesizes the research and presents several characteristics of adult learners' maturational progression.

1. Their self-concept moves from one of being dependent toward one of being self-directing.
2. They accumulate a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.
3. Their time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Accordingly, their orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of problem-centeredness.

Corresponding implications for course planning and teaching method would demand of instructors of adults that they:

1. Include adult students in a mutual process of formulating learning objectives and in the designing of learning experiences;
2. Help students exploit their own experiences as resources for learning so that the learning process is related to and makes use of their knowledge;
3. Help students apply new learning to their experience.

; well as different learning strategies.
the literature on adult learning
igh our own observations we can
/le to respond to these adult needs.

ÑDING OF ADULT LEARNERS

igical theory (the study of teaching
wles (1970) in the early seventies,
, refining and field-testing since that
, 1987; Even, 1987; Galbraith, 1989;
he term we traditionally use to refer
oriented specifically toward theories
; resulted in methodologies of how
ults alike, should be taught.   The
based on findings that adults learn
/ely that teachers of adults must
egies used with these more mature
ncerns, steeped in studies of adult
els   of   adult   maturational   and
/les synthesizes the research and
ics of adult learners' maturational

is from one of being dependent
-directing.
wing reservoir of experience that
esource for learning.
changes from one of postponed
je to immediacy of application.
tion toward learning shifts from one
to one of problem-centeredness.
or course planning and teaching
tructors of adults that they:
n a mutual process of formulating
d   in   the   designing   of   learning

ir own experiences as resources for
ing process is related to and makes

' learning to their experience.

Equipped with an understanding of these basic concepts of adult
psychology, the FL instructor is more likely to be better able to
cope with the challenges encountered in the beginning FL class.

First, beginning adult FL learners face the potential problem
of infantilization. Our students are at the distinct risk of sounding-
-or at the least of fearing they will sound-like toddlers.   Most
teachers have ways of trying to compensate for this implicit
handicap.   For adult learners, the problem is intensified.   As
described by Levinson (1976), the drive to achieve the ego ideal-
-our picture of how we should be at our ideal best--is the most
powerful motivating factor in adults. A critical element in the adult
personality is the desire to see the self as competent and
effective in doing well what one does. In contrast to children--
dependent beings for whom education is a process of
accumulating a reservoir of knowledge and skills to be used later
in life--adults view themselves as producers, doers, managers of
their own lives. Thus education involves immediacy of application
toward problem solving (Knowles, 1970, p. 48).   Furthermore,
because adults define themselves by their experience, they have
a deep investment in the experience itself. If put in a situation in
which their experience is not being used, or its worth is
minimized, adults feel rejected as persons.

Application of these concepts in the classroom necessitates
providing adults with ways to apply new ideas to their
experiences, to apply new skills and knowledge immediately, and
to manage their learning in the collaborative mode whereby
"authority for curriculum formation is jointly shared by the learner
and the practitioner" (Conti, 1985, p. 7). Not to provide for these
special needs of adults, not to adapt to adult learning
orientations, is to intensify the infantilization already inherent in the
language taught in the beginning FL classes and thereby to
increase anxiety and frustration.

THE CASE FOR WRITING

One readily available means by which adults can apply
language skills and knowledge and gain a sense of mastery over
application of subject matter is to do with it what they have done
experientially with the native language--listen, speak, read, and
also write. When adult learners indicate that developing skill in
writing is a goal or a desired component of the course, the
instructor will want to be able to accommodate the learner

confidently and in good conscience.   If teachers fail to understand and acknowledge the extent to which adults must be treated as adults, the consequences are often resentment and withdrawal from continued learning. Unfortunately, the traditional education model has too often failed to help adults achieve their ego ideals and thereby has discouraged motivation to learn (Levinson, 1976). Although many variables may play a role in the high numbers of students who do not continue in the study of a foreign language after the first year, course design and response to student learning objectives is most certainly an important factor.

Once the decision is made to accommodate those adults for whOM learning to write in the second language is a goal, teachers need to become versed in the most productive means of facilitating that goal. Modeling strategies used in English writing workshops can serve to establish a climate conducive to writing and can provide techniques for minimizing the likelihood of our students incorporating so many linguistic monstrosities into their creative writing projects.

GETTING STARTED

Some of the pre-writing invention techniques used in writing workshops lend themselves naturally to the beginning FL classroom, notably list-making and oral brainstorming. A number of excellent works and articles have appeared recently which advocate and describe these techniques (Collins, 1985; Colman, 1977; Cooper, 1988; Guadiani, 1981; Hewins, 1986; McGrath, 1988; Peterson, 1985; Spack, 1984). Since these techniques are designed for in-class use, they work particularly well in the FL classroom, strengthening the facilitative and corrective role of the instructor. It should be noted that in the adult classroom these techniques serve more to help structure ideas and to reinforce and expand vocabulary than to motivate students toward arriving at or developing content ideas on a topic. Adults who are already rather highly motivated have a clearly recognized experience bank on which to draw, and view their writing as solving the problem of how to express thoughts efficiently and correctly in the FL. Quickly engaged in putting pen to paper, they pose the challenge to the instructor of how to facilitate most effectively the correct expression of ideas.

nscience.   If teachers fail to
ne extent to which adults must be
iences are often resentment and
iing. Unfortunately, the traditional
failed to help adults achieve their
discouraged motivation to learn
ny variables may play a role in the
do not continue in the study of a
'ear, course design and response
is most certainly an important

to accommodate those adults for
ie second language is a goal,
ed in the most productive means
aling strategies used in English
establish a climate conducive to
ques for minimizing the likelihood
many linguistic monstrosities into

STARTED

ention techniques used in writing
naturally to the beginning FL
nd oral brainstorming. A number
; have appeared recently which
chniques (Collins, 1985; Colman,
, 1981; Hewins, 1986; McGrath,
984). Since these techniques are
' work particularly well in the FL
cilitative and corrective role of the
:hat in the adult classroom these
structure ideas and to reinforce
motivate students toward arriving
s on a topic.   Adults who are
ed have a clearly recognized
draw, and view their writing as
express thoughts efficiently and
igaged in putting pen to paper,
nstructor of how to facilitate most
n of ideas.

CONFERENCING

Beyond the stage of invention, correction and revision
become the focus for beginning adult FL learners. In-class writing
tasks and assignments free the instructor to circulate around the
room, skim over students' work in progress and ask questions.
The questions asked in writing workshops for native speakers
typically relate to points that need to be clarified, the need for
support of an idea, or for restructuring or transitioning.
Circulating time in the beginning FL classroom is devoted to
much more concrete issues. Our interest here lies not with the
perfectly structured, unified and substantiated essay, but rather
with ways to engage students in re-composing ideas that have
resulted in poor self-expression or non-communication. With the
assistance of the teacher, students can become more adept at
unraveling thoughts embedded in an English-induced construction
and rephrasing those thoughts using the grammatical structures
and discourse markers that they already control or that they are
learning to use. Just what do we do when we encounter a
sentence such as, "Ich fahre nach Worcester fur Schule"? By
pointing out to the students that the phrase is unacceptable in
German and asking them to draw out the thought to express as
concretely as possible the meaning intended, they will usually
arrive at an appropriate construction, as this student did in "Ich
fahre nach Worcester, wo die Uni ist."

As Krashen (1984) points out research suggests that
feedback is most useful when given during the writing process
rather than upon completion. Moreover, the involvement of the
instructor during the composing process allows for a high degree
of individualization.   This takes place in short, spontaneous
"conferences" between teacher and student. Meeting individual
needs is by far one of the most appealing features of
conferencing. The individualized moment allows the one student
to benefit from a brief drill or alternative explanation of a concept
already covered but evidently not understood or integrated, while
it might provide the more linguistically adept student the
opportunity to learn a new grammatical construct or, at the least,
to be referred to the textbook explanation, thereby accelerating
language acquisition and proficiency. How we approach the
problem in "Es ist eine Woche seit bin ich hier gewesen," whether
in conferencing or in written correction (see focus correction
below) depends both on material covered to date and on the

individual's ability. In this particular case (two months into the year) adverbial clauses had not yet been introduced. The more adept student can be shown that "since" as a subordinating conjunction ("seitdem") differs in German from "since" ("seit") as a preposition. The student can then be referred to the explanation of subordination in the test. Or, one might say simply that "seit" as a preposition can be used before an object of time to express duration, as in "seit einer Woche" and that in German such a time expression that continues into the present is used with the present tense, resulting in "Seit einer Woche bin ich hier." To the less able student, one might point out that the construction is improper, that we haven't yet learned an appropriate alternative, that we will soon come to it, but that for the time being we shall leave the sentence as is. Heresy? Revolutionary? Not if we adhere carefully to certain guidelines.

FOCUS CORRECTION

Now that we have students writing and the instructor intervening we find ourselves right back at the long-espoused interdiction against encouraging beginning FL students to write: the preponderance of errors and what to do about them all. The danger, as expressed by Lalande (1982) is that "unless all errors are identified, the faulty linguistic structures, rather than the correct ones, may become ingrained in the student's interlanguage system." (p. 140) Whether this reasoning is sound or specious is an open question and the subject of lively debate. If sound, then the writing of beginning FL students of necessity will be covered by the blood-red ink of countless corrections, and hours, instead of minutes, of conferencing time will be demanded, thereby rendering any writing project at the very least unmotivating, and most likely unfeasible. But without those multitudinous corrections do we run the risk of unwittingly promoting faulty linguistic articulation which will result in bad habits permanently imprinted on the student's brain?

The technique known as focus correction, advanced by Collins (1985b) and used extensively in native language writing classes, has demonstrated otherwise, with both young writers and old. A focus correction system encourages the instructor to focus on specific writing problems rather than to note everything that is wrong in a written piece. In this selective approach to correction, the instructor provides specific information about the criteria being

ticular case (two months into the
it yet been introduced. The more
　that "since" as a subordinating
n German from "since" ("seit") as a
hen be referred to the explanation
r, one might say simply that "seit"
iefore an object of time to express
e" and that in German such a time
o the present is used with the
einer Woche bin ich hier." To the
ioint out that the construction is
iarned an appropriate alternative,
it that for the time being we shall
esy?　Revolutionary?　Not if we
elines.

)RRECTION

ents writing and the instructor
ight back at the long-espoused
i beginning FL students to write:
i what to do about them all.　The
le (1982) is that "unless all errors
stic structures, rather than the
　ingrained in the student's
Whether this reasoning is sound
and the subject of lively debate.
jinning FL students of necessity
ink of countless corrections, and
ferencing time will be demanded,
j project at the very least
unfeasible.　But without those
ie run the risk of unwittingly
ilation which will result in bad
the student's brain?
focus correction, advanced by
iively in native language writing
iise, with both young writers and
icourages the instructor to focus
ir than to note everything that is
ielective approach to correction,
irmation about the criteria being

used to evaluate, and indicates clearly that only certain types of
errors will be corrected.

In the beginning FL class these would be grammatical
concepts and vocabulary covered to that point.　Essential at the
outset is clarification by the instructor and firm understanding on
the part of students that there may be additional errors, but that
they will be overlooked in the interest of concentrating on a few
issues at one time.　From a practical point of view, focus
correction is less time-consuming and is truly the critical factor
that enables the teacher to promote development of writing in
beginning FL classes without undermining student motivation and
learning.　As Collins (1985a) puts it, focus correction provides for
less teacher effort while producing more student learning.

Focus correction is generally more a problem of adjustment
for the instructor than the student.　As described by Murray
(1968), a pioneer in the process writing movement.

> Not correcting papers may be the hardest thing for a writing
> teacher to do.　The errors are there and so is the virtuous
> feeling of a job well done as the mistakes are speared on
> the page.　The more mistakes, the more satisfaction . . . .
> The teacher may have as much trouble not correcting papers
> as a drunk not taking a drink.　It's so easy to slash through
> a student's paper, so fulfilling, so much fun.　It does fine
> things for the teacher, but little for the student.　Successful
> implementation of this strategy for handling students' written
> work can be effected only when we become truly learner-
> oriented and acknowledge that correcting every error is not
> the key to enhanced student learning.

An interesting analogy to the issue of what we might call
"invented L2 grammar by way of L1" may be drawn to "invented
spelling," a component of the whole language movement wherein
young children who are just beginning to associate sounds with
letters are encouraged to write.　Ex., "I was sc yastr day and I cat
na cm tow scow," trans.　"I was sick yesterday and could not
come to school" (Newman, 1984).　Early childhood educator
Wood (1982) addresses a familiar-sounding question raised over
the advisability of encouraging invented spelling: will it interfere
with learning to read and write in standard spelling?　She
responds, "As inventive spellers engage in experiences with
standard print . . . their concept of orthography is gradually
modified . . . .　The learning pattern that characterizes language
acquisition, as well as concept attainment in general, is

evidenced.   Gradually the learner modifies rules to incorporate new experiences." (p. 707)   Over time FL learners similarly integrate and apply new concepts. Errors resulting at one stage from lack of knowledge are gradually replaced by correct and appropriate expression as new concepts are learned. Documenting students' progress by having each student keep all written work in a folder for longitudinal overview confirms the validity of focus correction and alleviates concern over the development of bad habits.

ADULT LEARNING, WRITING
AND VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

An additional advantage to facilitating writing skills of adult students is the increase in the amount of vocabulary they control. Cross (7), a leader in the field of adult learning, notes that tasks requiring quick insight, short-term memorization and complex interactions are best undertaken when young. As people get older, they accumulate knowledge and develop perspective and experience in the use and application of that knowledge. According to Cross, in order for a model to capitalize on the learning strengths of adults, it should deemphasize the processing of large amounts of new information emphasize the development of those tasks that require integration, interpretation, and application of knowledge. Rather than memorizing long lists of vocabulary, a discouraging experience for many adults, new terms can be more smoothly incorporated experientially with the personalized writing context providing the framework. For those students who wish to use a dictionary, the usual caveats are expounded.   Students should obtain a multi-entry hardback edition. They should be taught to reduce an expression to the most concrete terms possible, and then to counter-reference the FL equivalent in order to confirm the preliminary decision. The conferencing and focus correction strategies also serve to minimize many of the pitfalls associated with dictionary use. Most importantly, adults need to be permitted to follow a self-determined course of action, whenever possible. Use of the dictionary is but one example of a student-centered activity through which the instructor can help language learning become more independent in their self-expression.

arner modifies rules to incorporate
    Over time FL learners similarly
:epts. Errors resulting at one stage
gradually replaced by correct and
; new concepts are learned.
ess by having each student keep all
longitudinal overview confirms the
and alleviates concern over the

RNING, WRITING
ARY ACQUISITION

to facilitating writing skills of adult
amount of vocabulary they control.
of adult learning, notes that tasks
-term memorization and complex
:en when young. As people get
·dge and develop perspective and
application of that knowledge.
for a model to capitalize on the
s, it should deemphasize the
)f new information emphasize the
t require integration, interpretation,
Rather than memorizing long lists
experience for many adults, new
icorporated experientially with the
)viding the framework. For those
jictionary, the usual caveats are
I obtain a multi-entry hardback
:t to reduce an expression to the
and then to counter-reference the
·m the preliminary decision. The
iction strategies also serve to
:ociated with dictionary use. Most
)e permitted to follow a self-
vhenever possible. Use of the
; of a student-centered activity
1 help language learning become
·xpression.

CONCLUSION

In their eagerness to express themselves accurately in writing and to gain a sense of mastery over subject matter by applying new knowledge to old experience, adult FL learners challenge themselves to promote effective in-class experiences. Involvement in the writing process demonstrates vividly that there is no "get-language-quick" scheme to be had. But, once vested in such a highly personalized and individualized endeavor, adults respond positively to the realization that language learning is a continuous process with few neatly packaged endings or beginnings. By accommodating adult learning orientations, by allowing students a voice in course planning and objectives, and by creatively confronting the risks associated with early introduction of writing, we create an environment within which adults can realize their own goals and develop a sense of mastery essential to continued interest in FL learning.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brière, Eugène J. "Quantity before Quality in Second Language Composition." Language Learning 16 (1967): 141-51.

Collins, John. Cumulative Writing Folder, Teacher's Guide. Andover, MA: The Network, Inc., 1985a.

_____. The Effective Writing Teacher: Eighteen Strategies. Andover, MA: The Network, Inc., 1985b.

Colman, Lee. "Is There a Magic Formula for Teaching Original Composition in French?" The French Review 50 (1977): 412-16.

Conti, Gary J. "Assessing Teaching Style in Adult Education: How and Why." Lifelong Learning 8, (1985): 7-11, 28.

Cooper, Tom. "Writing as Process or Back to Nature," 41-50 in
    T. Bruce Fryer and Frank W. Medley, Jr., eds., Language
    in Action: Theory and Practice, Report of Southern
    Conference on Language Teaching, Dimensions:
    Languages '88. Columbia, S.C.: University of South
    Carolina, 1988.

Cross, K. Patricia. Adults as Learners. San Francisco:
    Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1981.

Davenport, Joseph. "Is There Any Way Out of the Andragogy
    Morass?" Lifelong Learning 11, (1987): 17-20.

Dawe, Charles W., and Edward A. Dornan. One to One:
    Resources for Conference- Centered Writing, Instructor's
    Manual. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1981.

Even, Mary Jane. "Why Adults Learn in Different Ways."
    Lifelong Learning 10, viii(1987): 22-25, 28.

Galbraith, Michael W. "Essential Skills for the Facilitator of
    Adult Learning." Lifelong Learning 12, (1989): 10-13.
    Gaudiani, Claire. Teaching Writing in the Foreign
    Language Practice No. 43. Washington, D.C., 1981.
    (EDRS: ED 209 961).

Heileman, Laura K., and Isabelle Kaplan. "Proficiency in
    Practice: The Foreign Language Curriculum," 55-78 in
    Charles J. James, etc., Foreign Language Proficiency in
    the Classroom and Beyond, ACTFL Foreign Language
    Education Series. Skokie, Ill: National Textbook Company,
    1985.

Hewins, Catherine P. "Writing in a Foreign Language:
    Motivation and the Process Approach." Foreign Language
    Annals 19 (1986): 219-24.

Knowles, Malcolm S. The Modern Practice of Adult Education:
    Andragogy versus Pedagogy. New York: Association
    Press, 1970.

Krashen, Stephen P. Writing: Research, Theory and

ess or Back to Nature," 41-50 in
N. Medley, Jr., eds., Language
ctice, Report of Southern
Teaching, Dimensions:
S.C.: University of South

arners. San Francisco:

iny Way Out of the Andragogy
j 11, (1987): 17-20.

A. Dornan. One to One:
 Centered Writing, Instructor's
own and Company, 1981.

Learn in Different Ways."
i87): 22-25, 28.

I Skills for the Facilitator of
earning 12, (1989): 10-13.
 Writing in the Foreign
 Washington, D.C., 1981.

i Kaplan. "Proficiency in
guage Curriculum," 55-78 in
eign Language Proficiency in
, ACTFL Foreign Language
l: National Textbook Company,

i a Foreign Language:
 Approach." Foreign Language

rn Practice of Adult Education:
iy. New York: Association

Research, Theory and

Application. Oxford: Pergamon, 1984.

Lalande, John F. "Reducing Composition Errors: An
    Experiment." Modern Language Journal 66(1982): 140-50.

Levinson, Harry, Psychological Man. Cambridge, MA:
    The Levinson Institute, 1976.

Magnan, Sally Sieloff. "Teaching and Testing Proficiency in
    Writing: Skills to Transcend the Second-Language
    Classroom," 109-36 in Alice C. Omaggio, ed., Proficiency,
    Curriculum, Articulation: The Ties That Bind, Northeast
    Conference Report. Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference
    on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1985.

McGrath, Douglas. "Early Foreign Language Composition," 51-
    65 in T. Bruce Fryer and Frank W. Medley, Jr., eds.,
    Language in Action: Theory and Practice, Report of the
    Southern Conference on Language Teaching. Dimensions:
    Languages '88. Columbia, S.C.: University of South
    Carolina, 1988.

Murray, Donald M. "The Listening Eye: Reflections on the
    Writing Conference."   College English 41,i(1979): 13-18.

_____. Writer Teaches Writing. Boston: Houghton Mifflin
    Company, 1968.

Newman, Judith. The Craft of Children's Writing. Portsmouth,
    N.H.: Heinemann, 1984.

Peterson, Deborah. "Writing to Learn German," 47-59 in Ann
    Ruggles Gere, ed., Roots in the Sawdust: Writing to Learn
    across the Curriculum. Urbana, Ill: National Council of
    Teachers of English, 1985.

Pincas, Anita. "Structural Linguistics and   Systematic
    Composition Teaching to Students of English as a Foreign
    Language." Language Learning 12(1962): 185-95.

Podeschi, Ronald L. "Adragogy: Proofs or Premises?"
    Lifelong Learning 11, (1987): 14-16, 20.

124   Carol Strauss-Sotiropoulos

Raimes, Ann. "What Unskilled ESL Students Do as They Write: A Classroom Study of Composing." TESOL Quarterly 19(1985): 229-54.

Rehorick, Sally. "Second Language Acquisition in Adults: Some Methodological Implications for the University Educator." The French Review 56(1983): 821-28.

Rivers, Wilga. Teaching Foreign Language Skills. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1968.

Spack, Ruth. "Invention Strategies and the ESL College Composition Student." TESOL Quarterly 18(1984): 649-65.

Troyanovich, John M. "How Defensible is Writing as an Objective in Short-Term Foreign Language Experiences?" Foreign Language Annals 7(1974): 435-42.

Wood, Margo. "Invented Spelling." Language Arts 59(1982): 707-17.

Zamel, Vivian. "Responding to Student Writing." TESOL Quarterly 19(1985): 79-97.

SL Students Do as They Write:
posing." TESOL Quarterly

age Acquisition in Adults:
:ations for the University
iew 56(1983): 821-28.

Language Skills. Chicago:

es and the ESL College
OL Quarterly 18(1984): 649-

ensible is Writing as an
eign Language Experiences?"
(1974): 435-42.

g." Language Arts 59(1982):

Student Writing." TESOL

NEW APPROACH TOWARD FOREIGN LANGUAGE TA SUPERVISION

Ken Fleak
The University of South Carolina-Columbia

Carolyn Hansen
The University of South Carolina-Columbia

INTRODUCTION

As interest has increased during the past several years in teaching languages for functional use, considerable change has been noted in classroom instruction. Beginning level courses are becoming more oriented towards teaching language for communication and less organized around grammatical syllabi, and many institutions are beginning to revise their entire lower level curriculum. This new direction in language teaching brings with it a need to implement changes in TA training and supervision.

The tendency of more and more foreign language educators to envision the sequencing of materials according to functions or task universals (i.e. requesting information, complimenting, expressing agreement or disagreement) is resulting in new, and substantially expanded beginning level textbook programs becoming available. As materials and courses change to reflect this new orientation, so, too, will significant modifications need to be made in the approaches taken to the preparation and supervision of the graduate teaching assistants (TAs) who are often assigned instructional responsibilities in the affected classes. Teaching assistants who have learned the language in a traditional, teacher-centered and grammar-oriented classroom, and who have little or no experience with planning and conducting classes on their own, are often unable to cope with the demands of the proficiency-oriented syllabus. The orchestration of

diversified, small-group work, practice sessions and situational or contextualized activities simply overwhelm these inexperienced TAs. Understandably, faculty who serve as course coordinators and TA supervisors must address this issue. The American Association of University Supervisors and Coordinators has been instrumental in stimulating serious discussion and study of pedagogical questions that relate to the communicative classroom.

The creation of a new basic course structure provides an opportunity for a comprehensive revision of the guidance and training given to the graduate assistants assigned to teach these courses. The development of proficiency in teaching becomes the goal of the TA training, with all activities geared toward the development of a confident and capable instructor who is well versed in the theory and practice of teaching a language for communication.

Just as incoming language students need to be placed according to their background, so, too, may the teaching assistants need to be supervised according to their prior experiences. Those TAs in their first year will tend to need more direct guidance than the more experienced ones, thus dictating to some extent the teaching tasks and other assignments they receive.

A comprehensive approach to TA supervision and training in the proficiency-oriented classroom will likely include (1) a pre-service workshop, (2) in-service methodology courses linked to appropriate teaching assignments, and (3) systematic observations and evaluations of their performance as instructors. The use of mentors at various levels can enrich the program even more, while offering the faculty involved a unique opportunity for interaction with the TAs outside of the usual literature class setting.

PRE-SERVICE WORKSHOP

New TAs usually have no teaching experience, and are often rather frightened and intimidated by the thought of being in charge of the classroom. They have no idea how to plan for instruction, how to conduct a class, how to evaluate the performance of their students, and so on. Similarly, they often harbor a fear that they, themselves, may not have the necessary degree of control of the language that will enable them to "answer

ctice sessions and situational or
overwhelm these inexperienced
o serve as course coordinators
ess this issue. The American
ors and Coordinators has been
ous discussion and study of
elate to the communicative

c course structure provides an
revision of the guidance and
sistants assigned to teach these
roficiency in teaching becomes
all activities geared toward the
capable instructor who is well
ce of teaching a language for

students need to be placed
so, too, may the teaching
sed according to their prior
irst year will tend to need more
xperienced ones, thus dictating
cs and other assignments they

o TA supervision and training in
n will likely include (1) a pre-
methodology courses linked to
nents, and (3) systematic
neir performance as instructors.
ls can enrich the program even
volved a unique opportunity for
of the usual literature class

WORKSHOP

ching experience, and are often
d by the thought of being in
have no idea how to plan for
class, how to evaluate the
nd so on. Similarly, they often
s, may not have the necessary
that will enable them to "answer

questions about the grammar," and they secretly wonder whether they can handle any disciplinary problem that might arise. A very effective way to address these concerns a priori is through a workshop that is scheduled immediately prior to the beginning of the term. This intensive pre-service workshop, usually held the week before classes start is designed to prepare the TAs for their assignments by acquainting them with the mechanics of planning, instruction, evaluation, etc. During the workshop, the new TAs are familiarized with university and departmental structure and receive a general overview of the materials to be used and the principles around which a proficiency-based classroom is organized. An introduction to the laboratory facilities and other support services may also be included. During the initial stages of the workshop, TAs also receive an explanation of the content and rationale of the training program in which they will be participating. Although the more experienced TAs may need only a short refresher workshop, they should be encouraged to work closely with the new TAs on a regular basis.

IN-SERVICE METHODOLOGY COURSES

Substantial changes in the beginning level curriculum require methodology courses that address the features of the newly designed curriculum. A course that meets two hours weekly for all first-year TAs during the fall term, and an additional one-hour course required of all TAs each term while they are in the graduate program can provide the structure necessary for an organized presentation of basic teaching principles, course material previews, and the guidance necessary for a successful teaching and learning experience for the TAs. The coordinator may hold weekly meetings for the new TAs in which they receive a lesson guide and go over the instructional objectives and procedures for the upcoming week. Ideally, the new TAs will be able to work with an experienced instructor during their first term, thus allowing them to observe, assist and participate in the class on a regular basis in a team-teaching situation, as well as teach one day a week on their own, using the materials previewed in the methods course. In this manner, a mentoring process is established as an integral part of their preparation. During the first week of instruction for each unit, for example, the TAs can be assigned the task of conducting reinforcement activities that focus on the listening skill and can conduct a variety of communicative

exercises for paired and group work. During the second week of instruction the TAs might be asked to focus their energies on developing reading activities based on authentic materials and contextualized activities that could serve as a review of the lesson prior to the chapter test. This approach enhances the learning experience for the student, and builds self-confidence in the TAs, who are working with materials already familiar to them. When a TA works with several classes, the repetition of a single lesson also helps instill confidence in their performance and provides an opportunity for constant improvement.

The two-hour methodology course, which is designed to provide a theoretical base upon which to build practical experience, will most likely require a text such as Alice Omaggio's Teaching Language in Context (Omaggio, 1986). The objectives for this course should reflect the same orientation towards performance as does the new proficiency-based curriculum. For example, the course objectives might state that graduate teaching assistants would be able to:

1. organize an instructional sequence around a list of task universals;

2. use a variety of contextualized activities to practice specific grammatical structures and lexical units;

3. prepare classroom materials that will lead to the development of speaking, listening, reading, and writing ability and a greater awareness of characteristics of the target language's culture;

4. demonstrate several different approaches appropriate for the evaluation of oral skills;

5. demonstrate several different approaches appropriate for the evaluation of reading and writing skills;

6. develop activities for paired and group work based on authentic materials;

7. apply effective correction strategies for student errors.

Necessary components of the course include practice in writing objectives in terms of language functions, preparing lesson plans, maintaining good records for student evaluation, and developing techniques for teaching dialogues and vocabulary and learning to elicit and rate samples of oral language. Given the practical nature of the course, each graduate student should be expected to do at least two demonstration lessons: one

ork. During the second week of
ked to focus their energies on
sed on authentic materials and
d serve as a review of the lesson
pproach enhances the learning
uilds self-confidence in the TAs,
ready familiar to them. When a
he repetition of a single lesson
ir performance and provides an
nent.

course, which is designed to
on which to build practical
a text such as Alice Omaggio's
Omaggio, 1986). The objectives
the same orientation towards
ficiency-based curriculum. For
ght state that graduate teaching

sequence around a list of task

xtualized activities to practice
nd lexical units;
aterials that will lead to the
ng, reading, and writing ability
characteristics of the target

ent approaches appropriate for

ent approaches appropriate for
ting skills;
red and group work based on

strategies for student errors.

he course include practice in
age functions, preparing lesson
s for student evaluation, and
g dialogues and vocabulary and
s of oral language. Given the
ch graduate student should be
demonstration lessons: one

grammatical in nature and the other lexical. These presentations should reflect an orientation towards proficiency, and should be part of a lesson plan that includes the functional objectives, the contexts, the design for the presentation, an example of a controlled-type exercise and another of a guided communicative activity for paired or group work. This particular assignment is designed to help the TAs reduce the emphasis on grammar explanation and keep in mind that the class is student-centered and that the teacher is a facilitator.

The two-hour methods course should include several lessons on techniques for oral evaluations. In-class practices may be provided in which the TAs listen to sample interviews and evaluate them on their own. They can then compare and discuss their evaluations with those of their fellow TAs and the course director. Although the purpose of this activity is not to produce certified oral proficiency interviewers and raters, it will provide experience in conducting interviews and assessing students' speaking skills in the classroom. As a result of this preparation, the graduate students develop a degree of familiarity and confidence with the actual evaluative process they will use in the classes they teach.

Each term (semester or trimester) a one-hour methods course for both new and returning graduate teaching assistants can provide experience in the preparation of proficiency-based materials which are directly linked to the course that they are teaching. In the fall, the once-weekly session can provide an overview of the year's activities. In the spring it may be used to review plans for the current term and to preview the coming summer and fall terms. The additional preparation and training provided by these one-hour courses allow the graduate students to enter the term when they teach their own course with a better idea of what needs to be accomplished and a solid background in how to use proficiency-based materials in the classroom.

Although the TAs have received a great deal of training by the end of their first year, they still may not be ready to assume complete control and responsibility for their classes, especially given the multiple-section courses offered at the beginning levels. The nature of these courses requires that homogeneity be maintained across sections, thus allowing for minimal deviation with respect to content and instructional strategies. The course supervisor or coordinator in this situation provides the framework, in the form of the course syllabus and the major exams, and

allows the teaching assistants to have an experience somewhat different from the highly structured guidance given to the first-year TAs. The experienced TAs should be in charge of the day-to-day responsibilities of their course such as the development of quizzes and supplementary activities, record keeping, student conferences, etc. TAs at this level may also be given the opportunity to provide materials for use by all staff members, thus building on experience gained during their initial two-hour methods course.

The course supervisor should hold meetings as needed with the novice teachers, although a good deal of the coordination can take place through the use of memos and day-to-day conversations with the individual TAs. The majority of these one-on-one chats will most likely concern confusion over university policies and regulations, problems with student discipline or instructional problems regarding special learners. The role of the coordinator in this situation is that of advisor, resource person, trouble-shooter, and in many cases, listener. The TAs at this level need to begin to make some decisions that will have an effect on all sections of the course and take responsibility for those decisions.

The proficiency-oriented classroom, with its group and paired work, situational exercises, and other student-centered activities provides a unique opportunity for the experienced TAs who have worked with faculty mentors during the first year. In the spring term, the new TAs may be assigned to team-teach with a more experienced TA, working once again with the listening, reading and communicative exercises used during their first term teaching assignment. Since the new TAs are using materials that are already somewhat familiar to them, they tend to feel more confident and are able to expand upon their previous presentations. At the same time, they are once again working with a more experienced individual; in this case someone who has gone through the program before them. By this point in their professional development, the experienced TAs have the background and the confidence necessary to begin to serve as role models for others. This experience also reinforces the need for and the importance of cooperation among colleagues, which in turn helps ensure a smoothly functioning program.

allows the teaching assistants to have an experience somewhat different from the highly structured guidance given to the first-year TAs. The experienced TAs should be in charge of the day-to-day responsibilities of their course such as the development of quizzes and supplementary activities, record keeping, student conferences, etc. TAs at this level may also be given the opportunity to provide materials for use by all staff members, thus building on experience gained during their initial two-hour methods course.

The course supervisor should hold meetings as needed with the novice teachers, although a good deal of the coordination can take place through the use of memos and day-to-day conversations with the individual TAs. The majority of these one-on-one chats will most likely concern confusion over university policies and regulations, problems with student discipline or instructional problems regarding special learners. The role of the coordinator in this situation is that of advisor, resource person, trouble-shooter, and in many cases, listener. The TAs at this level need to begin to make some decisions that will have an effect on all sections of the course and take responsibility for those decisions.

The proficiency-oriented classroom, with its group and paired work, situational exercises, and other student-centered activities provides a unique opportunity for the experienced TAs who have worked with faculty mentors during the first year. In the spring term, the new TAs may be assigned to team-teach with a more experienced TA, working once again with the listening, reading and communicative exercises used during their first term teaching assignment. Since the new TAs are using materials that are already somewhat familiar to them, they tend to feel more confident and are able to expand upon their previous presentations. At the same time, they are once again working with a more experienced individual; in this case someone who has gone through the program before them. By this point in their professional development, the experienced TAs have the background and the confidence necessary to begin to serve as role models for others. This experience also reinforces the need for and the importance of cooperation among colleagues, which in turn helps ensure a smoothly functioning program.

OBSERVATION AND EVALUATION

A very important aspect of any course or training program is effective evaluation of student performance. Since the teaching assistants are involved in classroom teaching, methods course work and team-teaching, the evaluation procedures employed need to address all three areas.

As one of the requirements of the two-hour methods course, the new TAs should prepare a final project in which they are responsible for the development of an entire unit of materials. This type of project is more appropriate than a written end-of-term exam because the language coordinator is able to see exactly how well the graduate students are able to apply the principles that have been presented and discussed in the course. The effectiveness of their project may then become one of the key factors in the determination of teaching assignments in subsequent terms.

Both new and experienced graduate teaching assistants may gain progressive experience in the preparation of materials through the one-hour course that they take each term. The grade for this course may be based upon written observations by the TAs of courses at both the beginning and intermediate levels, participation in other classes through warm-ups and cultural lessons, and preparation of certain materials for classroom and/or testing purposes.

In order to ensure that the TAs are progressing appropriately, the coordinator should observe each one at least twice during the term. The TA supervisor may also encourage the TAs to have additional observations made by other faculty members, especially those serving as mentors. After each observation, a written evaluation should be prepared and then discussed, with both parties having an opportunity to respond to each other's comments (see Appendix A). Since course observations are also required in the methods courses, there is an opportunity for continual feedback on many levels. Both the new and the more experienced TAs may well observe each other, as well as their "mentor" professors. Depending on the course requirements, the TAs may write out extensive observation reports with commentary on techniques observed and their reaction to them, or use the form that is used when they, themselves, are observed by the coordinator/ supervisor. In all cases, the observations need to be used as a learning tool and be treated

as another way to help the TAs improve their classroom effectiveness.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

TAs with training such as that described here are capable of contributing to the department in a variety of ways. The well-balanced presentation of theory and practical applications in the methods courses provides each TA with the basic skills necessary to teach the beginning level courses efficiently and professionally. Beyond the teaching assignment, TAs, who have participated in this type of program tend to work especially well with small conversation courses or, if they are native speakers, as cultural and linguistic resource persons in courses taught by senior faculty; once again introducing the possibility of mentoring. While all TAs may help in the tutorial center or language laboratory, they may also cover a class session for professors away from campus. Increased opportunities to teach during the summer terms and to participate in highly intensive programs or special intra-campus summer exchanges may also accrue to the teaching assistants who are better qualified to function effectively with less supervision.

While not all foreign language departments have the flexibility to implement the curricular changes mentioned here, many universities do rely on graduate teaching assistants to do the bulk of the teaching at the beginning levels. This fact alone dictates that those in charge of coordination and supervision provide the best possible training for these future foreign language professionals so that they, and more importantly, their students, receive optimum instruction in the foreign language. Finally, the concept of designing a student-centered classroom is not restricted to the foreign language classroom. TAs who understand these principles will undoubtedly become more effective teachers, regardless of the content of the courses they teach. Thus, a TA supervision program which incorporates pre-service workshops, methodology courses linked to the in-service teaching assignments, systematic observations and evaluations and mentoring can do much to provide the profession with instructors who are well-prepared to staff proficiency-oriented classrooms at all levels of instruction.

as another way to help the TAs improve their classroom effectiveness.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

TAs with training such as that described here are capable of contributing to the department in a variety of ways. The well-balanced presentation of theory and practical applications in the methods courses provides each TA with the basic skills necessary to teach the beginning level courses efficiently and professionally. Beyond the teaching assignment, TAs, who have participated in this type of program tend to work especially well with small conversation courses or, if they are native speakers, as cultural and linguistic resource persons in courses taught by senior faculty; once again introducing the possibility of mentoring. While all TAs may help in the tutorial center or language laboratory, they may also cover a class session for professors away from campus. Increased opportunities to teach during the summer terms and to participate in highly intensive programs or special intra-campus summer exchanges may also accrue to the teaching assistants who are better qualified to function effectively with less supervision.

While not all foreign language departments have the flexibility to implement the curricular changes mentioned here, many universities do rely on graduate teaching assistants to do the bulk of the teaching at the beginning levels. This fact alone dictates that those in charge of coordination and supervision provide the best possible training for these future foreign language professionals so that they, and more importantly, their students, receive optimum instruction in the foreign language. Finally, the concept of designing a student-centered classroom is not restricted to the foreign language classroom. TAs who understand these principles will undoubtedly become more effective teachers, regardless of the content of the courses they teach. Thus, a TA supervision program which incorporates pre-service workshops, methodology courses linked to the in-service teaching assignments, systematic observations and evaluations and mentoring can do much to provide the profession with instructors who are well-prepared to staff proficiency-oriented classrooms at all levels of instruction.

APPENDIX A

TA Teaching Evaluation Form

Instructor: Course:
Observer: Date:

1. The warm-up was effective and well-organized. 1) Excellent. 2) Satisfactory. 3) Improvement needed.
Comment:

2. Organization was evident throughout the lesson, with smooth transitions.
1) Consistently. 2) Mostly.
3) Occasionally. 4) Infrequently.
Comment:

3. The use of Spanish and English was suitable for the different situations.
1) Always. 2) Mostly.
3) Occasionally. 4) Infrequently.
Comment:

4. Explanations and activities were clear, brief, accurate, and fast-paced.
1) Always. 2) Usually.
3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
Comment:

5. The use of time, the chalk board, and other teaching materials reflected a positive presentation of each aspect of the lesson.
1) Always. 2) Usually.
3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
Comment:

6. The use of corrective feedback was effective and positive.
1) Always. 2) Usually.
3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
Comment:

7. The activities represented a good variety and matched the level and interest of the students.
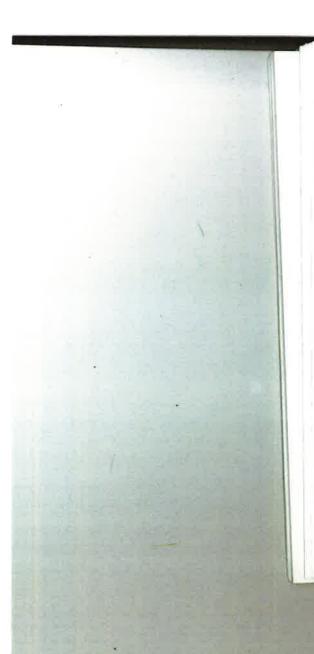   1) Always. 2) Usually.
   3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
   Comment:

8. The entire class was involved in interactive ways.
   1) Frequently and appropriately.
   2) Often, but inappropriately at times.
   3) Infrequently, but appropriately when evident.
   4) Infrequently and inappropriately.
   5) Never.
   Comment:

9. The students clearly understood the format of the activities.
   1) Always. 2) Usually. 3) Sometimes.
   4) Lacking.
   Comment:

10. The classroom environment was positive; the material was presented confidently and the students responded favorably.
    1) Consistently. 2) Mostly.
    3) Lacking.
    Comment:

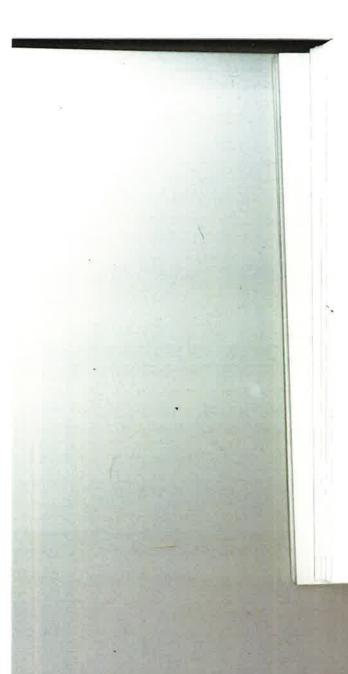11. Observer's Remarks:

    Signature:

12. Instructor's Remarks:

    Signature:

7. The activities represented a good variety and matched the
    level and interest of the students.
    1) Always. 2) Usually.
    3) Occasionally. 4) Lacking.
    Comment:

8. The entire class was involved in interactive ways.
    1) Frequently and appropriately.
    2) Often, but inappropriately at times.
    3) Infrequently, but appropriately when
       evident.
    4) Infrequently and inappropriately.
    5) Never.
    Comment:

9. The students clearly understood the format of the
    activities.
    1) Always. 2) Usually. 3) Sometimes.
    4) Lacking.
    Comment:

10. The classroom environment was positive; the material was
    presented confidently and the students responded
    favorably.
    1) Consistently. 2) Mostly.
    3) Lacking.
    Comment:

11. Observer's Remarks:

    Signature:

12. Instructor's Remarks:

    Signature:

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ariew, Robert. "The Textbook as Curriculum." 11-13 in
    Theodore V. Higgs, ed., Curriculum, Competence and the
    Foreign Language Teacher. The ACTFL Foreign Language
    Education Series, vol. 13 Lincolnwood, IL.: National
    Textbook Co., 1982.

Azevedo, Milton M. "Pre-Service Training for Graduate Teaching
    Assistants." Modern Language Journal 60(1976): 254-258.

Conner, Maurice W., ed., et al. New Frontiers in Foreign
    Language Education. Skokie, IL.: National Textbook Co.,
    1980.

Davis, Barbara G. "Training Graduate Student Instructors."
    Teaching at Berkley 18 (1985): 1-11.

Donahue, Frank E. "A Texas Model for TA Training."
    Unterrichtspraxis 13(1980): 141-149.

Ervin, Gerard L. "The Role of the Language Teaching
    Specialist in the College FL Department." ADFL Bulletin
    7(1975): 15-16.

_____. "A Training Program for New TA's in Russian." Russian
    Language Journal 35 (Spr-Fall 1981): 27-33.

_____ and Judith A. Muyskens. "On Training TAs: Do We
    Know What They Want and Need? Foreign Language
    Annals 15(1982): 335-344.

Franck, Marion R. "The Supervision of Teaching Assistants: A
    New Use of   Videotape." Modern Language Journal 65
    (1981): 273-280.

Freed, Barbara F. "Why Train Teaching Assistants?" ADFL
    Bulletin 7(1975): 9-14.

Goepper, Jane Black, and Martha L. Knorre. "Pre- and In-
    Service Training of Graduate Teaching Assistants."
    Modern Language Journal 64(1980): 446-450.

Hagiwara, Michio P. "The T.A. System: Two Wrongs Do Not Make a Right." ADFL Bulletin 8(1977): 26-28.

Higgs, Theodore V., Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, and Frank W. Medley, Jr. Entradas. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle, 1989.

Jean, Denis J. "The Development of an Individualized Conversation Program Using Native-Level Speakers." ADFL Bulletin 12(May 1981): 33-35.

Joiner, Elizabeth G. "Training Prospective Teachers in the Correction of Student Errors." French Review 49(1975): 193-97.

Kline, Michael B. "Individualizing French Through the Credit/No Credit Open-Ended Approach." Foreign Language Annals 9(1976): 22-27.

Medley, Frank W., Jr. "Designing the Proficiency-Based Curriculum." 13-40 in Alice C. Omaggio, ed., Proficiency,Curriculum, Articulation: The Ties That Bind. Middlebury, VT.: Northeast Conference, 1985.

Menard, Jean. "Le Moniteur de Langue Seconde." Canadian Modern Language Review. 32(1975): 55-60.

Muyskens, Judith A. "Preservice and Inservice Teacher Training: Focus on Proficiency," pp. 179-200, in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., Teaching for Proficiency, The Organizing Principle.The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, Vol. 14. Lincolnwood, IL.: National Textbook Company, 1984.

Nerenz, Anne Grunstrom. "The Roles of the University Supervisor: Perceived Importance and Practical Implications." Foreign Language Annals 12(1979): 471-475.

Omaggio, Alice. Proficiency-Oriented Classroom Testing. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1983.

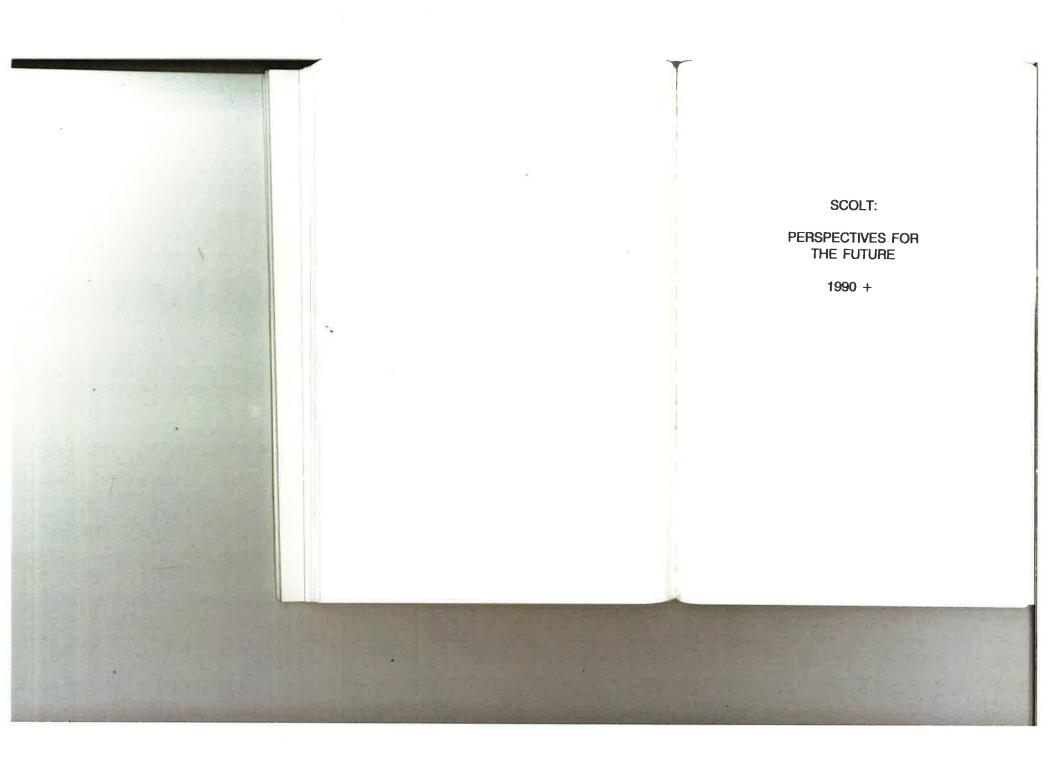Hagiwara, Michio P. "The T.A. System: Two Wrongs Do Not Make a Right." ADFL Bulletin 8(1977): 26-28.

Higgs, Theodore V., Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro, and Frank W. Medley, Jr. Entradas. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle, 1989.

Jean, Denis J. "The Development of an Individualized Conversation Program Using Native-Level Speakers." ADFL Bulletin 12(May 1981): 33-35.

Joiner, Elizabeth G. "Training Prospective Teachers in the Correction of Student Errors." French Review 49(1975): 193-97.

Kline, Michael B. "Individualizing French Through the Credit/No Credit Open-Ended Approach." Foreign Language Annals 9(1976): 22-27.

Medley, Frank W., Jr. "Designing the Proficiency-Based Curriculum." 13-40 in Alice C. Omaggio, ed., Proficiency,Curriculum, Articulation: The Ties That Bind. Middlebury, VT.: Northeast Conference, 1985.

Menard, Jean. "Le Moniteur de Langue Seconde." Canadian Modern Language Review. 32(1975): 55-60.

Muyskens, Judith A. "Preservice and Inservice Teacher Training: Focus on Proficiency," pp. 179-200, in Theodore V. Higgs, ed., Teaching for Proficiency, The Organizing Principle.The ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, Vol. 14. Lincolnwood, IL.: National Textbook Company, 1984.

Nerenz, Anne Grunstrom. "The Roles of the University Supervisor: Perceived Importance and Practical Implications." Foreign Language Annals 12(1979): 471-475.

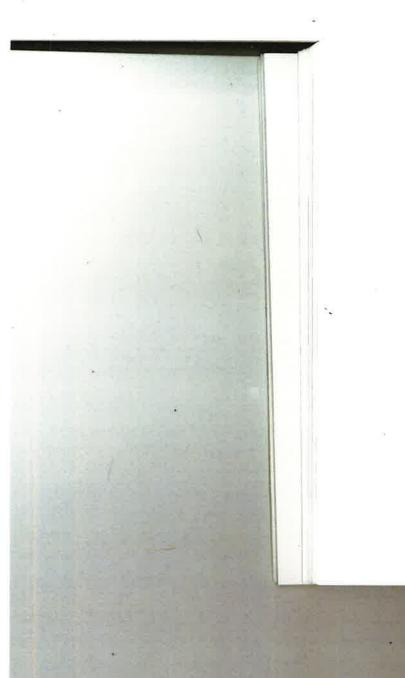Omaggio, Alice. Proficiency-Oriented Classroom Testing. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1983.

_____. Teaching Language in Context. Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1986.

Ozete, Oscar, and Lucia Caycedo Garner. "A Working Model for Training and Supervising Teaching Assistants." (Paper presented at the Central States Conference, Minneapolis, MN, 1980.) (EDRS: ED 196269.)

Rivers, W., Azevedo, M., Heflin, W. and Hyman-Opler, R. A Practical Guide to the Teaching of Spanish. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1988.

Riordan, Kathleen M. "Teachers Teaching Teachers: An Inservice Model that Works." Foreign Language Annals 22(1989): 185-193.

Rogers, Carmen Villegas. "Improving the Performance of Teaching Assistants in the Multi-Section Classroom." Foreign Language Annals 20(1987): 403-410.

Russo, Gloria M. "Training for TAs." Improving College and University Teaching 30(1981): 171-74.

Saine, Thomas P. "The Evaluation of Teaching and the State of the University." ADFL Bulletin 10(Mar 1979): 17-23.

Schultz, Renate A. "TA Training, Supervision, and Evaluation: Report of a Survey." ADFL Bulletin 12(September 1980): 1-8.

Singer, Armand E. "Using Foreign Language Graduate Assistants More Productively." (Paper presented at the Annual Mountain Interstate Foreign Language Conference, Johnson City, TN, 1977.) (EDRS: ED 145721.)

Tolliver, Suzanne Shipley. "Proficiency Based Instruction and Teaching Assistant Supervision." Unterrichtspraxis 17(1984): 299-306.

Valis, Noel M. "Teaching: An Act of Passionate Commitment." ADFL Bulletin 13(Mar 1981): 32-33.

SCOLT:

PERSPECTIVES FOR
THE FUTURE

1990 +

SCOLT:
PERSPECTIVES FOR THE
FUTURE 1990+

Robert M. Terry
University of Richmond

On this twenty-fifth anniversary of SCOLT, let's take a few minutes to look ahead and determine where the organization is headed and where it should be going.[1]

This is truly a time to feel good about being part of a regional organization whose goal is to join together the various state organizations in the South to provide links between the states and to strengthen the role of foreign language education.

This is also a time to look at ourselves critically and to ask several important questions:

1. Has SCOLT in fact carried out its primary objective to advance the "learning and teaching of languages at all levels of instruction"? (SCOLT, 1986)
2. Has it worked to its fullest in fostering close ties not only between ACTFL, the national umbrella organization, but more importantly between us and our constituents on the different state and local levels?
3. What can SCOLT do to strengthen its role, its position, and its impact? This is perhaps the most important of the three asked. In other words, is SCOLT simply going to continue to promote the study of foreign languages, to talk about and research the status quo, or will it begin to address

[1]Speech delivered October 10, 1989, at the Twenty-fifth Southern Conference on Language Teaching Anniversary Celebration, Little Rock, Arkansas.

the needs of foreign language educators and students?

Let us not be complacent. If one takes the last question seriously and if it is heeded as a challenge, the status quo should no longer be acceptable. There has been a strong resurgence of interest in foreign language study. Enrollment in our courses is at an all-time high. More and more states are beginning to implement high school and college foreign language graduation requirements as well as college entrance requirements. There is more and more talk and action to reintroduce foreign languages in the elementary schools. At least foreign language study is not still relegated to the category of "frill courses for the elite." The profession has received favorable press since the 1979 publication of Strength through Wisdom, the report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. Articles have recently appeared about the importance of foreign languages and global education in the nation's business schools: "2nd language a salient business tool" by Sylvia Porter, and "B-Schools get a Global Vision" in Fortune magazine. Federal funding for our programs has been secured although often tacked on to bills for science and mathematics . . . but we have gotten funding. But is it enough?

Twenty-five years is a long time. SCOLT is not the "new kid on the block." There have been many changes in foreign language education over the past twenty-five years. There are some which are frankly better forgotten. Other changes have moved our field to its current position of high visibility and importance in the complete education of today's youth. There are indeed developments for which we can be congratulated.

But the task is assuredly not over; it has only just begun. As previously asked, is SCOLT simply going to continue to promote the study of foreign languages, to talk about and research the status quo, or is it to begin to address the needs of foreign language educators and students? Simply stated another way, are we going to continue to react to existing conditions or are we going to proact--to move ahead and address our specific needs and concerns?

The key role of a regional organization is to provide leadership for its affiliates--leadership through cooperation. This cooperation moves in two directions: upward toward our national foreign language organization, ACTFL (or perhaps more

the needs of foreign language educators and students?

Let us not be complacent. If one takes the last question seriously and if it is heeded as a challenge, the status quo should no longer be acceptable. There has been a strong resurgence of interest in foreign language study. Enrollment in our courses is at an all-time high. More and more states are beginning to implement high school and college foreign language graduation requirements as well as college entrance requirements. There is more and more talk and action to reintroduce foreign languages in the elementary schools. At least foreign language study is not still relegated to the category of "frill courses for the elite." The profession has received favorable press since the 1979 publication of Strength through Wisdom, the report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. Articles have recently appeared about the importance of foreign languages and global education in the nation's business schools: "2nd language a salient business tool" by Sylvia Porter, and "B-Schools get a Global Vision" in Fortune magazine. Federal funding for our programs has been secured although often tacked on to bills for science and mathematics . . . but we have gotten funding. But is it enough?

Twenty-five years is a long time. SCOLT is not the "new kid on the block." There have been many changes in foreign language education over the past twenty-five years. There are some which are frankly better forgotten. Other changes have moved our field to its current position of high visibility and importance in the complete education of today's youth. There are indeed developments for which we can be congratulated.

But the task is assuredly not over; it has only just begun. As previously asked, is SCOLT simply going to continue to promote the study of foreign languages, to talk about and research the status quo, or is it to begin to address the needs of foreign language educators and students? Simply stated another way, are we going to continue to react to existing conditions or are we going to proact--to move ahead and address our specific needs and concerns?

The key role of a regional organization is to provide leadership for its affiliates--leadership through cooperation. This cooperation moves in two directions: upward toward our national foreign language organization, ACTFL (or perhaps more

accurately, ACTFL and the AAT's), and downward toward the state and local affiliates. We are indeed a key link in this chain of command, and, as trite as the saying may be, a chain is as strong as its weakest link. Complacency with our past successes should not cause us to relent. SCOLT has already shown a leadership role. Unfortunately, however, to cite one particular instance, its effort has not been given its true importance. The following description illustrates the point.

On January 31, 1985, in Las Vegas, representatives from the five regional conferences were welcomed as full voting members of the ACTFL Executive Council. At that meeting, the ACTFL by-laws were changed to reflect the increase in membership of the Executive Council from ten to fifteen, and the term of office of Council members was increased from three to four years. This addition to the Executive Council came about as a result of ACTFL's having appointed three different Regional Task Force Liaison coordinators who worked for several years with each of the regional conferences in an effort to strengthen its ties with both the regionals and with state affiliates, and primarily to address the five priority areas singled out for special attention in the field of foreign language education: teacher education, curriculum and materials development, public awareness, foreign language proficiency, and research. Each regional conference appointed a task force which was to work on each of the priority areas. SCOLT's topic was research. During my term as the Task Force Liaison, SCOLT was the only organization that carried out its charge, and that it did largely on its own and with impressive initiative. Through seeking funding from the Exxon Education Foundation, SCOLT was the first regional conference (and I might add the only one) to publish the results of its work in Research Within Reach: Research-guided Responses to the Concerns of Foreign Language Teachers, under the editorship of Thomas C. Cooper. In the foreword to this book, Professor Cooper (1985, xii) states: "Research Within Reach is a unique project. It represents an extended cooperative effort between a regional and national foreign language association, as well as cooperation among the various universities at which the task force members are employed."

Now to the real point: listen to the title of this SCOLT publication--Research Within Reach: Research-guided Responses to CONCERNS of Foreign Language Teachers (my emphasis). SCOLT did not react; it proacted. Of course, we have concerns.

The 1981 Conference on Professional Priorities held in Boston in conjunction with the ACTFL Annual Meeting singled out the five priorities. The regional task forces were charged with defining significant issues in its area, proposing directions for the profession and preparing a final report establishing realistic goals. SCOLT not only reacted to the charge, but gave us a forward look at one of our major concerns and not a simple state-of-the-art report. As Professor Cooper (vii) states: " . . . we decided first to discover from practitioners in the field what their most urgent questions were about foreign language learning and teaching. We then attempted to provide the answers by citing applicable research." Here is an instance where ingenuity addressed a specific concern, since " . . . most of the studies in the foreign language education are undertaken to satisfy the curiosity of and to benefit the investigators themselves, rather than to address concerns that actual classroom teachers have about language learning and pedagogy" (Cooper, 1985, vii). You are all familiar with the saying "Too many chiefs and no Indians." In reference to foreign language education for entirely too long, this might be stated more aptly as "Too many Indians and no chief." We must have a leader.

On the national level, ACTFL is that leader. On the regional level in the Southeast, SCOLT should be the leader. But none of us can act alone. ACTFL has strengthened its ties with its regional and state constituents by holding joint annual meetings (it met jointly with SCOLT in 1972, again in 1987 in Atlanta with over 2000 people in attendance, and will again in Nashville in 1990); by including regional representatives on its Executive Council; through the pending publication of its <u>Leadership for Foreign Language Organizations: A Handbook</u>.

An important question to ask is whether the regional organizations have been strengthening ties with their own affiliates? Has a concerted effort been made to create a strong network between SCOLT and the state organizations? Have effective lines of communications been established? Has SCOLT kept in touch with its affiliates throughout the year? Has it remained too insular with its annual meetings and not given teachers throughout its region the opportunity to attend and profit from these conferences?

In the Introduction to the leadership handbook are the statements: "The chapters offer suggestions and experience-based looks at many aspects of the effective management,

The 1981 Conference on Professional Priorities held in Boston in conjunction with the ACTFL Annual Meeting singled out the five priorities. The regional task forces were charged with defining significant issues in its area, proposing directions for the profession and preparing a final report establishing realistic goals. SCOLT not only reacted to the charge, but gave us a forward look at one of our major concerns and not a simple state-of-the-art report. As Professor Cooper (vii) states: " . . . we decided first to discover from practitioners in the field what their most urgent questions were about foreign language learning and teaching. We then attempted to provide the answers by citing applicable research."   Here is an instance where ingenuity addressed a specific concern, since " . . . most of the studies in the foreign language education are undertaken to satisfy the curiosity of and to benefit the investigators themselves, rather than to address concerns that actual classroom teachers have about language learning and pedagogy" (Cooper, 1985, vii). You are all familiar with the saying "Too many chiefs and no Indians." In reference to foreign language education for entirely too long, this might be stated more aptly as "Too many Indians and no chief." We must have a leader.

On the national level, ACTFL is that leader. On the regional level in the Southeast, SCOLT should be the leader. But none of us can act alone. ACTFL has strengthened its ties with its regional and state constituents by holding joint annual meetings (it met jointly with SCOLT in 1972, again in 1987 in Atlanta with over 2000 people in attendance, and will again in Nashville in 1990); by including regional representatives on its Executive Council; through the pending publication of its Leadership for Foreign Language Organizations: A Handbook.

An important question to ask is whether the regional organizations have been strengthening ties with their own affiliates? Has a concerted effort been made to create a strong network between SCOLT and the state organizations? Have effective lines of communications been established? Has SCOLT kept in touch with its affiliates throughout the year? Has it remained too insular with its annual meetings and not given teachers throughout its region the opportunity to attend and profit from these conferences?

In the Introduction to the leadership handbook are the statements: "The chapters offer suggestions and experience-based looks at many aspects of the effective management,

administration and running of state, district or regional foreign language associations. [. .] We hope that [this handbook] will provide the basic structure around which a 'user's guide to effective leadership' may be built for each affiliate. [. .] We . . . hope that this handbook will help strengthen and increase the ties between the national foreign language association and its constituent members, for ACFTL's strong leadership comes from strong member organizations" (Terry, n.d., i). In selecting the authors for the various chapters, Genelle Morain, editor of The Beacon for the Foreign Language Association of Georgia was asked to contribute a chapter, and she willingly wrote "The State Newsletter: Voice for Excellence."

We have another opportunity to highlight the outstanding contributions from our region. ACTFL has instituted the inclusion of selected presentations from regional conferences in its Annual Meeting program. These presentations are selected by each regional conference as "the best of . . ." and are recognized as such in the Annual Meeting program. Could this same structure be implemented in the SCOLT Annual Meeting?

ACTFL is making a strong, concerted effort to provide leadership and cooperative ventures between it, at the national level, and its constituent members. But the strength of these efforts goes two ways. What is SCOLT currently doing to maintain such a cooperative effort with its own affiliates? What else needs to be done?

Most certainly, SCOLT's mission is a reflection of ACTFL's mission:

The mission of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages is to promote and foster the study of languages and cultures as an integral component of American education and society and to provide effective leadership for the improvement of teaching and learning at all levels of instruction in all languages. ACTFL accomplishes its mission through programs and projects that range from those influencing educational policies at the national level to those furnishing practical assistance to classroom teachers (ACTFL, 1987, 333).

SCOLT needs to take a strong look at the Central States Conference on Foreign Language Teaching (CSC) and its admirable efforts to provide links among the state organizations that are included in its membership. Central States is assuredly

a model for all other regionals.   There is an excellent working relationship with the state affiliates and their leadership. CSC is a member of all state organizations included within its area. In addition, there are designated state representatives or liaisons of CSC in every state who facilitate communication throughout the year. At its Annual Meeting, Central States makes an effort to identify and recognize the state organizations through providing breakfasts for the presidents of the various state affiliates and by providing informative seminars on leadership or inviting nationally-recognized speakers to address them. Edward Scebold, Executive Director of ACTFL, and J. David Edwards from the Joint National Committee on Languages, for example. Finally, CSC holds joint conferences with various state organizations, offering them a financial rebate for each member of the host state organization attending the conference, with the monies returned to the treasury of that state organization (Thrush).

Part of the title of the SCOLT publication, Research Within Reach addresses a charge not only to SCOLT but to all who have made foreign language education their career: We **must** begin to provide Responses to the Concerns of Foreign Language Teachers. We **must** support and encourage the efforts to improve not only the profession in general but our own individual yet essential roles in foreign language teaching.

What is meant by "support"? Some synonyms of this verb are to "strengthen, to sustain, to subsidize, to maintain, to advance, to advocate, to promote." In a nutshell, here is my charge to regional organizations:

- **to strengthen** the support of our affiliates by offering them strong leadership and a supportive sense of purpose;

- **to sustain** our faith in the value of what we are doing and to sustain, if not improve, our working relationship with our affiliates;

- **to subsidize**, financially when possible, and with expert resource personnel, innovative programs within our region;

- **to maintain** the current impetus in foreign language education, paying particular attention to the concerns of teachers;

- **to advance** our own leadership role and that of our local and state affiliates by creating a strong system of networks both within the region and between us and ACTFL;

ʹy

e is an excellent working
I their leadership. CSC is
cluded within its area. In
presentatives or liaisons of
nunication throughout the
States makes an effort to
zations through providing
ious state affiliates and by
rship or inviting nationally-
:dward Scebold, Executive
ds from the Joint National
. Finally, CSC holds joint
izations, offering them a
ie host state organization
monies returned to the
ush).
plication, Research Within
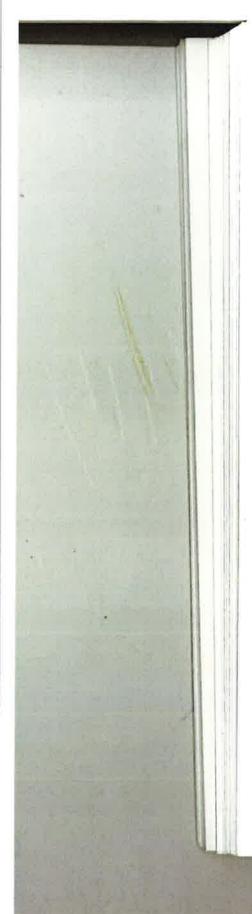:o SCOLT but to all who
n their career: We must
e Concerns of Foreign
and encourage the efforts
in general but our own
language teaching.
ne synonyms of this verb
ubsidize, to maintain, to
n a nutshell, here is my

affiliates by offering them
e sense of purpose;
of what we are doing and
king relationship with our

iossible, and with expert
igrams within our region;
tus in foreign language
ition to the concerns of

role and that of our local
trong system of networks
in us and ACTFL;

- **to advocate** change in the profession when and where
change is needed, based on the concerns of its
practitioners, locally, statewide, regionally and nationally;
- **to promote** the value of the study of another language.
The rest is up to each and every one of us.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.
"ACTFL's Mission," Foreign Language Annals. 4 (1987):
333.

Cooper, Thomas C., editor. Research Within Reach:
Research-guided Responses to the Concerns of Foreign
Language Teachers. Athens, GA: Agee Publishers, Inc.,
1985.

Southern Conference on Language Teaching. SCOLT
Handbook of Procedures, 1987.

Terry, Robert M. Leadership for Foreign Language
Organizations: A Handbook, unpublished.

Thrush, Jody, Executive Director, Central State Conferences
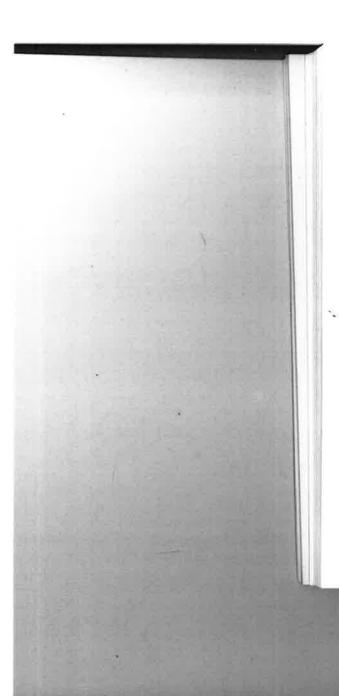on Foreign Language Teaching, personal communication.

SCOLT INDIVIDUAL SPONSORS 1989

Frans Amelinckx
Estelle Archibold
John Austin
Herman Bostick
Marian Brodman
Lynn Bryan
Filisha Camara-Norman
Marilyn Carpenter
Ronald Cere
Rosalie M. Cheatham
Pearl Bennett Chiari
Kay Clements
Earle Clowney
Joanna B. Crane
Dorothy DiOrio
Greg Duncan
Raul Fernandez
Pamela A. Ficken
E. Wayne Figart
Paula Fordham
T. Bruce Fryer
Susan Grier
Moses Hardin
Nicole Hatfield
Paula Heusinkveld
Judy Holzman
Leslie Kearney
Virginia Kennedy
Bob LaFayette

Michael Lastinger
Daniel A. MacLeay
Madeline Marquette
Frank W. Medley, Jr.
Susan B. Metcalf
Sue Mistric
Joanne McFerran Mount
Jacqueline Moyano
Lettie R. Nelson
Helen G. Newton
Cathryn O'Brien
Rebecca M. Parker
Mercedes Phipps
Barbara P. Ransford
Sharon Rapp
Hal H. Rennert
Marueen Riley
Lynn B. Rogers
Louise Rollefson
Nancy Shumaker
Robin Snyder
Lissi Spencer
Alice J. Strange
Janene C. Sullivan
Robert M. Terry
Effie Tiliakos
Yvonne Ortega-Tutunjian
Jeannie Villines
Laura K. White
Lea Young

SCOLT INDIVIDUAL SPONSORS 1989

Frans Amelinckx
Estelle Archibold
John Austin
Herman Bostick
Marian Brodman
Lynn Bryan
Filisha Camara-Norman
Marilyn Carpenter
Ronald Cere
Rosalie M. Cheatham
Pearl Bennett Chiari
Kay Clements
Earle Clowney
Joanna B. Crane
Dorothy DiOrio
Greg Duncan
Raul Fernandez
Pamela A. Ficken
E. Wayne Figart
Paula Fordham
T. Bruce Fryer
Susan Grier
Moses Hardin
Nicole Hatfield
Paula Heusinkveld
Judy Holzman
Leslie Kearney
Virginia Kennedy
Bob LaFayette

Michael Lastinger
Daniel A. MacLeay
Madeline Marquette
Frank W. Medley, Jr.
Susan B. Metcalf
Sue Mistric
Joanne McFerran Mount
Jacqueline Moyano
Lettie R. Nelson
Helen G. Newton
Cathryn O'Brien
Rebecca M. Parker
Mercedes Phipps
Barbara P. Ransford
Sharon Rapp
Hal H. Rennert
Marueen Riley
Lynn B. Rogers
Louise Rollefson
Nancy Shumaker
Robin Snyder
Lissi Spencer
Alice J. Strange
Janene C. Sullivan
Robert M. Terry
Effie Tiliakos
Yvonne Ortega-Tutunjian
Jeannie Villines
Laura K. White
Lea Young

SCOLT INSTITUTIONAL SPONSORS & PATRONS 1989

AATF, S. Atlantic Region
Arkansas AATF

South Carolina AATF

AATG
Arkansas AATG
Arkansas State University
Central States Conference on
  Language Teaching
Charleston (SC) Day School
College of Charleston
Columbia (SC) College
Converse College

Emory University
FLA of Georgia

FLA of North Carolina

Fulton Co. (GA) Bd of Education

Georgia State University
Lakeside HS, Evans, GA
Lander College
North Georgia College
South Carolina Conference of
  Foreign Language Teachers
Southern Arkansas University

Spelman College, Atlanta

Texas FLA

Douglas Cardwell
Kay Caffey
Virginia Johnson
Allyn S. Bruce
Billie Edmonds
Helene Zimmer-Lowe
Elke Slayton
Jane Gill
Jody Thrush

Patricia K. Sheppard
Michael Pincus
Fred Neito
Jeri-Anne King
Anthony Scavillo
Viola Westbrook
Lowell Bouma
Susan Crooks
Kathy White
Sharon King
Lynne McClendon
Lou Culbreath
David O'Connell
Jane Shaffer Elliott
Michael Rowland
W. Guy Oliver
Billie Edmonds

Paul Smith
Gisele Souter
Estelle Archibold
James Gates
Frank Maples
Eugenia Simons

SCOLT INSTITUTIONAL SPONSORS & PATRONS 1989

Tulsa Junior College

University of Montevallo, AL

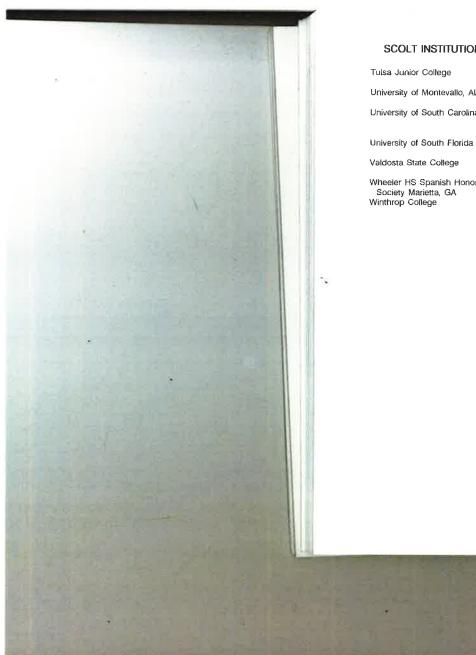University of South Carolina

University of South Florida

Valdosta State College

Wheeler HS Spanish Honor
  Society Marietta, GA
Winthrop College

Laura J. Walker
Terry Manning
Richard W. Thames
Mercedes Turon
David Hill
Carolyn Hansen
Ken Fleak
Carol Cargill
Bianca Ponte
Sandra D. Walker
Lee Bradley
Patricia Matias

Joseph W. Zdenek

SCOLT INSTITUTIONAL SPONSORS & PATRONS 1989

Tulsa Junior College

University of Montevallo, AL

University of South Carolina

University of South Florida

Valdosta State College

Wheeler HS Spanish Honor
  Society Marietta, GA
Winthrop College

Laura J. Walker
Terry Manning
Richard W. Thames
Mercedes Turon
David Hill
Carolyn Hansen
Ken Fleak
Carol Cargill
Bianca Ponte
Sandra D. Walker
Lee Bradley
Patricia Matias

Joseph W. Zdenek

INVOICE # _____   Date _____

Sold to: _____

Address: _____

Sold by	Cash	Check #

#	Description	@ price	Amt
	Research within Reach (86) ACTFL-SCOLT Task Force on Research	$5.00	
	89 Perspectives and Horizons	$9.50	
	87 New Challenges & Opportunities	$5.00	
	86 Planning for Proficiency	$5.00	
	84-85 Perspectives on Proficiency	$5.00	
	83 Shrinking World: Expanding Horizons	$5.00	
	79 Folk Lore: Linking Life to Language	$5.00	
	77 New South: Expanding Center	$5.00	
	74 Dimension	$5.00	
	72 Dimension	$5.00	
	71 Dimension	$5.00	
	70 Dimension	$5.00	
	68 Dimension	$5.00	
	67 Dimension	$5.00	
	66 Dimension	$5.00	
	65 Dimension	$5.00	
	Special Price:		
		Shipping: Total:	