THE UNIVERSITY OF LATVIA

FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Ingrīda Kramiņa

LINGUO- DIDACTIC THEORIES UNDERLYING MULTI-PURPOSE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

RĪGA 1999

ABSTRACT

The research is based on more than 25 years of theoretical studies and academic work with multi-purpose language programmes at secondary and tertiary level.

The teaching aid `Open Your Mind` for listening comprehension is based on the linguistic, methodological and educational theories discussed in the present theoretical study.

The most recent multi-purpose teaching aid CD-ROM `BALTIC` was developed on the basis of the research performed.

The teaching aid has been designed within the framework of the European Council `Copernicus` project `BALTIC` (Copernicus Project No 0595).

The project manager and co-ordinator for the Baltic States Universities - Ingrīda Kramiņa.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Importance of the Problem

The current demand for the knowledge of foreign languages brings to language classrooms learners with different interests and different purposes of language learning. This is true not only to language courses and academic language learning at secondary schools. Even university students, studying the target language in academic and professional programmes, intend to use the target language for different purposes. Thus, students qualifying for BA degree in English Philology might have varied purposes of language studies: some students might be interested in the grammatical structure of the language, others might take interest in the prosody of the target language, still others might choose the whole language approach to linguistic studies.

The list of different interests in language studies might be extended also as regards the professional purposes of the target language application, such as
- language teaching to young learners;
- language teaching to adolescents;
- language teaching at different levels to adult learners specialised in different fields of science, law, medicine, art economy, etc.;
- language teaching to learners with specific needs (visually impaired), etc.;
- application of language for translation of technical texts (different specialities);
- application of language for translation of fiction (verse and prose);
- application of language for interpreting, etc.

However, all these students with various language application purposes are studying in the same academic programme - BA in English Philology. Hence the problem of designing academic course programmes applicable for multiple-purpose language studies.

Hypothesis of the research:
successful multiple-purpose language studies are impossible unless the relevant linguistic, methodological and educational principles are observed.

Practical goal of the research:

to design course programmes applicable for students with multi-purpose language learning purposes.

Theoretical goal of the research:

to create the theoretical - linguo-didactic basis for foreign language studies and multi-purpose language acquisition.

Object of the research - *the process of language studies and acquisition.*

Subject of the research - *the preconditions for multi-purpose language acquisition.*

Enabling objectives:

- to analyse and investigate the linguo-didactic theories underlying foreign language studies at the tertiary level;
- to investigate the linguo-didactic preconditions of multi-purpose language acquisition;
- to investigate the linguo-didactic preconditions for language skills development;
- to investigate the correlation between the language acquisition level and the levels of separate language skills;
- to work out methodology for multi-purpose language learning/teaching;
- to create teaching materials and academic courses for multi-purpose language studies;
- to pilot the designed teaching materials and courses;
- to sum up the linguistic and didactic principles of language acquisition.

The theoretical significance of the research:

The research deals with the 20th century linguistic and didactic theories underlying multi-purpose language learning at the tertiary level.

Novelty of the research lies in:

- the analysis of the correlation between the language acquisition level and the levels of each separate language skill;

- the characteristics and lingvo-didactic basis of the multi-purpose language acquisition,
- the statement of correlation between the levels of language skills and the purpose of language acquisition;
- the investigation of the correlation between language acquisition and the students' intellectual development;
- summarising linguo didactic preconditions for designing new courses based on multi-media;
- design of the theoretical basis for the assessment criteria of academic writing.

The theoretical concepts and conclusions resulting from the research can be further applied when developing linguo-didactic basis for distance learning. Here the problem of multi-purpose language learning is exceedingly topical.

The practical significance of the research

The results of the research can be used in designing new courses for foreign language learning, as well as for developing teaching materials based on sound theoretical basis.

Methods of research:

Theoretical:
- a contrastive analysis of the 20th century linguistic and didactic theories;
- the functional approach to the analysis of the levels of language skills.

Practical:
- pilot teaching, using the newly obtained theoretical ideas;
- selective analysis of the existing teaching materials;
- classroom observation;
- interview;
- mathematical and statistic analysis of the research results.

The volume and approbation of the research

The results of the research are represented in the dissertation
LINGUO-DIDACTIC THEORIES UNDERLYING MULTI-PURPOSE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (200 PAGES).

The contents of the dissertation

The research paper consists of 11 chapters. The theoretical analysis of the research problems is illustrated by practical examples, tables and diagrams.

The main themes of the research:

- Linguistic theories on language and language acquisition;

- Theories on language learning acquisition and teaching methodology;

- Levels and scaling in foreign language learning;

- Linguo-didactic analysis of foreign language learning purposes;

- Theoretical basis of language skills development and design of methodology and techniques for the development of each particular skill (listening, speaking, reading, writing) duringlife long language learning;

- Correlation between the level of language skills development and language learning level;

- Multi-purpose language learning teaching;

- Ways and means of coping with multi-purpose language learning and different levels of language proficiency;

- Linguistic and didactic principles underlying multi-purpose language teaching /learning.

1 LINGUISTIC THEORIES ON LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

1.1 The Nature of Human Language

> When we study human language, we are approaching what some might
> call the `human essence`, the distinctive qualities of mind are, so far as
> we know, unique to man.
> *Noam Chomsky, Language and Mind*

As the subject of our research is the process of language learning, it is necessary to discuss different views on language and to form our opinion concerning language, its functions and language learning.
Whatever else people may do when they come together - they talk. They live in a world of words.

To understand man's humanity one must understand the language that makes him human. According to the philosophy expressed in the myths and religions of many peoples, it is the language which is the source of human life and power. To some people of Africa, a new- born child is a *kuntu,* a `thing`, not yet a *muntu,* a `person`. Only by the act of learning does child become a human being.

(Fromkin/Rodman, 1974)

Thus, according to this tradition, we all become `human` because we all know at least one language. The possession of language, more than any attribute, distinguishes man from other animals. Man stands apart from other animals. It seems that

some alterations in the patterning of his genes in man's early development caused him to be born with a predisposition to language and that this was decisive to his future development. (Hutchcroft, 1981)

The kind of consensus on language which is normally available to teachers is represented in Lyons' *Language and Linguistics (1981).* Only Chomsky's definition, contrary to other definitions presented by Lyons, does not view language primarily as a conventional symbol system concerned with communication or co-operation between people.
Lyons himself sees language as one among a number of other semiotic systems (Lyons, 1981: 3-11). This emphasis follows the lead of Saussure (1916: 33) in a concern to see language in the context of other communication frameworks.

Chomsky gives a rather formal definition in 1957:

From now on I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements.(Chomsky, 1957: 13)

In 1965 Noam Chomsky made a distinction very similar to the one that Ferdinand de Saussure had made between `language` and `parole` in 1916. The distinction made by Chomsky was between `competence` - a speaker's intuitive knowledge of the rules of his native language and `performance` - what he actually produces by applying these rules.

We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations). (Chomsky, 1965: 4)

Chomsky was talking about *grammatical* rules. Chomsky considered that a native speaker knows intuitively which sentences are grammatical and which are not, and it is his linguistic competence which tells him this.

The problem is that, while `competence` has been specified with some precision, `performance` seems to include not merely the lapses in performance which occur when knowledge is interfered with by fatigue or inattention, but also stylistic variations and acceptability (Chomsky, 1965: 10 - 15, 27).

According to Brumfit (1994) performance thus seems to embrace both the failure to achieve competence which is found in the traditional psychological distinction between what is known and what is actually done and also certain other kinds of knowledge which allow us to produce utterances which are appropriate as well as grammatical.

Many linguists (among them Halliday) came to feel that Chomsky did not go far enough: his `ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community` (1965: 3) took no account of any socio-cultural features, of the fact that we talk to different people, in different situations, about different things and different problems:

The study of language in relation **to the situations in which it is used**
... is a theoretical pursuit, no less interesting and central to linguistics than psycholinguistic investigations relating the structure of language to the structure of human brain. (Halliday, 1970:145)

Besides the above described views a third position exists which accepts a competence/performance distinction but extends the notion of competence to embrace all rule-systems which describe our knowledge of language. This view has led to the concept of communicative competence, implied by Campbell, Wales and Marshall (1966) and Cooper, R. L. (1968) and

discussed by a range of scholars including Jakobovits (1970), Habermas (1970), Hymes (1971), and Savignon (1972).

Thus, in 1970 Campbell and Wales proposed that the Chomskyan notion of competence should be extended beyond purely grammatical competence to include a more general communicative ability. Language does not occur in isolation, as Chomsky seems to suggest; it occurs in a social context and reflects *social* rather than *linguistic purposes.*

The literature on communicative competence has been surveyed by various authors with varying emphases: Le Page, 1975; Munby, 1978; Canale and Swain, 1980; Brumfit, 1994). There is a general agreement among applied linguists that **it is necessary to specify as clearly as possible not only the formal features of linguistic systems but the ways in which these features may legitimately be operated.**

Throughout the 1960s Dell Hymes (1964,1967, 1968, 1971) explored ways in which utterances may be defined as appropriate to specific social `speech events` (1967). According to Hymes, a child acquires a knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate to the context in which they are made. He has *communicative* as well as *linguistic competence*:

He knows when and when not to speak, what to talk about with whom, when, where, and in what manner. (Hymes, 1972: 277)

This ethnographic approach , according to Brumfit (1994) leads to a consideration **of** *communicative competence,* in direct and deliberate opposition to Chomsky's *linguistic competence.* Evaluating Hymes' contribution to applied linguistics and language teaching Brumfit points out:

What Hymes has done conveniently, though, is to provide a broad framework, even if often no more than metaphorical, for subsequent discussion of language as a system which is performed as well as known.

... Hymes' categories provide a useful descriptive framework, even though they are not intended to provide a basis for generative rules. (Brumfit, 1994: 26)

The purpose of the preceding discussion has been to illustrate the way in which scholars in many disciplines have attempted to show the vast range of approaches to language. What they show cumulatively is that language cannot be thought of solely as a `system of formal elements` (Brumfit, 1994: 27) without taking away its major functions. This leads us to our next theme - Language in Use.

1.2 Language in Use

One possible way of investigating what people actually do when communicating is to look at language variations. Labov has examined relations between sociolinguistic and formal patterns of language in order to develop rules on probability. (Labov, 1972)

Another statement of similar character, viewing language in concordance with the sphere of its use, was expressed by Brown and Yule when speaking about discourse analysis:

... the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs. (Brown and Yule, 1983: 1)

As these views make clear the analysis of language use cannot be independent of the analysis of the purposes and functions of language in human life. In Fairclough's view, language and society partially constitute one another. Thus language, being part of society,

linguistic phenomena are social phenomena of a special sort, and social phenomena are (in part) linguistic phenomena. (Fairclough, 1989: 23)

The views quoted above are functionalist views and assume discourse to be interdependent with social life,

such that its analysis necessarily intersects with meanings, activities, and systems outside of itself. (Schiffrin, 1995: 31)

According to Schiffrin (1995), a definition of discourse as language use is consistent with functionalism in general: discourse is viewed as a system

- a socially and culturally organised way of speaking through which particular functions are realised. (Schiffrin, 1995: 32)

Further consideration of 'language in use' has emerged from various traditions in philosophy. Most influential has been 'speech act' theory. Speech act theory begins with the work of John Austin 'How to Do Things With Words' (1962)
John Searle's 'Speech Acts' (1969) build upon Austin's work to propose systematic framework by which to incorporate speech acts into linguistic theory. Searle proposes that 'the speech act is the basic unit of communication.' (Searle, 1969: 21)

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What allows the integration of **speech act theory** into linguistic theory is Searle's **principle of expressibility** :

`... **what can be meant can be said** . (Searle, 1969; 18-21)

This principle establishes that it is possible (in theory) for a speaker to be able to say exactly what he/she means either by increasing his/her knowledge of the language or by enriching the language (p.19). The principle of expressibility has several different consequences which directly influence language learning/ teaching process.

Searle's understanding of language as a series of acts in the world rather than a collection of sentences has been taken up extensively by Widdowson (1978) when relating to language teaching.

The co-operative principle of Grice (1975) provides through a series of maxims a list of presuppositions about the nature of an authentic conversation:

... be as informative as required, truthful, relevant, brief and orderly.

(Grice, 1975: 45)

Attempts to codify the ways in which we make sense have led into ethnomethodological approaches to language, and into more formal attempts to describe the features of discourse (Cook, 1992; Schiffrin 1994).

These presuppositions help the language user preserve the authentic attitude towards the target language and enable him/her to use the newly acquired language as a means of communication in relevant life situations, If we might question whether or not there is any value in isolating a situation as a variable in the analysis of the social function of language then concerning language teaching the value of the situation is undeniable.

If, with this notion of situation in mind, we look at the possible range of man's language activities, we would come to the conclusion that in this respect ` language behaviour is a continuum` (Wilkins, 1974). At one end of the scale the form and content of utterances is fairly predictable from the description of the situational context. Language occurs predictably in situations like registering for a flight at the airport, booking a room in a hotel, changing money in a bank shopping in a supermarket, turning for help in a tourist information bureau or making introductions. According to Wilkins (1974), language occurs less predictably in law court where,

although there may be quite a large number of recurrent forms, there will be almost no limit on the form and content and utterances that can occur.

At the other end of the scale the situational context of utterance is almost totally unimportant and prediction would only be possible if one knew what in practice one cannot know - the learned and inherited characteristics of the participants.

(Wilkins,1974: 144)

This, in our opinion, is true to literature or most conversations between friends.

From the discussion so far it is important to note that language is a dynamic, not a static system and therefore also the views on language are in constant development. The same might refer to views on language teaching, which in their turn are built and develop on the relevant linguistic theories. Thus we can assume from the theoretical concepts analysed above that a situational syllabus would be an alternative to the conventional grammatical syllabus in cases where a situational analysis of needs seems relevant . It would not necessarily be a valuable alternative for an advanced language learner studying the target language for both academic and professional purposes at tertiary level.

Another item, worth mentioning, is the vast scale of language use. As the target of our investigation is the process of English language learning. it is important to keep in the focus of attention its different possible spheres of application. Such an attitude is of paramount importance during the very process of language learning. The modern language learner of 90s will not be satisfied with the possibility to use the language only in the classroom, however friendly the atmosphere might be and however encouraging and helpful the teacher might be. Hence, the significance of learners' needs and wants. Teaching aids, materials and methodologies should be relevant to learners' age, language experience and needs and should take them through varied language use in the classroom, bringing it as close as possible to its authentic variants used in real-life situations.

Few of us are aware of the range and variety of our uses of language during even one typical day. Language will occur almost wherever we come into contact with other people and will be different according to the nature of the contact. Language also assails us even in situations in which no other people are present or when other people are present but are not producing language for our consumption. Even people whose jobs may not appear to demand extensive use of language are placed in numerous situations which

will require characteristic pieces of language. The individual's choice of language enables him to perform his social functions. The social functions in their turn produce social influences on language use. These influences may express themselves as:

- dialect features,
- register,
- the medium of communication;
- status,
- situation.

Dialect features are the product of the individual's geographical and class origin. If two speakers differ in grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary, we will conclude that they speak different dialects. Dialect is not an important type of language variation for teaching. Although the potential teacher and the advanced learner might be made sensitive to the fact that there is dialect variation in the target language just as there is in their mother tongue.

Register
Variation according to use in specific situations is also studied in terms of register.
(Yule, 1994: 194)

Our daily lives take us through a succession of activities requiring the use of language. The activities are very diverse and, whatever dialect we speak, have specific features of language associated with them. Many activities are connected with our job. We may be a teacher delivering a lesson in the target language, an engineer giving instructions to a workman, a lawyer advising a client, a trade union official discussing some problems with the administration, etc.. Other activities are part of our leisure. We may play tennis, chess or bridge. Or relating to our home life, we may be acting as mother, father, husband, wife, son or daughter. Look at the life of any individual and you will find that day he/she passes through a succession of such roles, and in each he/she will produce or hear features of language that are typical of the activity involved. A careful study of the activity should enable us to establish what the linguistic features are that mark each concrete role . Although these features have scarcely been investigated yet, it is supposed that there are distinct varieties of language associated with people's occupations and, according to Wilkins (1974), to these varieties the name 'register' has been given.

One possible view of the aim of language teaching is that we are preparing the learner to perform a specific set of roles in a new language and new culture.

The medium of communication.

Just the same way as the users of language switch their roles and activities they switch also the channel through which communication takes place:

- the auditory channel - speaking and hearing;
- the visual channel - reading and writing.

In one day we may use the visual medium to read newspapers, books letters, advertisements, notices in the bus and at work. Whether we do much writing depends on the nature of our job.

In language teaching generally one uniform style is taught, whether the aim is to teach speech or writing. Instead of speech, however, more than often prose is taught, basing the language instruction on writing, not speech. Spoken language practice should not always contain perfect and complete samples of the target language. The demand for responses in complete sentences, though sometimes desirable (and very often practised also during lessons of the students' mother tongue) can make it difficult for the learner to operate with the extensive deletion of forms that he finds in natural speech.

Status - social relationships between people - are marked by features of language. Language teaching has been and still is more occupied with instilling a general system of language than with enabling the pupil to modulate his language in accordance with features of the social situation. Even at the most advanced levels teaching suffers from the same drawback-more attention is concentrated on a more formal or neutral style, although this may not be of great practical value since it may not be related to situations in which the student might find himself. If he converses with a native speaker, he/she will find that he/she is using a more formal style than the person he is talking to.

Situation.

As it has been mentioned above language occurs in situations and should be adequately taught.

All the above mentioned features of the target language might be logically familiar to the learner but will never be duly acquired by a language learner in a language classroom without being exposed to authentic use of the language in culturally relevant language situations. The only substitute of language situations that can be successfully used for this purpose are interactive multimedia language programmes.

1.3 Language and intellectual development

Another remarkable feature of language, apart from the above mentioned dynamic character is the fact that language is interrelated with the **intellectual development of its users**.

It is generally accepted in psychology, philosophy and in linguistic theories that **for most practical purposes language development and intellectual development go hand in hand.**
Hutchcroft (1981) considers that a child's ability to think, to reason and to store and re-use his experience develops through his capacity to use language. Language seems essential to most thinking. Vygotsky wrote:

thought is not merely expressed in words, it comes into existence through them.

(Vygotsky, 1962)

This concept is further confirmed by Mills C.Wright (1977: 60):

Even if we grant that 'thought' in some manner involves social processes, the thought is nevertheless, a lingual performance of an individual thinker.

Mead,G. H. considers that we employ *the generalised other* to show how societal processes enter as determinants into reflection. *The generalised other* is the internalised audience with which the thinker converses: a focalized and abstracted organisation of attitudes of those implicated in the social field of behaviour and experience.

According to Mills C. Wright, the structure and contents of selected and subsequently selective social experiences imported into mind constitute **the generalised other** with which the thinker converses and **which is socially limited and limiting.**

Thus we can understand that thinking follows the pattern of conversation. It is a give and take. It is an interplay of meanings. The audience conditions the talker; the other conditions the thinker and the outcome of their interaction is a function of both interactants. From the standpoint of the thinker, the socialisation of his thought is coincidental with its revision. Thought is conversational and dynamic; the elements involved in the process of thinking interpenetrate and modify the existence and status of one another.
Imported into mind, this symbolic interplay constitutes the structure of mentality.

It is in conversing with this internalised organisation of collective attitudes that ideas are logically tested. Here they meet recalcitrance and rejection, reformulation and acceptance. Reasoning, as Peirce C.S. has indicated, involves deliberate approval of one's reasoning.

One operates logically (applies standardised critiques) upon propositions and arguments (his own included) from the standpoint of a generalised other. It is from this socially constituted viewpoint that one approves or disapproves of given arguments as logical or illogical, valid or invalid. Deliberate logical approval is based upon comparison of the argument approved with some common idea of how good argument should appear. The `laws of logic` impose a restriction upon assertion and argument. They are the rules we must follow if we would socialise our thought.

`These rules are not arrived at intuitively, nor are they given `innate within the mind`. The principles of logic are the rules by means of which the meanings of our terms are explained. The principles of logic are conventional without being arbitrary. They are shaped and selected by the instrumental character of discourse, by the goals of inquiry and discourse. (Nagel,E. 1938)

In order to follow the rules of logic one should understand these rules and express them in the form of language. As to the logical procedures: assertion, argument restriction, all of them are materialised in words and language structures.

This aspect of language use is strongly felt in the process of foreign language learning/teaching (See 2.1.). There is a stage in the language learning process when the learners all of a sudden discover that they are thinking in the target language. At this stage the learning process passes into a new quality and even students' learning purposes might unexpectedly change. Thus, a student who initially planned to use the target language only for everyday communication purposes, realises that he/she is able to think in the newly acquired language. The student is able to construct his thoughts and ideas in the target language, he/she does not experience any difficulties in making his/her own judgements based on all round analysis of the particular problem. He/she is amazed because all the above mentioned mental processes proceed in the target language. The learner experiences true relief that he/she need not, any longer, go through the effort and time consuming process of thinking in the mother tongue and then translating the developed idea into the foreign language. This level of language knowledge is very often referred to as `near-native speaker language skills.

Having acquired language skills at this level the learner might like to reconsider his former language learning goal and decide that instead of acquiring `survival English` he would like to link either his academic or professional studies or, even, research with the target language.

Summary

The above discussed theories are of crucial importance for elaborating a profound linguistic background for multi-purpose language programmes.
Our approach to the English language teaching is based on Chomsky's theory that human language is unique to man and that it can be acquired by any human being. We are also aware of the complexity a foreign language competence and performance might present to a language learner. Concerning this aspect of language our presumptions rest on the theories developed by Brumfit, Hymes and Halliday.

Practical significance of the analysed linguistic theories.
The notions : *speech acts* and *communicative competence,* though contradicting Chomsky's *linguistic competence*, are very essential when setting the goals and working out enabling objectives for interactive language programmes.

Multi-purpose language learning programmes should give the learners assurance and belief in themselves by proving in practice that language is a system which is performed as well as known and that, as considered by Searle and Widdowson, language is a series of acts in the world rather than a collection of sentences.

However, this statement does not release any language learner from the tedious, sometimes monotonous, procedure of memorising words, phrases, idioms and even grammatical structures typical and characteristic of the target language. Hence, the role of the specially designed language programmes - **to make the process of learning and memorisation active and interesting.**
Thinking is realised as discourse by means of conversing. The thinker uses language in order to converse with `*the generalised other*`. This aspect of language use should not be neglected in the process of foreign language learning and acquisition. The learner has not acquired the language in case he cannot freely operate with the categories of logic expressed in the target language.

2 THEORIES ON LANGUAGE LEARNING, ACQUISITION AND TEACHING METHODOLOGY

2.1 Learning

Before discussing the problem of foreign language learning in greater detail it would be noteworthy to look closer at the very notion of learning. There are various interpretations of the process of learning. As our research deals with different aspects of foreign language learning, we have chosen to quote just this understanding of learning:

The very survival of an animal depends on its ability to adjust and adapt successfully to changes in its environment, that is, to learn. An inability to react correctly, to learn how to adapt, is usually incompatible with continued survival. (Curzon, 1996: 6)

Our choice of this definition was determined by the fact that here the very process of learning was perceived as the subject's attempt to adapt oneself to something strange, foreign. Hence, the relevance to foreign languages. Curzon develops the definition even further and again it, strangely enough, hits our target - foreign language learning:

Learning is, for a human being, `a lifelong engagement` and our world is a place of learning in which educational institutions reflect stages in the engagement to learn.

(Curzon, 1996: 7)

This definition sounds very true as regards the foreign language learning, because a foreign language, like any other academic subject, deserves the learner's attention during all his/her life. The more so, if the chosen academic subject is connected with the person's professional career or lifelong research activities. This leads us further to adult learning and problems connected with it as the multi-purpose language learning we are going to discuss in detail in the following chapters.

2.2 Adult Learning.

As a profession adult training evolved during 1960s when research and analysis demonstrated that assumptions about children as learners may not be valid for adults as learners. In the two past decades, a model of human learning and techniques for facilitating learning, termed *andragogy*, has developed. Today, adult training has its own well-defined concepts, methods and techniques. The full meaning of **andragogy**, or self-directed

learning, can be made clearer by comparing it with its opposite, pedagogy, which is teacher directed learning. The word `pedagogy` is derived from the Greek words *paid* (meaning `child`) and *agogus*(meaning `leader`). When we contrast the two definitions of andragogy and pedagogy, this does not imply that children should be taught pedagogically and adults should be taught andragogically. According to Knowles,

...the two terms simply differentiate between two sets of assumptions about learners, and the teacher who makes one set of assumptions will teach pedagogically whether she or he is teaching children or adults whereas the teacher who makes the other set of assumptions will teach andragogically whether the learners are children or adults.

(Knowles, 1975: 19)

The difference between the two assumptions will be discussed in greater detail, when analysing learners' goals in language learning and their purposes of language use.

According to Knowles, M. and Shoemaker, C. L. and Shoemaker, F. F., there are four criteria that have impact on the learning process of adults:
- self concept of the learner;
- the learner's experience;
- the learner's readiness to learn;
- time perspective and orientation to learning.

At about the same time that adult training evolved, the above mentioned linguistic theory developed by Chomsky led to `*natural language learning*` approach. Chomsky considers that *children are born with language learning abilities* :

Language is thus a kind of latent structure in the human mind, developed and fixed by exposure to specific linguistic experience.... The child cannot know at birth which language he is going to learn. But he must `know` that its grammar must be of a predetermined form that excludes many imaginable languages. The child's task is to select the appropriate hypothesis from this restricted class.

(Chomsky, 1974: 130-132)

Chomsky's approach was used by Stephen Krashen when formulating the theory of second language acquisition. According to Krashen and other second language acquisition researchers, adult second language learners have two different ways of developing skills in a second language:

- **learning,**
- **acquisition.**

2.3. Language Learning and Language Acquisition

Language learning, which is a conscious process, is the product of either formal language learning situation or a self-study programme. It focuses students' attention on the form (structure) of the language

Language acquisition, as opposed to learning, is a subconscious process similar to that by which children acquire their first language.

Linguists, psycholinguists and neurolinguists, in particular, on the basis of Chomsky's theory, have assumed that a child is uniquely equipped with the necessary neural prerequisites for language learning and language use.

The child does not wake up one morning with a fully formed grammar in his head. The language is acquired by stages, each one more closely approximating the grammar of the adult language. Observations of children in different language areas of the world reveal that the stages are very similar, probably universal.

(Fromkin/Rodman, 1974: 317)

When a child learns a language he learns the grammar of that language - the phonological, syntactic and semantic rules. No one teaches him these rules - the child just picks them up and in so efficient a manner as to suggest that his brain is pre-programmed for language learning. A child does not learn the language `all at once`. Children's first utterances are one word `sentences` - *holophrastic* speech, according to Fromkin V. and Rodman R. (1974: 324). After a few months, two-word sentences appear which are not random combinations of words; the words have definite patterns and express grammatical and semantic relationships. Still later, more complex sentences are used. At first the child's grammar lacks many of the rules of the adult grammar, but eventually the child's grammar mirrors the language used in the community.

A number of theories have been suggested to explain the acquisition process. Neither **the imitation theory,** which claims that a child learns his language by imitating adult speech, nor **the reinforcement theory**, which hypothesises that a child is conditioned into speaking correctly by being *negatively reinforced* for `errors` and *positively reinforced* for `correct` usage, is supported by observational and experimental studies. Neither of these theories can explain how the child forms the rules for producing new sentences. The child acquires the rules of the grammar **in stages of increasing complexity.**

The same assumption can be used also referring to semantics. Children acquire simpler words within a semantic field before they acquire words that are more complex:

... the more children's non-linguistic strategies lead them to the `right` meanings, the easier it should be to map ideas into words. Their a priori knowledge, may say which words are easy, and hence acquired first. Semantic complexity and non-linguistic knowledge jointly play a major role in children's acquisition of word meanings.

(Clark, 1979: 7)

Large numbers of people never acquire a second language to a high level of proficiency. This has two interrelated consequences for work on second-language acquisition. First, according to Brumfit (1994: 33), it has led to the assumption that acquiring a second language is in some sense different from acquiring a first language, and, second, it has led to the institutionalisation of second language learning to a much greater extent than with the first language.

Acquisition, according to Krashen, ` ...appears to require, minimally, participation in *natural communication situations*.` (Krashen, 1982: 10)
It is precisely these `*natural communication situations*` that are applied when designing multiple purpose language learning programmes (See Chapter 10).
Traditionally, most language classrooms emphasised learning more than acquisition, especially as regards adult learners, e.g., university students. Traditionally students listened to the teacher's lecture, took notes and analysed new structural items in the lesson. Later they practised providing correct answers either structurally or functionally but remained conscious of what they wanted to say. Then they were evaluated on their grammatical and lexical knowledge in a formal testing situation.
According to Shoemaker, C. L , Shoemaker, F. F. and other language learning researchers, in a natural communication situation, when students interact with speakers of their own language, they seldom focus their attention on the form of the language the speaker uses. Instead, they are concerned with what the speaker means or with the paralinguistic features of the speech (i.e., gestures, body language, etc.), which determine the quality of the message.

Our opinion concerning language learning at the tertiary level will be discussed in the following subdivision of this chapter when dealing with different levels of language learning.

2.4 Levels and Scaling in Foreign Language Learning

2.4.1 The understanding of a `learning level`

According to Lawton, D. and Gordon, P. (1996) the word "level" is used increasingly to refer to the standard of achievement within a pre-specified curriculum and assessment system. However, in foreign language teaching practice the notion of **a certain level of attainment** is rather indistinct. There is a lack of co-ordination between the levels of language proficiency and the teaching aids offered. There is a discrepancy also in terminology used when referring to the language teaching/ learning process, teaching aids meant for a definite category of language learners and the language performance rating scales.

Thus when organising learners into groups for language courses the learners very often are divided into:

- beginners (usually + false beginners);
- intermediate;
- advanced.

Some language course organisers have a more precise division into levels of language proficiency by applying placement tests. Then learners might be divided into 5 or even 7 levels.

However, the teaching aids do not strictly discriminate between the relevant levels of language knowledge.

Thus the `Description of the course` in the `Teacher's Book (Headway) offers the following explanation:

Headway Pre-Intermediate is part of the Headway series, a comprehensive course for adults and young adults learning English in their own country or in the United Kingdom....Headway Pre-Intermediate precedes the Headway Intermediate and in it is expected that students will have completed either one or two course books prior to starting this one. (Soars, J.& L., 1991)

To illustrate the absence of unanimity in level definition we would like to quote one more definition of pre-intermediate learners presented by Taylor, L. (1996). This definition refers to pre-intermediate learners intending to study the English language according to `International Express`:

International Express Pre-Intermediate is a course for adult professional learners. These learners
* need English as a language of international communication in both professional and social contexts;

* need to review and build on the grammar they have already covered;
* need to develop fluency and accuracy;
* need to extend and develop their active and passive vocabulary;
* have limited time available for study;
* can develop strategies to enable them to take control of their own learning.

<div align="right">(Taylor, L., 1996)</div>

Thus the only feature that makes these course descriptions similar is their target audience - adults. However, Taylor expects their adults to be professionally well qualified and does not differentiate between young adults and adults.

We did not consider it necessary to analyse in a similar manner all other language course books, because the above presented example makes it clear how difficult it is to create a course programme or organise a group of learners whose language knowledge, all four language skills, linguistic and communicative competence would be similar or nearly similar. Besides, the learners might have their own, strikingly different, purposes of language use. The more advanced the language learners are, the more varied their purposes for language learning and use are. The purposes will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3.

2.4.2 Scales of Language Proficiency. Scaling.

This chapter discusses some of the issues involved in adding a `vertical dimension` (Modern Languages, 1996) to the notion of **language learning and teaching.** This dimension is very essential in the provision of language learning and teaching for the groups and individuals concerned. Addition of a vertical dimension to language learning/teaching enables learning space to be mapped or profiled, and this is useful for a number of reasons:

* The development of definitions of learner proficiency may assist in making more concrete what may be appropriate to expect at different levels of achievement.

* Learning which takes place over a period of time needs to be organised into units which take account of progression and can provide continuity. Syllabuses and materials need to be situated in relation to one another.

* Learning efforts need also to be situated on this vertical dimension of progress -i.e. assessed in relation to gains in proficiency. Proficiency statements may help in this respect.

- Such assessment should take account of incidental, independent learning, out-of-class experience, etc. Thus the provision of a set of proficiency statements going beyond the scope of a particular syllabus may be helpful in this respect.

- The provision of a common set of proficiency statements will facilitate comparisons of objectives, levels, materials, tests and achievement in different systems and situations.

- A framework of levels and categories facilitating profiling of objectives for particular purposes may aid to assess whether learners are working at an appropriate level in different areas (developing different language skills) and whether their performance in those areas represents a standard appropriate to the stage of their learning, their immediate future goals and wider longer-term outcomes in terms of effective language proficiency and personal development.

Scales or levels only reflect this vertical measurement dimension and take limited account of the fact that learning and a language is a matter of horizontal as well as vertical progress as learners acquire the proficiency to perform in a wider range of communicative activities. Progress is not merely a question of moving up a vertical scale. There is no particular logical requirement for a person to pass through all the lower levels on a sub-scale - they may make horizontal entry (from a neighbouring category) by broadening their performance capabilities rather than increasing their proficiency in terms of the same category.

One should be careful about interpreting sets of levels and scales of language proficiency as if they were a linear measurement scale like a ruler. No existing scale or set of levels can claim to be linear in this way.

2.4.3 Methods of Stating Language Proficiency Levels

As to the language proficiency levels, different rating systems exist. Likewise as concerning the levels of teaching aid also here the grading may be different for different institutions.
Thus British Council and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate offer the following performance rating scales for International English Language Testing System (IELTS):

PERFORMANCE RATING SCALES

Band	Descriptors
9	**Expert User** Fully operational command of the language; appropriate, accurate and fluent with complete understanding.
8	**Very Good User** Fully operational command of the language; occasional minor inaccuracies, inappropriacies or misunderstandings possible in unfamiliar situations.
7	**Good User** Operational command of the language; occasional inaccuracies, inappropriacies and misunderstandings in some situations.
6	**Competent User** Generally effective command of the language, although occasional misunderstanding and lack of fluency could interfere with communication.
5	**Modest User** Partial command of the language coping with overall meaning in most situations although some misunderstanding and lack of fluency block communication.
4	**Limited User** Basic functional competence limited to familiar situations, but frequent problems in understanding and fluency can make communication a constant effort.
3	**Extremely Limited User** Below level of functional competence; although general meaning can be conveyed and understood in simple situations there are repeated breakdowns in communication.
2	**Intermittent User** No real communication possible although single-word messages may be conveyed and understood.
1	**Non-User** Unable to use the language or does not provide relevant evidence of language competence for assessment

Associated Examining Board administer Test in English for Educational Purposes (TEEP) and recognises the following five levels of language proficiency:

4   *Proficiency in the study mode approaching that of a native speaker tertiary level contemporaries; a limited number of weaknesses may*

be evident, but not sufficient to hamper academic progress seriously.

3   Moderate proficiency; some weaknesses which could affect performance in the study mode; some remedial language tuition would be helpful.

2   Limited proficiency; considerable weaknesses affecting performance in the study mode; some remedial language tuition is necessary.

1   Elementary language level; a large number of weaknesses are evident in performance in the study mode; these could seriously hamper academic progress; considerable remedial language tuition would probably be needed.

0   Beginner language level; almost no proficiency; cannot cope at all in the study mode; needs long-term tuition before starting an academic course of study.

The system used for scoring the TOEFL results differs from the two above described tests. Thus we might conclude that there is not a unique system of diagnosing scales of language proficiency.

Attempts have been made by the Council of Europe to investigate scales of language proficiency and to make a proposal for common reference levels. Thus in Draft 2 of a Framework proposal (Council of Europe, 1996) the available methods of assigning language proficiency to different levels have been categorised in three groups:

1. **Intuitive Methods.** These methods do not require any structured data collection, just the principled interpretation of experience.

No 1. Expert
Someone is asked to write the scale, which they may do by consulting the existing scales, curriculum documents and other relevant source material, possibly after undertaking a needs analysis of the target group in question. They may then pilot and revise the scale, possibly using informants.

No 2. Committee
As expert, but a small team is involved, with a larger group as consultants. Drafts would be commented on by consultants.

No 3 Experiential

As committee, but the process lasts a considerable time within an institution and/or specific assessment context and a 'house consensus' develops; a core of people come to share an understanding of the levels and the criteria. Groups of raters may discuss performances in relation to the definitions, and the definitions in relation to sample performance.

2. Qualitative Methods. These methods all involve small workshops with groups of informants and a qualitative rather than statistical interpretation of the information obtained.

No 4. Key Concepts: Performances

Descriptors are matched to typical performances at those band levels to ensure a coherence between what was described and what occurred. Some of the Cambridge examination guides take teachers through this process, comparing wordings on scales to grades awarded to particular scripts. The IELTS (see p.18 and p.19) descriptors were developed by asking groups of experienced raters to identify 'key sample scripts' for each level, and then agree the 'key features' of each script: features felt to be characteristic of different levels are then identified in discussion and incorporated in the descriptors.

No 5. Key Concepts: Formulation

Once a draft scale exists, a simple technique is to chop up the scale and ask informants typical of the people who will use the scale to (a) put the definitions in what they think is the right order (b) explain why they think that, and then once the difference between their order and the intended order has been revealed, to (c) identify what key points were helping them, - or confusing them. A refinement is sometimes to remove a level, giving a secondary task to identify where the gap between two levels indicates that a level is missing between them. The Eurocentre's certification scales were developed in this way.

No 6. Primary Trait

Performances (usually written) are sorted by individual informants into rank order; a common rank order is then negotiated, the principle on which the scripts have actually been sorted is then identified and described at each level - taking care to highlight features salient at a particular level.

No 7. Comparative Judgements

Groups discuss pairs of performances stating which is better and why - in order to identify the metalanguage used by the raters and the salient features at each level. These features can be formulated into descriptors.

No 8. Sorting Tasks

Once draft descriptors exist, informants can be asked to sort them into piles according to categories they are supposed to describe and/or levels. Informants can also be asked to comment on edit/ amend and/ or reject descriptors, and to identify which are particularly clear, useful, relevant, etc.

3. Quantitative Methods. These methods involve a considerable amount of statistical analysis and careful interpretation of the results. Classical statistics (No 9) can be used with the results from small workshops, but Rasch (No 10) requires larger numbers of informants.

No 9. Classical Test Theory Analysis

Data from sorting tasks (No 8) is analysed with classical (i.e. reliability) theory statistical techniques. Descriptors with high standard deviations (i.e. inconsistent interpretation) as well as those landing in the wrong places are discarded. Descriptors are situated on the scale at the mean value determined from the sorting. This was the classical method in applied psychology from the late 1960s till the development of Rasch scaling techniques.

No 10. Item Response Theory (IRT) Analysis

IRT is a relatively new theory which offers a family of measurement or scaling models of which the most straightforward and robust is the Rasch model named after George Rasch, the Danish mathematician. IRT is a development from probability theory and is used mainly to determine the difficulty of individual test items in an item bank. If you are advanced your chances of answering an elementary question are very high; if you are elementary your chances of answering an advanced item are very low. This simple fact is developed into a scaling methodo-logy with the Rasch model, which can be used to calibrate items to the same scale. A development of the approach allows it to be used to scale descriptors of communicative proficiency as well as test items.

(Council of Europe 1996)

The described variety and amount of scaling methods testify to the fact that there is no uniformity concerning language proficiency rating scales.

2.4.4 Scale Purpose

The purpose of our present study is not to find a universally accepted testing system but just to decide what language learning and teaching levels we are going to recognise as applicable in our further investigation.

As the subject of our investigation is multi-purpose language learning we fully realise that the learners might differ also as to their language proficiency. We have chosen to speak about language learning/teaching levels as provided by the educational system:

- primary;

- secondary;

- tertiary.

The tertiary level is the target level of our research interest as it has been least of all investigated. Accordingly, relevant language programmes are very scarce for this level of learning.

Summary

Theories underlying adult language learning have been discussed in this chapter. The differences between andragogy and pedagogy, as well as the criteria conditioning the learning process of adults, have been highlighted.

As a result we base our views on Knowles' concept that the existing differences do not demand that children should be taught pedagogically and adults should be taught andragogically.

Chomsky's theory *that children are born with language learning abilities* serve as basis for **natural approach** to language learning both of children and adults.

Language learning and language acquisition are not viewed in contradiction but in unity when regarding adult language learning to a high level of proficiency. Hence, the importance of levels and scaling in adult language learning.

3. PURPOSES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

3.1 English Language Learning for Specific Purposes and for Professional Purposes

The field of our interest embraces mainly tertiary level language learners, i.e., university students studying in the academic programme BA in Humanities (Philology). However, also these students do not constitute a uniform academic entity. The students under discussion are studying the target language (English) as their academic subject, however, some of them might be majoring in English, some might study English as their second, third or fourth foreign language for academic, research or professional purposes.

Change in language learning purpose might take place also during the process of language learning when the learners have achieved a certain level of language proficiency and start using the target language as the medium for thinking (see p.12).

Another factor determining the purpose of language learning is the correlation between the level of each student's individual communicative competence and the average level of communicative competence in the concrete academic group. Thus there are cases of people being unable to use a language after years of formal teaching. Rivers characterises problematic learners of this type as follows:

`Foreign language cripples with all the necessary muscles and sinews, but unable to walk alone.` (Rivers 1972:72).

These learners, even after having passed the entrance exam to the university, do not feel sure as language users. They know the grammar rules, even their vocabulary might be sufficient for an everyday conversation, however, lack of experience in language use turn them into `language cripples`. According to Whitehead:

`The importance of knowledge lies in its use, in our active mastery of it - that is to say, it lies in wisdom.` (Whitehead, 1959: 49)

Accordingly, the purpose of these communicatively inexperienced students is to be able to use the target language for communication. At the same time they have become students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages and are studying either in the academic or professional programme and

therefore should be able to listen to lectures, to prepare for seminars in General Linguistics, Literature, Theoretical Grammar, Theoretical Phonetics, History of the English Language, Methodology of English Language Teaching and many other academic and professional courses. It means that students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages experience a double load of academic difficulties if compared with their contemporaries studying in other programmes. The students studying in the academic and professional programmes using their relevant target foreign language as medium of academic communication cover the same amount of academic courses obtaining the same amount of credits as students of other programmes only the medium of academic intercourse is different - the target language.

Hence the importance of normative and functional courses of grammar, phonetics, phonology, listening comprehension, text analysis and interpretation and academic writing. All these courses are intended to bridge the gap between the learner's knowledge and the academic activities in which the student is involved.

However, the present economic situation has increased the number of students in an academic group and thus decreased the chance of each student to practise sufficiently in language use. To compensate this drawback, we have resorted to the use of multi-media. By means of multi-purpose language learning programmes students are provided with more opportunities to practise in the use of the relevant target language. The multi-purpose language programmes should be designed so that the possible learners' needs are predicted and duly satisfied. Here we would like to refer to Whitehead:

`During the school period the student has been mentally bending over his desk; at the University he should stand up and look around. For this reason it is fatal if the first year at the University be frittered away in going over the old work in the old spirit.
...This is the aspect of University training in which theoretical interest and practical utility coincide.` (Whitehead, 1959: 41)

Nevertheless this aspect of studies at tertiary level is neglected. The generally accepted view proclaims the theoretical importance of university education ignoring the significance of practical experience as a means of testing theories and assumptions. This is very true concerning general linguistic theories and real practical experience in language use for different purposes.
Practical experience working with several generations of language students enables us to single out the following main problems communicatively inexperienced students are confronted with:

a) concerning perceptive activities:

- inability to perceive recorded speech (audio recordings, texts of films, radio);
- inability to comprehend spoken language (difficulties in making lecture notes - the student is able to perceive and understand separate words but is unable to retain in memory longer chunks of utterance).

b) concerning productive activities:

- lexical - inability to find the appropriate words if addressed unexpectedly;
- grammatical - inability to ask questions without making grammar mistakes;
- phonetic - difficulties in pronunciation:
  - failure to discriminate between certain speech sounds (/s/ and / θ / , /z/ and / ð /, /w/ and /v/, /f/ and / θ /);
  - failure to use the appropriate syllable intonation, word stress and sentence intonation, etc.

All the above mentioned difficulties might not be of crucial importance if the student is not majoring in the particular target language and does not intend to use it as medium of his/ her professional activities. However, the students of a Foreign Languages Faculty cannot always follow Julian Edge's theory and cannot consider the above mentioned mistakes as mere `signs of learning' (Julian Edge).

Thus we have come to the notion `English Language Learning for Specific Purposes`, the specific purpose being the use of English for professional goals: either as a medium of instruction and the academic subject of instruction or as the source/target language when translating and interpreting. The special methodological literature usually speaks about 'English for specific purposes' when implying the use of English for other specialities: medicine, technology, art, architecture, etc. Rarely do we find sources discussing English as the core subject of one's profession. Here we should distinguish between the use of English as a professional tool and the use of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Using English for academic purposes the student still is entitled to the right of making an occasional mistake while a professionally mature personality, working with English language (either as a translator, interpreter or teacher) does not possess such a privilege.

3.2. English Language Learning for Academic Purposes and for Research Purposes

These two fields of language use might be regarded as one when speaking about language users majoring in the Linguistics, Literature or Methodology of Teaching the relevant target language. This treatment of the English language might be relevant when referring to our target audience - students majoring in English Philology. These learners will use English as the medium of their academic development: all the lectures and seminars are held in English, all the academic written works are performed in English (course reports, essays, academic documents, such as applications, letters, etc). More than often academic activities bear a research character and thus the use of English for academic purposes cannot be strictly separated from the use of English for research purposes.

Students majoring in English write their three Term Papers and Bachelor Paper in English. This means that they perform their investigations in English and at the same time treat the English language as the subject or object (depending on the particular field) of research. In this situation language mistakes of any kind are not permissible and Julian Edges theory about `mistakes as signs of learning` ceases to be relevant.

On the contrary when speaking about researchers majoring in other academic subjects: psychology, chemistry, mathematics or even another language, the English language might be treated as a mere academic tool. The students might read special literature in English, participate in seminars, discussions using English as a means of communication in that particular community. Accordingly, slight imprecision in grammatical forms, which is not marring the main idea of the specific context might be excused.

The same refers to investigations taking place in any area, except the English Language, and using English only as a means of communication in that particular scientific community. Here again slight imprecision, though not encouraged, might be excused if it is not undermining the target research.

Summary.
The brief discussion of the different purposes for which English could be used at tertiary level introduces us into the specific situation taking place in the classroom where people with different interests in language use are present. The different purposes of language use also dictate different rules to the language learners concerning their language skills level and development.

4. PEDAGOGY UNDERLYING LANGUAGE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT AT TERTIARY LEVEL

4.1 Academic Skills and Learning Strategies at Tertiary Level

Our target audience being university students, we regard it necessary to analyse the environment and factors influencing language skills development at this level.

The impact of general study skills on the language learning motivation and language skills development cannot be overestimated.

Study skills comprise many capabilities a person need to develop to become a student. A student need to understand the processes of study involved in his/her subject, he/she need learn certain techniques for accomplishing different tasks, to try out different strategies for approaching his/her work, and to establish certain routines or habits of working.

Becoming skilled at studying involves picking up practical `know-how`, taking charge of your studies, keeping your spirits up, and managing yourself shrewdly. The ultimate aim is to become an independent learner. (Chambers, Northedge, 1997: 15)

A student majoring in English Philology is to accomplish all this using English as medium of instruction. The target subject makes all the academic procedures more complicated. While students of other specialities acquiring their target subject in their mother tongue pick up know-how in Latvian the students at the Faculty of Foreign Languages are bound to do this in the relevant target language. The whole process of learning proceeds in the target language. According to Chambers and Northedge ` at higher levels of study, learning is more about getting hold of ideas than information, and it involves understanding rather than remembering.` Thus the students majoring in English are to use the target language as a tool of learning.

Learning ideas consists of three things:

- taking in new ideas, i.e., making sense of new ideas - comprehending them, not simply seeing, hearing or memorising them;

- thinking through new ideas and fitting them together with the ideas students already have, so that they become part of your general understanding of the subject you are studying;

- using newly formed ideas when communicating with fellow students and teachers in speech and writing. (Chambers and Northedge, 1997: 21)

At this moment we have tried to explain what learning is by means of giving definitions of all the three stages constituting the process of learning, however, we are not sure to what extent these definitions will help our reader 'to take in the new ideas' and therefore we offer the reader to go through this process together. The definition on 'taking in new ideas' says that we should not simply see the new idea , but we should try 'to make sense of it' in order to accomplish the first stage of learning.

Let us look at our bookshelf. When our eyes come across an unread book, which we are to read for a seminar, we know there is a lot of 'stuff' in there that we want to get in our head. But this involves much more than simply passing our eyes over masses of words, symbols and pictures. It means **making sense** of what we read and see, so that we understand it.

For example, reading 'English Phonetics and Phonology' we come across the term ` *elision* `. The book says:

The nature of elision may be stated quite simply: under certain circumstances sounds disappear; one might express this in more technical language by saying that in certain circumstances a phoneme may be realised as zero, or have zero realisation or be deleted. ....elision is typical of rapid, casual speech;... (Roach, 1991: 127)

We could memorise the term and the definition quite easily. But that is not the same thing as understanding what it means. To take in this idea we would have to listen to some recorded text or to a native speaker speaking informally and casually and then try to catch by ear the cases when a word is not presented in its full form as we might have expected it to be pronounced. Then listening repeatedly and consulting the relevant theory we could start systematising our newly acquired knowledge, namely, we could single out the following cases of **elision**:

- **loss of a weak vowel after p, t, k;**

   In words like 'potato', 'tomato', 'canary', 'perhaps', 'today', the vowel in the first syllable may disappear; the aspiration of the initial plosive takes up the whole of the middle portion of the syllable resulting in these pronunciations (where h indicates aspiration):

$$/p^h teɪtəʊ /; /t^h meɪtəʊ/; /k^h nærɪ /; /t^h deɪ /$$

- **weak vowel + n, l or r becomes a syllabic consonant:**
  'tonight' /tʰnaɪt/; 'police' /pliːs/; 'correct' /kʰrekt/

- **avoidance of complex consonant clusters:**

George the sixth's throne /dʒɔːdʒ ðə sɪksθθrəʊn/ is more likely to be pronounced like: /sɪks θrəʊn /.

Any description is very hard to take in unless you can 'see' it in your mind. And this is only the first stage of learning. According to the definition the next stage is thinking ideas through. It takes time before one can get the new ideas properly into focus. It is necessary to connect them up with the ideas we already have. The thinking process which has been described earlier (p.11) takes place and the thinker uses 'the generalised other' as the internalised audience to converse with. The new ideas might conflict with the old and the thinker in the presence of 'the generalised other' has to work out his own position. But 'thinking ideas through' is not something we normally sit down to do in its own right. It usually happens while we are busy doing other things. Various study activities help the process along - discussing things with other students, jotting down ideas for an essay. These activities may seem like 'extras', tagged onto the mainstream activities of reading and essay-writing, but they are not marginal. Odd moments when the student is jotting down bits and pieces for himself/herself are often times when the student is working his ideas into shape. These are very often the moments when the student discovers that he/she has been thinking in the target language. However these happy revelations do not set in suddenly, without any effort. That is the reason why special courses and multi-purpose language programmes are designed and introduced in the syllabus.

The third stage of learning envisages using ideas. One does not really understand an idea until he/she can put it to use. So activities such as tutorial discussions and writing essays play a key part in helping learners to understand new ideas and feel these ideas as their own. Returning to the example mentioned above concerning the phonetic phenomenon 'elision', the students will really comprehend this phenomenon when they feel free using it in their own spontaneous speech.

All the three stages of learning hold true also concerning skills development. Let as trace the development of a sub-skill necessary in building up speaking skills, namely, the sub-skill of **distinguishing premises and conclusion.** Effective speaking skills are impossible without

good strategies of arguments and the first step in making an argument is to ask: ` What is the speaker going to prove? What is his/her conclusion?` At this stage the student should understand the meaning of the new term - `conclusion`. Having found the explanation in relevant theoretical sources the learner knows that

- `the conclusion is the statement for which he/she is giving reasons` and that

- `the statements which give him/her reasons are called `premises`.
(Weston,1987:1)

However, this is only passive knowledge until the student has not gone through the second and third stage of learning, namely, until the learner has not tried to imagine a possible `conclusion ` and adequate `premises` for it.

The next, third step, is the practical or experimental stage when the newly acquired idea is put into practice. Only then the student will comprehend the logical structure of an argument and will be able to practice in making one argument after another in order to develop relevant speaking skills.

The two examples demonstrate the complicated structure of learning process in the target language at the tertiary level. The student majoring in a foreign language is to learn not only the theory necessary in his/her academic programme but also to develop the relevant communication skills so that he/she would be able to reveal her academic or professional knowledge adequately.

Though we discussed the learning process as if consisting of three stages it is more relevant to imagine these stages as part of a continuing cycle. When studying the learner is taking in, thinking through and using ideas all the time and, as he/she does that his/her understanding advances - as in a spiral. But this spiralling process is not a smooth one. Learning tends to proceed in lurches, with occasional leap. And one can rarely identify the moment when one learns a new idea .

In arts and humanities subjects students study many different kinds of objects - written, aural and visual. They study poems, novels and plays, philosophical treatises and writings; historical documents and records for particular periods and events. this is study of primary sources.

The students also read a lot about these objects in text-books, scholarly articles and teaching texts, watch TV programmes and films and listen to radio talks about them. In such texts and programmes scholars, critics and teachers analyse and interpret the meanings of the particular objects they choose to study. We will call these academic accounts - secondary sources.

Learning at higher levels of study involves a lot more than memorising information. At the core is understanding ideas.
To learn new ideas one has to take them in, think them through and put them to use.

Learning does not proceed in a straight line. It is not a clear cut, smooth process. It is better to think of it as a continuing cycle, a spiral of gradually increasing understanding and skill and as such demands a high level of target language proficiency.

4.2 Language as Discourse

4.2.1. The Understanding of Discourse

According to Goodman language learning is a process of social and personal invention.

`Language is actually learned from whole to part. We first use whole utterances in familiar situations. Then later we see and develop parts, and begin to experiment with their relationship to each other and to the meaning of the whole. The whole is always more than the sum of the parts and the value of any part can only be learned within the whole utterance in a real speech event.` (Goodman, 1986: 18)

The above quoted concept of language learning could be slightly modified and referred also to language skills development. Language is manifested through and by means of certain skills which the users of the relevant language should possess and continuously develop. The four skills listening, speaking, reading and writing are not functioning in isolation neither does their mathematical sum constitute the target language. All language skills are mutually interconnected and function in integrity. Thus in order to speak we have to listen to the other interlocutor. The communication will take place only if our utterance will be coherent to what has been said before. However, even this is not sufficient. In order to achieve mutual understanding, participants must negotiate meaning to ensure that they are being understood correctly, and that they are correctly interpreting the utterances of the other participants. Nunan (1993: 96) considers that:

`It also involves using our background knowledge of context so as to understand the functions of individual sentences and utterances within the discourse.`

In order to discuss the concept of `discourse`, we consider it necessary to clarify our understanding of this concept. To form our understanding of discourse we would like to take Cook's (1992) definition as the basis for our purpose:

`... language in use, for communication - is called discourse.`   (Cook, 1992: 6)

It is important to notice that the distinction between the two kinds of language (the artificially constructed and the communicating) is often more a question of the way we use or think about a particular stretch of language, than the way it is in itself. It is possible to take a stretch of language which someone has used in communication and treat it as a sentence for a translation exercise, or an object for grammatical analysis.

For conversation purposes, one could take a sentence from a language teaching or linguistics textbook, go to the country where the language is spoken, say it to someone in a suitable situation, and achieve something by saying it. The two approaches are not mutually exclusive.

Discourse may be composed of one or more well-formed grammatical sentences. However, it can have also grammatical mistakes in it, and often does. According to Cook (1992: 7), `discourse can be anything from a grunt or single expletive, through short conversations and scribbled notes up to Tolstoy's novel *War and Peace*, or a lengthy legal case. What matters is not its conformity to rules, but the fact that it communicates and is recognised by its receivers as coherent.`

Thus we may conclude that Cook's definition admits that there is a degree of subjectivity in identifying a stretch of language as discourse. It may be meaningful and thus communicate to one person in a way which another person does not have the necessary knowledge to make sense of. However, in practice we find that discourse is usually perceived as such by groups, rather than individuals.

In order to communicate groups of people and separate individuals implement discourse by using language skills listening, speaking, reading and writing. Nevertheless, as it has been already mentioned earlier application of these skills alone does not ensure communication.

In order to understand the communication process it is necessary to clarify the function or functions of language. Specialists in linguistics sometimes claim that if non-specialists are asked what the function of language is, they

will reply that it is 'to send information' or 'to tell other people your thoughts'. (Cook, 1992: 24). Though Cook acknowledges the referential function (that of transmitting information) of language, he remarks that it is by no means the only, or the first, function of language in human life.

4.2.2 Macro- functions of Language.

In order to state the macro-functions of language the following scheme, based on views of Roman Jakobson (1960), Dell Hymes (1962) and Guy Cook (1992) might be helpful. The scheme is identifying the elements of communication:

The addresser: the person who originates the message.

The addressee: the person to whom the message is addressed (but not necessarily so, as in the case of intercepted letters, bugged telephone calls and eavesdropping.

The channel: the medium through which the message travels: sound waves, marks on paper, telephone wires, word processor screens.

The message form: the particular grammatical and lexical choices of the message.

The topic: the information carried in the message.

The code: the language or dialect, for example, Swedish, Yorkshire English, Semaphore etc.

The setting: the social or physical context.

Macro-functions can then be established, each focusing attention upon one element:

- **The emotive function**: communicating the inner states and emotions of the addresser ('Oh no!', 'Fantastic!').
- **The directive function:** seeking to affect the behaviour of the addressee ('Please help me!', 'Shut up!').
- **The phatic function**: opening the channel or checking that it is working, either for social reasons ('Hello', 'Lovely weather'),or for practical ones ('Can you hear me?').
- **The poetic function** : in which the particular form chosen is the essence of the message.

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- **The referential function** : carrying information.
- **The metalinguistic function**: focusing attention upon the code itself to clarify or to negotiate it (`What does this word mean in your statement?`).
- **The contextual function**: creating a particular kind of communication (It was just an attempt to joke.).

This classification corresponds to the natural evolution of functions in each human individual. For example, a crying baby is being very expressive, although the cries are not really language at all, but instinctive reactions to the environment. However when the child realises the influence her crying exerts on her parents behaviour she has progressed to the directive function. Phatic communication also begins very early. Chuckling, gurgling, babbling, often have no function but to say: `Here I am, and so are you.` (Halliday 1975: 37 - 41).

The poetic function is also apparent at an early stage: when young children get attached to a phrase and keep repeating it, without imparting any information.

The referential function gains its prominence only at a later stage, ad the metalinguistic function also comes later; these are the functions on which a considerable amount of attention is lavished at school.

A good deal of foreign language teaching begins with the metalinguistic function, by explicitly stating the rules of grammar and sometimes also phonetics. However, the other functions are unduly neglected. It is the reason why we considered it necessary to introduce **the phatic function** of language in the multi-purpose language programme `BALTIC`. The phatic function of the target language was demonstrated by means of using words or short phrases of exclamation to remind the student that he/she is not alone while doing the task and to express oral assessment of the activity the learner has just performed. The students working with the programme have noted this function of language as unusual for them and very encouraging at the same time. (See the analysis of students' views on the programme in Chapter 10.)

4.2.3. Micro-functions of language

Having discussed the macro-functions of language we consider it possible to subdivide these functions into micro-functions, if needed, for purposes of more detailed analysis or teaching. Thus directive function might be further split as follows:

Directive function

```
         questions   orders        pleas   prayers
                            requests
```
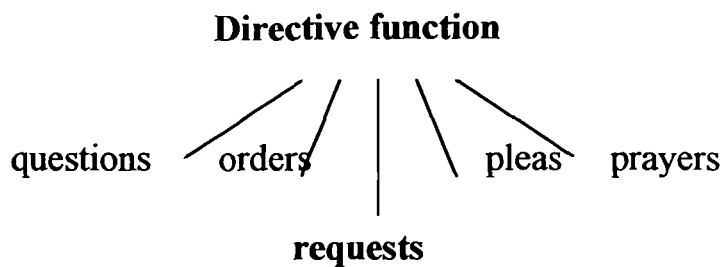
Requests as a micro-function may be subdivided even further:

```
                    requests

requests for action              requests for sympathy

     requests for help       requests for information
```
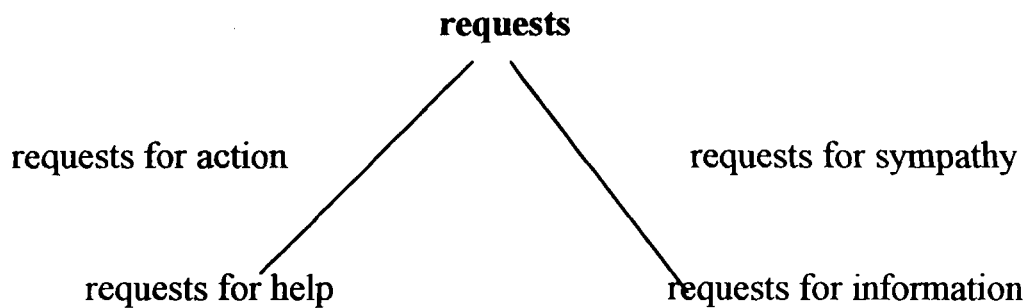
These divisions are taken into account when realising functional language teaching. They may serve as basis of functional language courses or for designing a unit in a multi-purpose language programme

4. 3 Language Skills Development

Language skills serve as means of realising the above described language functions. More than often language skills appear in close integration with each other. However, for theoretical purposes the four groups of skills are viewed separately, namely:

- listening,
- speaking,
- reading,
- writing.

A more detailed analysis of language skills development is presented in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8. The linguistic concepts have been supported by didactic theories and practical samples of techniques and exercises aimed at developing each respective language skill.

Summary

Learning new ideas at tertiary level consists of three stages during which the new concepts are comprehended, thought through and used in written and oral communication. Referring to language learning at tertiary level the complex characteristics of the process is viewed from the point of view of discourse analysis. Goodman's theory of whole language approach has been taken as the basis for language skills development - all language skills are mutually interconnected and function in integrity.

A theoretical basis for developing the phatic function of language in the multi-purpose language programme B.A.L.T.I.C has been introduced.

5. LISTENING SKILLS

5. 1 Emerging Recognition of the Importance of Listening in Foreign Language Study

Until recently the skill of listening comprehension had been neglected both with regard to its place in language methodology and with regard to techniques and materials for developing the listening skills in conformity with the needs to use language skills authentically. Listening comprehension is now duly felt to be a necessary pre-requisite to oral proficiency, as well as a very important skill in its own right. The need to prepare learners, from the start , to understand speakers of English at a normal rate in an authentic situation `is now one of the major goals of ESL/ EFL instruction` (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Ideas about language learning and language teaching have been changing in some fundamental ways during the last two decades. The themes dominating the Second AILA Conference at Cambridge in 1969 pointed toward future trends in a `new era` of second/foreign language education:

- a new focus on the individual learner as the central element in the complex process of second language acquisition;
- a focus on the so-called receptive skills of reading and listening, long regarded as `passive skills, as much more complex processes;
- an emerging notion that listening comprehension may be the key fundamental skill that has not been adequately understood;
- a desire to bring students into closer contact with `real` language as it is used in the real world by people communicating successfully with each other.

(Pimsleur & Quinn, 1971)

Since 1969 there have been significant paradigm shifts in learning theory, linguistic theory, and instructional models, with an important movement from a primary focus on teaching and a teacher-centred classroom to an increasing concern with learning and a learner-centred classroom. At the same time there has been a shift from a major emphasis on structure to an emphasis that includes attention to language function and communication, the significance of which has been reflected in the previous chapter.

The status of listening comprehension has changed from one of neglect to one of increasing importance. During the 1980s new instructional frameworks that featured functional language and communicative approaches also gave special attention to listening. According to Rivers

`Speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person.` (1966 : 196)

Listening is used far more than any other single language skill in normal daily life. On average, according to Morley (1991: 82), we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write.

The above presented powerful arguments cannot delete the fact that listening comprehension has been neglected. Weaver (1972) commented on the elusiveness of the listening awareness : `After all, listening is neither so dramatic nor so noisy as talking. The talker is the centre of attention for all listeners. His behaviour is overt and vocal, and he hears and notices his own behaviour, whereas listening activity often seems like merely being there - doing nothing` (1972; 12-13). But as Blair (1982) observed, special attention to listening ``just didn't sell...`` until recent times.

5. 2 Three Perspectives on Listening and Language Study

The English language instruction programmes of 1940s, 1950s and 1960s followed the predominant British model of situational language teaching and the predominant American model of audiolingual methodology . Thus, little attention was allotted to listening beyond its role as the source for the learners' imitation of dialogues or grammar and pronunciation drills. The language learning theory of the times attributed little importance to listening beyond sound recognition/ discrimination and the prosodic patterning of spoken language . Listening was involved only in memorisation and habit formation and therefore it was regarded as a ``passive`` skill along with reading, and as such, was simply taken for granted.

However, the attitude towards listening changed slowly and steadily over the last 20 years. Today, at least three different approaches towards listening can be recognised. Each uses the term `listening` from its particular perspective on the nature of language learning and the roles of listening in the process:
- listening to repeat;

- listening to understand (comprehension of meaning as communicative language function- as a skill in its own right);

- listening as the primary focus in the ``comprehension approach`` to foreign language learning.

Listening with the Aim to Repeat.

Listening and repeating are key components in both audiolingual and situational instruction, and these models continue to be used in a number of EFLT approaches. Listening/repeating is also used as a technique for pronunciation work. The learner is asked to listen to a model sound, word, phrase or sentence in order to reproduce it. The development of `listening-with-understanding` may or may not be a significant by-product of such `hearing-and-pattern-matching` routines. According to Terrell (1982):

Students in an audiolingual approach usually have excellent pronunciation, can repeat dialogues and use memorised prefabricated patterns in conversation. They can do pattern drills, making substitutions and changing morphemes using various sorts of agreement rules. What they very often cannot do , is participate in a normal conversation with a native speaker. (Terrell, 1982: 121).

Listening with the Aim to Understand

The instructional focus here is on helping learners develop listening as an independent skill used to understand the meaning of spoken language quickly and accurately, comfortably and confidently, in a variety of settings. Core coursebooks gave limited attention to listening comprehension, and very few specialised listening instructional materials were available in Latvia until the early 1990s. However, everywhere else in the world already early 1970s became a virtual avalanche as dozens of texts and tape programs, audio or video, were published (something above 150 available now), with more added every year. By and large, the materials published over the last 20 years have featured one (or both) of two basic types of expected student response:

    (1) the question-oriented response model,
    (2) the task-oriented response model.

The Question-Oriented Response Model.

Here the students are asked to listen to an oral text (e.g., a sentence, a dialogue/conversation, a paragraph reading, a talk or ``lecturette``), then answer a series of factual (``quiz-style``) comprehension questions on the content in order to prove that they have understood. Questions are true-false, multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank, short answer, and similar question types borrowed from traditional reading techniques. Follow up activities often include work with grammar or vocabulary exercises based on the aural text. Beyond this kind of language manipulation the students are not asked to `do` anything functional with the information. Thus the focus is on

'testing', not teaching. This model calls for memorisation of information and, in fact, it may be more test of memory, or previous knowledge, or good guessing ability, than a measure of meaningful comprehension. This model features neither authentic functions nor genuine communicative outcomes. Overall it has little true motivational value and may be perceived by students as a boring activity and simply another vehicle for studying grammar and vocabulary.

The Task-Oriented Response Model.

In this model, language tasks are set for students to complete, either individually or in small-group collaboration. The tasks are structured so that they make use of the information provided in the spoken text, not as an end itself, but as a resource to use in order to achieve a communicative task outcome. 'Task' is used here in Johnson's sense (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979: 22), in which task-oriented teaching is defined as teaching which employs 'actual meaning' by focusing on tasks to be mediated through language, and where success or failure is judged in terms of whether or not the tasks are performed. The primary goal is to provide learners with guided listening task experiences. Such lessons often include a focus on helping learners develop language learning strategies, both general ones and listening specific ones.

Listening as the Primary Focus in the 'Comprehension Approach' to Foreign Language Learning.

Beginning in the mid-1960s and continuing into the 1970s, several language researchers-teachers developed instructional programmes that featured two things: early attention to listening comprehension and a delay in oral production. Winitz (1981) defined it as follows:
'In the comprehension approach a new system of learning is not really advocated. The instructional format is to extend the teaching interval of one component of training, comprehension, while delaying instruction or experience in speaking, reading, writing ... the comprehension approach is cognitive in orientation. As used here, cognitive is defined as a system that gives students the opportunity to engage in problem-solving, the personal discovery of grammatical rules'(Winitz, 1981: xvii).

Continuing attention to comprehension approaches to language acquisition throughout the 1970s and 1980s resulted in several special systems of instruction, including Asher (1965, 1969) Total Physical Response; Postovsky (1970), 1974), Delay in Oral Practice at the Beginning of Second

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Language Learning; Winitz and Reeds (1973), Rapid Acquisition of a Foreign Language by the Avoidance of Speaking; Terrell (1977, 1982; Terrell, Genzmer, Nicolai, & Tschirner, 1988), A Natural Approach to the Acquisition and Learning of a Language.

The Dynamic Character of Listening

Listening along with reading has had a traditional label of `passive skill`. Nothing could be further from the truth. Anderson and Lynch (1988) reject a conceptualisation of listening as a `passive act`, calling it a `listener-as-tape-recorder` explanation of listening. They argue that such a perspective on listening fails to account for the interpretations listeners make as they `hear` the spoken text according to their own purposes for listening, their expectations, and their own store of background knowledge.

One of the obvious implications for instruction is to bring students to an understanding that listening is not a passive skill, but one that not only is active but very demanding. This can be done gradually as apart of listening activity work where the `work` can be rather enjoyable in problem-solving and discovery process format. Learners come to realise that just as it is `work` to become better readers, writers, and speakers in a second language, listening skill, too, doesn't happen magically or as an overnight phenomenon.

Listening in Communicative Modes

Most of our waking hours we are engaged in communicative listening in one way or another.

One mode of listening could be `interactive` listening. Here the reciprocal `speech chain` speaker/listener is indispensable. The chain consists of two or more active participants who take turns in speaker-role and listener-role as the face-to-face (or telephone) interaction moves along.

A second mode is listening in one-way communication. Auditory input comes from a variety of sources: conversations overheard; public address announcements; recorded messages (including telephone answering machines); the media (e.g., radio, television, films). In these situations the listeners hear speakers but cannot interact. The listeners may subvocalise or even vocalise responses as they react to what they hear.

The third communicative mode - self dialogue communication - is one in which listeners may not be aware of their internal roles as `speakers` and `listeners/reactors` in their own thought process. Sometimes the listeners recreate language internally and `listen` again as they retell and relive

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communicative interludes. Sometimes people produce their internal language as they think through alternatives, plan strategies, and make decisions - all by `talking to themselves` and `listening to themselves`. It is noteworthy that listening is not a passive experience in any of these communicative modes. All are highly active participatory experiences.

Listening and Language Functions

Brown and Yule (1983) suggest language functions into two major divisions: language for interactional purposes and language for transactional purposes. These two terms correspond to Halliday's terms `interpersonal` and `ideational`. (Halliday, 1970: 143)

A) Interactional Language Function.

Interactional language is listener-oriented more than message-oriented, focuses more on person than on information, and has an important objective: the establishment and maintenance or cordial social relationships Indirectness and vagueness are tolerated as role relationships are negotiated. Some features of interactional language use are talking about `safe` topics (such as weather, the immediate environment), much shifting of topics with a great deal of agreement on them, expressing opinions, maintaining `face` and respecting `face`, identifying with the concerns of the other person, and, in general, `being nice` to the other person and a little less careful about detail. Brown and Yule comment that a great deal of ordinary everyday conversation appears to consist of one individual commenting on something which is present to both him and his listener ... a great deal of casual conversation contains phrases and echoes of phrases which appear more to be intended as contributions to a conversation than to be taken as instances of information-giving.

B) Transactional Language Function.

Here the purpose is to convey information as a fact or proposal /suggestion/. Transactional language is message-oriented, with a focus on content and a concern for ` getting things done in the real world`.

`Speakers typically go to considerable trouble to make what they are saying clear when a transaction is involved, and may contradict the listener if he appears to have misunderstood. When the message is the reason for speaking, then the message must be understood` (Brown and Yule, 1983: 13).

Listening and Language Processing, Bottom-Up and Top-Down

Two distinct kinds of processes are involved in listening comprehension, which are sometimes referred to as 'bottom-up' and 'top-down processing (Chaudron and Richards 1986).

It has been hypothesised that 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' modes work together in a combined co-operative process.

A) 'Bottom-Up' Processing.

Bottom-up processing refers to the use of incoming data as a source of information about the meaning of a message. From this perspective, the process of comprehension begins with the message received, which is analysed at successive levels of organisation - sounds, words, clauses, and sentences - until the intended meaning is arrived at. Comprehension is thus viewed as a process of decoding. According to Richards J.C. (1994: 50) bottom-up processes in listening include the following:

1. scanning the input to identify familiar lexical items
2. segmenting the stream of speech into constituents - for example, in order to recognize that ``abookofmine`` consists of four words
3. using phonological cues to identify the information focus in an utterance
4. using grammatical cues to organize the input into constituents for example, in order to recognize that in 'the book which I lent you' [the book] and [which I lent you] are the main constituents rather than [the book which I] and [lent you].

This mode of processing language information is evoked by an external source, i.e., by the incoming language data itself. Bottom-up comprehension of speech refers to the part of the process in which the 'understanding' of incoming language is worked out proceeding from sounds, into words, into grammatical relationship and lexical meaning, and so on. The composite meaning of the 'message' is arrived at based on the incoming language data.

Top-Down Processing.

Top-down processing refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of message. (Richards, J.C. 1994: 51)

Here the processing of language information comes from an internal source. It is evoked from a bank of prior knowledge and global expectations. These include expectations about language and expectations about the 'world'.

Chaudron and Richards (1986) consider that 'top-down processing involves prediction and inferencing on the basis of hierarchies of facts, propositions,

and expectations, and it enables the listener or the reader to bypass some aspects of bottom-up processing.`

Listening, Affect, and Attitudes

Listening can be defined broadly as `everything that impinges on the human processing which mediates between sound and the construction of meaning...` (Morley, 1993: 88).

In two-way interactive communication `messages` are conveyed in at least three ways: a linguistic dimension and two non-linguistic dimensions: paralinguistic and extralinguistic. In one-way communication the visual cues of extralinguistic information may be missing, and the listener must rely on the linguistic and paralinguistic information.

Linguistic Messages.

` Meanings begin in people. In truth: `Meanings aren't in words, meanings are in people.` Sometimes meanings don't come across clearly, and we hear speakers protest, `But that is not what I said`. In an attempt to convey an `intended` meaning, speakers choose words and arrange them into sentences and groups of sentences in larger pieces of monologue or dialogue discourse patterns. (Morley, 1991:88)

Affective interpretation must be a part of listening comprehension activities.

Paralinguistic Messages.

In another dimension, the way words, sentences, and groups of sentences in spoken language are programmed vocally enables them to carry information about how they are to be interpreted as the vocal features transmit the speaker's attitude toward what he or she is saying. Attention to attitudinal intonation factors has been drawn by many authors exploring the variety of aspects of intonation and discourse. (Pike ,1945; Brown, Currie, and Kenworthy, 1980)

The vocal elements that map affective information onto the `word` message include a broad spectrum of vocal qualities, comprising rate-rhythm-stress features, tonal variations. `It is not what you say, it is how you say it` (Morley, 1991: 89).

Brown (1977) and Stanley (1978) have investigated paralinguistic features, including a matrix of variables, which makes a useful framework for studying a number of vocal features and parameters.

Extralinguistic Messages.

Speakers also convey meaning through body language. Simultaneous 'physical' messages are being transmitted alongside the 'word' and 'vocal' information and must be interpreted by the listener. Elements involved here include body postures, body movements, body and hand gestures, facial expressions, facial gestures, eye contact and spatial use by the communicators.

'It is not just what you say, it's what you do, and most importantly, it's a 'wisdom' that varies with languages and cultures'(Morley, 1991: 89).

Van Ek (1976), in a Council of Europe volume, lists six basic language functions: Three of them focus on attitudes: intellectual, emotional and moral attitudes. The other three are imparting and seeking factual information, getting things done and socialising. These are all areas for consideration in developing listening comprehension instructional materials, and it is important to alert learners to the interweaving of interactional and transactional talk and the combining of fact and opinion, of content and value judgements.

Intellectual Attitudes:

agreement, disagreement; denying something; a variety of types of inquiry; dealing with knowing, forgetting, remembering; possibility/impossibility; capability/incapability; local conclusion; uncertainty; obligation, permission.

Emotional Attitudes:

expressing pleasure/displeasure, interest/lack of interest, surprise, hope, satisfaction/dissatisfaction, disappointment, fear and worry, preference, gratitude, sympathy, intention, wants and desires.

Moral Attitude:

expressing approval/disapproval, appreciation, regret, indifference, relevance.

5.3 Communicative Outcomes of the Listening Procedure.

Any type of communication in the real world is aimed at achieving a genuine outcome. The outcome may vary in complexity - starting from enjoying a sociable conversation up to understanding intricate instructions. Anyway, an outcome /or result/ is achieved. Thus also listening com-

prehension activities, planned for learning the target language, should follow the same pattern and should end in achieving a result.

Minimum requirements for **two-way oral communication** are two active participants and **an outcome.**

Participants alternate roles of speaker-sender and listener-receiver.
One-way communication requires one active participant (a listener-receiver), one long-distance participant, either `live` or recorded (who functions as speaker-sender), and an outcome.

`**Outcome** ` **is an essential component in both two-way and one-way communication listening comprehension activities.**

Outcomes can be graded toward gradual expansion of difficulty, complexity, and increasing performance expectations for students.
The six outcome categories are as follows:

1. listening and performing actions and operations;
2. listening and transferring information;
3. listening and solving problems;
4. listening, evaluating and manipulating information; interactive listening and negotiating meaning through questioning/answering routines;
5. listening for enjoyment, pleasure, sociability.(Morley, 1993: 93

Listening and performing actions comprises responses to directions, requests, instructions and directions in a variety of contexts, namely:

- speaker (usually during a telephone talk when the speaker cannot show the point or route mentioned);
- drawing, identifying or selecting a picture, figure or design from description; (It should be noted that such a situation occurs less often in authentic telephone talks, but, nevertheless, it can be successfully used as a listening exercise with young learners or as a specific task with adults during ESP classes.)
- performing hand or body movements as in songs and games such as `` This is the way... this is the way...``;
- operating a piece of equipment, such as a coffee machine, a computer, a music centre, etc.
- carrying out steps in a process, such as following a cooking recipe.

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According to Morley (1993: 94) listening and transferring information means information transfer from spoken to written (hearing information and writing it) in order to achieve outcomes such as :

- listening and taking a telephone message by writing down notes;
- listening and filling in blanks in a gapped story game (in order to complete the story);
- listening and completing a form or chart (in order to use the information for making a decision or solving a problem);
- listening and summarising the gist of a short story, report or talk (in order to report it to a third person);
- listening to `how to` talk and writing an outline of the steps in the sequence (e.g., how to cook something or how to run a piece of equipment);
- listening to a talk or lecture and taking notes.

A popular activity called `jigsaw listening` (Geddes and Sturtridge, 1979) can be carried out in large classes. Small separate groups of students listen to different parts of a total set of information and write down the unimportant points of their portion. Then they share their information with other groups in order to complete a story or a sequence of actions or some form of larger outcome such as making a decision, solving a problem or making a project.

Listening and solving problems embrace many kinds of activities to be applied in groups or with individual learners. The following games and puzzles might be included in the group of these activities:

- word games in which the answers must be derived from the verbal clues;
- number games and oral story arithmetic problems;
- asking questions to identify something;
- `minute mysteries` in which a paragraph length mystery story is given by the teacher (or a tape) and the students are to formulate solutions;
- `a jigsaw mystery` in which each group listens to a tape with some of the clues, then shares information to solve the mystery;
- riddles;
- logic puzzles;
- intellectual problem solving (e.g., short description of court cases, with listeners asked to make a decision and defend it).

Listening , evaluating and manipulating information.
Tasks which focus on this outcome are important for both young and adult language learners:

- writing information received and reviewing it in order to answer questions or solve a problem;
- evaluating the received information in order to make a decision or construct a plan of action;
- evaluating arguments in order to develop a position for or against;
- evaluating cause-and-effect information;
- projecting from information received and making predictions;
- summarising information received;
- evaluating and combining or condensing information;
- chronologically sequencing the received information, etc..

Interactive listening and negotiating meaning through questioning/ answering routines.

Here the focus of the outcome is on both the product of transmitting information and the process of negotiating meaning in interactive reciprocal listener/speaker exchanges.

To introduce and practice this kind of listening skill-building, the following kind of work can be undertaken. One `speaker` can give a 5 minute `how to` talk or an explanatory `visuals` talk. Either during or immediately after the presentation each of the `listeners` is required to participate by asking at least one question in a questioning/ answering routine. The listener-questioner must continue with follow-up questions until both speaker and listener are satisfied that clear meaning has been `negotiated`. This means that the former speaker is also a listener and must keep questioning the listener to make sure of the nature and intent of the listener's question. Video- or audiotape recording of these class sessions with subsequent class viewing and discussion of selected segments quickly demonstrates how important negotiation of meaning really is, how much work and energy must be used in arriving at meaning. A wide variety of question types can be used in this activity. However the amount and variations of questions depend on the students for whom each particular activity has been designed.

Types of questions recommended for this activity:
- questions asking for the repetition of the information;
- questions asking for paraphrasing of the information presented;
- verification questions seeking confirmation that the information has been correctly understood and interpreted;
- clarification questions asking for more details;
- elaboration questions asking for additional information;

- extension questions asking for information on a new point on something that was not previously introduced;
- challenge questions challenge the points given or the conclusions drawn (How did you reach .....? Why did you ......?)

Listening for enjoyment, pleasure and sociability.

Tasks with this outcome include songs, stories, plays, films, poems, jokes anecdotes or as suggested by Ur (1984) `general interesting chat improvised by the teacher`.

In regard to setting tasks for this kind of outcome Ur (1984) notes that setting any more of an outcome other than `enjoying` in this case, may become superfluous or even harmful to the completion of the outcome `enjoying`.

5.4 Principles Governing Development of Listening Comprehension.

The research findings above suggest a set of principles for conducting listening activities in a foreign language classroom:

1. Increase the amount of the listening time by making listening the primary channel for learning new material. Input must be interesting, comprehensible, supported by extralinguistic materials. This principle must be observed also at tertiary level when teaching English as a second foreign language to students majoring in other foreign languages.

2. Use listening before other activities. Have students listen to the material before they are required to speak, read or write about it.

3. Include both **Global and Selective listening. Global listening** encourages the students to listen to the gist, the main idea, the topic, situation or setting. **Selective listening** points student attention to details of form and encourages accuracy in generating the language system.

4. Activate Top-Level skills. Give advance organisers, script activators, or discussions which call up students' background knowledge. Do this before students listen. Encourage top-down processing at every proficiency level.

5. Work towards automaticity in processing. Include exercises which build both recognition and retention of the material. Use familiar material in

recombinations. Encourage overlearning through focus on selected formal features. Practice bottom-up processing at every proficiency level.

6. Develop conscious listening strategies. Raise students' awareness of text features and of their own comprehension processes. Encourage them to notice how their processing operations interact with the text. Promote flexibility in the many ways that they can use to understand the language. Practice interactive listening, so that they can use their bottom-up and their top-down processes to check one against the other.

5.5 Principles Governing Materials Development for Developing Listening Comprehension.

In order to get learners' attention and keep them actively and purposefully engaged in the task at hand, and in order to maximize the effectiveness of listening/language learning experiences, three materials development principles are suggested:

- relevance,

- transferability/applicability,

- task-orientation. (Morley, 1991: 90)

These three principles are important in making choices about both language content (the information presented) and language outcome (the way the information is put to use).

Relevance.

Both the listening content and the outcome need to be as relevant as possible to the learner's life and life-style. This is essential for getting and holding learner attention and provides genuine motivational elements. The more listening tasks are relevant, the more they can appeal to students, and the better the chances of having learners' ears really turned in. And if students really want to listen then the task which Strevens (1988) has called `encouraging the intention to learn` has been accomplished.

Transferability/Applicability.

Whatever is relevant is also likely to have potential for transferability.

in a `transfer of training` sense, if teachers can mount rather specific in-class activities that mirror real-world content and/or outcome patterns, the better the potential for outside application, consciously or unconsciously, now or in the future.

Task Orientation.

It is important to combine two major types of work:

1. language use tasks,
2. language analysis activities.

The notion `task` in this meaning has developed out of communicative teaching. According to Brumfit and Johnson (1979: 200) task oriented teaching is teaching which provides `actual meaning` by focusing on tasks to be meditated through language, and where success or failure is seen to be judged in terms of whether or not the tasks are performed. Maley and Moulding (1979: 102) focus on instruction which is task-oriented not question-oriented, where the aim is to provide trainers with tasks which use the information in the aural text, rather than checking their understanding of the text by means of questions. Chandlin and Murphy (1987: 1) remark that `the central process we are concerned with is language learning, and tasks present this in the form of a problem-solving negotiation between knowledge that the learner holds and new knowledge. This activity is conducted through language in use, which may itself be seen as a negotiation of meaning.`

6. SPEAKING SKILLS

6.1 The Importance of Speaking Skills in Foreign Language Teaching/Learning

It has become apparent in recent years that there have been marked changes in the goals of language education programmes (Richards and Rodgers, 1987). Today, language students are considered successful if they can communicate effectively in the target language, where as two decades ago the accuracy of the language produced was the major criterion contributing to the judgement of a student's success or lack of success. These developments termed as `proficiency movement` or `promotion of functional (communicative) ability` have placed the focus in language teaching on fluency and communicative effectiveness. Thus, development of teaching skills has become increasingly important.

Theories of communicative competence imply that teachers must do more than just supply learners with a number of language structures to manipulate.
Teachers must demonstrate how language items are used and in what situations they are appropriate. They must show learners that a choice of words is possible, indeed necessary, and will colour the propositional content of what they say. They must teach them, in short, the `use` of language as well as its `usage`. (Widdowson 1978: 3)

6.2 Communicative Language Competences

To act as a speaker participating in the communicative process, the learner must be able to carry out a sequence of skilled actions which comprise:
- cognitive skills - the skills to plan and organise a message;
- linguistic skills - the skills to formulate a linguistic utterance;
- phonetic skills - the skills to articulate the utterance appropriately.

In order to realise communicative intentions speakers/learners should possess relevant communicative competences.

According to Schratz (1988) communicative competences comprise:
- personal competence, consisting of self identification , role identification, creativity, flexibility;
- language competence, including discourse proficiency, language proficiency;

- social competence which is realised through cooperativeness and interactive capacity.

According to Common European Framework of Reference (1996: 9), **communicative language competence is that competence which permits a social agent to act using linguistic means.**
Communicative competence has the following components:
> - linguistic competences;
> - sociolinguistic competence;
> - pragmatic competences.

Linguistic competences comprise knowledge of and ability to use the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated. The Common European Framework distinguishes the following constituent parts of linguistic competence:
- lexical competence - knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language;
- grammatical competence - knowledge of and ability to use the grammatical resources of a language;
- semantic competence (deals with the learner's awareness and control of the organisation of meaning);
- phonological competence - knowledge of , and skill in the perception and production of the phonetic and phonological resources of the language.

Sociolinguistic competence concerns the lexical expression of the conceptual categories constituting knowledge of the world. These include:
> - markers of social relations;
> - politeness conventions;
> - expressions of folk-wisdom;
> - register differences;
> - dialect and accent.

Markers of social relations are widely divergent in different languages and cultures. We will just mention some pertaining to the English language:
> - use and choice of greetings;
> - use and choice of address forms:

frozen	e.g. Your Grace
formal	e.g. Sir, Madam, Miss
	Mr., Mrs., Miss Ms, + surname
informal	e.g. first name only
familiar	e.g. dear, darling, love

peremptory e.g. surname only, or You (there)!

ritual insult e.g. you stupid idiot! (often affectionate)

- conventions for turntaking, etc.

Politeness conventions vary from one culture to another and are a frequent source of inter-ethnic misunderstanding.

1. positive politeness, e.g. showing interest in a person's well being, etc. expressing admiration, affection, gratitude, etc.
2. negative politeness, e.g. expressing regret, apologising etc.
3. appropriate use of `please`, `thank you`, etc.
4. impoliteness (bluntness, expressing dislike, impatience, etc.).

Expressions of folk-wisdom comprise fixed formulae, which both incorporate and reinforce common attitudes, thus, making a significant contribution to popular culture (proverbs, idioms, etc.)

Register differences comprise different registers:

- frozen,
- formal,
- neutral,
- informal,
- familiar,
- intimate.

Dialect and accent markers help to recognise

- social class,
- regional provenance,
- national origin, occupational group.

Pragmatic competences comprise:

- **discourse competence,**
- **functional competence,**
- **schematic design competence.**

Discourse competence includes knowledge of and ability to control the ordering of sentences and sentence components in terms of:

- topic/ focus;
- given/ new;
- natural sequencing;
- cause/ effect (invertible) It's raining , you will need an umbrella.
- ability to structure and manage discourse in terms of:

thematic organisation;

coherence and cohesion;

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> logical ordering;
> style and register;
> rhetorical effectiveness;
> - the 'cooperative principle' (Grice)

Functional competence is concerned with the use of spoken discourse and written texts in communication for particular functional purposes:

- macrofunctions (consisting of a sequence of sentences , e.g. description, narration, commentary, exposition, explanation, demonstration, instruction, argumentation, persuasion);
- microfunctions (single - usually short - utterances, e.g. imparting and seeking factual information, expressing and finding out attitudes, socialising, structuring discourse, such as, opening, turn-taking, closing, etc., communication repair).

Schematic design competence includes knowledge of and ability to use the schemata (patterns of social interaction) which underlie communication, such as verbal exchange patterns:

question:	answer
statement:	agreement/disagreement
request/offer/apology:	acceptance/non-acceptance
greeting/toast:	response

All the competences function in integrity and represent language as a whole. The language users have developed their own strategies of mobilising and balancing their linguistic resources in order to achieve the desired result of communication.

6.3 Communication Strategies

Strategies are a means the language user exploits to mobilise and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question in the most comprehensive or most economical way feasible depending on his or her precise purpose.

The communicative system which is forged in social interaction, the emotional relationship between speakers, as well as the construction of a common world made up of two or more individuals in an interactive episode which goes beyond, as well as frames, the unique social event.

J. Wagner Gough and E.M. Hatch (1975), quoted by H. Beatens Beardsmore (1988), maintain that 'the acquisition of a language is a process which depends on conversational interaction.'

It is through verbal interaction that a language learner's language skills are built. J.A.Rondal (1983) stresses the need for language input, but also for output, which allows the learner's conversational partner to adapt to the learner's productive and receptive level.

Native speakers regularly employ communication strategies of all kinds when the strategy is appropriate to the communicative demands placed upon them. This practice could be also successfully employed in the foreign language classroom.

The use of communicative strategies can be seen as the application of the metacognitive principles: Pre-planning, Execution, Monitoring, and Repair Action to the different kinds of communicative activity:

- Reception,
- Interaction,
- Production,
- Mediation.

Each of these strategies comprises four stages:

Planning _____ Execution _____ Evaluation _____ Repair

May be represented as follows:

Planning	- Framing (selecting mental set, activating schemata, setting up expectations).
Execution	- Identifying cues and inferring from them.
Evaluation	- Hypothesis testing: matching cues to schemata.
Repair	- Revising hypotheses.

6.3.1 Reception strategies

The strategies depicted above involve identifying the context and knowledge of the world relevant to it, activating in the process that are thought to be appropriate schemata. These in turn set up expectations about the organisation and content of what is to come (Framing). During the process of receptive activity linguistic and non-linguistic cues are used to build up a representation of the meaning being expressed and a hypothesis as to the communicative intention behind it. Through a process of

successive approximation, apparent and possible gaps in the message are filled in order to flesh out the representation of meaning, and the significance of the message and of its constituent parts are worked out (Inferring). The gaps filled through inference may be caused by linguistic restrictions, difficult receptive conditions, lack of associated knowledge, or by assumed familiarity, obliqueness or understatement on the part of the speaker/ writer. The viability of the current model arrived at through this process is checked against the evidence of the incoming co-textual and contextual cues to see if they `fit` the activated schema - the way one is interpreting the situation (Hypothesis testing). An identified mismatch leads to a return to step one (Framing) in the search for an alternative schema which would better explain the incoming cues (Revising Hypotheses).

6.3.2 Production strategies

Production strategies involve mobilising resources, balancing between different competences - exploiting strengths and underlying weaknesses - in order to match the available potential to the nature of the task.
Production strategies include such activities as :
- *rehearsing* (conscious preparation);
- *considering audience*;
- *locating resources* (looking things up or obtaining assistance when dealing with a deficit);
- *task adjustment* (according to the mobilised resources the language user may either scale down or scale up the task);
- *message adjustment* (having found additional linguistic support, the language user may become more ambitious in forming and expressing his/her thoughts.)

The above described ways of scaling down ambitions are termed - *avoidance strategies* and scaling up are called *achievement strategies*.

Execution stage involves such strategies as:

- compensating;
- building on previous knowledge;
- trying out.

Evaluation is manifested in monitoring success.

Repair is expressed in self correction.

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6.3.3 Interaction Strategies

Interaction strategies, likewise language, function as one whole. Interaction encompasses both receptive and productive activities as well as activity unique to the construction of joint discourse and therefore all reception strategies and all production strategies mentioned above are also involved in interaction. Interaction entails the collective creation of meaning by the establishment of some degree of common mental context.

Planning for interaction involves several activities:
- framing - making a schemata of the exchanges possible and probable in the forthcoming activity;
- identifying information/ opinion gap-consideration of the communicative distance from other interlocutors;
- planning moves - to decide on options and prepare possible moves in the exchanges.

During **the Execution** (activity itself), language users adopt turntaking strategies for different purposes:
1. in order to obtain the discourse initiative (Taking the floor);
2. in order to cement the collaboration in the task and keep the discussion on course (Co-operating: interpersonal);
3. to help mutual understanding and a focused approach to the task at hand (Co-operating: ideational);
4. to ask for help (Asking for Help).

Evaluation takes place at a communicative level:
- judging the `fit` between the schemata thought to apply and what is actually happening (Monitoring: schemata, praxeogram);
- judging the extent to which things are going the way one wants them to go (Monitoring: effect, success).

Repair.
Miscomprehension or intolerable ambiguity leads to:
- requests for clarification which may be on a communicative or linguistic level (Asking for, giving clarification);
- active intervention to re-establish communication and clear up misunderstanding when necessary (**Communication Repair**).

6.3.4 Mediation Strategies

Mediation strategies reflect ways of coping with the demands of using finite resources to process information and a establish equivalent meaning.

The process involves all the above mentioned stages:

- planning - developing background knowledge;
  - locating supports;
  - preparing a glossary;
  - considering interlocutors' needs;
  - selecting unit of interpretation.
- execution - previewing: processing input and formulating the last chunk
    simultaneously in real time
  - noting possibilities, equivalencies;
  - bridging gaps.
- evaluation - checking congruence of two versions;
  - checking consistency of usage.
- repair - refining by consulting dictionaries, thesaurus;
  - consulting experts, sources.

6.3.5 Activities Promoting the Development of Speaking Skills

The development of communicative ability, of which strategic competence is but one vital component, requires a range of suitable classroom activities. These should provide learners with a degree of communicative urgency so that they have something interesting to say and a reason to communicate with their partners. An activity may be made purposeful by involving learners in an exchange which bridges an information, opinion, affect `interest` or `solidarity` gap. Learners may be motivated to communicate by the enjoyment of playing a game, the challenge and satisfaction in solving a problem or completing a project.

A variety of activities is used to promote the development of speaking skills: dialogues, role play, simulation and a selection of activities where the learner can speak personally in the classroom situation which is brought as close as possible to the relevant real life situation. In order to act in such situations the learner should have certain language knowledge and experience. Language users' experience is manifested in communicative strategies - ways and various techniques by which they compensate for gaps in their linguistic repertoire when faced with a demanding communicative activity.

C. Gullen Dias (1992) has developed methodological recommendations taking into account the specific features of the classroom environment and other characteristics of the teaching of languages and cultures in

institutional settings. She recommends focusing more on learners' individual strategies and processes than on the product of learning, incorporating education and language didactics to a greater extent and utilising classroom discourse which is truly communicative. The teacher must therefore organize, lead, stimulate, inform, guide and evaluate the students, who, thus encouraged to think about their own learning process and the means they use, can be expected to make more effective progress.

The use of compensatory strategies is characteristic of both: the learners' mother tongue and their target language. More than 20 years teaching practice at the tertiary level supported by theoretical research has proved that it is very important for the learners to become aware of the fact. Even various methodological theories (e.g. Chomsky) reject the routine memory work during which the learner is bound to learn and memorise certain words and phrases pertaining to the relevant speech situation. However, all stages of pilot teaching have proved to the fact that authentic conversation is possible only when the language user is able to manipulate with adequate linguistic repertoire in natural speech situation applying relevant communication strategies whenever necessary.

The problem of communication strategies has been investigated in methodological literature. A number of taxonomies of communication strategies have been developed by different authors.
For closer analysis we offer the list of communication strategies suggested by van Ek in the methodological materials file published by the Council of Europe (1993: 141). The list of communication strategies falls into two parts:

1. Major strategies which most people use in their native language without specific training:

- retracing when getting stuck in a complex sentence structure, e.g., I think he should have.... anyway, he might have asked somebody to help him.
- rephrasing (Let me put it in other words)
- substitution
    - by a general word (thing, person)
    - by a pronoun (this, it they, something)
    - by a superordinate (tree for oak-tree, meat for mutton)
    - by a synonym (see for perceive, discussion for debate)
- description by means of
    - general physical properties (colour, size)

- specific feature (it has brown eyes)
- interactional/ functional characteristics (you can dress a wound with it)

- demonstration (`Here look at this, this is what I mean`)
- gesture, mime, sounds
- appeal for assistance (`What was his name?`)

2. Strategies which foreign language users typically use:
- foreignising
- transliteration
- word creation (through the compounding and derivation process of the foreign language)
- mutilation (omitting inflectional suffixes, neglecting gender distinctions)
- language switch(using native language elements or elements from another foreign language)

The second set of strategies may seem less attractive in that they may lead to errors or do little to facilitate understanding, but, as van Ek points out, some of them in particular foreignising, transliteration and word-creation can be regarded as the testing of hypotheses about the target language and, through positive or negative feedback, they contribute to learning. Even mutilation, while not to be encouraged, might be tolerated in certain cases if this results in the learner having the confidence to take risks rather than avoiding the topic or abandoning attempts to communicate.

It seems worthwhile, to make learners more aware of the strategies they already use in their native language and of how they might employ them in the target language. These strategies might be used in interactions among alloglots as well as in conversations between an alloglot and a native speaker.

Using studies of conversations between alloglots conducted by P. A. Porter (1983), T. Pica and C. Doughty (1985), and by E. M. Varennes and S. Gases (1985), D. Larsen-Freeman and M. H. Long (1991) conclude that interactions among alloglots are as useful, or even more useful in some respects, than those between an alloglot and a native speaker. It seems that breakdowns in communication are more frequent and must be resolved by the alloglots themselves through a negotiation of meaning.
Exchanges between children, one of whom is a native speaker and the other not, give rise to the same kind of process. They provide additional practice, most obviously in the area of phonology. As the value of exchanges

between children thus appears to be confirmed, it should be possible to organise the classroom in such away as to encourage interaction exchanges in the foreign language.

In the traditional classroom situation, the entire class interacts with the teacher. Preferably, the teacher should organise the class, at certain times, to allow for regular opportunities for individual contact with each learner. There is a need to analyse the means of encouraging learners' participation in conversational exchanges.

Students will not learn to speak unless they get ample opportunity to practise speaking. Real satisfaction and confidence can only be achieved through successful communication. This means involving learners in tasks which are suited to their interests and stage of conceptual and linguistic development. Success in fluency activities may also be facilitated by proper preparation and implementation. This was our first concern in planning and preparing multi-purpose language programmes for multi-media assisted language studies.

Thus several areas of concern were drawn up in relation to the organisation of communicative activities in multi-media assisted language classroom:

- careful preparation of linguistic material including specifically chosen lexical areas and seeking repetition of information;
- careful clarification of the task or activity before offering it to the learners;
- planning whether the activity should fit into *the general progression of the syllabus* or whether it should be an independent activity *aimed at satisfying the study purpose of certain individual learners;*
- finding out whether it fits in with other and parallel teaching situations;
- negotiating a balance between task needs and individual or group needs;
- planning how varied the types of activities should be;
- envisaging competition as a stimulus and not as a hostile activity;
- scoring the activity results to help the learners to be aware of their progress;
- ensuring sensitivity to any emotional or cultural blockages which might interfere with the learners' confidence to use the target language in relation to the particular topic, situation or functional purpose.

The multi-media language programmes included in 'BALTIC' proved to be relevant basis for a variety of activities aimed at promoting the development of speaking skills. These activities comprise: dialogues, role play,

simulation, and a selection of activities where the learner can speak personally in the here-and-now of the classroom situation (exchanging information, expressing feelings and values through interviews, surveys).

6.3.6 Dialogues.

The use of dialogues in language teaching has a very long tradition, particularly as a way of highlighting structures. However, the resulting stereotyped dialogues with cardboard characters and unnatural language use have been replaced with more natural examples which illustrate how sentences are combined for the purpose of communication in clearly defined social contexts. Dialogue activities are concerned not only with accurate expression but also with the appropriate use of forms in a specific social or academic context. Learners should, therefore, be clear about who is speaking to whom, about what, for what purpose, where and when. It is also important to heighten learners' awareness of how dialogues are structured, of ways of opening, maintaining and closing a conversation, and of the strategies used by speakers to negotiate meaning so that their efforts at communication achieve the desired result. The multi-media programme presents a number of short contextualised dialogues used for presenting and exploiting the relationship between functions/notions and forms.

The dialogues presented in `BALTIC ` serve **a number of purposes.** They provide practice in choosing the correct register, maintaining the conversation, coping with difficult situations and therefore can act **as stimulus for free expression** (See the instruction).

In most of the practice activities proposed and initiated by the `BALTIC` course the topic is imposed (though, it might also be either expanded or narrowed down, depending upon the needs and wants of the programme user). The order of the speakers is pre-determined and participants have choice only in which forms to use to express the intended meanings. In the less tightly controlled examples of discourse chains and cued dialogues, however, learners have greater freedom to choose both what to say and how to say it. These lead learners to more fluency oriented activities for which teacher's guidance might be needed.

Fluency-oriented activities may be suggested as a kind of follow up after the learners have completed their individual preparatory work with the computer. The follow up activities may comprise:
* contextualised practice;
* jumbled dialogues;

- dialogue completion;
- discourse chains;
- cued dialogues;
- writing dialogues.

As to contextualised practice, after listening to model dialogues included in the programme, the learners are encouraged to make their own dialogues. The learners might be asked to investigate all the tools offered in each particular unit of the programme and to complete all the exercises pertaining to the relevant unit.

After the learners have completed these activities, the teacher might offer them even a wider choice of activities for developing communication strategies.

Thus, re-ordering jumbled dialogues helps sensitise learners to the structures of particular scripts (scenarios), e.g. money exchange, shopping, etc.. It also heightens their awareness of differences in register where a formal and informal dialogue are jumbled in a single text.

Another activity which takes the learner closer to real-life situations is dialogue completion. Previously, while working with `Fill-in` exercises, the learner's attention was drawn to specific features of discourse. Dialogue completion is intended to take the learners even further - closer to unprepared spontaneous speech acts. This activity provides practice in coping with an unexpected or difficult situation. Open ended dialogues serve as a stimulus for free expression. One word dialogues encourage learners to use their imagination and show them that it is possible to communicate even with a limited vocabulary if the functional aim is achieved that way.

Discourse chains represent another follow up activity and are aimed at heightening learners' awareness of the structure of discourse and provide valuable help, especially to weaker learners, in organising the content of the interaction. Chains also provide all the necessary language material.

Speakers can choose from a number of options at branching points in the chain, learners are obliged to listen to each other. The importance of choosing utterances appropriate to the status and mood of the participants is highlighted. The discourse chain provides useful guidelines on content and core language material.

In cued dialogues the cues guide learners in what to say while leaving them free to choose how to express the meanings. Cues may simply

indicate functions (e.g. suggest doing something) or function and topic (e.g. suggest giving a phone call to somebody either to share or to obtain some information). They may also provide a skeleton framework to guide the interaction while ensuring that learners have some freedom to negotiate meaning.

As regards to writing dialogues, learners could be encouraged to write their own original dialogues in addition to simply writing dialogues which have been practised orally in class. A degree of `reflective spontaneity` can be preserved or the emphasis may be on promoting creative dialogue writing.

The following example might illustrate the procedure of the integrated activity:
Learners are supposed to take both roles in a dialogue. The learners are seated in a circle. The context and the first line of the dialogue is written on the board (A's first sentence). Everyone writes it down on a sheet of paper and then freely writes B's sentence. Having accomplished this task each learner passes the sheet to his or her left. The person on the left writes A's next line and passes the sheet back.

The dialogue is developed back and forth and learners get to take the role of both A and B as they write on the sheets (role B on their own sheet and role A on the sheet which is passed to them). Dialogues are read out and compared. The attitudes of both speakers might vary (angry or concerned (A), defiant or apologetic (B).

6.3.7 Role play.

Role play is another activity that we suggest as a means for developing communication strategies in general and speaking skills in particular.

The term role play is generally used to refer to a wide range of practice and communicative activities. Some of the controlled or guided dialogues illustrated above, especially cued dialogues, might be considered as an introduction to role play. These preliminary activities prepare learners to take part in role play activities which require greater spontaneity and fluency.

According to the studies `Communication in the modern languages classroom` published by the Council of Europe, role play activities vary in the degree of control over how learners act and speak.

`The interaction may be controlled by cues or guided by a description of a situation and a task to be accomplished `(1993: 158).

As to the result, it might be at least of two types:

- it may be very predictable (pre-planned by the teacher);
- it may be negotiated by the learners (an open-ended scenario may allow learners to negotiate the outcome in the course of the activity).

Even fairly routine and seemingly predictable transactional types of role play can be transformed by the introduction of an element of surprise which obliges learners to use various strategies to cope with the unexpected development. The language programme `BALTIC`, or a similar one, may serve as a source of ideas and a supply of language forms.

Role play requires learners to project themselves into an imaginary situation where they may play themselves or where they may be required to play a character role. In some instances this is prescribed in detail and at other times learners are free to create the role, which inevitably leads to greater involvement in the activity. A situation or scenario may be realistic (e.g. getting through to the right person on the phone and having the planned conversation). It may also be unrealistic for learners or appeal to their sense of fantasy (You are a caterpillar about to become a butterfly.....).

According to studies carried out by the Council of Europe `all kinds of role play are useful and it is essentially a question of maintaining a balance between realistic activities and other imaginative and interesting situations which provide motivation enjoyment and satisfaction in the here-and-now of the classroom` (1993: 158).

Role play, then, is not simply a rehearsal for future real-life transactions. It is a means of going beyond the valuable, but necessarily limited, discourse of classroom socialising and activities such as surveys, games and discussions. It provides learners with opportunities to practise correct and appropriate use of a wide range of functions, notions and structures in a variety of contexts.

The ultimate aim of role play, as of all speaking activities, is to involve learners in fluent and creative expression in a way which can and should be enjoyable. This requires a supportive classroom atmosphere where learners are not afraid to `have a go` and where the role play mask can provide

some relief, particularly for shyer learners, from the intensity of ``I`` centred activities.

As it has been indicated above, the learners are invited to use the programme `BALTIC` in order to get used to interactive use of the speech patterns needed to achieve their communicative goals. We fully realise that the communicative goals likewise the communicative strategies might be different for each particular individual. Thus also the before-speech activities vary in complexity. And even the first activities performed by the learners without the help of multimedia might take the shape of short, controlled or guided role plays. It is advisable that the teacher should supply detailed guidelines on how to proceed. Where a role seems demanding it may be helpful if those with the same roles prepare together beforehand, perhaps filling in a `character` card based on personal details and characteristic features of the person the learner is going to embody. The card might comprise the following aspects: name, age, sex, occupation, physical appearance, personality, mood and attitude in the present situation. Pre-role play discussion is a valuable activity at all levels as learners are communicating about real and immediate needs. They should gradually be given the means to conduct this discussion in the target language and encouraged to do so as much as possible in both the pre-play and post-play stages.

6.3.8 Simulation.

Learners who are familiar with role play may be introduced to simulation which is a more complex activity, usually requiring greater preparation and organisation and more time to carry out. Simulations, likewise role play, may involve learners in imaginative activities, for example how to survive on a desert island in the face of various dangers and difficulties.

The tasks may be also more realistic, closely following the learners needs and wants concerning their communicative goals and in accordance with the level of the development of communicative strategies of each particular individual.

Participants may also be placed in a situation of conflict where teams take on roles to defend or oppose a proposal before a decision is taken, e.g. a group of friends having arrived in an English speaking country are trying to decide how much money and in which bank to change (Bank and Money Exchange). The decisions might concern also more global themes:
whether or not to build a nuclear power plant, to abolish beauty contests, and so on.

Simulations have rules which constrain participants, requiring them to act in a realistic manner in keeping with their roles.

While they are often less flexible than role play activities and less convenient because they usually require a lot of time, simulations are highly motivating for the more experienced classes.

Both role play and simulation require careful planning to ensure that they run smoothly. We can single out 5 key stages in organising and carrying out role play and simulation. Some of the key stages may include several complimentary activities.

6.3.9 Structure and stages of role play and simulation.

STAGE 1 - Presentation / clarification of context, roles, task
        1a. anticipation of language needs
        1b. brief demonstration
        1c. learners with the same roles prepare together

STAGE 2 - Performance (pairs / groups) - minimal teacher intervention.
        (Monitoring role of the teacher)
        2a. documentation of the performance - observers recordings
        2b. supplementary activity for early finishers
        2c. ``public`` performance by some groups or individual
           participants (depending of the type of the performance)

STAGE 3 - Analysis of the performances
        3a. self-assessment
        3b. observers' reports
        3c. teacher's feed back to learners

STAGE 4 - Evaluation of the activity by learners
        4a. evaluation of the activity performed in accordance with
           the learners' global needs and wants;
        4b. evaluation of the activity as regards to the learners'
           language knowledge level;

STAGE 5 - Follow-up activity ,e.g.
        - creating new texts
        - remedial language work

The need for the stages will depend on the purpose and type of activity in question. Where the emphasis is on practising role play at an elementary level most of the stages could be useful but with less emphasis on the use of observers and a more active monitoring role of the teacher. Feedback would be confined to the main points so as not to risk discouraging learners.

It is important that there is enough time for post-play analysis so that learners can assess their performance and evaluate the activity. discussion might focus on:

- their general feelings about the activity ,e.g. easy, difficult, went
  well / not so well, problems, useful, enjoyable, satisfying
- their impressions on how well they and others interpreted their roles
- the effectiveness of their efforts at communication, i.e.
  appropriacy, accuracy, fluency, use of communication strategies
- the relevance of the activity to their learning goals
- how well they co-operated
- the teacher's interventions (how often? when? why/ how/)

Various miscellaneous techniques for introducing and conducting role play may be applied. Some of them are: sharing/exchanging information, use of auxiliary techniques and devices (mime, sound, objects, pictures, realistic documents, information files etc.).

6.3.10 Communicative Language Teaching and Personal Expression

Communicative language teaching is aimed at developing each learner's ability to communicate with other people by means of realising personal self expression. That is the reason why communicative language teaching is concerned with developing communicative language learning strategies in learners. Communicative approach to language teaching/learning is concerned with the learner as a person having his/her own needs, ideas, opinions, feelings and interests.

There are many classroom activities and academic assignments (involving also academic writing) where the learner can be himself/ herself speaking (or writing) truthfully as he /she interacts with other learners, the teacher, the topics, texts and tasks in the negotiation of the foreign language curriculum.

More than often the most personal examples of real communication turn out to be the instances of classroom socialising where learners use the

target language to assist in the planning, organisation and evaluation of their learning experiences (see the Video material reflecting the evaluation of the 'BALTIC'). In this process they co-operate, share learning experiences, discuss problems and take greater responsibility for their own learning. This is a gradual process as learners have to acquire the relevant language structures and lexical units and they also need to be encouraged to use the target language for these purposes.

Learners can also be personally involved when they agree to use the target language to relate to each other and to get to know themselves and one another better. They may be encouraged to do this in interviews, class surveys, games and activities which simulate them to express their feelings or which cause them to reflect on their belief and values. It is important, however, not to create situations where learners might be embarrassed or uneasy. Likewise, it is not advisable to involve learners in activities which focus on emotions or on other personal matters. Such aspects of interaction have to be handled with discretion.

Discussion activities provide an opportunity for learners to reflect on topics of interest to them, to present and justify their own opinions and to listen to the views of others. They derive satisfaction from arriving at a mutually-acceptable decision or through co-operating in solving a problem.

Discussion activities are very important in developing learners' ability of self expression. These activities involve learners in personal and fluent use of the target language. They require learners to reflect, to evaluate data or arguments, to listen carefully to others, to have an open mind and to develop the skills and expressions necessary for a real discussion. The exchange of opinions or feelings should assist learners in getting to know themselves and their colleagues better. All participants can derive satisfaction from their participation as in most of the activities all viewpoints are valid and there is no 'right' answer.

A successful discussion requires:
- a motivating topic to discuss;
- a purpose for the discussion, e.g. opinions to be shared, a problem to be solved;
- a task which is reasonably challenging but not too difficult for the particular group of learners;
- whatever assistance is necessary to ensure the momentum of the activity, i.e. guidelines to structure the discussion and useful expressions and

vocabulary; (Otherwise the activity may be a failure and L1 may be used predominantly.)

- appropriate feedback and an evaluation of the activity. Feedback may focus on some particular language difficulties encountered by the participants as well as on the general results of the activity - how well it was carried out, how useful it was for each of the learners.

(For comprehensive guidelines on organising discussion activities see Ur; 1981)

In order to feel confident enough to contribute freely to a discussion, the learners must be familiar with the conventions of this type of discourse and with ways of intervening, commenting, seeking clarification, expressing an opinion, agreeing, disagreeing, referring back, emphasising, expanding, etc. in the target language.

To maximise learner participation it is helpful to structure their contributions in the early stages and to devise ways of encouraging everyone to contribute. Kramsch (1984) suggests giving learners cards with discourse cues and ways of expressing them in order to ensure that the discussion is not unduly directed by the teacher or dominated by a handful of learners.

Some discussion activities may be practised before the real discussion takes place to help the learners feel more confident:

- practice in expressing statements (expressing agreement/disagreement and explaining);
- practice in ranking people, objects, concepts according to criteria supplied or practice in ranking ideas relating to a story;
- practice in decision making or solving a moral dilemma.

Activities which require learners to narrate are a welcome break from the 'Ping-Pong' exchanges of interviews and discussions, provide valuable practice in developing fluency and stimulate learners' creativity. In real life, everyone narrates:

> telling others about something that happened, talking about a good book or film, telling a story, anecdote, joke, etc.

Narrative activities:
- provide opportunities for learners to engage in extended discourse in
  contrast to the brief exchanges of most other speaking activities;
- develop fluency;

- provide practice in listening with concentration;
- stimulate learners' imagination;
- activate a wide range of vocabulary in context;
- require little advance preparation and can readily be integrated with textbook material.

Reconstituting a story, imagining the end of an unfinished story or creating narratives from pictures, objects and words are interesting and satisfying activities and help learners to develop skills which can be applied to other kinds of interaction. Discussion of the learners' future academic research themes can be mentioned as one of possible interactions on a higher level leading to the academic speech at the presentation of the learners' Bachelor papers.

Project work can be used as link bridging the gap between a free social interaction and an academically or professionally meaningful presentation. Project work offers learners a series of meaningful and relevant activities which lead to their assuming responsibility for their own learning both as a social group and as individuals. It is a particularly natural way of integrating skills as learners study, discuss, take notes, write reports and present results orally and in writing.

An important result of the project is the increased motivation, self-confidence and autonomy of learners.

6.3.11 Principles and theories on speaking skills development

Requiring a student to create and pronounce foreign language sentences is demanding more than one skill. For example, a student who is asked to respond to a question must first understand the question, then think of a correct and appropriate answer, and finally pronounce the words and hope they come out correctly. `Of course, cued responses may be used, but an original utterance is what a student will aim for`(Papalia, 1972: 88).

Strict repetition or mimicry of foreign language phrases is not speaking the foreign language, yet. Students must first know the necessary vocabulary items and be able to combine these within original oral composition before they can concentrate on pronunciation. However, it is not enough for them to know what they want to say, nor is it enough for them to know basic cued responses; they must have grammatical knowledge in order to make sense and speak fluently in the foreign language using whatever other knowledge they have.

Another important implication is that the foreign language learner needs more than a 'fixed repertoire' of linguistic forms corresponding to communicative functions. Since the relationships between forms and functions is variable, and cannot be definitely predicted outside specific situations, the learner must also be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language in actual use.

The most efficient communicator in a foreign language is not always the person who is best at manipulating its structures. It is often the person who is most skilled at processing the complete situation involving himself/ herself and the hearer, taking account of what knowledge is already shared between them (e.g. from the situation or from the preceding conversation), and selecting items which will communicate the message effectively. Foreign language learners need opportunities to develop these skills, by being exposed to situations where the emphasis is on using their available resources for communicating meanings as efficiently and economically as possible. Since these resources are limited, this may often entail sacrificing grammatical accuracy in favour of immediate communicative effectiveness.

In the same way as for comprehension, the learner needs to acquire not only a repertoire of linguistic items, but also a repertoire of strategies for using them in concrete situations. This can be accomplished by means of communicative activities. According to Littlewood (1992) communicative activities have the following purposes:
- they provide 'whole-task practice';
- they improve motivation;
- they allow natural learning;
- they can create context which supports learning.

Concerning the teacher's role in communicative activities, it should be noted that, especially in the more creative types of activity, unnecessary intervention on the teacher's part may prevent the learners from becoming genuinely involved in the activity and thus hinder the development of their communicative skills. The teacher becomes less dominant than before, but no less important. The challenge for the teacher is to:
- develop techniques that encourage students to communicate but do not exceed their foreign language competence;
- place students in meaningful life situations;
- give the students enough freedom to experiment with the language;
- create a supportive classroom environment in which the student feels free to communicate.

There are also communicative activities in which the teacher can take part as a `co-communicator`. Provided the teacher can maintain this role without becoming dominant, it enables him/her to give guidance and stimuli from `inside the activity` (Littlewood, 1992: 19).

Summary

Speaking skills enable learners to enter the community of the target language communicators speaking skills are not uniform in their structure. They comprise cognitive, linguistic and phonetic skills.

In order to realise communicative intentions speakers/ learners should possess relevant communicative competences which lead to communicative ability. The development of communicative ability requires a range of suitable classroom activities. These activities should contain communicative urgency, i.e., the learners should experience necessity to say something and a need and reason to communicate with their partners. Thus, learners may be motivated to communicate by the enjoyment of playing a game, by the challenge and satisfaction in solving a problem or presenting an academic speech in the target language.

7 READING SKILLS

7.1 The Importance of Reading in Foreign Language Teaching / Learning

Most researchers are convinced that reading is a multifaceted process that goes beyond the description of any single facet (e.g., Duran, 1987; McLaughlin, 1987; Rumelhart 1977; Schank, 1982; Swaffar, 1988; Weaver, 1980).

`Of all the skills that the child must acquire in school, reading is the most complex and difficult. The child who accurately and efficiently translates a string of printed letters into meaningful communication may appear to be accomplishing that task with little mental effort. In fact, however, the child is engaging in complex interactive processes that are dependent on multiple subskills and an enormous amount of coded information` (McLaughlin, 1987 : 59)

Vygotsky (1978: 106) sees written words as signs or symbols needing interpretation, but he goes beyond the mechanical decoding of the signs as the only, or even principal, way of interpreting the written language. He states that a feature of the written system is that it starts out as a second order symbolism that will gradually become direct symbolism. By this he means that the written language consists of a system of signs that `designate the sounds and words of spoken language, which, in turn are signs for real entities and relations. Gradually this intermediate link, spoken language, disappears, and written language is converted into a system of signs that directly symbolise entities and relations between them` (Vygotsky, 1978: 106).

Vygotsky argues that this conversion of the written language into a first-order symbolism cannot be accomplished in a purely mechanical and external manner, but rather that it is `the culmination of a long process of development of complex behavioural functions in the child` (1978: 106). He regards learning to interpret written symbols as learning to read, and that there are several, at least two, stages in the development of this ability.

Taking into consideration the stages in the development of reading and the fact that there are various facets of the reading process, operating in parallel time frames, we presume that the aim of reading instruction is, `to enable

learners to read unfamiliar, authentic texts, without help, at appropriate speed, with adequate understanding, for a variety of purposes` (Kohonen, 1985).

Teaching of reading comprehension involves development of separate sub-skills like decoding, drawing inferences, interpreting metaphors and understanding the meanings of words in context. According to Lunzer,E. and Gardner, K. (1984) these are not different processes in the reader. They are simply different tasks required of the reader to `prove` that s/he has understood.

`Viewed in the past as either top-down or bottom-up process, we now think reading comprehension results from interactive variables that operate simultaneously rather than sequentially` (Swaffar, 1988 : 123). Even though we may speak, therefore, of a single facet that we think is important to remember that all of them combine together to produce the activity that we call reading. Keeping this in mind, let as review briefly some of the various facets constituting the reading process.

`When reading for learning, the actual process can be thought of as comprising five phases:
- decoding,
- making sense of what is said,
- comparing this with what one knows already,
- making judgements about the material,
- revising one's ideas. (Lunzer and Gardner, 1984: 13)

In many ways the third phase has proved to be the most decisive one. When the readers do this, the fourth and fifth phases will follow logically, and that means learning is bound to happen - `ideas are revised`.
However, not always **does** the reader trouble to compare what is read with what is known already and, thus, the process stops at the second phase. The reader imposes a kind of local sense on the phrases and sentences as they occur, but is not able to establish their overall sense and their coherence.

A growing body of evidence acquired during years of EFL teaching routine shows that one of the reasons for failure to go beyond local sense is that learners often take it for granted that to read correctly means to recognise and understand the words as they occur in the text.

Indeed, when one is reading a gripping story for pleasure, understanding comes without effort. This style of reading is often called `receptive` (Lunzer and Gardner, 1984). It means that the reader does not pause at frequent intervals to reflect about the overall sense. The story carries him or her along and stimulates the right questions without any conscious effort.

Most of the inexperienced readers expect the same thing to apply to reading academic or scientific texts, i.e. reading for learning. Reading of such texts, unless the material is already well known to the readers, they will need to pause for reflection. Reading with pauses is often called `reflective reading` (Lunzer and Gardner, 1984).

Researchers (Lunzer & Gardner, 1984) have proved that if most learners were reflective readers when necessary, then they would be better able to use reading for learning.

According to the research activities carried out under the guidance of the Council Of Europe (Sheils, 1993), **the autonomous reader** is a flexible reader who applies a variety of reading strategies depending on the reading purpose and who knows when his/her comprehension is adequate for that purpose, whether skimming to get a general idea of the text, scanning for specific points or reading for detailed comprehension.

In accordance with `A Common European Framework of Reference` (1996) ` in visual reception (reading) activities the user as reader receives and processes as input written texts produced by one or more writers. Examples of reading activities include:
- reading for general orientation;
- reading for information;
- reading and following instructions;
- using reference works;
- reading for pleasure.

The language user may read:
- for gist;
- for specific information;
- for detailed understanding;
- for implications etc.

Whatever purpose the learner may follow when reading, s/he should be made aware of the discourse structure and organisation and should be

`encouraged to process the text in meaningful `chunks` rather than word by word. One way of assisting readers to read in `chunks` or `meaningful mouthfuls` may be to play occasional recordings of native speakers reading texts as there is evidence that good internal prosody (stress and intonation) facilitates comprehension` (Sheils, 1993: 81).

7.2 Reading Skills Oriented Language Syllabi

Our experience of teaching English as a foreign language to students majoring in English Philology and to students majoring in Germanistics, Romanic Philology, Scandinavian Languages and Culture and Oriental studies have proved the validity of the statement quoted above.

The Academic Programme of Bachelor of English Philology Comprises several courses aimed at developing the reading skills of already advanced students of English : Normative and Functional Phonetics and Phonology of the target language, Hermeneutics (Text Analysis and Comprehension), Listening Comprehension, i.o.. As a result of regular and purposeful studies, since 1993 when these courses have been introduced in the syllabus, there has been not a single case when a student experiences difficulties either in reading comprehension or fluency. The research embraced 210 full-time and 390 part-time students enrolled in the academic programme Bachelor of English Philology. The students' academic records and their answers to the questions included in evaluative questionnaires (spread after each relevant course) gave us the reason to believe that reading skills development should proceed in integrity with the development of other skills. Thus listening skills development might considerably facilitate comprehensive approach to reading and even writing.

At the same time each component constituting reading skills (or any other of the four language skills) deserves careful approach and attention, maybe different in intensity, for every learner individually. The development of sub-skills and elements constituting them is especially important when learners study English as their second or third foreign language. Keeping that in mind, an experimental syllabus was designed in 1995. Instead of the traditional 3 classes (each class - 90 minutes) of English a week the new syllabus envisaged 6 classes of English a week. The 6 classes comprised :

- 1 class (90 minutes) - Normative Phonetics, Phonology and Prosody;
- 1 class (90 minutes) - Hermeneutics (text comprehension and analysis);
- 2 classes (180 minutes) - Systematic and Functional Grammar;

- 1 class (90 minutes) - Conversational English;
- 1 class (90 minutes) - Academic Writing in English.

All the aspects were aimed at presenting the language as a whole, however, at the same time stressing the importance of each language skill.

Thus Phonetics, Phonology and Prosody were introduced in the syllabus to help those learners who needed additional support in their speaking and reading skills development. Besides that, phonetic classes were also aimed at helping the readers to decode while reading. A phonic approach teaches the phoneme - grapheme correspondences. In these classes emphasis is on the letter-to-sound correspondence rather than on meaning. The thought is that once learners are able to sound out the letters, they will be able to read the words and then, once they are able to read the words, they will be able to make meaning of the text. Such an approach is practised also to help the learners to perceive the spoken word. This is an example of a `Bottom-up` strategy, whereby it is assumed that understanding the individual sounds will eventually lead to the understanding of the text. A decoding or phonics approach presupposes that the learner knows the sounds of the language to start with. The research (Serpell, 1968) shows that students misread and misinterpret words containing sounds which they cannot discriminate. That is, if they cannot hear the difference between the long and short sounds they may read `live` for `leave`, `slip` for ` sleep, `pull` for `pool` etc. The sound discrimination problem may cause a temporary slowdown in comprehension and sometimes also misunderstanding may take place.

Although, we consider that phonetic interpretation is a part of reading we do not believe that it constitutes the whole, or even the most important part, of the reading process. According to McLaughlin (1987: 60):

`... in reading, the assumption is that learners acquire sound-symbol correspondences; then, once decoding skills have been mastered, direct controlled attention to deriving meaning from text`. McLaughlin proposes that `the more the reader has automatised the mechanical decoding skills, the more attention is freed up to grasp the overall meaning of a phrase or sentence` (McLaughlin 1987: 61).

Mason and Au (1986) consider phonics and other `linguistic` approaches (e.g., syllables, word patterns) to teaching reading as important in terms of word identification skills. There are other means of word identification and we are clear in our belief that the syllabus must be broad-based in this regard.

This is the reason why several other, not less important, linguistic aspects were included in the syllabus.

Thus systematic and functional grammar were aimed at the needs and wants of those learners who cared about the correctness and precision of their language.

The classes of conversational English, in their turn, were aimed at developing the fluency of the learners' speech.

Classes of academic writing were aimed at developing the skills of written communication.

The subjects involved in pilot teaching according to the new syllabus of the 2nd foreign language were 75 full-time and 120 part-time students. The results of the pilot teaching showed that only 5% percent of the students studying according to the new syllabus experienced difficulties in reading. Other, 95% of the students recognised the importance of the Phonetics, Phonology and Prosody course in improving their reading.

It should be mentioned that before introducing the new syllabus 32% of the students experienced reading difficulties. **This proves to the fact that pronunciation and intonation practice helps not very good readers to cope with difficulties encountered in the reading process and thus to enjoy the very process of reading.** According to Sheils (1993 : 81), in order to become efficient readers, learners need to read extensively and <u>to enjoy reading.</u>

As well as being a source of pleasure and information, written texts are also an important means of presenting new vocabulary in context. It is not simply a question of testing learners' receptive knowledge but, as Gairns and Redman (1986) stress, 'a question of devising activities to activate and reinforce useful lexis from a text'.

When analysing the very process of teaching reading, it is important to single out the following 3 groups of activities:

- pre- reading activities;
- while reading activities;
- post reading activities.

7.3 Pre-reading Activities

A characteristic feature of good readers that has been noted in the literature on reading is that they are able to make predictions about the text they are reading while they are reading it. (Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981; Goodman, 1967; Hochberg, 1970; Weaver 1980).

As we read, our eyes do not sweep in a steady movement across the print. Rather, we move our eyes in jumps called `eye fixation movements`. We scan a line, fixate at a point to permit eye focus. We pick up graphic cues and make a guess - a prediction - about what appears on the printed page. While the guess is partly based on graphic cues, it is also subject to our knowledge about the language and what we have read up to that point. If the guess makes semantic and syntactic sense, we continue to read. If it does not - especially if it does not make semantic sense - we recheck and make an amended guess.

Although it is recognised that `good readers` constantly make predictions about what they are reading while they are reading, and that these predictions are based on semantic, syntactic and punctuation cues, the same behaviour is not easily accessible for EFL (English as Foreign Language) readers, especially in the beginning stages of reading.

Concerning reading of foreign language texts, Bertin (1988) makes a distinction between local and global strategies. Local strategies are primarily based on the identification of letters, the meaning of words in the lexicon and grammatical structures. On the other hand, global strategies involve the identification of discursive schemata, textual situations and the referential field of the texts, as well as word recognition, and are mainly based on conceptual knowledge .

As far as the transition from reading in the mother tongue to reading in a foreign language is concerned, Bertin (1988: 532) states that ` readers have a tendency to neglect these global strategies when reading a foreign language text because of their linguistic deficiencies`. He suggests that the implementation of global strategies be encouraged by means of various exercises focusing on `pre-semantisation` (activating scenarios), entry into the text (assimilation of information in a limited period of time, for example), prediction, selection of information (by constantly turning back to the text) and summarising before starting to read (reorganising the text, guessing what happens next, etc.).

More recently, an article by G. J. Westhoff (1991) also highlighted the importance of helping students to learn how to get the information they need or want from a written text. He describes reading as a process of negotiating meaning by means as a constant interaction between the information provided by the words (data driven or bottom-up process) and previous knowledge about the subject (conceptually driven or top-down process).

Considering the problem of teaching reading documents written in the target language, the European Commission (Studies, 1997:63) refer to

P. Raymond (1988) and stress that reading should be viewed as a means to an end, that tasks should be presented which encourage different reading styles and which cover a variety of texts. The text must be dealt with thoroughly, must be scanned for information, must furnish a full understanding and must be read critically.

Another author referred to by the European Commission (1997: 64) is J. H. Hulstijn. A study carried out by Hulstijn (1993) on the recognition of unfamiliar words in foreign language texts, highlights **the influence of the particular task, and of readers' personal character traits, on the approach taken.**

Hulstijn reaches the conclusion that, `Perhaps, in the FL classroom we should show our students some prudent ways of trying to comprehend the meaning of a text, but leave them considerable freedom in choosing whether they want to try to infer the meaning of an unfamiliar word before deciding whether to look up its meaning or to look up the word right away, or even to ignore the word altogether` (1993: 146).

The above quoted views of EFLT experts on the problem prove to the fact that **foreign language learners should be duly supported and helped in the process of developing their own reading strategies.**

Learners may be prepared for reading the particular text in various ways depending on the type of the text and the level of the learners. We take upon ourselves the courage to remark that such approach to any text should be cultivated also when reading in L1. More than often we meet adults who have difficulties in extracting the necessary information from the text and as a result they develop negative attitude towards reading in general if the reading offers more than mere entertainment and the so called `reflective reading` should be applied .

If duly prepared, the learners will adapt the reflective approach to reading starting with the headings and sub-headings, trying to recall all the information they already possess on the particular subject, event or period of time presented in the heading.

The materials of the Council of Europe contain 13 pre-reading activities which can be applied taking into account the reader's aim and experience as well as his / her language knowledge:
(i)   Learners are encouraged to form certain expectations about the text based on

clues from accompanying picture or photographs, the text type, layout, headings and sub-headings.

(ii)   Necessary or helpful background information is provided or recalled, e.g. What do you know about...? Do you remember ...?

(iii)   A shortened and / or simplified version of the text is provided.

(iv)   Learners reorder a list of jumbled sentences or join up split sentences which contain the main points from the text.

(v)   A broadly-similar type of text which introduces key vocabulary and expressions is studied beforehand.

(vi)   A listening text on the same topic is presented, e.g. news item from the radio or television is played before reading about the same event in a newspaper article.

(vii)   Learners first read a similar text in their mother tongue, e.g. a newspaper story about a recent event and then read about the same event in an article from a newspaper in the target language. The two versions are compared: attitude of the journalist, facts, opinions.

(viii)   A diagrammatic representation which summarises the text, is studied and discussed.

(ix)   Learners study a few general questions on the text which activate what they already know about the subject and suggest the kind of new information which might be presented in the text.

(x)   Learners are given the theme of the text. In a brainstorming activity, they try to anticipate some of the main points and offer their own ideas in a pre-reading discussion. A few general questions may be supplied to guide the discussion.

(xi)   A number of statements are made about the theme. Learners are asked to say whether they agree or disagree with them and to give their reasons. When reading the text, they check to see whether or not the writer shares their views.

(xii)   Key words are supplied and learners try to guess what the text might be about. Several themes could be offered in a multiple-choice question. Activities may be introduced which help them to remember the words, for example classifying them and justifying their choice of categories. They could use the words to create their own versions of the text or simply try to put them in the order in which they will appear in the text.

(xiii)   Learners write a story inspired by a photograph or headline in a newspaper or magazine. They compare their stories with the one in the newspaper or magazine.` (Sheils 1993: 82)

All the suggested pre-reading activities are undeniably very valuable, however the teacher has to decide which particular activities could be appropriate for the particular group or individual learner. Another problem the teacher has to solve is to decide whether the chosen pre-reading activities are appropriate for that particular text.

Thus if the learners are young adults or adults studying the target language at the tertiary level and the text chosen for reading is a newspaper article the most appropriate activities would be :

- to reflect on the heading;
- to discuss the problem disclosed (or disguised) by the heading;
- to listen to a radio news item on the same problem (Kramiņa, 1995);
- to read a similar text in their mother tongue or in their Foreign Language 1, if English is their 2nd or 3rd language . Thus students will be encouraged to perform contrastive studies of similar texts in different languages.

If the same group of learners are going to read a poem, e.g. `Fame` by Emily Dickinson, then prior to reading the teacher might wish to encourage the students to discuss concepts such as:
- figurative language;
- metaphorical expression;
- symbolism;
- abstract nouns;
- literary theme . (Malkoc & Montalvan `Bright Ideas`, 1998)

The above presented examples serve as examples for the possibly chosen texts and their variety. The texts may even be different for each learner because as we have already clarified that though enrolled in the same programme students might have different goals in language acquisition. Thus the teacher may ask his /her students to choose a text according to their own individual needs and wants and as a result of this assignment the teacher might be confronted with twelve different texts reflecting different spheres of live, science or culture. In this situation the teacher should ask each of the students to prepare pre-reading (or pre-listening, if the texts are going to be presented orally) activities for their colleagues.

7.4 While-reading Activities

While reading activities are supposed to guide learners and lend purpose to their reading. The European Council Materials suggest the following while-reading activities:

- deducing meaning;
- questioning;
- recognising;
- matching;
- ordering;
- following instructions;
- comparing;

- note-taking;
- completing;
- decision making / problem solving (Sheils, 1993 : 92)

7.4.1 Deducing meaning

Learners should be encouraged to draw on a range of strategies which enable them to understand the gist of a text and to keep on reading even where there are words or phrases which they do not understand at first. Sheils (1993) suggests that it may be helpful if learners occasionally note the strategies they use (or exteriorise them by thinking out loud while a partner takes notes) so that they can later examine and evaluate them.

The learners might be encouraged to find some analogy between the text they are reading and the one they have read before or another one they have read in a different language.
The learners might also be asked to concentrate on word formation or etymology of certain words.
The teacher might also ask the learners to reflect on their previous knowledge concerning both the contents and the linguistic form of the text.

7.4.2 Questioning.

The most popular question types found in course books are multiple-choice, true/false and wh- questions (e.g. who, what, when, where, why).
Multiple choice questions may be used both to guide learners in understanding a text and to test comprehension. The questions may provide a clue which helps learners to understand (to infer the meaning of a word) where two out of three options are easily discounted or they may focus their attention on an idea in the text which they might not have noticed otherwise. In the case of questions where two or more answers are possible, learners are obliged to think about the possibilities and could be asked to discuss and justify their choice.

Multiple choice questions may on what was actually said in the text or require learners to think about the text, i.e. to `read between the lines` for what is implied rather than stated or make deductions from the text. They may be concerned with a single word, an expression, a sentence, a paragraph or the whole text.

The multiple- choice question can be about	Function of multiple-choice question	Aim of multiple choice question	Type of multiple-choice question
a word	to help understand	to test the comprehension	
a sentence	a fact or piece of information the text	to explain or help understand a difficult word or passage	varying the number of possible answers
a paragraph	an implied fact	to lead the student to go back to the text and scan it carefully	only one answer is correct
the whole text	some meaning or interpretation that must be deduced from the text or to help the student to evaluate the text himself/herself	to help the student think about the text and mentally discuss several interpretations of possibilities	N.B. Whatever the type of multiple-choice question chosen, it must be clearly explained to the students

(Source: Grelle, F. 1981. Developing Reading Skills, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press)

True/ false questions

As well as providing a useful quick check on comprehension, true/false questions can also help learners to reflect on the text in the same way as multiple-choice questions except that the choice is more restricted. They take the form of statements which learners identify either as right or wrong. Learners can be asked to correct a false statement or to quote from the text to substantiate correct statements. It is also possible to include some statements which cannot be confirmed from the text. this technique is more suited to fairly general questions which focus on points of detail.

Wh- questions

These may simply deal with facts in the text or they may open-ended and ask the readers opinion and allow the learners to offer their own interpretation of the text. (e.g. What would you have said or done if you were ...? How would you act if ....?) Open-ended questions of this kind can be particularly useful in a brainstorming session where all learners views are accepted and noted without a comment. This type of questioning facilitates not only individual interpretation of the text but also encourages learner-learner interaction as they explain and justify their interpretation to one another.

7.4.3 Encouraging learners to devise questions for one another

Although reading is an individual activity, it can readily be adapted to the interactive nature of the communicative classroom. As well as pre-reading discussion and follow-up activities such as role play, writing assignments, etc. learners can be encouraged to ask one another questions on the text rather than simply responding to questions asked by the teacher or set by the course book writer. As they cannot be expected to ask meaningful questions without some training, the following procedure may be helpful at upper intermediate / advanced levels.

The `reciprocal questioning` technique aims at training learners to be independent comprehenders by eliciting predicting and questioning skills.

Sheils (1993) suggests that the procedure is suitable for narrative material, especially where the story has a surprise ending.
The following procedure has been borrowed from Cooper (1986) and suggested by Sheils (1993) as an example.

Procedure:
- ask learners to make predictions from the title of the story
- write all the predictions on the board. For example in a story called `Flowers` possible responses might be: taking flowers to a sick friend, picking flowers, a family named Flowers, having a garden.
- explain to learners that they are going to read only one sentence or paragraph at a time, that they can ask any questions they wish about that or preceding parts of the text, and that they will then be asked questions
- a sentence or paragraph (in case of a longer text) is revealed and time is allowed for silent independent reading
- learners ask the teacher questions, then the teacher asks the learners. The teacher models good questioning techniques and may ask any of five types of questions, using the acronym FIVE.

F -   factual questions, i.e. those that are directly answered in the story, e.g. `What was the girl's name?`
I -   inference questions, i.e. those where the learners have to think about the story or make a guess if they are making predictions about a section not yet read, e.g. `Why do you think the boys were afraid to go to the cemetery?`
V -   vocabulary questions, i.e. those which reveal knowledge or lack of it about the words in the story, e.g. `What does the word `cemetery` mean?`
E -   experience questions, i.e. those that help learners draw on their own background with the subject, e.g. `Have you ever had a sick friend?`

- the teacher provides honest feedback to learners' questions, e.g. if a learner asks

an inference question, the teacher models the process of thinking of many possible answers (including the one he/she knows to be the right, having already read the story)

- the reciprocal questioning is continued line by line or paragraph by paragraph, revising previous predictions and adding others where appropriate, until the main plot of the story is revealed. Learners then read the rest of the text silently. A surprise ending can lead to amusement and discussion, as well as a realisation that wrong predictions are not bad predictions.
- when learners have finished reading, there is a final revision of the predictions listed on the board.

Referring to the above quoted questioning procedure suggested by Cooper (1986) it is necessary to warn the teachers once again and ask them to remember that any procedure and any technique is good while it is relevant to the aims, needs and wants of our learners and applicable for the text we are reading.

A business letter can also be considered to possess the features of a narrative material and very often such a letter might have a surprise ending. Nevertheless, when working with a group of adults reading a business letter in order to obtain the necessary information for writing a draft of a contract, it would doubtfully be appropriate to ask `What is the name of the author of the letter? ` or `Why do you think he sent this letter only today?`
In the situation when the learners are independent or we would like them to become autonomous, techniques and procedures suggested by Morgan and Rinvolucri (1983) might turn out to be more relevant.

Morgan and Rinvolucri (1983) suggest giving learners a lengthy list of comprehension questions of mixed value and invite them to cross out any they don't like or consider irrelevant in the given situation. Each learner works alone `taking revenge` on boring comprehension questions. When they have crossed out all the questions they want to, they work in pairs, asking their partners the questions they have kept as valid and relevant. Morgan and Rinvolucri suggest that learners who have retained a lot of questions should be paired with those who have crossed out most of the questions.

7.4.4 Questions to guide learners

To provide guidance to learners, questions relevant to the type of each particular text can be suggested. Compiling readers for students who are

less experienced learners of English and study this language as their 2nd and 3rd foreign language we have included sets of questions for each type of text offered in the reader.

Advertisements

Thus before reading advertisements students are acquainted with the main characteristics of this type of writing:

An advertisement is a piece of writing, often combined with a picture, which is used to convince the reader to do something such as buy a product, give money to a charity, join an organisation or vote for a political candidate.

The following questions are suggested to guide the students' reading process:

- What is the advertisement trying to convince the reader to do?
- Where in the advertisement is this stated?
- Where would you expect to encounter this advertisement?
- What reasons does the advertisement give to convince the reader?
- Does it give evidence and statistics?
- Does it give only positive reasons or does it mention some negative reasons?
- Does it make any promises?
- Does it use humour, exaggeration, fantasy, patriotism, appeal to the reader's conscience, fear?
- Does the advertisement include a picture or pictures?
- What is the purpose of the picture or pictures?
- What group of people is the advertisement trying to convince?
- Do you find the advertisement convincing?

Newspaper Articles

Before reading a newspaper article the students are acquainted with the main features of an article.

A newspaper article is a kind of article, which usually reports on a recent event in detail.

The students are supposed to consider the following questions in order to form their opinion about a concrete newspaper article:

- What newspaper was the source of this article?
- What is the main topic of the article?
- Is it stated in the title?
- In which sentence in the article is it stated?
- Do you know anything about this topic?

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- In what kind of magazine or book would you expect to find an article like this?
- Is the article divided into paragraphs?
- What is the topic of each paragraph? (Into what subtopics is the main topic divided?
- In which sentence is it stated?
- What are the details relevant to each subtopic?
- Are the details in a special order according to time or place or importance?
- Could the details have been put in a different order?

Short Stories

When the chosen text is a sort story the students should be acquainted with the main features of a short story.

A short story is a type of fictional writing, which deals with one or two main characters in a single situation and always includes some kind of conflict.

The following or similar questions might be offered as guidance to the students:
- What is the story about?
- Does the title tell you what the story is about?
- Who are the main characters? Who is the main character?
- What can you find out about them / him / her from the story?
- Do the characters seem real to you?
- Who tells the story: a main character, a minor character or someone outside the story?
- How many scenes does the story have?
- Where do the scenes start and end?
- Do the main characters appear in every scene?
- Where does each scene take place?
- What is the conflict in the story?
- In which scenes does the conflict occur?
- Does the conflict occur between (among) the main characters?
- Does the conflict occur between the main characters and the world around them?
- Does the conflict occur within the main character?
- How does the conflict end?
- Is the conflict realistic?
- Have you ever experienced a similar conflict?
- Do the main characters change because of the conflict?

- Can you find any evidence of the change in the story?
- What is the role of dialogues in the story?
- What impression did the story leave on you? (Did it frighten you, make you laugh, bore you, surprise you?)
- Could you possibly use any of the acquired experience for your own benefit?

As the students read the text they are encouraged to use the list of questions choosing the relevant ones (depending on their personal aim and liking) and omitting those that would not render them any help in the reading process. Thus students may gradually develop their own strategies of `reflective reading`.

Poetry
Another type of text demanding a specific approach is poetry.
A poem expresses the poet's feelings about an experience or idea, using special forms and special language.
The following questions might help an inexperienced reader to cope with reading poetry:
- What is the topic of the poem?
- Is the topic expressed in the title?
- What words and phrases are included in the title?
- Does the poem tell a story? If so, what is the story?
- What experience is conveyed in the poem?
- What words and phrases tell you something about this experience?
- Have you ever had a similar experience?
- What feelings does the poem express?
- What words and phrases in the poem express feelings?
- Does the poem use concrete images to express feelings?
- Have you ever had similar feelings?
- When reading aloud, do you notice anything special abut the language of the poem?
- Do some of the words rhyme?
- Does one sound reiterate? Is it a vowel or a consonant that is significantly repeated? (Alliteration, assonance)
- Is the word order surprising in any way?
- Does the poem start and end with the same words, phrases or sentences? (Frame composition.)
- Why is the special language used? What effect does it have on you?
- What is the main idea of the poem?
- Did you enjoy reading the poem (silently, aloud)?

- Did you find anything new in the poem? What?
- Was it worth reading? Why?

After reading the offered list of questions the students might be encouraged to add their own questions to the list or to substitute some irrelevant questions with other more appropriate ones.

7.4.5 Recognising the purpose of the text.

Pre-reading activities aimed at singling out the purpose of the text encourage learners :
- to identify each text type and state where they think these texts originated from and to whom they were addressed, using clues from layout, typescript, visuals;
- to read the texts very carefully to identify the function of each text;
- to recognise specific functions within the text;
- to recognise the cohesive devices of the particular text (During this activity the learners may be asked to : underline link words, relate reference words and the words they refer to, identify the tone of the article.

Matching activities

Matching activities help learners to see the structure of the text by means of:
- matching statements of the main actions with the corresponding paragraphs (The activity focuses learners' attention on the main points in each paragraph);
- matching letters and responses (if the text contains such elements).

Ordering activities envisage:
- ordering a jumbled text:

- the students first reorder a jumbled summary of a story. This prepares them for the next task of reordering the paragraphs which give a fuller account of the events. They then suggest a title for the story variations.
- the story is supplied in the correct order. Learners first read the story and the reorder the jumbled summary.
- each sentence in the summary is put on a separate card. The cards are distributed at random, one per learner. They memorise their lines, call them out and reconstruct the story in the correct order.

- separating and ordering two stories jumbled together:
- learners are required to pay attention to reference words (as in the example presented below):

The students are invited to read the following jumbled sentences which constitute two different short stories.
After having read the sentences the students are asked to write the relevant sentence numbers in logical order under each of the two headings.

1. `Well,` said the farmer, scratching his chin, `I'll tell you what we do.`
2. `Why do I have to use my elbow and my foot ?` asked his friend.
3. A man inviting his friend to his home explained to him where he lived.
4. The man went back to his car with a puzzled look on his face and said to his wife, `I think he must be crazy.`
5. `Come to the third floor,` he said, `and where you see the letter E on the door, push the button with your elbow and when the door opens put your foot against it.`
6. `We eat what we can and what we can't eat we can.`
7. A curious tourist, after passing a huge field of carrots alongside the road stopped and asked the farmer what he did with his large crop.
8. `He said they ate what they could and what they couldn't they could.`
9. `Well,` exclaimed the man, `You're not going to come empty-handed, are you?`

(Source: Frank, C., et. al. Challenge to Think, Oxford University Press)

THE FARMER	THE INVITATION
....	....
....	....

Later on the students may be invited to tell the stories:
- reordering with the aid of questions:

-       the sentences are in jumbled order, except for the first one,
-       the learners match the sentences to the questions to reassemble the text (they have been familiarised with the topic in a pre-reading activity).

`Following instructions` is another activity to be used while reading.
The learners may be asked to trace a route or mark places on a map.
This activity requires learners to show that they understand the key information. They study the page from the tourist guide and mark the direction of the suggested sight-seeing route with arrows.

Comparing two similar texts requires learners to analyse the purpose of each text and the attitude of the writer. This activity focuses attention on the main information and encourages note taking or highlighting so that ideas or information in each text can be compared. Learners may be guided by a chart to be completed or by specific questions which highlight similarities and differences in the two texts.

Note-taking can be expressed in the form of transferring information to a table or chart. The activity focuses learners' attention on the way the text is organised. It directs them to the main information.

Completing a gapped text. This activity provides practice in deducing meaning from context. Some nonsense words may be used instead of gaps. Learners may be asked to prepare close texts for one another, removing every fifth or seventh word and inventing their own nonsense words.

Decision-making / problem-solving activities encourage learners to study a text in order to make a decision or solve a problem. The reading text serves as a stimulus for discussion.

7.5 Post -Reading Activities

Learners react in a personal way to the text, relating to their own opinions, feelings and experience in activities which may involve discussion and the creation of new texts. Reading texts also lend themselves to further exploitation for grammar and vocabulary practice.

Post-reading activities enable the learners:

- to express their views on the subject of the text and relate it to their own experience and to that of their classmates;

- to discuss and justify their different interpretation of a text;

- to create new texts, e.g. change a narrative into a drama, role play an interview with a character in the text or with the writer, create a similar text modelled on the one just read, undertake a project on the theme of the text, illustrate a story or their feelings about a text , etc.

- to recreate the text , e.g. reconstruct it from key words, write a summary;

- exploit the text for grammar and vocabulary learning, e.g. rewrite in a different tense, find verbs to correspond to selected adjectives or nouns, find synonyms and antonyms for words, etc.

7.6 Principles and theories concerning reading skills development

According to Papalia (1972: 105) reading is a problem-solving behaviour, and it involves derivation of meaning and assigning meaning. The reader decodes print semantically (identifying the meaning of each individual word) and syntactically (recognising the meaningful structural relationships within the sentence), and recodes the information for storage in short- or long term memory.

However, developing the reading skills entails more than imparting knowledge of vocabulary and syntax. Reading comprehension involves not only recognition of the vocabulary and a general understanding of basic sentences and idioms but also perception of what is being communicated, which also infers understanding that which is not written (reading between the lines); the latter is usually conveyed through style and syntax.

Although a student can learn to read a foreign language at more advanced levels independently of the teacher, it is not probable that he will do so. Reading with direct comprehension and with fluency is a skill which must be learned in progressive stages and practised regularly with carefully graded materials.

Summary

Reading in the foreign language is doubtlessly an excellent means of developing linguistic as well as cultural skills, although learners must develop strategies which best fit the task and make it accessible to them. In fact, it is important to provide learners with specific linguistic knowledge and help them fill the inevitable gaps by turning to global strategies in dealing with written texts.

Although the discussion presented here does not include all of the work done on teaching EFL learners to read, it has included the basic areas of reading instruction that are generally considered when teaching students to read in a foreign language. Viewing reading as decoding, prediction and schemata building offers different areas of emphasis, each with its own specifics. We have also viewed reading as a multifaceted process with various processes going on simultaneously.

All the various approaches analysed offer a part of the picture, but it is the teachers' challenge to see that each learner gets what is needed in order to build up all of the skills that make up reading.

8. WRITING SKILLS

8.1 Methodological Theories concerning the Concept `Skill of Writing`

Current descriptions of language by linguists with an interest in its social functions stress that while in speaking the primary emphasis is on building of relationships, in writing the emphasis is on recording things, on completing tasks, or on developing ideas and arguments.

Although the written and spoken texts have certain things in common - a person who wants something done and uses language to get it done - the types of language that the speaker and the writer use are different because the social activities are also different. In the written text the distant, formal tone is appropriate for the type of conventional exchange. The writer has never met and will probably never meet the person who processes their request. The communication is one-way and consists to a large extent of neutral formulae.

Within the communicative framework of language teaching, the skill of writing enjoys special status.

`It is via writing that a person can communicate a variety of messages to a close or distant, known or unknown reader or readers. `
(Olshtain, 1991: 235)

The impulse to write can be as urgent as the need to converse with someone sitting across the table or to respond to a provocative comment in a classroom discussion. Sometimes we want readers to know what we know; we want to share something new. Sometimes we want to influence our readers' decisions action, or beliefs. We may even want to irritate or outrage readers. Or we may want to amuse or flatter them. Writing allows us to overcome our isolation and to communicate in all of these ways.

For a variety of practical reasons, it is through the mastery of writing that the individual comes to be fully effective in intellectual organisation, not only in the management of everyday affairs, but also in the expression of ideas and arguments. `The mere  fact that something is written conveys its own message, for example, of permanence and authority. Certain people write and certain things get written` (Stubbs, 1987: 21). It is for such reasons that writing comes to be associated with status and power. By writing you can have control not only of information but of people.

Such communication is extremely important in the modern world, whether the interaction takes place takes form of traditional paper-and-pencil writing or the most advanced electronic mail.

Writing makes a special contribution to the way people think. When we write we compose meanings. We put together facts and ideas and make something new. We create an intricate web of meaning in which sentences have special relationships to each other.

`Some sentences are general and some specific; some expand a point and some qualify it; some define and others illustrate. These sentences, moreover, are connected in a still larger set of relationships, with every sentence related in some way to every other. By controlling these complex relationships, writers forge new meanings.` (Axelrod & Cooper, 1988: 2)

Writing also contributes uniquely to the way we learn. When we take notes during lectures or as we read, writing enables us to sort out the information and to highlight what is important. Taking notes helps us to remember what we are learning and yields a written record that we can review later. Outlining and summarising new information provides an overview of the subject and also fosters close analysis of it.

Annotating while we read by underlining and making marginal comments involves us in conversation - even debate - with the author. Thus, writing makes us more effective learners and critical thinkers.

But writing makes another important contribution to learning. Because it is always a composing of new meaning, writing helps us to find and establish our own networks of information and ideas. It allows us to bring together and connect new and old ideas. Writing enables us to clarify and deepen our understanding of new concept and to find ways to relate it to other ideas within a discipline. Thus, writing tests, clarifies, and extends understanding.

Writing does still more: it contributes to personal development. As we write we become more potent thinkers and active learners and we come eventually to a better understanding of ourselves through the recording, clarifying and organising of our personal experiences and our innermost thoughts.

Analysing writing as a process White (1991) considers that `writing is far from being a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols: it

is a thinking process in its own right. It demands conscious intellectual effort, which usually has to be sustained over a considerable period of time.` Further more, White (1991) points out that, precisely, because cognitive skills are involved, proficiency in language does not, of itself, make writing easier:

`People writing in their native language, though they may have a more extensive stock of language resources to call upon, frequently confront exactly the same kinds of writing problems as people  writing in a foreign or second language.` (White, 1991: 3)

Writing as a skill has been widely discussed in ELT methodology theories. Thus, Tribble (1996) compares speaking with writing and draws the following conclusions:

`An ability to speak well - fluently, persuasively, appropriately - is something that most of us would hope to achieve in our first language. It is also an objective for many learners of a foreign language, especially those who wish to do business internationally, or to study or travel in English speaking countries. An ability to write appropriately and effectively is, however, something which evades many of us, in our mother tongues or in any other languages we may wish to learn, and this in spite of the years which are frequently devoted to the development of the skill.` (Tribble, 1996: 3)

Writing process, in comparison to spoken interaction, imposes greater demands on the text, since written interaction lacks immediate feedback as a guide. The writer, unlike the speaker, must first decide who the audience or intended reader will be and then must write for that audience without being able to watch the reader's face or hear the reader's questions. But at least two differences favour writing.

The first advantage of writing is the time and care the writer can take. One cannot, in the middle of a debate, run to the library to look up a fact. In the middle of writing it is possible. When speaking the orator cannot take five minutes to polish a sentence until it sounds just right. When writing one often can.

The second advantage of writing is that the writer can let writing sit. Words spoken in haste or anger cannot be taken back. Wise writers can wait a day or two before mailing or submitting an impulsively written text. Thus, writers have some advantages speakers do not have.

Besides that, writing is also an opportunity: to express something about oneself, to explore and explain ideas, to assess the claims of other people.

To make good use of the opportunities, one need develop the confidence to overcome the frustrations of writing.

The above mentioned theoretical considerations on writing confirm the importance of the need to develop writing skills of the students venturing foreign language studies at the tertiary level.

8.2 Teaching Writing at the Tertiary Level and the Baltic States Advanced Writing Project

With the opening up of political, economic and cultural contacts with the rest of the world during the current decade, the need for communication in written English has also developed. Although there is a long tradition of teaching writing in the University System of the three Baltic States - Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania - new needs have brought about a realisation that the teaching of writing at tertiary level needs to be reviewed and brought in line with these changing needs. In particular, the writing curriculum at tertiary level could benefit from the insights and practices which have evolved in the teaching of writing during the past twenty years in the USA, the UK, Canada and Australia.

Having identified a need for change, lecturers in the tertiary institutions in the three Baltic States have collaborated in developing a new approach to writing. Supported by a grant from the British Council, since 1995 staff from all three countries have visited the Centre for Applied Language studies at the University of Reading, England, where they have worked with Ron White and Clare Furneax and their colleagues. Two writing conferences have also been held in Estonia and Lithuania at which speakers from within and from outside the region have contributed to an exchange of views and the development of thinking. In addition, writing project meetings have been held to co-ordinate and encourage the development of a new writing curriculum. The practical results of the research were presented in the conference materials (see Tallinn, 1997).

Since the procedures have been tried out by teachers in the region, they should have widespread applicability, and they should provide the basis for continuing curriculum renewal in the teaching of writing throughout tertiary institutions in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania.

Adapting Hymes' framework for the analysis of speech events (Hymes 1962), we can say that writing is part of a communicative act which involves:

1. Setting: the institutional site in which the communication takes place, e.g. educational, administrative, commercial, social.

2. Participants: the roles being performed by the parties involved, such as inquirer, informant, student, teacher, customer, supplier, supplicant, mentor/adviser, and so on.

3. Ends: the outcomes which are desired or intended, e.g., requesting information, persuading or convincing, reporting events, complaining, apologising, and so on.

4. Act sequences: the activities involved in participating in the event. In the case of writing, this could be interpreting the task, assembling the content, generating and focusing ideas, developing a thesis, drafting and structuring the text, evaluating the draft, reviewing what had been written.

5. Key: the tone or style: emotional, neutral, engaged, distant.

6. Instrumentalities: the code - in writing, typically Standard English, although it may also involve visual or iconic means, such as diagrams, tables.

7. Norms: what should be done by the participants in observing such principles as
   - quality (truthfulness, sincerity),
   - quantity (providing neither more nor less information than is necessary for the purposes concerned,
   - relevance (keeping to the point),
   - manner (being clear, avoiding obscurity).

8. Genre: what kind of speech/writing event is it? Academic lecture, academic essay, research article, dissertation or thesis, semester assignment, letter of application, letter of complaint, letter of apology, etc.,etc.

The Baltic States Advanced Writing Project (see Pre-Proceedings) is aimed at helping students gain confidence in their ability to communicate in writing within those genres found within and beyond the academy. It provides teaching materials and suggests ways of implementing an

approach to writing which combines a concern with process (how to write) with product (what is written).

8.3 Approaches to Writing

Writing can be regarded as technology, that is, set of culturally transmitted practices, which are socially contextualised, and are used for a wide range of purposes, including getting things done (an instrumental purpose), maintaining or building social relationships (an interactive purpose), or developing the individual's creative powers (an imaginative purpose) Academic writing is simply one valued set of practices.

Although humankind has used the technology of writing for centuries, popular literacy, using writing for secular (as compared with religious) purposes, other than its use in government, dates from the late 18th century, primarily in England, France and the USA. From above the mid 18th to the mid 19th centuries, common literacy was acquired outside the school, but from the mid 19th century on, with the beginnings of compulsory education, schooled literacy began to become the norm. In the current century, with the belief in scientific progress and the growth of mass industrialisation and high technology, writing is now emphasised in school and in professional employment.

The 18 to 19th centuries witnessed the publication of school rhetorics, which were rudimentary guides to usage and etiquette. In the late 19th century, the first Freshman Composition courses were initiated at Harvard University, laying the foundation for instruction in freshman composition which in American has become a routine part of undergraduate education. No similar trend evolved in Europe, however.

Since the middle of the current century, the so-called `Current traditional` approach to writing has prevailed, characterised by
• an emphasis on handbooks
• the use of model texts
• theme writing in various modes of discourse.
During the past twenty years, largely as a result of the impact of research in psychology and applied linguistics, together with educational applications, the current traditional approach has been challenged by two new approaches:
• process
• genre.

The former, based on psychological research into the way people write, has emphasised the individually creative character of writing as a complex and dynamic process, while the latter, evolving out of discourse and text analysis, focuses on the contextualised use of writing to achieve outcomes. while the process approach promotes a view of writing as composing, the genre approach draws attention to the importance of analysis in developing an understanding of the expectations that are held by participants in a communicative event. The two approaches complement each other and both have been drawn on in the teaching procedures included in the Academic Writing curricula for the Baltic universities.

8.3.1 Process Approach to Writing

Essentially, we see a process-approach as an enabling approach. In this, we have been influenced by the work of many other researchers and teachers, amongst them Ron White (1991), Peter Elbow (1973), Donald Graves (1983), Linda Flower and John Hayes (1981), Vivien Zamel (1982), Ann Raimes (1985), and Carl Bereiter and Marlene Scardamalia (1987), to mention just a few. As we see it, the goal of this approach is to nurture the skills with which writers work out their own solutions to the problems they set themselves, with which they shape their raw material into a coherent message, and with which they work towards an acceptable and appropriate form for expressing it.

Such an approach views all writing - even the most mundane and routine - as creative:

`The writer, and the writer alone, is responsible for the text which eventually evolves from the raw material, no matter whether that material is generated almost entirely from the writer's imagination (as in, say, writing a short story), or whether, at the other extreme it is provided almost entirely from external sources (as in, for instance, writing a report).` (White, 1991: 5)

What is important for us as teachers of writing is to engage our students in that creative process; to excite them about how their texts are coming into being; to give them insights into how they operate as they create their work; to alter their concepts of what writing involves. What we have to get across is the notion that:

`...writing is re-writing; that re-vision- seeing with new eyes has a central role to play in the act of creating a text, and is not merely a boring error-checking exercise; and above all that evaluation is not just the province of the teacher alone at the final stage of the process, but that it is equally the concern and responsibility of the writer at every stage.` (White, 1991: 5)

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What we do not intend to imply by advocating such an approach, however, is a repudiation of all interest in the product (i.e. the final draft). On the contrary, the main aim is to arrive at the best product possible.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) suggest that recent research supports the following:

1. Written language is distinct from oral language along a number of textual dimensions, and the construction of written language must be studied according to its own structural and rhetoric emphases. (in other words, writing isn't just speech written down).

2. Texts have hierarchical structure, most likely constituted as a set of logical relations among assertions, or as elements in a discourse matrix, or as cohesive harmony. (that is ideas are organised and inter-connected interdependently, and in ways which make logical interdependence and priority clear).

3. Different types of texts will have varying larger structuring because of requirements of purpose, audience, status, author, and information load. (The layering of structure is most obviously indicated by the use of headings and sub-headings, which should reflect and signal the hierarchy of a text.)

4. Texts have top level structure which appears to vary with different text types, purposes, and audiences.

5. A discernible top-level of text structure is related to better comprehension, recall, and coherence assessment. (Well organised texts, with a clear structure, are easier to read and understand.)

6. Systems for analysing text structure can be related to better comprehension, recall, and coherence assessment. (Readers who have ways of analysing text structure will be more effective readers.)

7. Systems for analysing text structure can be used for research even if each system in current use has particular strengths and weaknesses. (Even imperfect analytical systems have their value.)

8. A theory of coherence is important to any model of text construction. (Analysing and producing logical text is helped by having a set of principles to work from.)

9. Any theory of coherence must incorporate an analysis if information structure - given-new, topic-comment, etc.

10. The surface form of texts plays a more important role in text construction than previously predicted.

11. Learning to write requires the manipulation of many complex structural and rhetorical dimensions, with greater complexity occurring in expository argumentative writing.

As to the process approach, it helps students develop in ways which are appropriate to and fulfilling for their level of language proficiency. However, neither teachers nor students should expect sudden miracles to occur, such that elementary students suddenly become intermediate level writers as a result of the activities they have engaged in.

Disorder, imprecision, recursiveness, complexity, individual variation - this is the very stuff of process oriented approach to writing. The more we find out about what writers actually do when they write, the more comprehensive a specification of writing skills we shall be able to develop, and in turn, a more flexible and adaptable range of teaching techniques. This is especially important in the context of foreign language teaching, where writing has often tended to be used as a vehicle for little more than either language learning or for the display of linguistic proficiency. The teachers' goal is to present writing as a stimulating process centred upon the `matching of matter and manner such that it becomes `the ferry` between the writer and the reader.` (White, 1991: 6)

The process approach to writing has freed instruction from:
• the three- or five-paragraph model;
• simplistic assumptions about the organisation and ordering of information;
• the typical one-draft writing assignment;
• the assumption that each student should be working alone , or only with the instructor on summative feedback;
• reliance on grammar usage handbooks and lectures;
• the linear composing model based on outlining, writing, and editing;
• imposed, artificial topics for writing.

In place of these previous practices the process approach encourages:
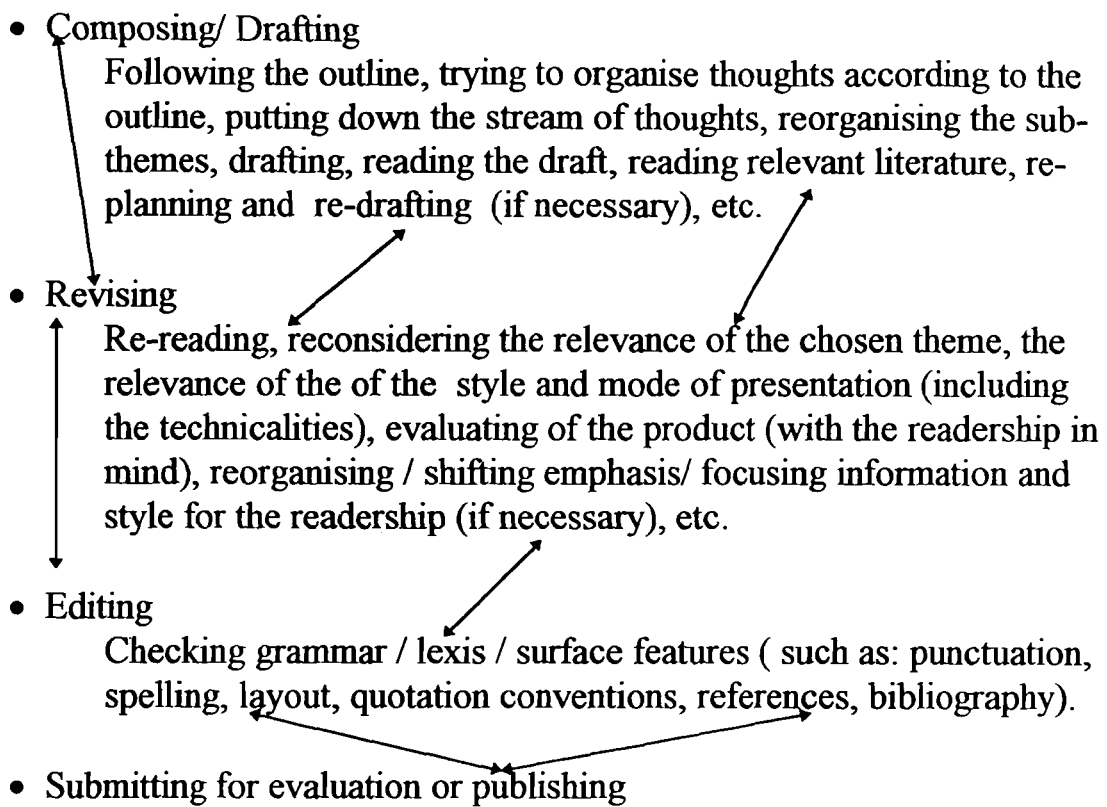1. self-discovery and authorial `voice`;

2. meaningful writing on topics of importance (or at least of interest) to the writer;

3. the need to plan out writing as a goal-oriented, contextualised activity;

4. invention of pre-writing tasks, and multiple drafting with feed-back between drafts;

5. a variety of feed-back options from real audiences, whether from peers, small groups, and /or the teacher, through conferencing, or through other formative evaluation;

6. free writing and journal writing can be used as alternative means of generating writing and developing written expression, overcoming writer's block;

7. content information and personal expression as more important than final product grammar and usage; the idea that writing is multiply recursive rather than linear as a process - tasks are repeated alternatively as often as necessary;

8. students' awareness of the writing process and of notions such as audience, voice, plans, etc.

Contrary to what many text books advise, writers do not follow a neat sequence of planning, organising, writing and then revising.

`For while a writer's product - the finished essay, story or novel - is presented in lines, the process that produces it is not linear at all. Instead it is recursive ...`
(Raimes 1985 : 229)

Thus, **the writing process can be depicted as follows:**

- Planning the writing
    Finding or choosing the theme, reading relevant literature on the theme, discussing the theme with peers (if appropriate), getting used to the theme, trying to think of relevant sub-themes, etc.

- Pre-writing
    Collecting data, brainstorming, trying to concentrate on `key words` or `key notions`, getting in grips with some specific terminology relevant to the theme, outlining etc.

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- Composing/ Drafting

  Following the outline, trying to organise thoughts according to the outline, putting down the stream of thoughts, reorganising the sub-themes, drafting, reading the draft, reading relevant literature, re-planning and re-drafting (if necessary), etc.

- Revising

  Re-reading, reconsidering the relevance of the chosen theme, the relevance of the of the style and mode of presentation (including the technicalities), evaluating of the product (with the readership in mind), reorganising / shifting emphasis/ focusing information and style for the readership (if necessary), etc.

- Editing

  Checking grammar / lexis / surface features (such as: punctuation, spelling, layout, quotation conventions, references, bibliography).

- Submitting for evaluation or publishing

Problems of the process approach.

As Tribble (1996) duly points out, one problem for teachers who want to use some form of process approach to writing is how to strike a balance between hat they feel is important for the development of their students as writers, and the potentially contradictory influence of the teaching materials they often have to work with.

`For example, a focus on the individual creativity of the writer is in many ways opposed to the behaviourist models implicit in audio-lingual methodology, or even to the Presentation, practice, Production (PPP) model found in many examples of teaching materials. These paradigms (based on teacher-led approaches to language teaching) were primarily developed to help learners of the spoken language, and emphasise pattern practice, drilling and teaching of specific linguistic forms. This has been carried over into much material for the teaching of writing, and can create obstacles for teachers who want to shift the focus of their writing classes.` (Tribble, 1996: 41)

Another difficulty of process approach, according to Tribble (1996), is how to assess whether a process approach is applicable in all settings where writing is taught.

As to the first problem, we have tried to avoid it by means of the Baltic States Advanced Writing project. The second difficulty might be overcome

by means of integrating the two approaches : process writing and genre approach.

8.3.2 The Genre Approach to Writing

As teachers, we have to find ways of helping our students to decide on their priorities and then agree on what the focus of a learning programme will be. In the context of teaching writing, this involves not only questions `Why?` and ` How?` (These are the key questions in process approach to writing.) Teaching writing also involves the question `What?`

Many adult learners come to the foreign-language classroom with fully developed competences as writers in their first language.
It may be precisely the conventions and constraints needed when writing for a new and unfamiliar readership that the competent adult writer in an foreign-language writing programme is most concerned with. Such students need to know about **the genre** in which they wish to write. What is more, they usually need rapid access to such knowledge.

Approaches to writing which focus on the reader emphasise the constraints of form and content that have to be recognised when a writer attempts to match a text to a social purpose, and have come to be associated with the notion `genre`.

Genre is a complex notion. There are various definitions of genre. John Swales (1990) begins an extended definition thus:

`A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes.` (Swales 1990: 58)

Swales' definition of genre is a synthesis of contemporary interpretations of the term (see especially Halliday 1989; Kress 1989; Martin 1989) and has contributed to more recent developments in the field of genre studies (see Bhatia 1993). It provides us with a way of looking at language in use which differs in many respects from that inherent in process approaches, but which can complement them.

Defining genre Swales introduces two key terms apart from genre itself:

- communicative event;
- communicative purpose.

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A communicative event comprises 'not only the discourse and the environment of its production and reception, including its historical and cultural associations' (Swales 1990: 46)

In other words, the communicative event involves the participants as well as the role of the discourse together with the circumstances of its production and reception, including its historical, cultural and social associations. Thus, a piece of writing is placed in a broad context.

The term 'communicative purpose' has been used by Jim Martin (Martin 1989) when describing some of the core genres that schoolchildren need to be aware of as they become writers. Martin discusses various categories of writing done in school, e.g., report (impersonal account of facts), description (personal account of imagined or factual events and phenomena) etc.

According to Swales , '... a genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre.' (Swales, 1990: 58)

Thus, communicative purpose involves the role of writing as a way of affecting or influencing participants. Such purpose will be both individual and social. The communicative purposes are shared by members of the discourse community, and expert members of that community have a role of defining the characteristics of a given genre.

However as Chris Tribble points out,

' ...a genre is not a rigid set of rules for text formation. It is a social practice, not simply the text, which makes the genre possible, and social practices are open to challenge and change.' (Tribble, 1996: 51)

To illustrate this definition Chris Tribble compares the language and definitions presented in COBUILD dictionary with those of Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary:
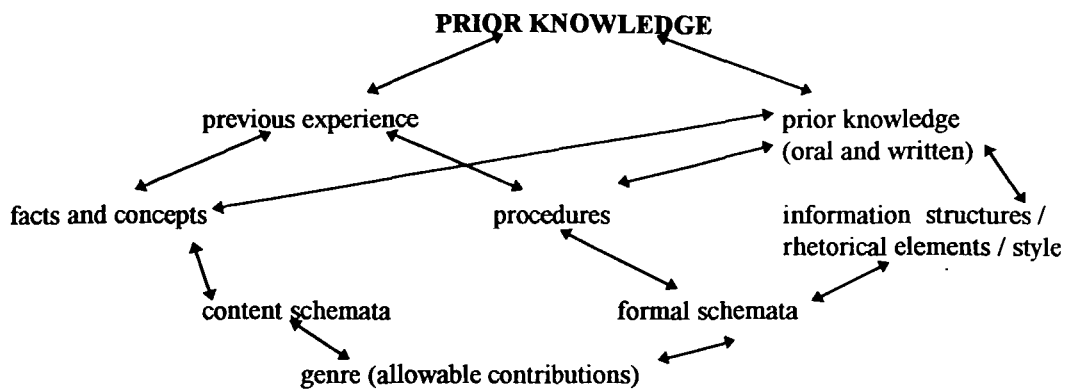
' The Cobuild dictionary has been widely acclaimed for its 'ordinary language' definitions, and for the way in which it is designed to make information easily accessible to readers. This accounts for the difference between COBUILD's more informal defining style and the more traditional style of the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary' (Tribble, 1996: 51)

This is important as it demonstrates how a genre is not a rigid set of rules for text formation and is reliable to challenge and change. In the case of the genre 'Learner's dictionary' expert members of the community have reinterpreted a tradition and decided to challenge some of its fundamental premises and practices. As a result, the genre itself has changed. Such genre changes happen all the time, and are a major reason why genre approaches to writing should lead away from prescription. The concept of genre is dynamic, not static.

The student and teacher need to be aware of the fluidity of social practices and the texts which make these practices possible. This is evident also in academic writing in which members of the discourse communities of various disciplines in both science and the humanities are encouraging grater accountability on the part of researchers and writers, with the result that there is a move away from the anonymous or hidden author, obscured behind agentless passives, to the appearance of the researcher / author revealed through the use of 'we' as agent in active sentences.

Genres have a schematic structure, and participants draw on this structure for composing and interpreting. Swales (1990) distinguishes between content schemata and formal schemata, the former relating to the organisation of facts and concepts, the latter to the organisation of information and rhetorical elements. Such schemata are the product of prior knowledge and experience of the world and of texts and he represents this in the following diagram.

PRIOR KNOWLEDGE

previous experience

prior knowledge
(oral and written)

facts and concepts

procedures

information structures /
rhetorical elements / style

content schemata

formal schemata

genre (allowable contributions)

Schematic Structure from Swales (1990 : 84)

8.4. Writers: Knowledge and Roles

8.4.1 Types of knowledge that writers need

Speaking about the range of knowledge that a writer requires when undertaking a specific task , Tribble (1996: 43) outlines four types of knowledge needed by writers:

• Content knowledge	Knowledge of the concepts involved in the subject area;
• Context knowledge	Knowledge of the context in which the text will be read;
• Language system knowledge	Knowledge of those aspects of the language system necessary for the completion of the task;
• Writing process knowledge	Knowledge of the most appropriate way of preparing for a specific writing task.

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) expand this list to include seven types of knowledge:

1. Knowledge of rhetorical patterns of arrangement and the relative frequency of various patterns, e.g. exposition / argument; classification, definition, etc.);

2. Knowledge of composing conventions and strategies needed to generate text, (e.g. pre-writing, data collection, revision, etc.);
3. Knowledge of the morphosyntax of the target language, particularly as it applies at the intersentential level;
4. Knowledge of the coherence-creating mechanisms of the target language;
5. Knowledge of the written conventions of the target language in the sense both of frequency and distribution of types and text appearance (e.g. letter, essay, report);
6. Knowledge of the subject to be discussed, including both `what everyone knows` in the target culture and specialist knowledge.

The role of the writing course is to help develop these kinds of knowledge, though not all types of knowledge need be the responsibility of the writing teacher. It is arguable that it is not the job of the writing teacher to provide content knowledge, this being instead the responsibility of the subject teacher. Thus, if one is teaching English to students of economics, it is not the EAP (English for Academic Purposes) writer's role to provide a knowledge of economics.

The writing teacher is well placed to help develop the other kinds of knowledge, however, and to help develop an approach, an attitude, a set of categories and a terminology for doing so.

8.4.2 Roles that writers perform

As communicators, writers perform three roles:

ROLE	FUNCTION OF EACH ROLE
Author	producer of the ideas that are being expressed and the words in which they are encoded
Principal	person who takes responsibility for those words; who is accountable for what is written, and is committed to what the words say
Animator	person who produces the text for reading

These roles involve different skills. Writers need to be able to perform all three roles, although it is the role of principal which may require most in academic writing at university. This means that writing tasks should be ones that require and encourage students to be accountable for the claims

that they make by giving evidence and support, and by acknowledging that there is more than one position in an argument or debate. Furthermore, students need to learn how to hedge their claims by indicating the degree of probability or certainty, or the level of confidence they have in making a claim. Learning to perform the role of principal with confidence will involve analysing texts to discover this is done in allowable contributions made by other writers.

8.4.3 Skills writers need to develop

There is a range of skills which writers need to develop. Briefly these are:
- Generating ideas
- Focusing
- Re-viewing
- Analysing
- Structuring
- Drafting
- Evaluating

8.5 Written Communication: Structure and Style

8.5.1 Efficiency

Grabe and Kaplan (op. cit., 41) suggest there are a number of principles which influence the structure of written communication:

1. Gricean maxims - the need to be informative, factually correct, relevant, and clear; and the systematically interpretable violations of these maxims.

2. Conventions for conveying status, situations, intent and attitude.

3. Mechanisms for indicating newness of information, rate of information flow, and probability of information.

4. Predictability of cognitive structures which anticipate larger patterns of organisation: schemata, scripts, frames, goals, etc.

Gricean Maxims can be adapted to writing, as follows:

Quality   Do not write what you believe to be false or for what you lack evidence

Quantity	Write neither more nor less than is necessary for the purpose concerned
Relation	Be relevant
Manner	Be clear, unambiguous, straightforward

It is both the honouring and the flouting or suspending of these maxims that are important in writing. Writers can unintentionally ignore or violate these maxims, thus giving the false impression that they are not sincere or truthful, are deceitful, or unclear or obscure. Writers can and do flout or ignore these maxims with good purpose, however, and it is important that they develop an awareness of when and to what extent such violation of the maxims are appropriate and effective.

8.5.2 Politeness

The maxims can be - and are - flouted or ignored in the interest of politeness. Politeness involves two considerations:

Deference	showing respect for the reader's status and / or freedom of action
Solidarity	showing friendliness, co-operativeness.

The exercise of politeness will be influenced by:

Power	the degree to which writer and reader can influence each other's behaviour;
Distance	the degree to which writer and reader are socially close;

Degree of Imposition the amount of intrusion on freedom or the amount of effort involved by the other party.

Through the use of politeness strategies such as indirectness, hedging, avoidance or, in some cases, being direct or `bald on record`, writers can avoid or redress infringements of politeness or establish, maintain or change a relationship by, for instance, making it more distant.

The balance between efficiency and relationships, between truthfulness and avoidance of the truth will depend on the value placed on the exercise or avoidance of displays of power, solidarity and distance, the `cost` of a

future action, the obligations of people to fulfil such actions, and so on. Other factors include the degree to which it is necessary or desirable to make shared knowledge or assumptions explicit and the value placed on harmony and avoidance of conflict. In writing such cultural differences will be realised through the way in which directness / indirectness is expressed, the organisation of ideas, the amount of detail provided, and the use of inductive versus deductive information structure. Even academic writers need to be aware of and make appropriate use of such differences, being constantly aware of how they position themselves in relation to their readers.

Because they are one half of the communication chain, writers need to be aware of how to position themselves in this relationship in order to increase the likelihood of success of their written communication.

8.6 Specific Types of Academic Writing

Grabe and Kaplan have proposed a taxonomy of writing, in which they list the following types of academic writing:

1. Explanations: giving a reason or reasons why a judgement has been made

2. Exposition: a complex sequence of multiple explanations involving:
    - describing;
    - defining;
    - exemplifying;
    - classifying;
    - comparing and contrasting;
    - indicating cause and effect;
    - stating a problem and proposing a solution;
    - analysing and synthesising ideas from multiple sources.

3. Argument :   arguments on why a thesis has been proposed, involving:
    - logical stances;
    - ethical appeal;
    - emotional appeal;
    - empirical stance;
    - appeal to authority;
    - counter-arguments.

The above mentioned components of writing may be and are embodied in a range of text types, such as those which are common in higher education in the Baltic States, namely:

- summary
- lecture notes
- CV/ resume
- course reports
- essays
- term and annual papers
- qualification paper
- BA (bachelor) paper (dissertation)
- Master's level dissertation

8.7 The Role of the Teacher in Teaching / Learning Advanced Academic Writing

According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 254) in planning a writing curriculum, the teacher must at various times be

- a motivator
- a designer of meaningful tasks
- an interpreter of the task
- an organiser
- a resource
- a support person
- an evaluator
- a reader for information.

We would like to add some more roles that turned out to be of paramount importance when teaching Advanced Academic writing in English to students of the Baltic States universities majoring in English:

- a language consultant
- an adviser in research
- a colleague in a research team
- an opponent in (professional or research debates)
- a helpmate when piloting the research results.

Teachers need to show a positive attitude, believing that students are capable of doing the work in the curriculum; and when students are found to be struggling with specific assignments, teachers need flexibility to adapt these assignments to ensure reasonable opportunities for success. Teachers need to provide students with a wide range of opportunities for writing,

opportunities which are interesting for students and which serve important developmental goals. Teachers need, also, to develop among students a sense of community and sharing so that writing can become a collaborative and co-operative endeavour.

Grabe and Kaplan suggest the following points to guide the teacher of writing:

1. Writing takes time to develop, therefore instruction should be adequately planned;
2. Students need to be made aware of the role of language form as the medium of meaningful communication, as well as the types of language constraints which are reflected in different genres and purposes for writing.
3. Writing development requires extensive practice..
4. Writing can sometimes be difficult and frustrating, and students need positive feedback and enough success to maintain a willingness to work.
5. Students will occasionally vary in their performance and should be made aware that this variation will occur.
6. Students should be encouraged, at times. to take risks, to innovate, and to rethink assignments in more complex ways.

8.8 An Idealised Writing Curriculum

An idealised writing curriculum, according to Grabe and Kaplan (1996 : 261), would combine emphases from the writing product, the process, the social context, and the subject-matter content (Raimes 1991):

1. The course should be content-driven and present topical issues and writing tasks which motivate and engage students, while at the same time being challenging and providing opportunities for learning. Students should work within a coherent content-based conceptual framework and would explore the complexity of thematic issues, leading to more challenging writing tasks, the learning of new content, and knowledge specialisation as opposed to writing what the teacher already knows.

2. The course would see writing as an apprenticeship training in which teachers:

- act as knowledgeable experts who can model effective writing practices;
- raise student awareness of relevant strategies;
- engage students in problem-solving planning;

- help students sort through formal linguistic choices;
- guide the development of the strategies and skills which will let students perform similarly without teacher support;
- develop activities which allow the gradual transfer of these skills to other (related) contexts.

3. The course would engage students in the writing processes, recognising that writing is a recursive process in which writers continually plan, write, revise, and refine; thus, the course would use multiple drafting, student selection of tasks, many opportunities for feedback, and reaction writing and free writing for the exploration of ideas and issues related to the writing tasks. Students would learn how to generate plans through invention and `topics`, how to write fluently, how to draft without expecting a final text, how to revise - develop the inner reader, and how to elaborate and refine.

4. The course would incorporate co-operative learning activities and peer feedback, for exploration of ideas, for interaction which will enhance writing strategies and skills, and for opportunities to improve learning as the student recognises alternative interpretations of information and of the writing tasks themselves.

5. The course would require the integration of language skills. Students would read extensively; would spend much time writing about their readings and relating the reading to the writing tasks; would discuss the readings and their writing; would write more based on their discussions and the discussions would lead to additional readings, which would, in turn, lead to more writing, etc.

6. The course would attend to formal constraints of the language which serve to signal writing purpose, the roe of genre for reader expectation, and the flow of discourse information.

7. The course would provide careful consideration of the audience, as well as the influence of the social context, on the writing task. Students would be made aware, through the teacher composing aloud and through misunderstandings by other readers, how audience considerations must be given careful attention, whether they be seen in terms of Gricean maxims, power and politeness relations or register parameter considerations.

8. The course would provide ways to introduce early writing activities and encourage experimentation without harsh evaluation, promoting a sense of play.

9. Writers should practise a range of writing tasks and learn to work with a variety of genres and rhetorical issues. Students would also write extensively.

10. The course would offer a variety of options for feedback, some of which would be evaluative; other feedback would be non-evaluative.

The course elaborated according to the parameters mentioned and analysed above is part of the process of implementing change in the teaching of advanced writing in universities in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. The various parts of the advanced writing course can be used for multiple purposes working with students whose academic and professional needs and wants are different. For instance, summaries, lecture notes, abstracts can be practised by all students (majoring in humanities or science). However, not all students would be equally interested in business correspondence or in writing term, annual, Bachelor or Master's level dissertations in English.

8.9 Samples of Academic Writing Activities and Genres Included in the Advanced Writing Curriculum

8.9.1 Taking Notes

8.9.1.1 Aims and methods of note-taking

When a reader wants seriously to get to grips with the ideas in a text and `make them his /her own` there is no alternative to written notes. One of the reasons why students take notes is that they do not always want to be hunting for books and articles they once read in order to see what they have underlined. Besides, making notes also forces students to pay even closer attention to the ideas in the text than when they underline, because the students have to decide both what to write down and how to say it. Marking and underlining the text is only the initial stage in this process.

Whether the notes are particularly good or not, the very act of writing them forces the student to make sense of what you read. Although note-making is hard work and quite time consuming, the writer is making an investment

which adds a lot of value to the effort and time the person is already putting into reading.

Note-taking is distinguished from summarising, the latter involving the production of a complete, digest version of the source text. Although note-taking is a process used in summarising, it can be independent of the latter.

The aim of teaching note-taking is to develop skills in taking notes from a range of written materials:

- Non fiction articles and books which students have to read for their Term papers, Bachelor's or /and Master's dissertations;
- Fiction works to be read for literature courses;
- Fiction, non-fiction and reference sources which students use for their essays.

Note-taking involves:

> - identifying a text as relevant for the purpose concerned;
> - identifying the author's thesis (the main point that the author is making);
> - identifying main ideas;
> - distinguishing main ideas from examples or illustrations;
> - following the line of development of ideas through a text;
> - recognising relationships: chronological, logical (as in cause effect);
> - recognising the packaging of ideas (inductive - from specific to general; deductive - from general to specific);
> - distinguishing fact from opinion (i.e. claims based on evidence *versus* claims based on subjective belief);
> - using the above in notes which reflect the structure and content of the original.

Notes should

- be informative enough to be useful to the user (who may not be the person who write the notes);
- not too detailed so as to lose the point in irrelevant information;
- contain accurate bibliographic information so that the original can be retrieved if necessary. (Bibliographic information consists of: AUTHOR, DATE , TITLE OF WORK, PLACE, PUBLISHER, PAGE NUMBERS)

As notes frequently serve personal needs, students may use common abbreviations and symbols, or they may even devise their own.

The notes may be written as sentences or set out in a diagram. There are many different ways of making notes. What works best for the user of the notes depends on:

- the way the authors mind works
- the kind of text it is
- what the author wants to use the notes for
- the time the author thinks reasonable to `invest`

Different formats may be used to suit the needs of students. Various features of layout will be helpful in organising notes:

* Arranging information in **blocks** following the subdivisions of the original text, leaving space between separate sections for the notes.

* Blocks contain exact quotations.

* Dividing note paper into two columns, one 1/3rd the width of the paper (left hand side), the other 2/3rd. In the left hand column, student writes questions, headings, titles and subtitles, while in the right hand column, student writes answers provided by close reading of the text.

If students take notes of research papers, they are advised to look for signals that indicate the relevant subdivisions of the text:

Introduction	The purpose of this study is ...
	This investigation concerned with ...
Methods	The sample consisted of ...
	Subjects completed a questionnaire ...
	Applicants completed a multiple-step selection process.

When students have finished making notes, they should put aside the source text and, using their notes, attempt to reconstruct the text in their own words. The success of such notes can be judged by how well they facilitate such a reconstruction.

8.9.1.2 Samples of tasks, recommended for note-taking skills development

According to Chambers and Northedge note-taking is not a single skill that you acquire once, for all times and occasions. It is a range of different activities: from jotting down a few points on an index card through to a detailed account of an argument - depending on the writer's purposes. But the common characteristic is that `you are writing for yourself rather than to an audience, so you don't have to worry about explaining yourself.`
(Chambers & Northedge, 1997: 59.)

We share Chambers and Northedge's opinion that
`Making notes is more `strategy` than skill. Being good at it involves reading texts in an active way - thinking. It requires you to be flexible, sometimes making detailed notes and at other times very sketchy ones.`
(ibid.: 59)

Task 1

1)   Read the text for a general idea of what the writer intends to communicate.
2)   Read the text again and select ideas that are important in relation to what you have identified as being the general idea.
3)   Note these ideas in your own words, but do not try to paraphrase specialised vocabulary and technical terms.
4)   Arrange ideas together in blocks of information.
5)   Note bibliographic information.
6)   Take care with quoted material, using quotation marks and noting page numbers.

Task 2

1)   Scan the text for the main idea using title and key words as clues.
2)   Read the text again, focusing on clues that will suggest questions about the content of the subdivisions of the text. Use chapter or section titles and headings as well as sub-headings.
3)   Write questions on the left hand side of your note paper, leaning 2/3 of the page for answers.
4)   Read the text and look for answers to your questions.
5)   write the answers in your own words in the right hand column.
6)   Leave space to mark blocks of information.

Task 3

1) Read the text quickly for the general idea, using main titles and opening and closing paragraphs as a source.
2) Read the text again, identifying information relevant to the general idea.
3) Put quotations from the text on the left hand side of your note paper and your responses to the author's ideas (evaluation, comments, questions) on the right hand side.
4) Take care with the bibliographic information.

Task 4

In this assignment students are supposed to take notes of the reading materials for their writing assignment, following a` pro-` and `con-` `organisation.

1) Decide on your own thesis or hypothesis first before reading the work of others. You can do this by loop writing, as follows (from White and Arndt, 1991: 47)

a) Write as quickly as possible on your topic for up to 10 lines. Don't stop writing. Don't stop to cross out or correct mistakes. If you can't think of a word or phrase either write in your L1 or leave a blank or write `something`.

b) At the end of this `loop`, summarise what you have written in one sentence.

c) Use that sentence to begin a new `loop`.

d) Each successive loop (don't do more than four or five) will help to reveal the idea which is most significant, while each successive summary sentence will draw upon the ideas developed in previous loops.

e) The final summary sentence should be the thesis or main proposition which is then to be developed further through reading and writing.

f) If there are still some blanks of words in L1 when you have finished writing, using a dictionary or a thesaurus add or translate the   words   or phrases concerned.

2) Having developed your thesis, take notes on cards or slips of paper.
3) Put only one note on each card or paper slip.
4) Sort you cards or slips into three piles under the headings:
   Pro   **Con**   **In-between.**
5) Be sure to include the bibliographic details with each citation or phrase of your source texts.

Ellie Chambers and Andrew Northedge single out the following key points in note-taking:

- `Notes should not be a shorthand copy of the original text. They should be an attempt to lay bare the `bones` of the text - especially those parts of it that are particularly relevant to your studies.
- Good notes reflect your own thinking. You need to reorganise the main ideas in a text and set them out in a way that makes sense to you. (Chambers and Northedge, 1997: 55)

Summing up the importance of note-taking Chambers and Northedge (1997 : 60) single out the main functions of note-taking:

a) focusing your attention;
b) `making sense`;
c) a form of `external` memory;
d) a symbol of progress;
e) preparing an essay;
f) pulling the course together

Having stressed all the positive points about note-taking, it is important to add that it is not a panacea. One can do too much of it and end up making studies tedious.

The pleasure of exploring new and interesting areas of reading is one of the main attractions of studying.

If note-taking undermines that pleasure it is counter-productive. It can make studying more satisfying, when it helps the student sort out the meaning of what s/he is reading and when it creates a tangible `product` from his / her labours.

Students may have developed their own style of note taking which, even if not ultra-economical, serves their purposes adequately.

8.9.1.3 Making Mind Maps from Reading

Some people find that making linear notes from reading does not always work very well for them and they prefer to create a mind map as a more visual presentation. This helps them remember what they have read because they can visualise the different notes that they have made and the ways that they relate to one another.

Using a mind-map the learner writes down the central fact or idea in the middle of the page and connects it to other facts or ideas, represented concisely by using 'key words'. A 'key word' is one that is sufficient for the learner to remember information. If detailed information is needed, this technique may be inadequate. However, for the purposes of practising putting ideas into different words and avoiding plagiarism, its use is highly recommended.

Creme, P. and Lea, M. R. (1997) have studied their students' opinions on making mind maps. Below, we have quoted a description of mind mapping presented by a student:

'Mind maps need a clear frame, but on the other hand doing a mind map often generates one. I use them for brainstorming and for essay plans. I tend to take linear notes from books and articles and then synthesise the ideas in a mind map for my essay plan.' (Creme & Lea, 1997 : 64)

Having introduced the above described innovations in our Academic Writing syllabus, in 1996 we carried out interviews and spread questionnaires to 435 students at the University of Latvia. The students were asked to express their opinions on different newly acquired genres of academic writing. Here are some students' points of view concerning making and using mind maps:

- 'I give presentations from my mind maps and some times hand them out, which people like. They're more visually exciting than linear notes.'

- ' I revise using mind maps. It's so enjoyable to create them; I like to be able to see all the links and everything relevant on one page'

- 'I use mind mapping for brainstorming in workshops, or generating ideas or making decisions.'

- 'But I still love to write linearly and in acceptable prose - but mind mapping helps me in that process too.'

- ' I use mind maps to remember or decide what I've got to do that day.'

Summing up the students' opinions we dare to presume that 'Mind-mapping' can be suggested as a useful exercise for EFL learners at this stage in their studies - it can help not only to avoid plagiarism but also to practise expressing ideas in English with a minimum of information.

The learner has to weigh up carefully when to make notes, what kind of notes, and in what detail.

8.9.2 Writing Summaries

8.9.2.1 Definition of a `Summary``

Both the note-taking (previous section) and summarising work are intended to help protect students from the temptation of plagiarising. In their main course of studies, be it humanities or science, students will almost certainly need to summarise information in writing. They may be required to do this as part of a course or it may prove to be a valuable skill when assimilating information for further use. Summarising will often be the next step after note-taking in integrating material from sources the students have read into their own academic writing. Summarising is also an excellent way of ascertaining whether one has understood and can remember the material he/she has been reading.

A summary is a short written or spoken account of something which gives the important points but not the details (Collins COBUILD Dictionary, 1993: 1465).

As a result of summary writing practice in advanced writing course students will:

1. identify different types and uses of summary

2. use key words and sentences in a source text to identify the main points

3. rewrite these points in the form of a summary of their own

4. compare summaries with peers

5. summarise each others' summaries in one sentence

6. use modified texts to identify section and paragraph boundaries and to match headings with sections

According to Trzeciak and Mackay (1994) `... in summary you should not include your own opinions or extra information on the topic which is not in the text you have read. You are summarising only the writer's information.` (Trzeciak and Mackay, 1994: 27)

8.9.2.2 Classroom activities for introducing summary writing

The following classroom activities can be practised when teaching summary writing at tertiary level:

Pre-writing activities
1. Ask students to define the term summary and to say how it differs from notes.
2. Ask the students to list as many different uses of summaries as they can.
3. Ask students when they write summaries and notes.
4. Issue an example of a short summary (no more than 250 words).
5. Ask students to summarise the example in one sentence.
6. Ask the students to compare their sentences, and discuss why students wrote what they did.
7. Issue a source text of around 600 words. The text should consist of several paragraphs, and should have a clear three part structure: introduction, development, conclusion, and clear paragraph structure.
8. Ask students to highlight
    • the first sentence of each paragraph
    • the concluding sentence
9. Ask students to use these sentences only to write a one sentence summary of the text.
10. Compare and discuss the result.
11. Have the students use the underlined sentences and their one sentence summary to write a summary which is around one quarter to one third the length of the original.
12. Remind the students that they are to focus only on the main points, not the details.
13. When they have written their summaries ask students to exchange them with a partner, and then to evaluate their partner's work using these questions:
    • Does the summary read smoothly? If not, why not? What should be done to make it read smoothly? (e.g. join sentences)
    • Does the summary give more information than is needed? Or insufficient? Or just enough? If too much, what is it, and why is it too much? If it isn't enough, what is missing?

It should be noted that key words are important in summarising. These are words which will not be changed when students are writing a summary `in their own words`.

Follow up activities:

1. Issue 2 different source texts - A and B - of the same length.

2. Students are to write one summary only.

3. Students are asked to exchange their summaries and write one sentence summary of their partner's summary.

4. Students are encouraged to compare one sentence summaries with their own, and discuss. If their partner's one sentence summary doesn't match their own, why not? Is it because their summary isn't clear? Does their summary include distracting details? Has their summary given the wrong emphasis to the information (which means that their reader has focused on the wrong slant when writing their one sentence summary)?

5. Using the discussion and feedback the students are invited to improve their one sentence summary and the complete summary.

When a complete text is provided, the students' task will be to summarise the text as given, but using such techniques as highlighting or underlining the first sentence of each paragraph as the basis for the summary. When given a complete text, such as an academic paper the procedure is as follows:

1. Read the title: What are the key words? What does the title tell you about the content of the text and the purpose of the writer?

2. Read the first and the final paragraphs. What do these tell you about the content of the text and the purpose of the writer?

3. Read and highlight the first sentence of each paragraph. Identify key words and the sequence of ideas.

4. Read through the following as a continuous text:
  * the opening paragraph
  * the first sentence of each paragraph
  * the final paragraph.

5. Summarise what you have read in one sentence.

6. Write a summary which is roughly one third the length of the

paragraphs and sentences that you have just read.

7. If necessary, read the rest of the text when writing the summary.

8. List three key words which indicate the main topic area of the text. The text may also be presented in modified form (with sections obliterated, headings removed, paragraph boundaries obliterated). In such case the students' task is to rectify the omission or change by such activities as:

- identifying section boundaries and saying how they managed to identify them
- matching given section headings with sections
- writing section headings to match sections
- identifying paragraph boundaries and saying how they managed to identify them
- composing opening or closing sentences to paragraphs
- writing a concluding paragraph which sums up the text.

Students can work in various combinations when doing these activities: pairs, small groups, whole class.

Students can work:

- on the same text
- on different texts

If they work on different texts, they can evaluate each others summaries as readers. To do this, students, with help from the teacher, can develop a check list of questions to evaluate a summary:

1. Does the summary give me enough information to make sense without reading the original text?

2. If it does not, what additional information is needed?

3. Does the summary give me too much information so that I can't distinguish the important from the unimportant points?

4. Does the summary read smoothly? Are the sentences well constructed, is there linkage from one sentence to another?

5. Are relationships between ideas indicated clearly? For instance, if there is a causal relationship, is this signalled clearly by the use of such words as 'because', 'as', 'so'?

Examples of Summaries

Yearly Paper 1

Title: **Evaluation Hearing-Impaired School-Aged Children's Intelligence: A Comparative Study**

Summary

The aim of this yearly paper was to assess hearing-impaired pupils' intelligence, using two sets of performance tests. The influence of hearing-impairment on design abilities was investigated. It was supposed that the scores on IQ of the groups of hearing- impaired and normal-hearing pupils would differ significantly. A comparative analysis of the results indicated the existence of significant differences between the scores of these two groups. The design abilities of normal-hearing children were higher as compared with those of hearing-impaired pupils, although such a comparative study only hypothetically reveals a possible correlation between hearing-impairment and low IQ scores.

Yearly Paper 2

Title: **The Study of the Validity of the Selection System of the 'Youth Line'**

The validity of the selection system for volunteers for work in psychological health services was examined. The telephone service, 'Youth Line', was chosen as research site. A questionnaire consisting of 17 questions was the main research instrument. The scoring criteria were chosen according to those of the principles of emergency telephone services. There were three groups of subjects: volunteers already working in the service, those who had failed to finish the training course, and those who had not been selected. Their answers were compared. The results were not homogeneous, as they showed significant differences in answers to seven questions, and no significant differences in answers to 10 questions. Conclusions were drawn as to the criteria to be considered in the selection system.

8.9.3 Writing Abstracts

8.9.3.1 Definition of an Abstract

Abstracts are a type of summary which provides readers with a brief preview of a paper or dissertation.

After developing the necessary abstract writing skills the students will be able to write an abstract of a source text (including their own research reports) using appropriate format and language conventions.

Typical elements in abstracts are:

- background
- purpose or scope
- method(s)
- results
- conclusion

Language conventions to be observed in abstract writing are as follows:

• Background information	Present Tense
• Purpose and scope	Past Tense or Present Perfect Tense
• Methodology	Past Tense, Passive Voice
• Results	Past Tense
• Conclusions	Present Tense: Modal Verbs (could, may, might) and Adverbs indicating tentativeness (possibility)

8.9.3.2 Procedures for Practising Abstract Writing

Task 1 (Classroom activity)

1. Read the text as for a summary.
2. Note the kinds of information included in each section, and the order in which information is presented.
3. Note language conventions, particularly tense usage

Task 2

1. Read the abstract.
2. Identify the information in each sentence:
    - background
    - purpose and scope
    - methodology
    - results
    - conclusions
3. Write a reduced version, focusing on the results, omitting the background, and summarising the purpose and methodology in one sentence. Conclusions may also be omitted.

Task 3

1. In the library, find a research report in your field.
2. In the abstract, note
    - if all five parts are included
    - what tenses are used in each part.
3. Bring the abstract to class for discussion with the group.

Task 4

For this activity copies of a report which can be shared by all students are needed. The report should not be too long to avoid having to spend too much class time on reading. The report should be complete, and be in sections which match the structure indicated earlier.
    - background
    - purpose and scope methodology
    - results
    - conclusion.

The students are supposed to:

1. read the report;
2. individually indicate what kind of information is contained in each section and paragraph;
3. write an abstract for the report, limiting the abstract to 100 words;
4. discuss the abstract with students in the group;
5. select the best parts of each others' abstracts;
6. combine these abstracts in a single abstract for the group.

Task 5 (Whole class discussion)

Two versions of the abstract are needed:
- the original'
- a version with sentences in scrambled order.

1. The sentences in the abstract provided are not in the correct order.
2. Students analyse each sentence for the type of information it contains.
3. Students reconstruct the sequence which the author probably used in the original.
4. Students compare their versions with the original text.

Task 6 (Home assignment)

1. Write an abstract for your own research report.
2. Follow the principles covered in the unit about abstract writing.
3. select important information and combine it into a concise and clear summary.
4. Use appropriate tenses, tentative and modal verbs and adverbs. Tentative verbs, modal auxiliaries and adverbs are used to indicate how certain you are of your results and conclusions. This is called `hedging`, and is important in academic writing as it is rarely the case that one can be 100% certain of results or of any claims that can be based on them.
5. Limit your abstract to around 200 words.

Self-evaluation Check List
- Does your abstract give enough information about your study?
- Is the abstract brief and concise?
- Are there sentences which could be eliminated without losing important information about your study?
- Did you follow the conventional format?
- Did you use appropriate tenses, tentative verbs and modal auxiliaries?

8.9.4 Writing a Review

8.9.4.1 Definition of a Review

A review is an article which gives a judgement or evaluation of a book, play, television show or a work of art. Such reviews inform an interested public about the qualities of the work reviewed, on the basis of which the

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readership will be able to make decisions about reading a book, attending a performance or visiting an exhibition.

A review of a book, play or film will typically
- say what the work is about (i.e. the theme) (e.g. identity, loss and redemption, forbidden love, conflict of values, and so on);
- say if there is a message (or thesis). This could be summed up in a sentence or slogan, e.g. It is through sacrifice that we achieve redemption;
- state how it relates to work by the same author or director (i.e. it is similar to, as good as, not as good as, better than?);
- summarise the story;
- evaluate the work.

Having finished their work with this unit the students will be able to write:

* a review of a fiction book that they have recently read for private home reading;
* a review of a book or film that they have recently read or seen;
* a review of a book in their major subject area, read for their term, annual or Bachelor paper.

8.9.4.2 The Procedure of Review Writing.

Observing a certain procedure in review writing makes this activity more enjoyable and successful. The procedure below may be used with a novel, film or play.

In class:

1. The students are encouraged to think and discuss who and for what purpose reviews are written so as to I identify their readership.

2. The students are asked to identify the main idea or theme of their book. They will be expected to say what was the subject, the message.

3. The students are encouraged to give evidence from the plot (the events which are the basis of the story) and characters to support their interpretation of the theme.

4. The students are invited to evaluate how effective the work was in developing the theme:

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- Was the work memorable? If so, in what ways?
- Was the relationship of the plot and characters to the theme clear or obscure?

- How does this work compare with other works on the same theme?

- How does this work compare with other works by the same author?

Individual Assignments

Students are given the assignment to write a review of a novel or film, using the points from their discussion and the following framework:

Guiding questions	Description
What?	Answering this question the students are supposed to describe the setting, plot, characters, theme.
How?	The students are supposed to reveal their understanding of the structure, sequence, language, style, etc.
	Evaluation
How well?	The students are supposed to evaluate how well the structure and style serve the message (or theme) of the .
So what?	The students are supposed to reveal the message of the book, play or film. They should estimate if the message has been convincingly supported.

As a result of the activities carried out the students are expected to produce an appropriate piece of written text comprising the relevant information.

8.9.5 Writing Essays

8.9.5.1 Definition of an Essay

An essay can be defined as a short composition on any subject within any field of study (e.g. literary scientific, professional, political economic, educational, historic, cultural, etc.). An essay is complete in itself, consisting of an introduction, body and conclusion. Its purpose is to present, develop and illustrate thesis with appropriate examples and arguments and to draw relevant conclusions.

Coles (1995) considers that
`Essays are intended to be one person's attempt to come to grips with understanding a complex subject and to demonstrate this understanding in writing.` (Coles, 1995 : 5)

In order to realise this attempt the essay-writer needs to explain the issues raised while searching for the most relevant approach to the subject. Consequently the writer is to examine these issues from a number of different angles or in a number of different ways, and then give a reasoned justification of his/her own view of the subject. In order to succeed in his/her attempt the essay-writer cannot limit himself/herself to what s/he already knows or believes. So, we advise our students to get ideas from other people. And many of these ideas inevitably come from books and journals.

On every occasion the students need to remember that each particular essay is **their own** essay. It is **their** attempt to come to grips with understanding a certain subject and to come to some conclusions about the issue (or issues) raised while dealing with the subject.

Therefore, before they begin to write they should become certain about some points, namely:

- what type of essay they are going to write (narrative, descriptive, expository, argumentative, evaluative, reflective, etc.);

- what their line of argument is going to be;

- what views of other authors they are going to use, how and when;

- where their argument is going (because other people's ideas are only relevant in so far as they fit into the essay-writers' line of reasoning).

Similar attitude has been voiced by different authors dealing with academic writing in methodological literature.
Coles (1995) considers that,

`A piece of writing that simply reproduces other people's ideas is not an essay. A piece of writing that appears to be your own argument but is actually made up of a muddled and ill assorted selection of other people's ideas, joined together with a few words of your own, is worse.` (Coles, 1995 : 9)

According to White (1991) ,

`In the essay, writers will introduce what they will discuss, discuss what they have introduced, and summarise and conclude with respect those topics which they have introduced and discussed.`

Creme and Lea (1997) consider that,

`... a traditional academic essay will have an introduction, which sets the scene; a main body, in which you outline and develop your argument; and a conclusion, in which you bring everything together.`

As a result, we may presume that advice about essay writing usually gives instructions as to how to go about and successfully complete this type of writing at university in the way laid out below:

- Introduction: What is this essay going to be about?

- Main body: What are the themes the author is developing to support his/ her argument?

- Conclusion: What are the consequences, the results of the written work?

In our experience most students find it rather acceptable to follow this kind of format and know that they have to start with an introduction, develop their ideas in the main body (or exposition) and then bring everything to a neat and satisfactory conclusion. Although this framework may be useful, we consider that another approach suggested by Creme and Lea deserves students' attention. This is the so called `building blocks` approach, which can give the essay writer a general feel for the structure of the assignment that he/she is writing.

'All the chapters that follow develop the notion that you are creating and building your own structure in your writing as you work through the process of writing a particular assignment. In essence , you are moulding your knowledge - through your writing - to the task, the written assignment.(Creme & Lea, 1997 : 37)

8.9.5.2 Aims and Objectives of Teaching Essay Writing

At university level, the focus is on the following three types of essays:

- expository,
- argumentative,
- reflective.

At the end of the academic writing course, students will be able to write an expository, argumentative, reflective (also a descriptive and narrative) essay of a specified number of words on a specified topic, in which they will have:

- identified readership,
- identified purpose,
- presented a thesis,
- developed, illustrated and supported the thesis with appropriate examples and arguments,
- structured the essay according to the assumed requirements/expectations of the specified readership,
- used vocabulary appropriate to the topic and thesis,
- used such rhetorical devices as parallelism, metaphor, simile, synonymy and metonymy to engage and sustain the reader's attention and interest,
- packaged information according to their purpose and knowledge of their readership,
- used language which is accurate in form,
- exploited appropriately/effectively the potentialities of the written form, e.g. used titles, headings, sub-headings, underlining and other forms of highlighting.

To achieve the above the students will have to

- use such discovery procedures as brainstorming, focusing, outlining, discussion, reviewing and redrafting to identify their thesis;
- experiment with alternative ways of packaging the information, e.g. inductive or deductive;

- consider / evaluate / select different ways of organising the essay: chronological, block / chain;
- extract relevant information from reading sources;
- take relevant adequate notes
- synthesise ideas from more than one source;
- integrate ideas without plagiarism;
- use referencing skills and bibliographic conventions;
- incorporate tables, graphs, etc., within the essay; differentiate between fact and opinion;
- use concrete support in the form of quotation, anecdotes and facts;
- achieve cohesion by using appropriate linking devices.

The students are advised to indicate the following on a cover sheet to their essay:

- Title
- Topic
- Thesis
- Assumed Readership
- Length.

An essay typically consists of three parts:

1) Introduction

a) General statements.	These statements introduce the topic, give background information about the topic, attract the reader's attention.
b) Thesis statement:	states the main idea and may list the sub-divisions and the method of organising the entire essay. It is usually, but not always, the last sentence in the introductory paragraph.

2) Body (Exposition)	The number of paragraphs will vary with the number of sub-divisions of the topic.

a) Topic sentence
   - support or development
b) Concluding sentence

3) <u>Conclusion</u>   Restatement or summary of the main point(s); final comment; possibly a recommendation (depending on the purpose and type of essay).

8.9.5.3 The Procedure of Teaching Essay Writing

8.9.5.3.1 Generating ideas

Since writing is primarily about organising information and communicating meaning, generating ideas is clearly a crucial part of the writing process. White and Arndt (1991) acknowledge that

`Because actually getting started is one of the most difficult and inhibiting steps in writing, idea-generating is particularly important as an initiating process.`(1991 : 17)

Though, idea generation is very important in the initial stage, it continues to take place even in later stages.

Generating ideas involves drawing upon long-term memory which consists of three main kinds of memory store:

- episodic memory, which is devoted to events, experiences and visual and auditory images;
- semantic memory, which is devoted to information, ideas, attitudes and values;
- unconscious memory, which includes emotions and feelings. (ibid. : 17)

In generating ideas, these different types of memory will be tapped according to the writer's purpose and the kind of writing involved.

To assist in generating ideas `guided` and `unguided` techniques may be used. These terms have been used by White (1991 : 18). By guided techniques answers to prompting questions are meant. `Unguided` techniques are those in which writers do not rely on external prompts.

Brainstorming can be an example of unguided procedure.
According to Hennessy (1997 : 51) :

`Brainstorming means experimenting with word and idea associations, particularly making unusual associations, to see what happens.`

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Our practical experience in classes of academic writing has proved that brainstorming is particularly useful at the start of thinking, or planning, or at any point when the writer gets stuck or finds his/her ideas too predictable. Brainstorming techniques liberate the imagination and produce fresh ideas. They can show to the writer that his/her ideas and objective facts can be ordered in interesting innovative ways.

White (1991 : 18) considers that brainstorming can be used to:

- choose a topic;
- identify a reason or purpose for writing;
- find an appropriate form in which to write;
- develop a topic; work out a plot;
- develop the organisation of ideas.

This technique is especially useful when writers are faced with a very broad or general topic. This technique is applicable also in the classroom when the procedure is unfamiliar to the learners. In such cases brainstorming by the teacher would be appropriate. However the teacher should allow no more than 10 minutes for such demonstration otherwise the students might lose their interest if dominated by the teacher.

When demonstrating brainstorming the teacher may write a list of topics on the board giving reasons for the choice. The students should be invited to contribute their own topics. In the same way ideas for each suggested topic may be brainstormed.

Brainstorming can be practised by students working in groups without the teachers interference during the procedure. Finally each group can be asked to nominate at least three ideas from their pool. With large classes it is essential to organise students into smaller sub-groups.

Another important way of generating ideas is the use of questions. Questions are the basis of Socratic dialogue and of problem-solving. That is the reason why they can serve as important prompt for writers.

White (1991 : 22) highly appreciates the skill of asking relevant questions: `Indeed, one of the skills of a good writer is to think of interesting questions to ask because these yield interesting answers.`

This activity is intended to encourage students thinking about their potential readership and the questions to which the readers might want to find answers in the text they produce.

White (ibid.: 25) suggests using given sets of questions alongside with separate questions asked by the writers themselves. The use of the following sets of questions has been suggested by the author:

- cubing (In this variation the topic is looked at from six different angles, like the sides of a cube. Thus the writer is asked to describe, compare, associate, analyse, apply, argue.)
- classical invention (This set of questions asks for : a definition, comparison, relationship, circumstances, testimony)
- the SPRE/R approach (situation, problem response, evaluation/result) , etc.

When the ideas have been generated the next phase sets in - finding the main idea (or ideas) and focusing on it (them).

8.9.5.3.2 Focusing and Drafting

Discovering the main idea (or ideas) may not come easily. More than often the writers can identify the main point only during the drafting process itself. Drafting is one possible means of disclosing to oneself a focal idea and a viewpoint, which as the writing progresses, may turn out to be different from the initial one. A clear focus is essential for an effective piece of writing.

Without focusing
- **the writer** will find it difficult to organise ideas coherently, since there will be no central idea around which to structure them;
- **the reader** will find it difficult to grasp what it is the writer is trying to get across, and may react to the text with a variety of negative responses: boredom, disdain, rejection, frustration and even anger or hostility.

When drafting the following techniques might be used:
- fastwriting (concerned with developing and relating the ideas);
- loopwriting (a recursive process in which the writer produces a stretch of text, summarises it in one sentence, and then uses that sentence to begin a new loop. Each successive loop will help to reveal the idea which is most significant for the writer, and each successive summary sentence

will draw upon the ideas developed in previous loops. This process is carried out until the central thesis has been revealed.

Loopwriting helps students to get into subject and to produce ideas in a relatively uninhibited way. It also familiarises them with drafting as a means of discovering a thesis.

`The content the students develop in the successive loops will subsequently be incorporated into the text in the drafting stage which normally follow loopwriting.` (White, 1991 : 47)

8.9.5.3.3   Transforming Personal Experiences and Establishing a Viewpoint

One of the most common motives in a real life situation is to share personal experiences. Keeping a diary is one way of recording such experiences and reflections upon them, for possible future communication to others. However, not all such information is likely to be of any interest to the intended reader. It has to be evaluated, sorted out and transformed for public consumption.

`Sharing thoughts, feelings and personal reactions to experiences through writing about them entails of being aware of one's purpose in doing so, and evaluating them from the reader's perspective .`(White, 1991: 62)

If communication through writing is to take place, writers need to be able to convey their viewpoint to the reader. The writer's purpose therefore is to enable the reader to see the depicted events and/or ideas from the writer's angle. It does not mean that the reader should agree with the author's point of view. For this purpose the author has to be able to see his/her text through someone else's eyes and predict places in the text where the message might not be clear and where some additional explanations are needed.

When writing students are often unaware of the extent to which they need to spell out for their readership ideas or concepts which are self-explanatory to them. Trying to explain areas of expertise to non-experts, especially in writing, is an effective way of making this point. The students might be asked to work in groups where an expert explains something to the others or the expert might write a letter or memo explaining his /her expertise to the others and give instructions to `novices`. Such pre-writing activities might help the students to make their viewpoint more explicit to their future readers.

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Sometimes also the form is of considerable importance in establishing the viewpoint. Usually readers are inclined to accept the information that has been offered to them in a form and manner acceptable for them.

Therefore, learning to write in a foreign language involves much more than acquiring the linguistic tools of words and structures with which to communicate meaning, essential though these are. The writers should also know how different kinds of texts are conventionally structured and presented in that language. Readers have certain expectations about the likely content, structure, development and even graphic appearance of different types of written texts. These expectations should be known and used by the writers so that they match the readers' expectations in order to facilitate comprehension.

8.9.5.3.4 Assessing the Essay

8.9.5.3.4.1 Four Philosophies on Composition

Very often the students get the impression that the effort put into producing an essay has a very limited return. Their works are not only assessed only by the teacher but , more than often, the teacher is also the only person who reads the text. This traditionally accepted order is neither very authentic nor very productive in helping students develop a sense of good judgement about their writing. In real life situations the order is quite opposite - the writer is usually creating alone but the result of his mental effort is read and appreciated by many people. Some of these people may like the essay some may be indifferent while others may not accept it at all. Thus, when writing only for the teacher alone the students do not experience the authentic result of their activity even worse they are taking the risk to be misinterpreted in the case of modal confusion.

Modal confusion may take place when the assignment is set on the basis of one philosophy but the end product is assessed according to another. In order to realise the importance and seriousness of the problem we consider it necessary to present a brief insight into the existing four theories or philosophies concerning writing. Our thesis is that this four-part perspective helps give a coherent view of what goes on in academic writing classes. All four philosophies exist in practice. They give rise to vastly different ways of judging student writing. Moreover the perspective helps to clarify, though not to resolve, a number of the major controversies in the field.

Abrams (1953) presents a detailed analysis of the four philosophies of composition. According to Abrams (1953), Fulkerson (1989) and Vonder

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Haar (1997), adherents to **formalist theories** judge student work primarily by whether it shows certain internal forms. Fulkerson stresses the point that some teachers judge a paper a failure if it contains one comma splice or five spelling errors. Those are judgements based purely on form. The most common type of formalist value theory is a grammatical one: good writing is ``correct`` writing at the sentence level. But forms other than grammatical can also be the teacher's key values. Fulkerson (1989: 4) speaks of metaphorical formalists, sentence-length formalists, and topic sentence formalists. Emig (1971) writing about the composing process of twelfth graders concludes that

`most of the criteria by which students' school-sponsored writing is evaluated concern the accidents rather than the essences of discourse - that is, spelling, punctuation, penmanship, and length` (Emig, 1971: 93)

Expressionism as a philosophy about what writing is good for and what makes for good writing became quite common in the late sixties and early seventies gaining its chief emphasis with the famous Dartmouth Conference in 1967. The names most commonly associated with the expressive value-position are John Dixon (1970), Ken Macrorie (1970) and Lou Kelly (1972). Expressivists value writing that is about personal subjects. Another keynote for expressivists is the desire to have writing contain an interesting, credible, honest, and personal voice.

The third philosophy of composition, **the mimetic**, says that a clear connection exists between good writing and good thinking. The major problem with student writing is that it is not solidly thought out. Hence, we should either teach students how to think or help them learn enough about various topics to have something worth saying, or we should do both. Thus, the mimetic approach emphasises logic and reasoning, sometimes formal logic as in Monroe Beardsley's `Writing with Reason` (1976). Thus the teaching of sound reasoning as basis for good writing is an essentially mimetic practice.

In almost any issue of College Composition and Communication, several writers pose the fourth philosophy, the rhetorical one. Such a philosophy says that good writing is writing adapted to achieve the desired effect on the desired audience, but if the same verbal construct is directed to a different audience, then it may be evaluated differently. Leading adherents of this view are Michael Adelstein (1976), Jean Pival (1976) and McCrimmon (1976).

Summing up the presentation of the four theories we should admit that these views exist, but they are not mutually exclusive. Nor are they a problem. However, research has proved (Fulkerson, 1989) that in many cases composition teachers either fail to have a consistent value theory or fail to let that philosophy shape pedagogy. In Silberman's terms they are guilty of mindlessness. A fairly common writing assignment, for example, directs the student to

`state and explain clearly your opinion about X`

There is nothing wrong with such an assignment. But if a student does state his or her opinion and if the opinion happens to be based on gross ignorance or to contain major contradictions, the teacher must, in order to be consistent, ignore such matters. The topic, as stated, asks for opinion; it does not ask for good opinion, judged by whatever philosophy. In short, the assignment implies an expressive value theory. It does not say, `Express your opinion to persuade a reader` (which would imply a rhetorical theory), or `Express your opinion so that it makes sense` (which would imply mimetic theory), or even `Express your opinion correctly` (implying a formalist theory). To give the bald assignment and then judge it from any of the perspectives not implied is to be guilty of value-mode confusion.

Modal confusion is another type of confusion which is not easy to locate, since one almost has to be inside the classroom to see it. A few instances, however, have been reported in literature.

The worst instance of modal confusion we have come across was reported by Lawrence Langer in c Chronicle of Higher Education article entitled `The Human Use of Language: Insensitive Ears Can't Hear Honest Prose` (January 24, 1977). He tells the story of a forty-year-old student who in childhood had been in a Nazi concentration camp in which her parents had been killed. She had never been able to talk about the experience except to other former inmates, not even to her husband and children. Her first assignment in freshman composition was to write a paper on something that was of great importance to her. She resolved to handle her childhood trauma on paper in an essay called `People I Have Forgotten`. Langer quotes the entire paper of eight paragraphs (about 300 words). It is a moving and painful piece with a one-sentence opening paragraph, `Can you forget your own Father and Mother? If so - how or why? The paper was returned with a large minus on the last page, emphatically circled. The only comment was ` Your theme is not clear - you should have developed your first paragraph. You talk around your subject.`

From the perspective of the above discussed four-part model there was a conflict of evaluative modality at work here. The assignment seemed to call for writing that would be judged expressively, but the teacher's brief comment was not written from an expressivist point of view. It may imply a formalist perspective (good writing requires directness and development). Or it may rest on an unstated rhetorical perspective (for a reader's benefit the paper needs more directness and development). It is scarcely adequate in either case and in either case, this sort of judgement was not what the student had been led to expect. There was once more a mindless failure to relate the outcome valued to the means adopted.

Our hope is that the four-part paradigm we have adopted from Abrams may reduce, or even avoid, such mindlessness at Baltic universities.

In the following paragraphs we are going to offer alternative techniques of essay evaluation, which can be practised even in large classes.

8.9.5.3.4.2 Methods and Techniques of Involving Students in Essay Evaluation

The increasing awareness of the importance of fostering students' self-esteem has been a major development in recent years. This view stems in part from its emphasis within humanistic psychology and its applications to education, most notably through the work of Maslow and Rogers (eg. Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1983). They both argued that education must place an emphasis on the whole person, on the idea of personal growth, on the student's own perspective in terms how they see themselves and the world, and on the notion of personal agency and the power of choice. The key elements of such an approach to teaching involves:

- seeing the teacher's role as essentially that of being a facilitator;
- providing a significant degree of choice and control to students to manage and organise their own learning;
- displaying respect for and empathy with students.

Fostering students' self-esteem is seen to lie at the heart of this approach. This perspective is evident, either explicitly or implicitly, in many important developments in classroom practice; in particular, the growth of active learning methods, as well as in the introduction of new forms of assessment, most notably that of records of achievement. Also new forms of lessons and academic work have been introduced (e.g. essay writing and evaluation).

As we have earlier reviewed the development of adult training techniques and their link with innovations in second language learning a new view of the classroom and its students has emerged. The old authoritarian teacher facing straight rows of stationary desks has been replaced by an instructor facing straight rows of stationary desks has been replaced by an instructor who is in touch with the needs of his or her students: psychological needs for expression and movement, the need to feel secure in a caring group, the need for esteem for oneself and other students who contribute to the well-being of the total group, and, last, the need to discover not only who one is but also who one can become and what one can achieve in cooperation with others.

Also essay evaluation no longer is only the teacher's concern and responsibility. As it has been mentioned above, the old system of evaluating students' written works is far from being rewarding for the students. Neither has it been very easy and pleasant for the teacher - scarcely anybody likes to spend long hours reading and re-reading volumes of students works. The most discouraging for both parties involved (students and the teacher) is the outcome of this time consuming procedure:

- more than often students consider (and they may be right in most of the cases) that the assessment is subjective;
- the teacher has experienced difficulties in establishing objective criteria for evaluating students' creative writing;
- only the teacher has read all the papers;
- the students have not got the possibility to compare their writing with that of their peers.

Considering all these aspects of traditional essay evaluation we have introduced and successfully piloted group assessment.

The activity proceeds as follows.
After having submitted their essays the students are asked to form small groups (4 students in each). Thus, this practice can be applied also in large classes (40 students and more). Each group receives 4 essays written by other four students. All four students are invited to read all four essays and then decide which of the essays is the best:

- as regards to the form (grammatical correctness, style, composition etc.)
- as regards to the contents (Is the form relevant to the theme? Is the essay reader friendly? Does it present any novelty to you as a reader?)

The students are encouraged to add their own criteria of evaluation to those mentioned above.

Each group has the right to promote only one essay for further competition. The decision has to be supported by relevant argumentation.

The best essays are read by a jury. Each group nominates one candidate for the jury. The jury have to read all the promoted essays and then they have to decide whose essay is `The Essay of the Day`. The decision has to be motivated.

Meanwhile the other students discuss their feelings as writers and their attitudes as readers, sharing their experience and emotions.

When the jury is ready they pronounce their decision and give a detailed motivation for their decision.

The winner of the competition is invited to share his/her experience and answer peer questions.

The techniques described above release the teacher from the unpleasant role of being the lord and master of the classroom and add a flavour of authenticity to the whole writing process because only letters but not essays are written for only one reader. The students get the chance to read the essays of their peers and are able to compare their own achievement with that of other students. During the process of decision making they are interacting with each other, expressing feelings, describing experiences, giving opinions, listening actively and assisting each other to complete the task.

Summary

Writing, in addition to being a communicative skill of vital importance, is a skill which enables the learner to plan and rethink the communication process. It therefore provides the learner with the opportunity to focus on both linguistic accuracy and content organisation. A carefully planned presentation which combines the mechanics of writing with the composing process can serve the learner well during all the stages of language studies.

9. CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LEVELS OF LANGUAGE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT AND LANGUAGE LEARNING LEVEL

`A Common European Framework of Reference` (1996) discussing options for curricular design, stresses that:

- all knowledge of a language is partial, however much of a `mother tongue` or `native language` it seems to be. It is always incomplete both:

  -in so far as it could never be as developed or perfect in an ordinary individual as it would be for the utopian, `idealised` speaker,

  -and also because a given individual never has equal mastery of the different component parts of the language in question for example (of oral and written skills, or of comprehension and interpretation and production skills);

- any partial knowledge is also more complete than it might seem: for instance, in order to achieve the `limited` goal of increasing understanding of specialised texts in a given foreign language on very familiar subjects it is necessary to acquire knowledge and skills which could be used for many other purposes;

- those who have learnt one language also know a great deal about many other languages without necessarily realising that they do. (1996: 102)

The first statement, concerning the discrepancy between the levels of receptive and productive skills, as well as the possible different levels of all four language skills for each individual learner has been proved also by our practical experience teaching English at tertiary level.

To begin with, the level of language learning is different though all the relevant students have taken the same Year 12 exam and the university entrance exam. Some of them have demonstrated good speaking skills, others have been better at writing, still others have scored the highest amount of points in listening comprehension. Notwithstanding all these factors, students with different levels of language skills development are studying together in the same academic group.

Repeated classroom observation and research has proved that the first year students have very different experience in writing. Some have never experienced the freedom of process writing. Others confess that their experience in writing in their mother tongue is far from being sufficient. See Table .... and diagram ....

Similar is the state of speaking and listening skills development. See Tables..... and ...., diagrams ...... and....... .

The only skill that is more or less equally developed is reading, though again, with most of the learners this skill is developed in isolation and not in integrity with other language skills : speaking, listening and writing.

To state the levels of language skills the results of the university entrance exams have been repeatedly subjected to all-round linguistic and mathematical-statistic analysis. The results of three academic years have been analysed in the present research:

- 1996/97 - 428 applicants;
- 1997/98 - 478 applicants;
- 1998/99 - 532 applicants.

The analysis of the academic results prove to the fact that there is no balance between receptive and productive skills. Neither are the results in listening equal with those in reading. However, both these skills serve the aim of providing the respective language user with the relevant information thus enabling him /her to use the target language successfully.

The applicants enrolling for the academic programmes in academic year 1998/99 at the Foreign Languages Faculty took an exam as a result of which their all four language skills were tested. The maximal amount - 250 points - could be scored for each of the skills. Thus, the most successful applicants could score 1000 points.

The following tables comprise the results of students' entrance exams concerning each particular language skill:

- writing   (Table No 1),
- listening   (Table No 2),
- reading   (Table No 3),
- speaking   (Table No 4).

Writing and listening skills were evaluated in the first part of the exam, merely because of practical and technical reasons - these skills were tested in written form during the first day. Reading and speaking were included in an integrated test which was administered on the following day.

Points scored for writing (+ grammar)

Academic Year	1 - 50 points	51 - 100 points	101 - 150 points	151 - 200 points	201 - 250 points
1996/97	8 stud. = 1.87 %	25 stud. = 5.84 %	368 stud.= 85.98 %	20 stud.= 4.67 %	7 stud.= 1.64 %
1997/98	10 stud.= 2.09 %	33 stud=. 6.90 %	364 stud.= 76.15 %	60 stud.= 12.55 %	11 stud. = 2.31 %
1998/99	4 stud. = 0.75%	20 stud. = 3.76%	480 stud.= 90.23%	19 stud. = 3.57%	9 stud. = 1.69%

Table No 1.

Points scored for listening (global understanding of the text)

Academ. year	1 - 50 points	51 - 100 points	101 - 150 points	151 - 200 points	201 -250 points
1996/97	—	70 stud.= 16.36 %	80 stud. = 18.69%	258 stud. = 60.28%	20 stud.= 4.67%
1997/98	—	60 stud. = 12.55 %	73 stud. = 15.28 %	301 stud. = 62.97 %	44 stud.= 9.20 %
1998/99	—	30 stud. = 5.64%	107 stud. = 20.11%	360 stud. = 67.67%	35 stud. = 6.58 %

Table No 2.

Points scored for reading (technique and comprehension)

Academ. year	1 - 50 points	51 - 100 points	101 - 150 points	151 - 200 points	201 - 250 points
1996/97	3stud. = 0.70%	7 stud. = 1.64 %	19 stud. = 4.44 %	125 stud. = 29.21 %	274 stud. = 64.02 %
1997/98	1 stud. = 0.21 %	9 stud.= 1.88 %	22 stud. = 4.60 %	132 stud. = 27.62 %	314 stud. = 65.69 %
1998/99	2 stud. = 0.38 %	13 stud. = 2.44 %	24 stud. = 4.51 %	140 stud. = 26.32 %	353 stud. = 66.35 %

Table No 3.

Points scored for speaking (ability to start and keep up a conversation on the theme indicated in the examination paper and usually proceeding from the text read)

Academ. year	1 - 50 points	51 - 100 points	101 - 150 points	151 - 200 points	201 - 250 points
1996/97	4 stud. = 0.93 %	10 stud. = 2.34 %	18 stud. = 4.21 %	38 stud. = 8.88 %	358 stud. = 83.64 %
1997/98	5 stud. = 1.05 %	12 stud. = 2.51 %	20 stud. = 4.18 %	42 stud. = 8.79 %	399 stud. =83.47 %
1998/99	2 stud. = 0.38 %	13 stud.= 2.44 %	24 stud. = 4.51%	40 stud. = 7.52 %	453 stud. = 85.15 %

Table No 4.

The results presented above reveal the different levels of language skills the subjects demonstrated. It should be duly noted that all the subjects had had the same (or similar) learning experience certified by the formal documents (Certificates of Secondary Education). They had also been equally exposed, or rather, not exposed, to the target language in real life situations. All of them had basically acquired the target language in classroom . Thus, we may conclude that all the subjects formally may be attributed to the group of upper-intermediate language learners. However, not all of them demonstrated adequately good results in all language skills.

As regards to writing skills - only 1,64 % of applicants scored the highest amount of points in 1996/97, 2.31 % scored the highest amount in 1997/98, and 1,69 % achieved the highest result in 1998/99.

Concerning listening - only 4.67 % of applicants scored the top results, 9.20 % scored the highest amount of points in 1997/98, and 6.58 % managed to achieve the top results in 1998/99.

A considerably greater amount of applicants scored good results in **reading**

- 64.02 % in 1996/97,

65.69 % in 1997/98,

66.35 % in 1998/99.

The greatest percentage of applicants scored top results in **speaking** in all three years:

83.64 % in 1996/97,

83.47 % in 1997/98,

85.15 % in 1998/99.

The fact that similar results were demonstrated by different groups of applicants in three different academic years proves our previously expressed hypothesis that there is a discrepancy concerning different language skills development levels, though formally, the learners may belong to the same language learning level.

This difference does not depend on the character of the skill. Thus, we cannot say that the subjects scored lower results in productive skills and higher results in receptive skills. For example, listening being termed as a receptive skill, presented difficulties for most of the subjects. Speaking, on the contrary, being a productive skill, seemed to cause no difficulties to most of the subjects.

However, as regards to reading (receptive) and writing (productive), the latter skill caused more difficulties.

Summary

The above performed analysis of the language test results prove to the fact that even learners with the same academic experience and similar exposure to the target language have achieved different levels of development concerning each relevant language skill and consequently have valid reasons for having different purposes for further language learning.

10. MULTI-PURPOSE LANGUAGE LEARNING/ TEACHING

10.1 Factors Conditioning Multi-purpose Language Learning at the Tertiary Level

After having discussed in greater detail the character and ways of developing different language skills, we invite our reader to return to the problem touched upon in chapter three, namely, purposes of language learning.

Summing up the previous chapter, we have indicated that the purpose of language learning to a great extent depends also on the language skills development level. Accordingly, learners having scored lower results in certain skills might wish to add to their initial professional goal several academic or interim purposes.

For example:

- The applicant had initially planned to become an interpreter and his main goal was to study the target language in all its diversity, paying equal attention to all its aspects. However, after scoring lower results in listening than he/ she had expected , he/ she might single out some interim objectives and the study process will be first focused on the achievement of better results in listening comprehension. Having adequately developed the skill of listening comprehension the learner will be able to study the other language aspects with the due attention and persistence.

- Another applicant, having passed the entrance exam, is not very happy with the results achieved because of the comparatively low achievement in writing. So, this student will revise his/her initial global goal (getting a tertiary level education in English philology) and add some more concrete objectives to it, such as, acquiring the skills of advanced academic writing.

- Still other students, even after having scored an acceptable amount of points in writing, would like to use writing as a tool for further education and professional growth. Thus, though, their purpose is to acquire writing skills, it may differ from the study purpose of the of the student mentioned earlier.

- Even students having succeeded in all aspects of the target language and having demonstrated high achievement level in all language skills might be concerned about their ability to make integrated use of all four language skills in order to accomplish their academic goal and proceed with their studies on higher levels: master course and doctoral studies.

- Besides the above mentioned reasons for multi-purpose language learning, there might be cases when `learners study the target language for ``vocational`` purposes and relate their language learning to a more professionally-oriented or other academic branch of their studies (for example orientation towards the language of commerce, economics or technology). (A Common European Framework of Reference, 1996: 105)

- In many cases even the learners' previous general learning experience may influence their language study purpose.

- More than often the study purpose may also depend on the learner's previous exposure to the target language. Having spent several years in a country of the target language, an academically inexperienced student might develop wrong understanding of some language units or separate words. This usually happens when the language learner has been exposed only to the spoken language (e.g., a girl working as an `au-pair` girl). Later on, when the student tries to use the misinterpreted word in writing, she produces a chaotic combination of letters or a transcript of the pronounced variant.

- The individual learning strategies might exert significant influence on the choice and development of the study purpose. Some students are able to develop all the language skills in accordance with each other, e.g., the students may do some pre-reading activities while discussing the topic with their group mates or use their writing skills in order to make notes when listening to a lecture and again, they might like to re-read the written variant off the lecture.

Even the ability to work in a group may be the cause for a learner to reconsider his /her study purpose. If the other members of the group have developed certain language skills also the new member of the group might wish to develop the particular language skill.

Having succeeded in the study process by means of developing a particular language skill the learners might proceed by developing another skill, thus the interim study purpose changes.

Summary

Summing up the examples presented above, we are bound to admit that even after completing the same or similar secondary stage of education, students majoring in modern languages and linguistics may have different and varying purposes for the target language acquisition and further linguistic studies. The purposes ,or enabling objectives, are not consistent even for one and the same student in different stages of his/her academic development. Among the most significant factors exerting influence on students' language acquisition purposes are:

- the level of the relevant language skills development,
- the initial academic goal,
- the initial professional goal,
- the previous learning experience,
- the amount and type of the previous exposure to the target language,
- the individual learning strategies,
- ability to join group activities for either academic or professional purposes,
- progress in the learner's language skills development, etc.

10.2 Ways and Means of Coping with Multi-purpose Language Learning and Different Levels of Language Proficiency

10.2.1 Curriculum design and multiple study purposes

The term` curriculum` in this context refers to the design of the relevant programmes at the university scope - either academic or professional.

Concerning linguistic studies, the relevant programmes are as follows:

- academic programme : *BA in Humanities; World Languages* (English Philology, English-German Philology, English-Scandinavian Philology, etc.);

- professional programme: *Teacher of English for Secondary Level* (schools, gymnasiums, colleges, etc.);

- professional programme: *Translator and/or Interpreter* (English-Latvian, Latvian-English, Danish-English-Latvian, Norwegian-English-

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Latvian, Swedish-English- Latvian, English-German-Latvian, German-English-Latvian, etc.

The academic programmes offer to the students 4 years of academic studies and (if all the academic requirements have been met) ending in BA degree in the relevant branch of Philology (Linguistics + Literature and cultural studies of the target country).

The four year academic programme (8 terms) may be followed by:

- one more year (2 terms) of professional studies and/or
- two years (4 terms) of academic studies for MA degree in the relevant field.

Successful coping with the multi-purpose language learning implies building into the academic programme or the particular course curriculum at the university (faculty) scope for explicitness, the progressive development of `learning awareness` in the form of an introductory academic course, e.g., `Introduction to academic studies and research` which helps learners establish metacognitive control over their own competences and strategies.

A single change in programme design alone does not abolish all problems caused by multi-purpose language learning and the various levels of skill development. Nevertheless, within the framework of an introductory course the students acquire study skills learning strategies which help to compensate for the lack of certain language skills. The students learn to assess their own study skills as well as they become aware of their personal advantages and disadvantages.

The course `Introduction to Academic Studies and Research` gives an insight into the essence of academic studies and brings out all the differences between learning at school and studies at the university. Students get a clear understanding about some most important issues of the course by means of active participation and co-operation in research, thus, making their first (though subjective) discoveries. These first steps in research might lead to further research activities manifested in term papers, bachelor papers and qualification papers. In the run of the course the students acquire such academic skills as making lecture notes (not putting down lectures like the text of a dictation and using them when preparing for exams or (and) writing semester, bachelor and qualification papers. Students also learn how to work for research purposes with the relevant literature in the speciality.

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Thus, as it is seen from the course description, though indirectly, the course promotes all four language skills:

1. *listening comprehension* - the students learn to listen to lectures and to make qualitative lecture notes. In order to do so the students are not only to listen and understand the transmitted information but they are also supposed to sort out and classify the acquired information so that they are able to use the information for their own individual purpose (exam, term paper (for those who chose to write on the particular theme), etc.

2. *speaking - functional communication* - the students acquire the skill of speaking to the point. They study the logics and psychology of communication, and consequently they learn to apply the tools of successful argumentation (premises, consistent terms, conclusions, etc.).According to Weston (1987: xi) `arguments are attempts to support certain views with reasons.` `To give an argument` means to offer a set of reasons or evidence in support of a conclusion. Argument is essential, because it is a way of trying to find out which views are better than others. The students learn to distinguish between different types of arguments: arguments by example, arguments by analogy, arguments from authority, arguments about causes, deductive arguments (valid arguments, `Modus Ponens`, `Modus Tollens`, Hypothetical Syllogism, Disjunctive Syllogism, dilemma, etc);

3. *reading skill* - students are also bound to read their lecture notes as well as to compare their own achievement with that of their colleagues. The students are also supposed to read the books from the course reading list.

4. *writing skill* - students are supposed to use their writing skills in integrity with the other language skills. Writing lecture notes helps students to organize and systematise their listening activities while a detailed written outline of their oral presentation enables them to speak with success. Finally, the course report enables both interested parties: the students and the teacher to assess the results of their collaboration.

Offering equal possibilities for development of the target language skills during the introductory courses does not abolish the differences of the study purposes, however, it shows ways of coping with these differences by means of developing individual learning strategies as well as getting involved in group projects.

10.2.2 Teaching materials aimed at multi-purpose language studies

10.2.2.1 Description of sample teaching materials designed and developed at the University of Latvia

Teaching materials are the most effective tools for bridging the gap between the academic goal of each particular course and the students' individual study purposes. However, not all teaching aids might be used with equal success for that purpose.

In order to qualify for such a goal the teaching aid should be relevantly designed. Thus, the teaching aid in listening comprehension 'Open Your Mind' was aimed at introducing students to different listening experiences. The teaching aid consists of a tape with authentic texts recorded in the target country and a booklet containing methodological hints, exercises and tapescripts. More than 16 different topics (Radio news contain various aspects of life) are offered to students' attention. Besides the diversity in themes, the texts differ also in style and level of formality. The table of contents indicates the length of the text on the tape in minutes, the page containing the relevant exercises and finally, if needed, the page with the tapescript of each particular text.
After listening to the first introductory text the students are invited to make their own choice. They may proceed in chronological order of the texts or listen to any of the texts according to their liking. Their freedom of choice is further encouraged by different exercises offered to their attention. They are also entrusted to decide whether they listen to the recording without the textual support or not.

The teaching aid was designed in the form described above due to our respect towards students as whole personalities able to make their own choices and deserving the right to autonomous studies.

10.2.2.2 Different approaches to teaching materials' analysis and their application in materials' development

In order to achieve the result described above, a careful analysis of all the components involved in the pedagogical process was indispensable. It included several approaches:

- the discourse analysis approach;
- the genre-analysis approach;
- the target-situation needs analysis approach;

- pedagogic needs analysis approach;
- learning centred approaches.

The discourse analysis approach was clearly set out by two its principal advocates Allen and Widowson as early as 1974.

One might distinguish two kinds of ability which an English course at this level should aim at developing. The first is the ability to recognise how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication, the ability to understand the rhetorical functioning of language in use. The second is the ability to recognise and manipulate the formal devices which are used to combine sentences to create continuous passages of prose. We might say that the first has to do with rhetorical coherence of discourse, the second with the grammatical cohesion of text.

(Allen & Widdowson 1974:2)

In practice we used the discourse analysis approach to concentrate on 'how sentences are used in the performance of acts of communication' and to generate materials based on functions, because, as Widdowson (1977) points it out:

In discourse one has to work out what concepts, or propositions are being expressed ... .   (Widdowson 1977: 24)

However, applying this approach we came across the main shortcoming this approach has. Namely, its treatment of a text is fragmentary. It identifies the functional units of which discourse is composed at sentence/utterance level but offers limited guidance of how functions and sentences fit together to form text. Robinson has arrived at a similar conclusion:

We are given little idea of how these functions combine to make longer texts.

(Robinson 1981: 54)

This was the reason why we used discourse-analysis approach only to analyse the advertisement texts and telephone talks.

As a development of discourse analysis, the genre analysis approach seeks to see text as a whole rather than as a collection of isolated units.
This was the reason why we decided to use this approach when analysing radio news which are very specific texts and according to Dudley-Evans (1987):

'we need a system of analysis that shows how each type of text differ from other types'.

This is achieved by seeking to identify the overall pattern of the text (Johnson 1993: 203) through a series of phases or `moves`. The differences between discourse analysis and genre analysis can be seen in the following table based on an analysis of over 100 business telephone calls - while discourse analysis identifies the functional components of the calls, genre analysis enables the materials writer to sequence these functions into a series to capture the overall structure of such texts:

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS	GENRE ANALYSIS
- agreeing on action/informing of future action - greeting /opening - identifying self/number/company/etc. - leave taking - negotiating - stating purpose/orienting - phatic talking - recapping/summarising	**OPENING MOVE** - identifying self/company/number/etc. - greeting/opening - phatic talking - stating purpose/orienting **NEGOTIATING MOVE** - negotiating **CLOSING MOVE** - agreeing on action/ informing of future action - recapping/summarising - leavetaking

Needs analysis was firmly established in the mid - 1970 as course designers came to see learners purposes rather than specialist language as the driving force behind ESP.

Munby (1978) established needs by investigating the target situation for which learners were being prepared.

... needs analysis should be concerned with establishment of communicative needs and their realisations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situation - target situation analysis (TSA).
(Chambers 1980: 29)

Munby's model clearly established the place of needs as central to ESP, indeed the necessary starting point in materials or course design.

However, this model has been widely criticised for two apparently conflicting reasons - for its over-fullness in design and for what it fails to take into account. The second is what concerns us here, for in declaring that all except target-situation considerations were 'irrelevant to the specification of what the learner needs the target language for,' Munby (1977: 7) excluded what he called socio-political considerations, administrative considerations, psycho-pedagogic and methodological considerations.

To counter the shortcomings of target-situation needs analysis, various forms of pedagogic needs have been identified to give more information about the learner and the educational environment. These forms of needs analysis should be seen as complementing target-situation needs analysis and each other, rather than being alternatives:

• deficiency analysis: This gives us information about what the learners' learning needs are, i.e., which of their target situation needs they lack, or they feel they lack:

'The question of priorities is ignored by standard needs analyses. In discussing learners' perceptions of their ''needs'' ... we shall have to take into account lacks and wants as well as ''objective'' needs.' (Allwright 1982: 24)

• strategy analysis: This seeks to establish how the learners wish to learn rather than what they need to learn. By investigating learners' preferred learning styles and strategies we 'get a picture of the learner's conception of learning' (Allwright 1982: 28)

• means analysis: Means analysis investigates precisely those considerations that Munby excluded. These relate to educational environment in which the course is to take place and the considerations involved have been conveniently summarised by Swales (1989).

The attention to strategy analysis which was discussed above gave rise to new generation of Esp and EFLT materials which was founded as much on conceptions of learning as on conceptions of language or conceptions of need: (p. 38 SIG)

Our concern in ESP is not with language use - although this will help to define the course objectives. Our concern is with language learning. We cannot simply assume that describing and exemplifying what people do with language wii=ll enable someone to

learn it ... At truly valid approach to ESP must be based on an understanding of the process of language learning.

(Hutchinson & Waters 1987: 14)

Hutchinson and Waters call their approach the `learning-centred` approach and stress the importance of a lively, interesting and relevant teaching/learning style in ESP materials. A list of features contributing to this style is summarised in the table below (Hutchinson & Waters 1987: 139 - 142).

gaps	learning demands thinking
variety	the spice of learning
prediction	anticipate what is likely in a novel situation.
enjoyment	if it bores the learner , it is bad lesson
integration	using a range of skills
coherence	it should be clear where the lesson is going
preparation	preparing the teacher to teach; preparing the learner to learn
involvement	don't tell the learners the things they already know; get them to tell you and the rest of the class
creativity	activities should allow for different possible answers
atmosphere	a cooperative social climate within the class.

We tried to implement all these features in the teaching aid `Open Your Mind`.

We tried to provide, the so called, learning gaps, i.e., to observe a certain distance between what the learner already knows and the new information. Thus, after reading the newspaper article `Truck collapse threatens 5,500 jobs` the learners are expected to receive additional information by means of listening to the radio news. This leads us to another feature from Hutchinson and Waters' list - integration. Reading serves as support for listening activities and the result is summed up either by speaking or writing.

The teaching aid offers a variety of topics, styles and moods - the informative style of radio news is followed by a radio talk on family violence and then by a public discussion on passive smoking.

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Another radio talk introduces us into the work and daily life of bomb diffusers and still another gives an insight into the most popular music hits. The first side of the cassette ends in a series of advertisements. Thus also the feature termed 'enjoyment' has not been neglected. Due to their variety the texts should not bore the listener.

We have also used all these features when designing the computer assisted language learning programme on CD-ROM 'BALTIC'. In this programme, however, the main focus was on the learner as a whole personality and the learner's autonomy.

10.2.2.3 Teaching materials and the learner's autonomy

The roots of autonomy lie in a number of cultures and, as a consequence, it has been subjected to a number of different interpretations and definitions. It has been both labelled and described through such concepts as independent learning, flexible learning and student-centred learning.

Independent learning derives its force from a need to develop long-term learner strategies which will be of use in current or future learning situations where a teacher may not be available.   (Macaro, 1997: 167)

Student centred learning draws its rationale from theories of individual learner differences and proposes a learning environment which might best cater for those differences.

Behind these concepts is a broader based philosophy which argues that man is as much a producer of a society as a product of it. Therefore the exercise of responsibilities implies a degree of autonomy from educational structures and processes, an autonomy which will enable the adult to undertake a process of lifelong learning (Council of Europe, 1980). In addition, the replacement of behaviourist learning theory by cognitive theory in the sphere of applied linguistics has contributed to a perception of the language learner as an intelligent, discriminating decision - maker (James, 1990). The freedom which autonomy brings, therefore, should not be associated only with external organisational considerations but with the relation between the learner, the content and the process of learning (Gathercole, 1990).

Autonomy is an ability which is learnt through knowing how to make decisions about the self as well as being allowed to make those decisions. It is an ability to take charge of one's own language learning and an ability to recognise the value of taking responsibility for one's own objectives,

content, progress, method and techniques of learning. It is also an ability to be responsible for the pace and rhythm of learning and the evaluation of the learning process. In this respect `distance learning`, for example through television programmes, only enables autonomy of pace and rhythm, not of objectives or content. Moreover, the presence or absence of the teacher is not the yardstick by which one can judge autonomous learning skills. Indeed, it may be that, paradoxically, a teacher has to be present merely to demonstrate the degree of autonomous distance that the learner is able to interpose between himself/herself and the teacher.

Ironically whereas the traditional teacher might have been replaceable with a machine, the facilitator teacher becomes irreplaceable (Council of Europe, 1980).

As we have tried to argue throughout this book, we should always analyse critically theories or principles of second language acquisition that have sprung from studies and practices carried out in very different institutional learning contexts. Having made that analysis we should, however, willingly test their applicability to our own language learning context. The above initiatives show that experimentation in practice need not be confined to those geographical areas of the world from which language pedagogy theory principally emanates.

In this chapter we would like to concentrate on a functional definition of learner autonomy, one which puts the emphasis on autonomy as developing potential in the learner. on how s/he can use it to operate more effectively, rather than as a reaction to difficulties. We would also want to argue that all language learners are already to a lesser or greater degree autonomous in that they are able to accept, partially reject or circumvent an imposed learning style. What is in question is through which opportunities and to what extent we can develop further those abilities and skills.

For the purposes of a more fruitful discussion we would like to subdivide the notion of autonomy into:

- autonomy of language competence;

- autonomy of language learning competence;

- autonomy of choice and action.

Autonomy of language competence

The main development in the learner here is the ability to communicate having acquired a reasonable mastery of the L2 rule system. In addition s/he should be able to operate without the help of a more competent speaker of the target language - the teacher.

Autonomy of language learning competence.

The main development in the learner here is the reproduction and transference of L2 learning skills to many other situations including a possible future L3. Thus we would emphasise the function of learner strategies in general and the metacognitive strategies proposed by O`Malley and Chamot (1990; 47) in particular. Quoting Lachman et al. (1979) they give a computer analogy where declarative knowledge is stored data and procedural knowledge is the software program that does things with the data.

Autonomy of choice and action.

In the classroom situation, learners need to be given the opportunity to develop autonomy of choice if the required skills are to be developed. Thus, the learners should develop the ability to:

- develop a coherent argument as to why they are learning a foreign language even if they may not have the choice of not learning that language;

- perceive their intermediate or short-term language learning objectives (speaking about a certain topic, developing certain language skills, etc.);

- perceive their long term language learning objectives (functional aims in language usage, etc.);

- perceive the range and types of TL materials and have access to the range and types of materials which will help them fulfil those personal objectives;

- come to an understanding of the ways in which they learn best.

Speaking about practical experience in developing learners' independence, authors of DES (October 1990) say:

`A characteristic of good practice is where learners become increasingly independent in their work.` It is interesting to note that the word `work` and not `learning` is used. It would be a contradiction, if autonomy in language learning were confined to classroom behaviour rather than learning outcomes. The authors go on to explain that this independence includes linguistic and general skills such as:

- using language in unrehearsed situations;
- using a range of sources to get linguistic and factual information;
- planning work either alone or with a partner;
- from quite an early stage, choosing some topic or aspect to be studied. (DES (October 1990): 61)

The above recommendations would all appear to sit very comfortably in any interpretation of learner autonomy. Unfortunately, very little support is given in the Non Statutory Guidance (NCC, 1992) on how to implement a programme of learner autonomy.

In the domain of developing learner autonomy there is yet again a display of the inherent tension in CLT, a tension continually brought into being by the testing (through classroom practice) of how far L2 learning is close L1 learning.

In a brief study involving pupils who had been learning German for a year Mitchell and Swarbrick (1994) found that learners were able to decode a great deal of the language of a difficult German text through such strategies as: seeing what went before and what went after; breaking big words down; looking words up; remembering having seen the word in another context; by intelligent guessing from context. The study noted that not all pupils were using the same strategies and that there were some strategies that none had considered. This example of awareness raising and training for learner autonomy was carried out in L1.

One contradiction which seems to emerge and which might have been sustained through further analysis is that there is a procedural incompatibility between the strong advocacy of the teacher as the major source of target language input and the promotion of learner autonomy.

In order to avoid this incompatibility we tried to compensate teacher's advocacy by introducing new teaching aids and innovative methodology.

10.2.2.4 Multi-purpose Computer assisted language Teaching Programme B.A.L.T.I.C.

Materials file B.A.L.T.I.C. - CD-ROM and the introductory letter to the student (the user of the CD-ROM) are designed as a set of teaching aids to help the addressee to acquire either the English language or one of the Baltic States' languages independently using the B.A.L.T.I.C. programme.

The learner centred attitude is revealed already in the introduction, which is written in the form of a constructive letter and is addressed to the learner directly (not via teacher).

The goals of the teaching aid can be viewed on several levels:
A) practical or functional goals;
B) academic goals;
C) research goals.

The practical or functional goals may be divided into two subgroups:
- interim goals - enabling objectives which are realised during the study process;
- final goals - goals concerning the practical result of independent studies.

Interim goals.
The course has been designed so that the learner derives pleasure and satisfaction from the very process of learning. The interim goals can be worded as follows:
- while studying the learner will experience neither stress nor feeling of inferiority;
- the learner will develop his/her language skills gradually at his/her own pace receiving encouragement from the programme;
- the learner will be able to work at the development of the relevant subskills constituting the speaking skill, i.e., the programme presents the learner with the opportunity of developing his/her pronunciation (phonetic) skills bringing them as close to the level of the native speaker as possible;
- the learner will work at the development of his/her phonetic skills using the technical facilities presented by the programme;
- the development of the phonetic aspect of the speaking skill will enable the learner to avoid or overcome the difficulties usually experienced when listening to the target language without textual support;

- developing the subskills (achieving the interim goals) the learner will arrive to the final (functional) goals which made him take up the language studies.

Final (Functional) goals

Having acquired the programme the learner will be able to use the chosen target language (English, Lithuanian, Estonian or Latvian) for practical authentic communicative purposes within the thematic framework included in the programme:

- the learner will be able to cope with an authentic situation at the airport - to check in for a flight, to use the target language vocabulary concerning flight documentation and the necessary procedures, besides the learner will have gathered certain experience in perceiving by ear and comprehending flight information based on the most often used terminology;
- the learner will be able to make a hotel reservation and to register at a hotel as well as to gather the necessary information concerning the room at the hotel, the facilities offered and the mealtimes;
- the learner will be able to make a phone call: to find a certain person by calling repeatedly and having telephone conversations with different people. During these conversations the learner will use relevant vocabulary and phraseology;
- the learner will use the vocabulary necessary for bank procedures and money exchange in order to change some money or traveller's cheques in the currency of the target country.
- the learner will be able to do some shopping in a store where the names of the goods are in the target language;
- the learner will be able to acquire the relevant information from the information service;
- the learner will feel at ease meeting with other people (native speakers of English, people using English as an international language or just learning it) - being introduced or introducing him/herself.

Academic Goals

Academic goals of the programme are as follows:

- while working on the programme, the learner, besides language skills, will have developed academic skills of independent learning;
- the learners will be able to perceive and retain in mind chunks of utterances in the target language. (This skill will be indispensable if the learner continues language studies in the professional programme 'Translator - interpreter').

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Research goals

Students using this programme for educational research purposes will have:

- acquired an innovative approach to language teaching-learning process based on learner's independence;
- learner to treat his/her student as a whole person;
- got acquainted with the whole language approach in language teaching-learning;
- developed research interest in using similar programmes in language teaching-learning within the framework of distance education;
- developed relevant teaching skills and educational research strategies for life-long self-education by means of multi-media.

The concluding paragraph of the instruction encourages the learners to use the acquired language knowledge for communicative purposes and test their language skills in authentic situations. Ability to function successfully by means of using the target language will be the main criterion for evaluation of the teaching programme.

However, we were interested even in the very first preliminary results of the pilot teaching.

Theoretical speculations and practical research embodied in the course allowed us to work out a perspective plan of mutually interconnected 2 stages of the pilot study.

Pilot teaching was carried out at the Faculty of Foreign Languages of the University of Latvia in Term I and Term II of academic year 1997/98 .

The goals of the pilot study were to test the pedagogic and methodological qualities of the created programme and to assess its suitability for different types of language learning:

- stage I   - auto-taught, computer assisted learning:
- stage II   - teaching in classrooms under the guidance of a tutor, connected to a network;
- stage III   - long distance teaching through telematic connections.

The present analysis will deal with the results of stage I and stage II, leaving the results of stage III for further more careful study after all the necessary technical conditions have been provided for a successful implementation of this stage.

Subjects for the study are 149 native Latvian or Russian speakers permanently residing in Latvia at the time of the study as well as 6 international students - 2 native speakers of Chinese, 1 native speaker of German, 1 native speaker of Spanish, 1 native speaker of the Uzbekh language and one native speaker of Check. Thus the total number of subjects embraced by the pilot study amounts to 155.

30 subjects are students majoring in German and, thus, are enrolled in the four year academic programme - Bachelor of Philology (German). These students study English within the framework of the International Translators' project where both languages are closely integrated, namely, English is taught as a second foreign language 10 classes per week, each class being 90 minutes long. All the a above mentioned 30 subjects have been studying English for one academic year and might be classified as a lower- intermediate group of learners. According to IELTS (International English Language testing System) their language proficiency might be characterised as limited user basic functional competence, limited to familiar situations, but frequent problems in understanding and fluency can make communication a constant effort (Level 4).

85 subjects are students majoring in English and are enrolled in the four year academic programme - Bachelor of Philology (English). The average amount of years these students have spent on the English language studies is 13.5 . Thus these students might be considered to be advanced learners of English.

10 subjects are students of MA Programme in English Philology, majoring in EFLT (English as Foreign Language Teaching Methodology). These students have studied English for 15-18 years and are teaching the English language at secondary schools and at present are undergoing language teaching practice on tertiary level. Thus, this group may be considered as advanced learners of English and also relative experts in EFLT. Thus they could express their opinion in evaluative essays.

20 subjects are students at the Open University affiliated to the Faculty of Foreign Languages; the University of Latvia, majoring in English. The Open University offers the same academic programme - Bachelor of Philology, is housed in the same premises and staffed with the same personnel. The academic programmes of both the Faculty of Foreign languages English department and Open University being identical, the subjects had been exposed to identical, or nearly identical, type of linguistic input. In addition to specialised English classes the subjects were exposed to English at other classes taught in English, e.g., literature, psychology,

British Studies, American Studies, etc. Thus, also these students are considered to be advanced level language learners.

Procedure

Concerning the students majoring in German and studying English as a second foreign language, the conducted study comprises:

- a pre-test;
- 16 weeks work with the B.A.L.T.I.C. course (90 minutes each week);
- a test;
- students' evaluation of the course expressed in a free form.

The undergraduate students (both full-time and part-time) majoring in English worked with the programme for 8 weeks (90 minutes a week) and expressed their opinion about the course in the form of an evaluative essay.

The students studying in the MA of English philology programme worked with the course as teachers for 16 weeks (90 minutes per week) and expressed their opinion in the form of an evaluative essay.

All the essays were word processed and anonymous to ensure students' objective attitude.

The essays disclosed that 125 students had 16 different purposes for language learning/teaching with this particular programme:

- to enlarge their own vocabulary;
- to improve their pronunciation;
- to revise their knowledge of grammar;
- to improve the ability to memorise longer utterances in the target language in order to be able to perform simultaneous interpreting;
- to use the language for functional purposes;
- to improve their listening comprehension skills;
- to listen to verbally transmitted information for functional purposes;
- to work independently on the improvement of all language skills;
- to study independently , choosing their own method of work from those offered by the programme;
- to learn to work (as a teacher) with a computer assisted programme;
- to balance their attention between their learners and the teaching programme;
- to learn to concentrate on their learners as the subjects of the language learning process;
- to learn to be a counsellor in the classroom;

- to learn to be helpful to their students without domineering them;
- to learn to use the computer assisted language programme as a teaching tool.

The evaluative essays contained also students' opinions as regards to the programme `BALTIC`. The general opinion can be summed up as follows: the programme

- helps to enrich the vocabulary,
- teaches to modify one's voice,
- helps with the pronunciation,
- improves the learner's grammar,
- improves listening comprehension,
- develops memory,
- develops the necessary skills needed for working with a computer;
- presents a clear layout of the material on the display;
- is very flexible - it is easy to work with (The learner can start with whichever scenario or activity s/he likes best or needs most.);
- offers clear methodical objectives for each lesson - what skills will be trained;
- encloses responses encouragement and reminders, uttered in a friendly voice (These small and pleasant details make the learner feel at ease.);
- is close to real life situations;
- exerts individual approach to the learners;
- presents the information in an easy understandable way;
- is not boring;
- offers a diversity of activities and manipulations;
- supplies translation and/or visual support if needed.

The pilot study and the feedback from the students representing different learning styles prove to the fact that the created programme answers students needs more adequately than a traditional course book does. The programme helps to realise individualised approach by treating each individual as a different species of learner. There are different and autonomous intelligence capacities that result in many different ways of knowing, understanding, and learning about the world. As Gardner (1993) states:

`It is the utmost importance that we recognise and nurture all of the varied human intelligences, and all of the combinations of intelligences. We are all so different largely because we all have different combinations of intelligences. If we recognise this, I think

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we will have at least a better chance of dealing appropriately with the many problems we face in the world.`

The relationship between learning styles and multiple intelligences is very close. Although the preferred style may vary from task to task there definitely are some constant preferences in learning methods connected with certain intelligences. According to Reid (1997), there are four main groups of learners that acquire the knowledge in different ways: reflectors (concrete-passive), theorists (abstract passive), pragmatics (abstract-active), and activists (concrete-active). Each type of learners needs different kinds of activities at a lesson. This is the reason why each individual learner is considered a unique and separate problem.

The above quoted beliefs lead us to very different decisions about curricular content of computer assisted language learning programmes and, consequently, to very different expectations about achievement, performance, and competence.

Here the notion of self-pacing assumes less trivial, more critical importance than in many current programmed instruction courses.
The conceptions of `teacher`, and `homework` become less neat and well defined; instead we may speak of `tutor` or `facilitator` and more simply `work` rather than `class work` or `homework`.

To avoid subjectivity in the programme evaluation, simultaneous pilot teaching took place also at Tallinn Technical University and Vilnius Pedagogical University. The results were reported at the meeting of the Expert Board of the Council of Europe on December 14, 1997 and were acknowledged to be adequate.

Summary

Adequately designed teaching materials which are based on relevant linguistic, methodological and educational theories are the most effective tools for bridging the gap between the academic goals of the teacher and the students' individual needs and wants.
Teaching materials, created taking into account the presence of multiple intelligences in the classroom, help to avoid `mass instruction` approach, when a group of individuals are brought together in classroom or laboratory and treated as multiple copies of one `average` individual.

11. LINGUISTIC, METHODOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING MULTI-PURPOSE LANGUAGE TEACHING/LEARNING

11.1 Linguistic Rules Governing Language Learning.

As it has been already mentioned in the previous chapters, the current demand for the knowledge of foreign language brings to language classrooms learners with different interests and different purposes of language learning. This is true not only to language courses and academic language learning at secondary schools, even university students studying the target language in academic and professional programmes intend to use the target language for different purposes.

Thus students qualifying for BA degree in English Philology might have varied purposes of language studies: some students might be interested in the grammatical structure of the language, still others might choose the whole language approach to linguistic studies.

The list of different interests in language studies could be continued endlessly regarding also the professional purposes of the target language application, such as

- language teaching to young learners;
- language teaching to adolescents;
- language teaching at different levels to adult learners specialised in different fields of science, law, medicine, art, economy, etc.
- language teaching to learners with specific needs (visually impaired) etc.;
- application of the target language for translation of technical texts (different specialities);
- application of the target language for translation of fiction (verse and prose)
- application of the target language for interpreting, etc.

Irrespective of the different academic and professional purposes, all the students are studying in the same academic programme. Hence the problem of designing academic course programmes applicable for multi-purpose language studies.

When designing foreign language teaching/learning programmes the following 'linguistic universals' should be made use of:

1. Wherever man exists, language exists.

2. Differences among languages are not biologically conditioned.

Any normal child, born anywhere in the world, of any racial, geographical, social, or economic heritage, is capable of learning any language to which he is exposed. The differences we find among languages cannot be due to biological reasons.

3. There are no primitive languages.

All languages are equally complex and equally capable of expressing any idea in the universe. The vocabulary of any language can be expanded to include new words for new concepts.

4. All languages change through times.

5. All human languages utilise a finite set of discrete sounds which are combined to form 'meaningful' elements (morphemes), which themselves are combined to form 'whole thoughts' (sentences).

6. Similar grammatical categories (for example, noun, verb) are found in all languages.

7. There are universal semantic concepts found in every language in the world. Every language has a system of tense, the ability to negate, the ability to form questions, and so on.

8. Any language should be studied in relation to the situations in which it is used (Halliday, 1970). Thus the multi-purpose computer assisted language programmes should present relevant speech situations in order to promote learners' 'speech acts'.

9. The similar as well as the different features of the source and the target language should be taken into account when designing language programmes.

11.2 Methodological Principles Underlying Language Studies

Designing language teaching/learning programmes the following methodological principles might be helpful:

1. The principle of concordance between the learner's needs and wants and the goal of the programme as regards to language skills development.

All four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing should be developed in accordance with learner's needs and wants. This principle will ensure learners' personal involvement and learning motivation. The learner has got the right to decide what skill or group of subskills s/he needs and wants to develop.

2. The principle of relevance.

Both the content and the outcome of the programme need to be as relevant as possible to the learner's life and life style.
This is essential for getting and holding the learner's attention, thus, for providing genuine motivational elements.

3. The principle of transferability.

At either the content level or at the outcome level (or both), language programmes need to have transferability/applicability value, either internally (i.e., to other programmes or classes) or externally (i.e., to out of classroom situations), or both.

4. The principle of task orientation.

Language programmes should be task oriented. They should offer to the learner:

- language use tasks;

- language analysis activities, or both.

The notion of `task` have developed out of communicative teaching and materials production. Task oriented teaching can be defined as teaching which provides `actual meaning` by focusing on tasks to be mediated through language, and where success or failure is seen to be judged in terms of whether or not the tasks are performed.

5. The principle of cross-cultural interaction.

Developing speaking skills interaction should be practised. Students should be involved in joint tasks and purposeful activities.
Cross-cultural interaction is important in language use in the real world. the language programme should encourage students to share their values and viewpoints, ways of acting and reacting, and their speech styles.

6. The principle of interaction between the reader and the text.

If reading is the activity envisaged by the programme, there should be lively interaction of reader and text - interpretation, expansion, discussing alternative possibilities or other conclusions. Often reading leads to creative production in speech or writing.

7. The principle of interaction between the student and the programme.

The design of language programmes should use the target language also as the medium of communication between the learner and the programme itself (phrases of encouragement, evaluation, etc.).

8. The principle of communicative and linguistic competence.

Multi-purpose language programmes should be aimed at the development of learners' communicative as well as linguistic competence.

9. The principle of exposure to discourse.

Multi-purpose language programmes should expose learners to discourse or language in use, according to Schiffrin (1995: 32), to

a socially and culturally organised way of speaking through which particular functions are realised.

10. The principle of expressibility.

Searle's principle of expressibility *what can be meant can be said* should underlie multi-purpose language programmes.

11. The conversational principle.

As multi-purpose language programmes are aimed at learning language for communication, they should embody Paul Grice's co-operative conversational principle. According to this principle, we interpret language on the assumption that its sender is obeying four maxims:

- be true (the maxim of quality);
- be brief (the maxim of quantity);
- be relevant (the maxim of relevance);
- be clear (the maxim of manner).

12. The principle of dialectical nature and register of the language.

Multi-purpose language programmes should adequately reflect the dialectical features and register of the target language.

13. The principle of result.

Any language activity, any language practice should result in something. E.g., when practising writing - what is written should be something that will be read by somebody.

14. The principle of intellectual development.

Language programmes should be designed so as to contribute to the intellectual development of the learner. The programmes should be constructed so as to help the learner **to think in the target language.**

15. The principle of cognitive development.

According to Pinset (1958) cognitive development obeys two rules:

- Education of relations between objects as wholes occurs more easily than education of relations between details within each object. Progress goes from broad to increasingly finer discrimination of details, an important factor in determining choice of subject-matter and materials for practical activity.

- Education of relations takes place at different orders of subtlety at the same time, and improvement takes place at all levels simultaneously.

16. The principle of independence and long-term learner strategies.

Independent learning derives its force from a need to develop long-term learner strategies which will be of use in current or future learning situations where a teacher may not be available (Macaro, 1997: 167)

17. The principle of autonomy

All language learners are already to a lesser or greater degree autonomous in that they are able to accept, partially reject or circumvent an imposed learning style. A characteristic of good practice is where 'learners become increasingly independent in their work' (Macaro, 1997: 172). Such learners use language in unrehearsed situations and they are able also to make use of a range of sources to get linguistic and factual information.

CONCLUSION

Several theoretical concepts as well as relevant attempts to implement the acquired ideas in practice have been reflected in this book. Our intention has been not to announce any new discoveries but to demonstrate our approach to such basic notions of EFLT as

- `Language and Intellectual Development`,
- `Language Learning and Acquisition`,
- `Levels and Scaling in Foreign Language Learning`,
- `Purposes of Foreign Language Learning`,
- `Academic Skills and Learning Strategies at the Tertiary Level`,
- `Language as Discourse`,
- `Language Skills Development`,
- `Correlation Between the Level of Language Skills Development and Language Learning Level`,
- `Multipurpose Language Learning/Teaching`.

All the above mentioned theoretical notions have been illustrated by examples from the current academic practice of the University of Latvia. The attempts to co-operate with other universities in order to produce relevant, original teaching aids have been presented as one of possible ways for coping with multi-purpose language learning at the tertiary level.

We hope that the statistical data reflected in the tables might help the reader to understand the necessity of implementing multipurpose language teaching at the tertiary level to answer the multi-purpose learning needs of the newly enrolled students.

Thus we believe that the above presented study of multipurpose language learning / teaching might serve as a stimulus for further research in the field of language studies at the tertiary level.

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ANNEX

INTRODUCTION TO ANNEX

The annex contains :

1) 12 diagrams reflecting assessment results concerning each language skill separately:
- writing + grammar   (Figures: 1, 2, 3)
- listening   (Figures:9,10, 11)
- reading   (Figures :16, 17, 18)
- speaking ·   (Figures: 24, 25, 26)

2) 20 charts depicting the development or changes in the three year period concerning each skill and each of the five levels attained:
- writing + grammar

  Level 1: points 1 - 50   -   (Figure 4)
  Level 2: points 51- 100   -   (Figure 5)
  Level 3: points 101-150   -   (Figure 6)
  Level 4: points 151- 200   -   (Figure 7)
  Level 5: points 201- 250   -   (Figure 8)
- listening

  Level 1: points 1 - 50   -   0
  Level 2: points 51- 100   -   (Figure 12)
  Level 3: points 101-150   -   (Figure 13)
  Level 4: points 151- 200   -   (Figure 14)
  Level 5: points 201- 250   -   (Figure 15)
- reading

  Level 1: points 1 - 50   -   (Figure 19)
  Level 2: points 51- 100   -   (Figure 20)
  Level 3: points 101-150   -   (Figure 21)
  Level 4: points 151- 200   -   (Figure 22)
  Level 5: points 201- 250   -   (Figure 23)
- speaking

  Level 1: points 1 - 50   -   (Figure 27)
  Level 2: points 51- 100   -   (Figure 28)
  Level 3: points 101-150   -   (Figure 29)
  Level 4: points 151- 200   -   (Figure 30)
  Level 5: points 201- 250   -   (Figure 31)

POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING (+GRAMMAR), ACADEMIC YEAR 1996/97

5% 2%2% 6%

85%

Legend:
- Number of students with 1 - 50 points
- Number of students with 51 - 100 points
- Number of students with 101 - 150 points
- Number of students with 151 - 200 points
- Number of students with 201 - 250 points
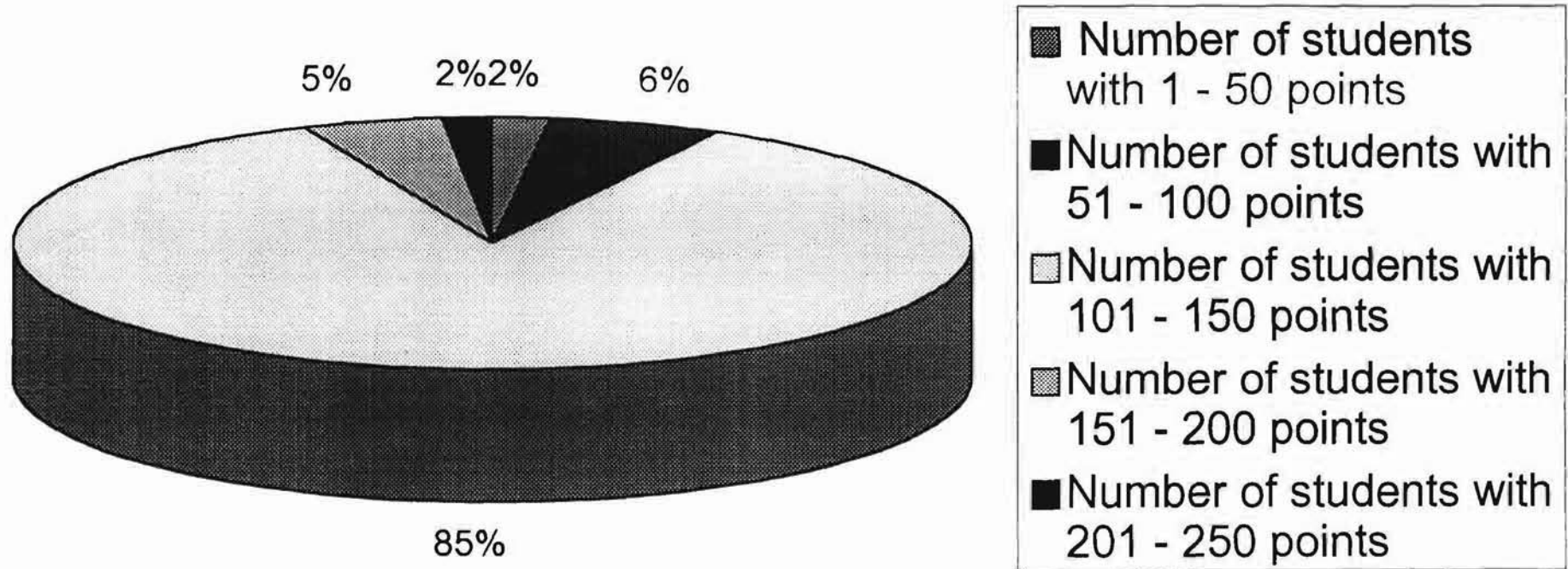
Figure 1

POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING (+GRAMMAR), ACADEMIC YEAR 1997/98

13%   2% 2%   7%

76%

Legend:
- Number of students with 1-50 points
- Number of students with 51-100 points
- Number of students with 101-150 points
- Number of students with 151-200 points
- Number of students with 201-250 points
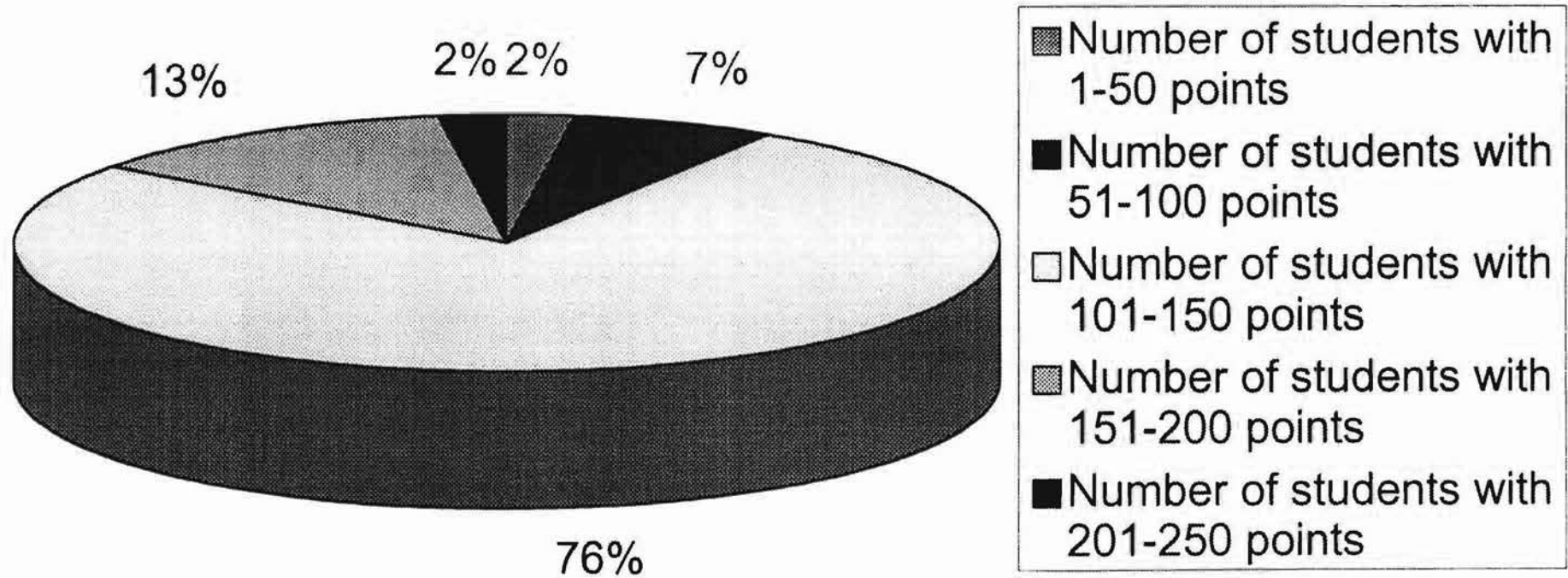
Figure 2

POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING (+GRAMMAR), ACADEMIC YEAR 1998/99

4%   2%1% 4%

89%

Legend:
- ▨ Number of students with 1-50 points
- ■ Number of students with 51-100 points
- □ Number of students with 101-150 points
- ▨ Number of students with 151-200 points
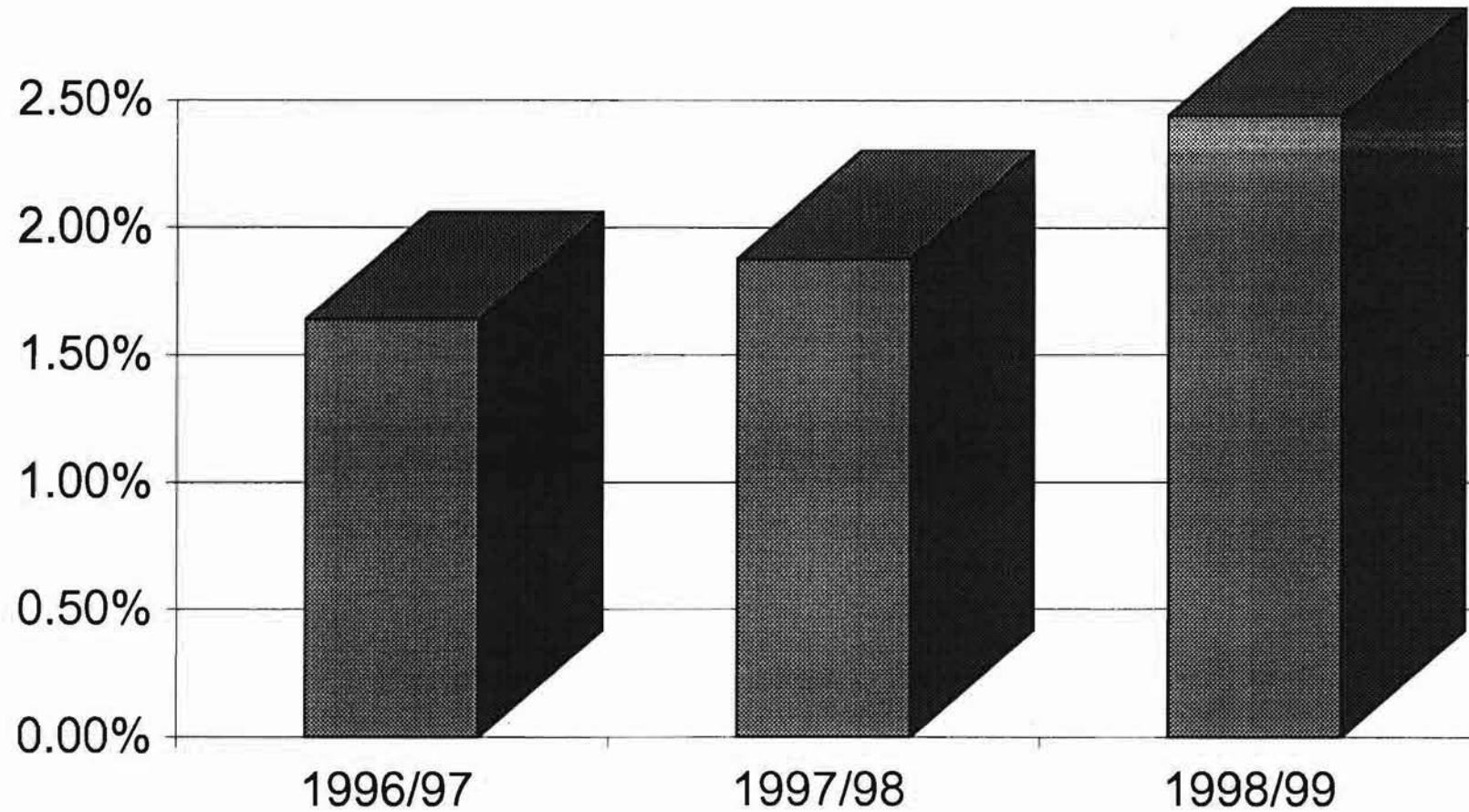- ■ Number of students with 201-250 points
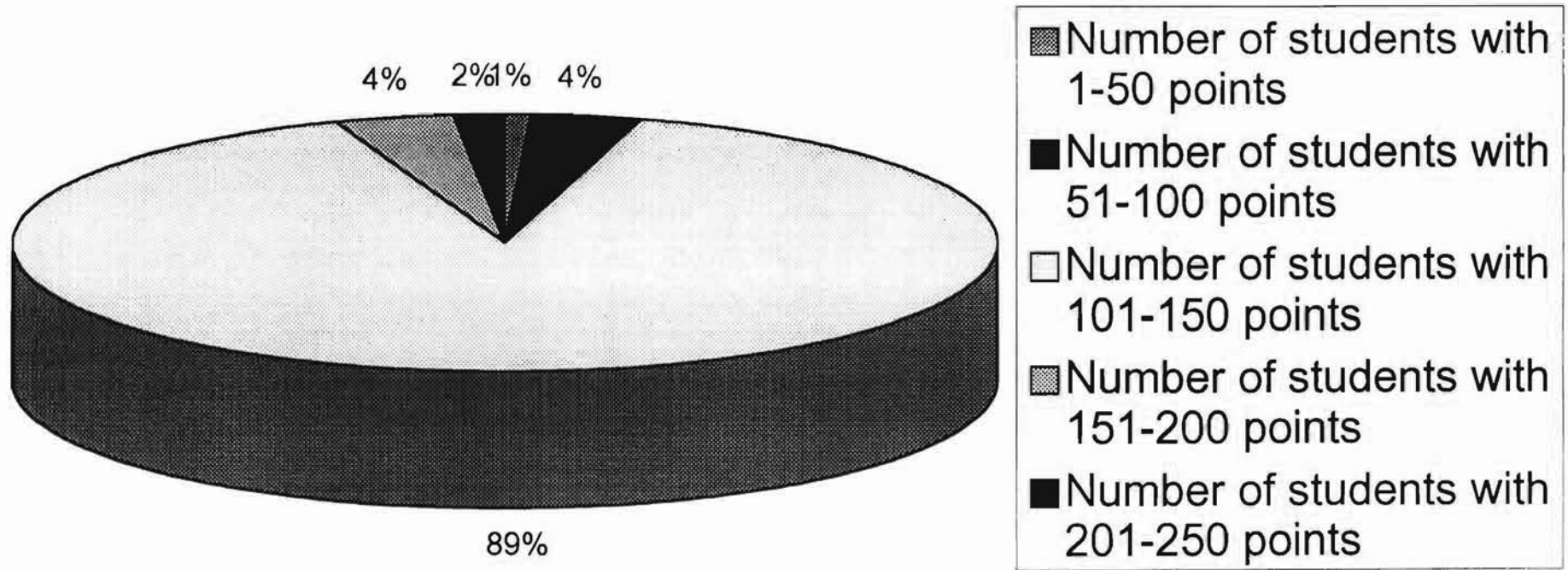
Figure 3

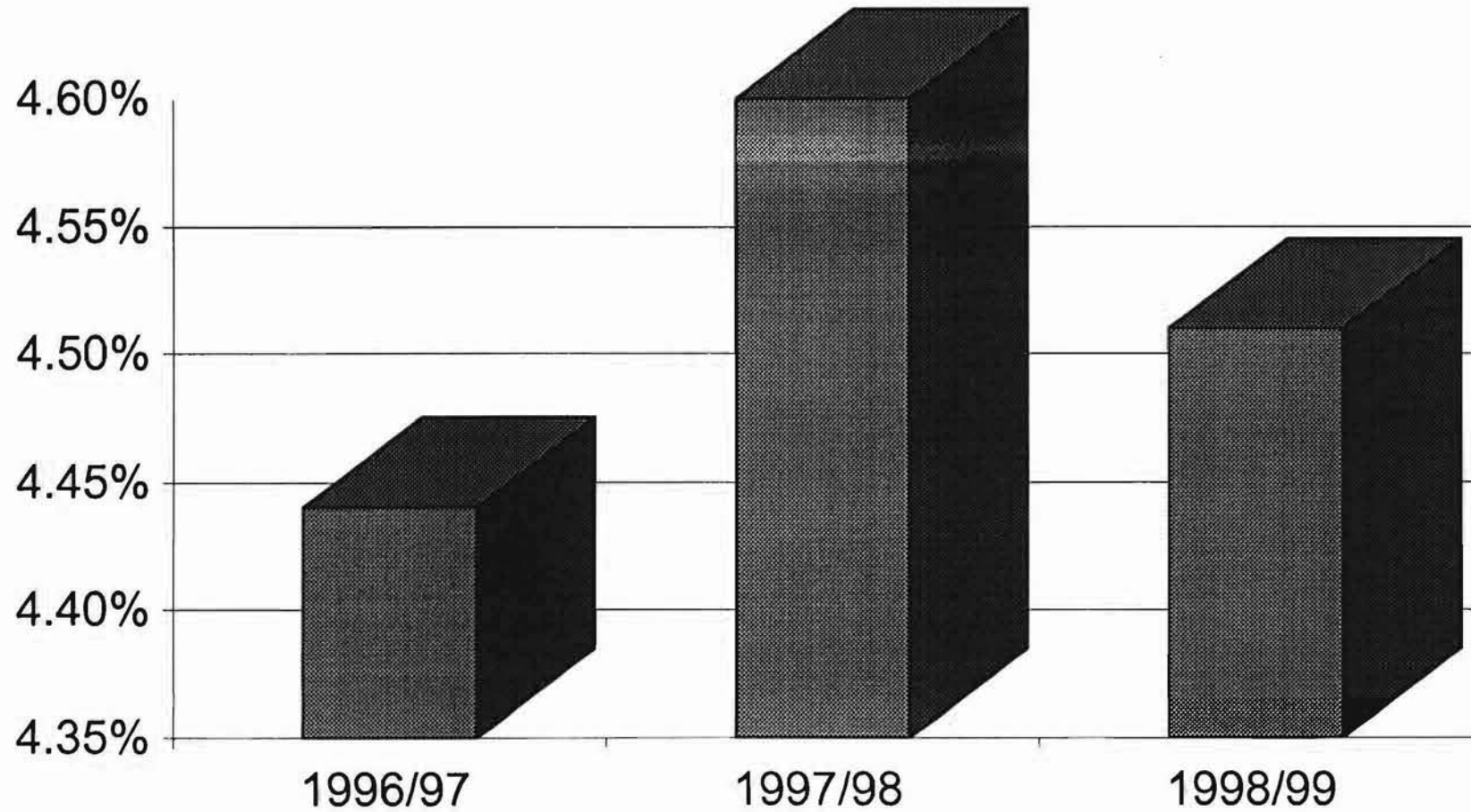# NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 1-50 POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING (+GRAMMAR)
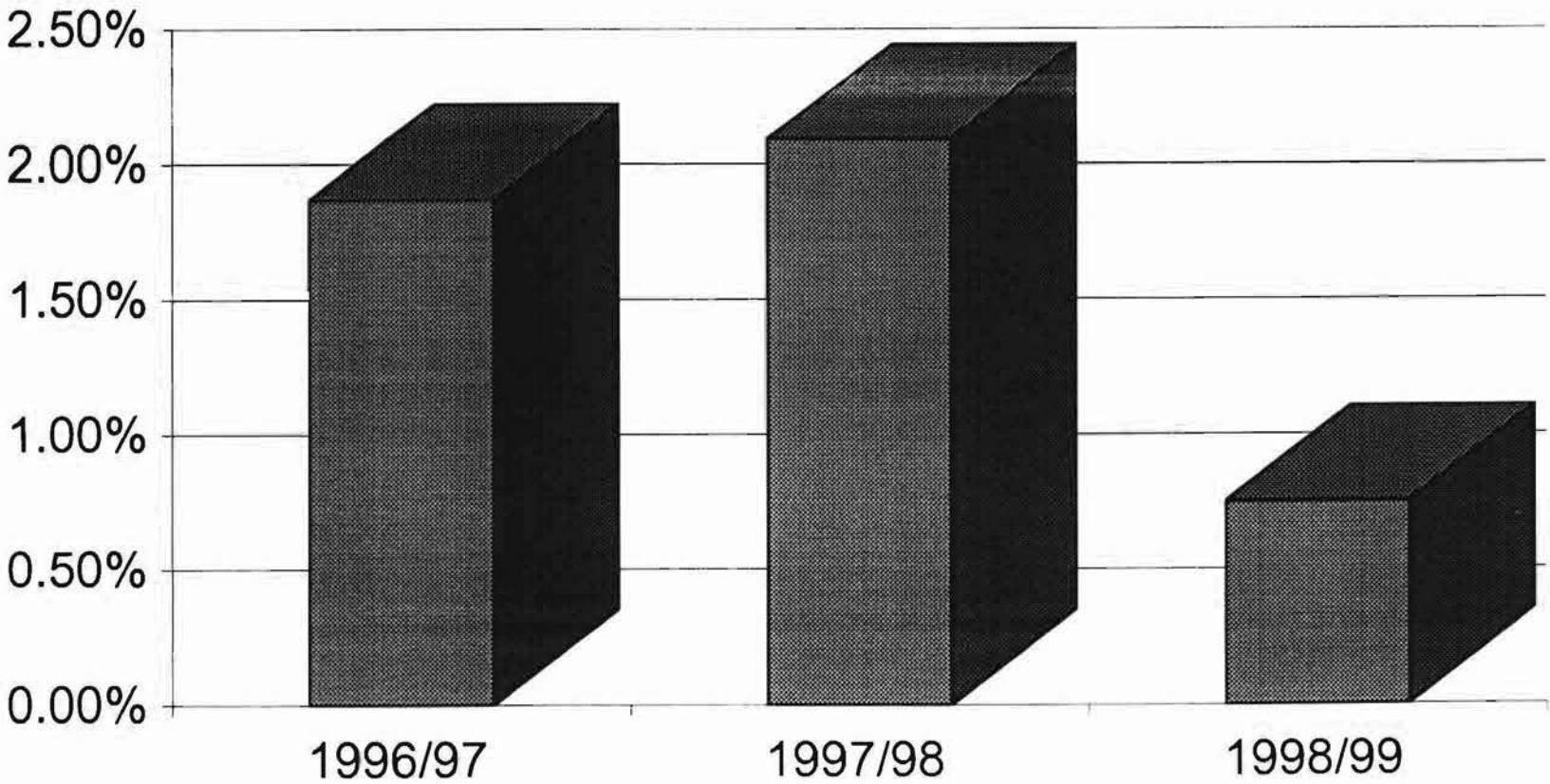
Figure 4

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 51-100 POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING (+GRAMMAR)
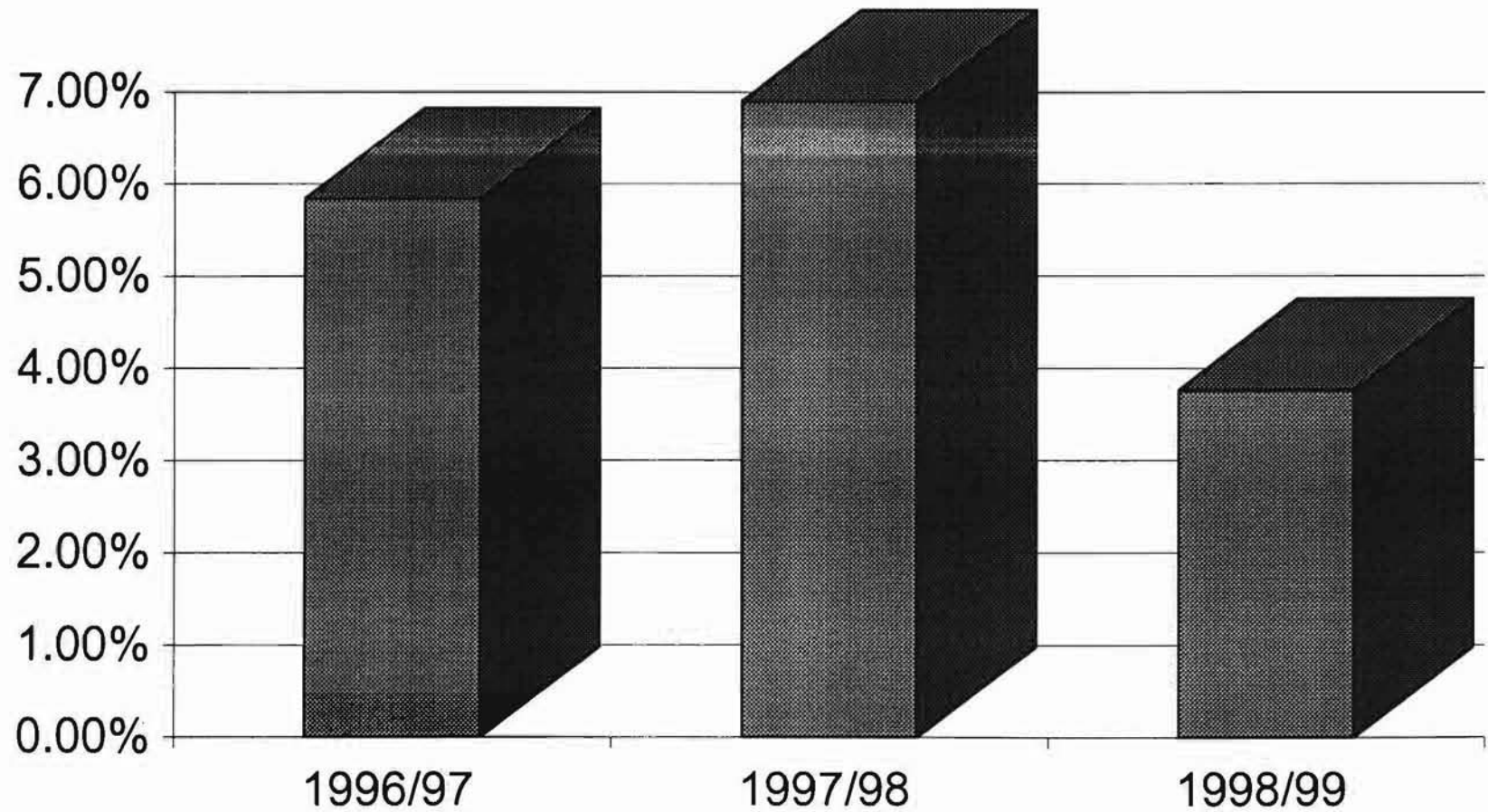
Figure 5

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 101-150 POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING (+GRAMMAR)
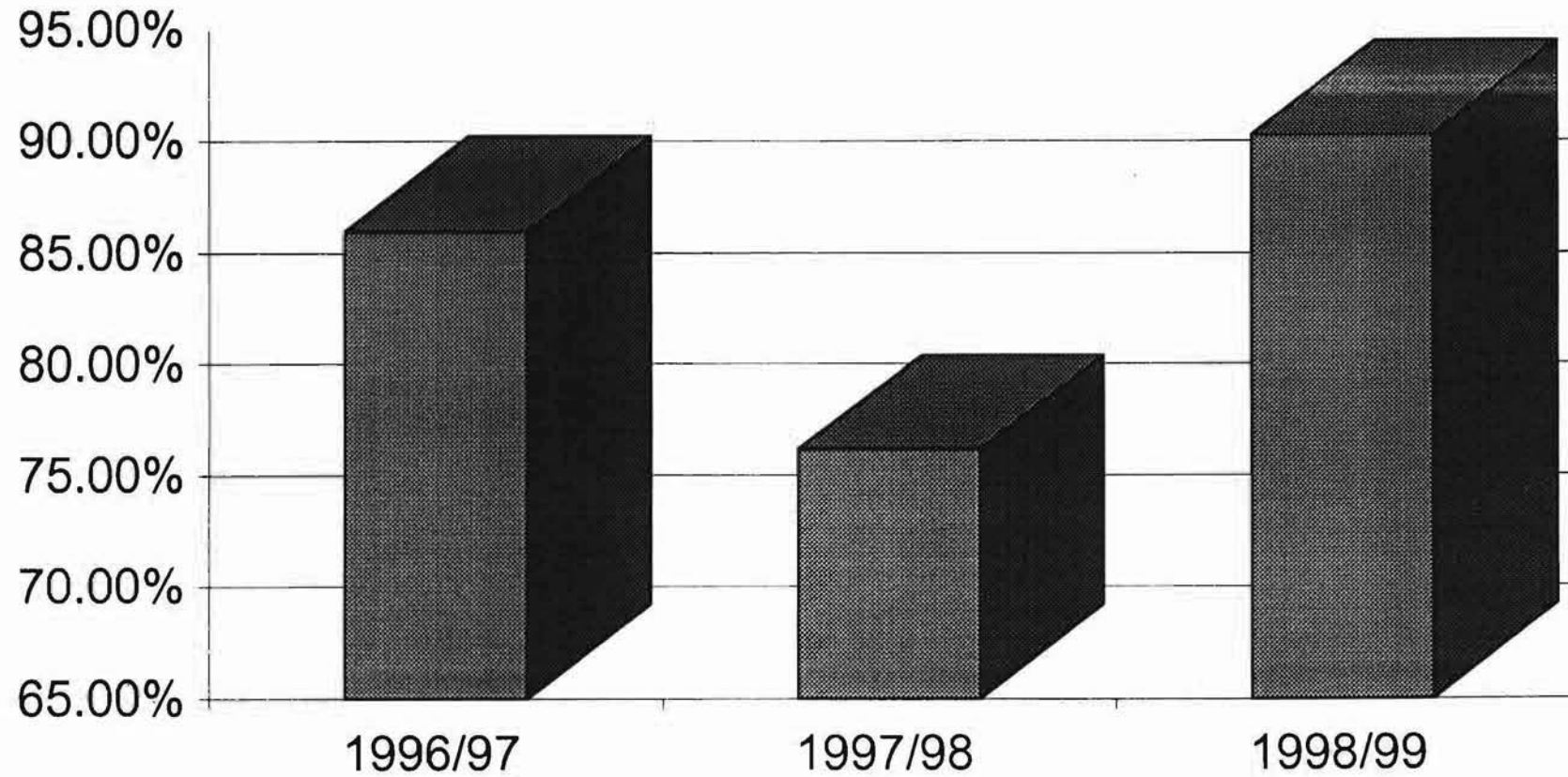
Figure 6

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 151-200 POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING (+GRAMMAR)
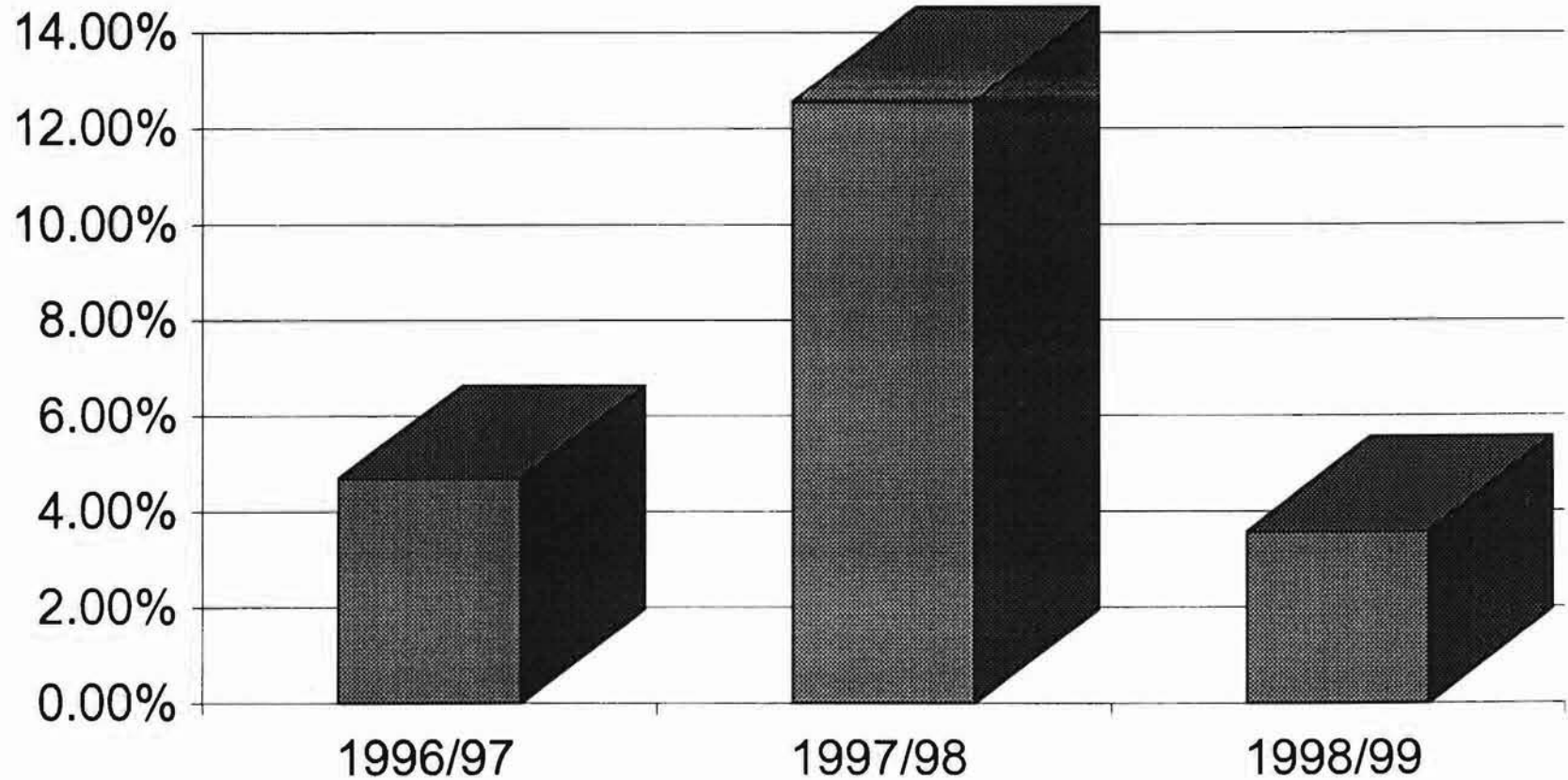
Figure 7

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 201-250 POINTS SCORED FOR WRITING(+GRAMMAR)
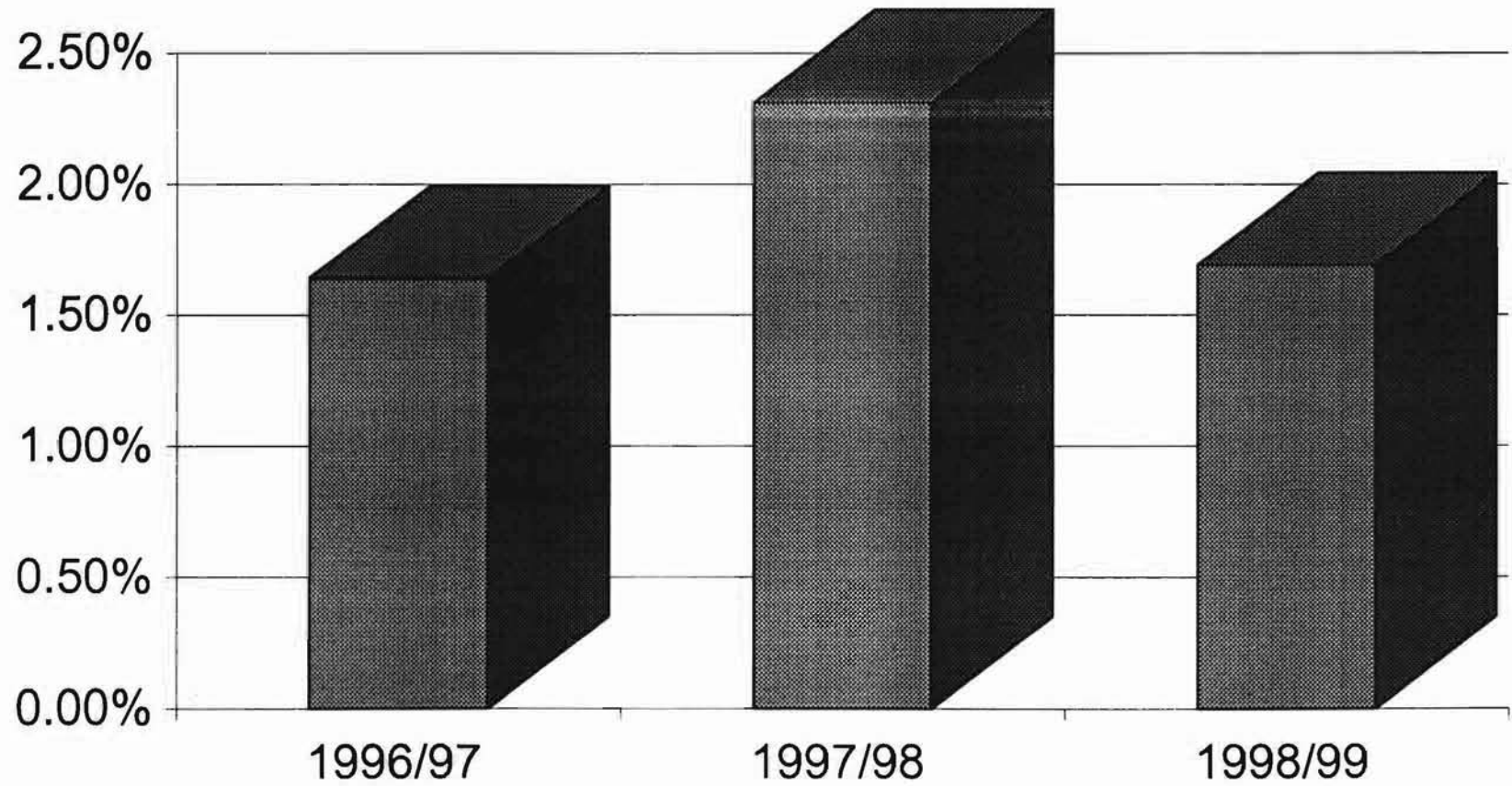
Figure 8

POINTS SCORED FOR LISTENING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1996/97

5% 0% 16%

60%

19%

- ▨ Number of students with 1-50 points
- ■ Number of students with 51-100 points
- □ Number of students with 101-150 points
- ▨ Number of students with 151-200 points
- ■ Number of students with 201-250 points

POINTS SCORED FOR LISTENING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1997/98

9%   0%   13%

15%

63%

- Number of students with 1-50 points
- Number of students with 51-100 points
- Number of students with 101-150 points
- Number of students with 151-200 points
- Number of students with 201-250 points

POINTS SCORED FOR LISTENING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1998/99

7%   0% 6%

20%

67%

Legend:
- Number of students with 1-50 points
- Number of students with 51-100 points
- Number of students with 101-150 points
- Number of students with 151-200 points
- number of students with 201-250 points

Figure 11

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 51-100 POINTS SCORED FOR LISTENING
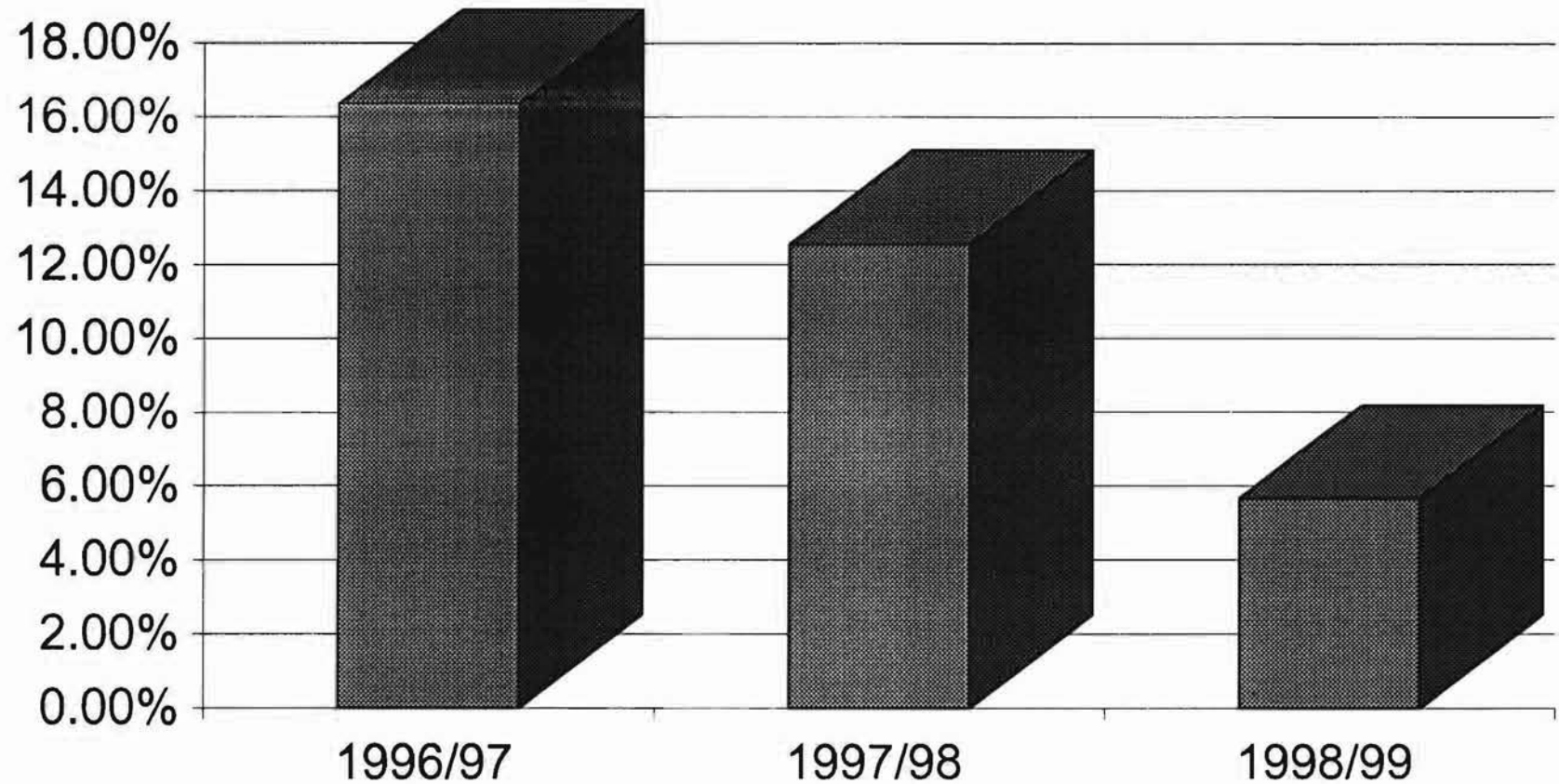
Figure 12

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 101-150 POINTS SCORED FOR LISTENING
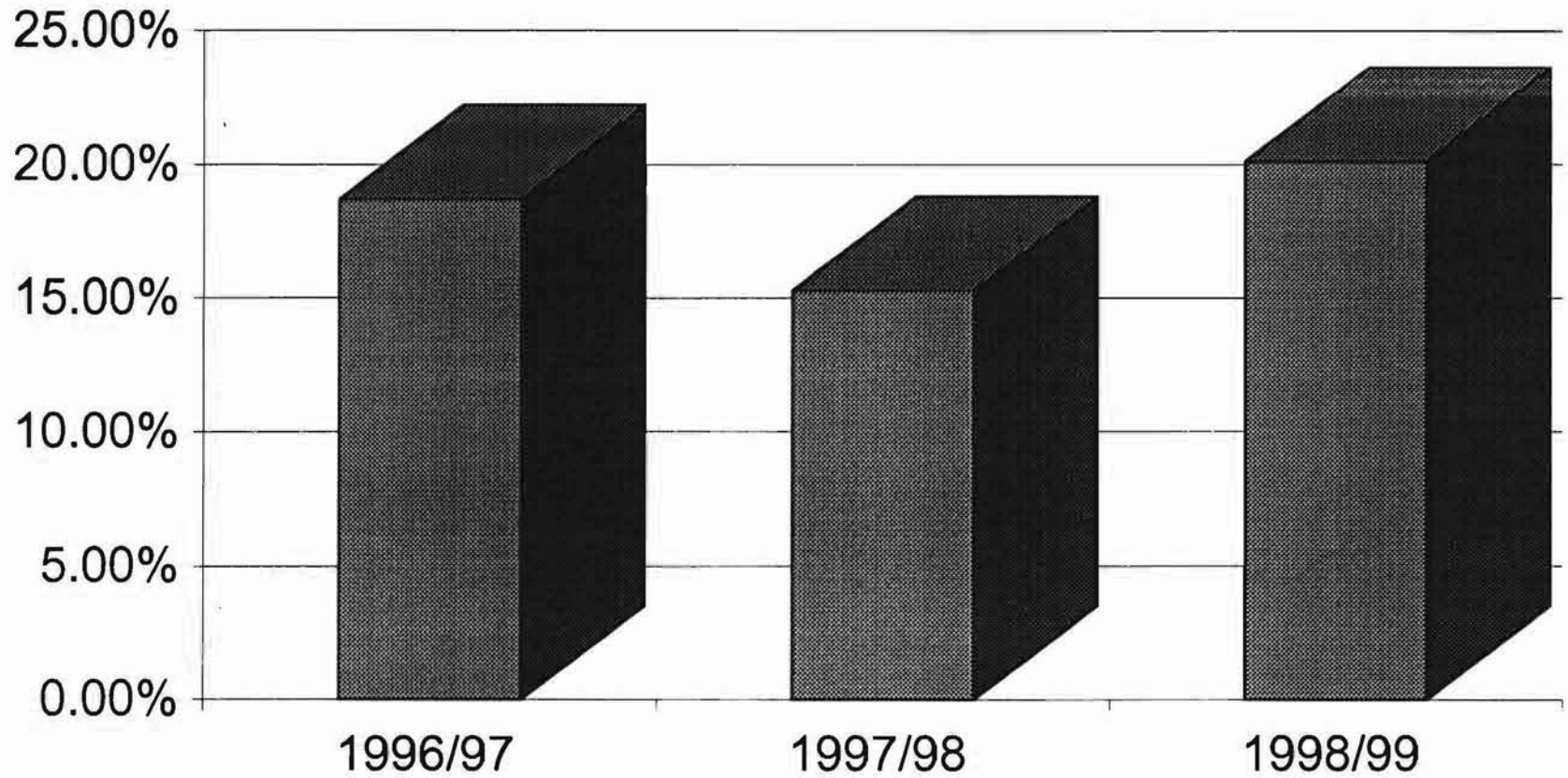
Figure 13

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 151-200 POINTS SCORED
FOR LISTENING
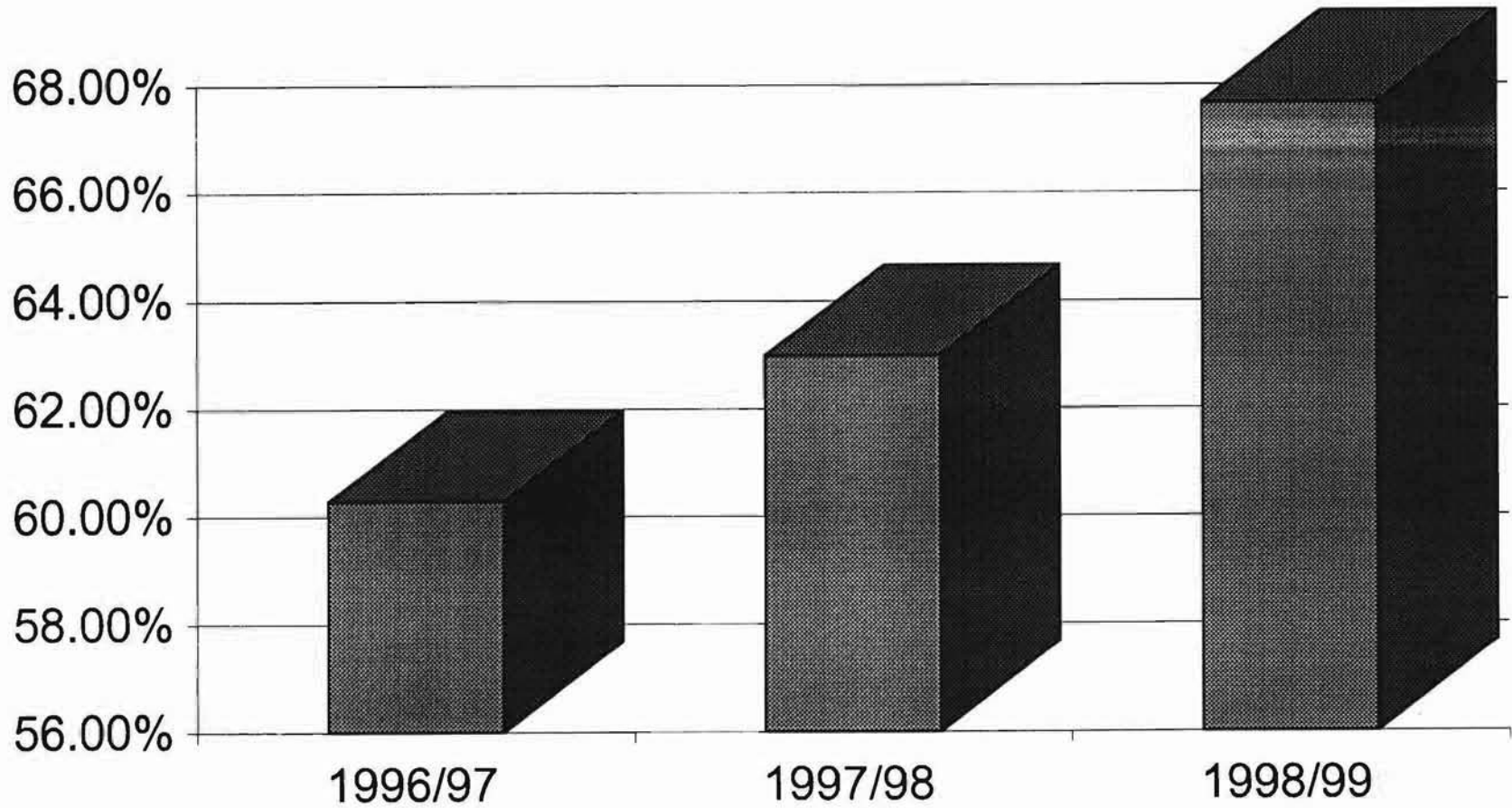
Figure 14
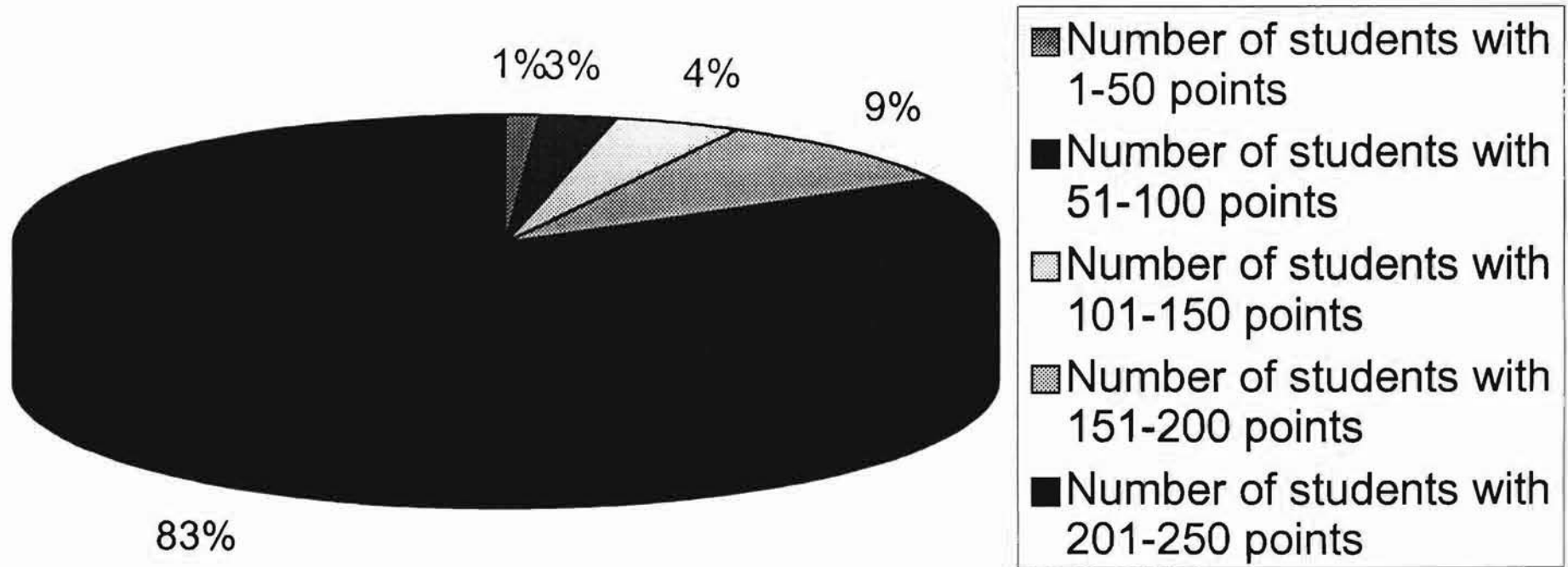
NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 201-250 POINTS SCORED FOR LISTENING
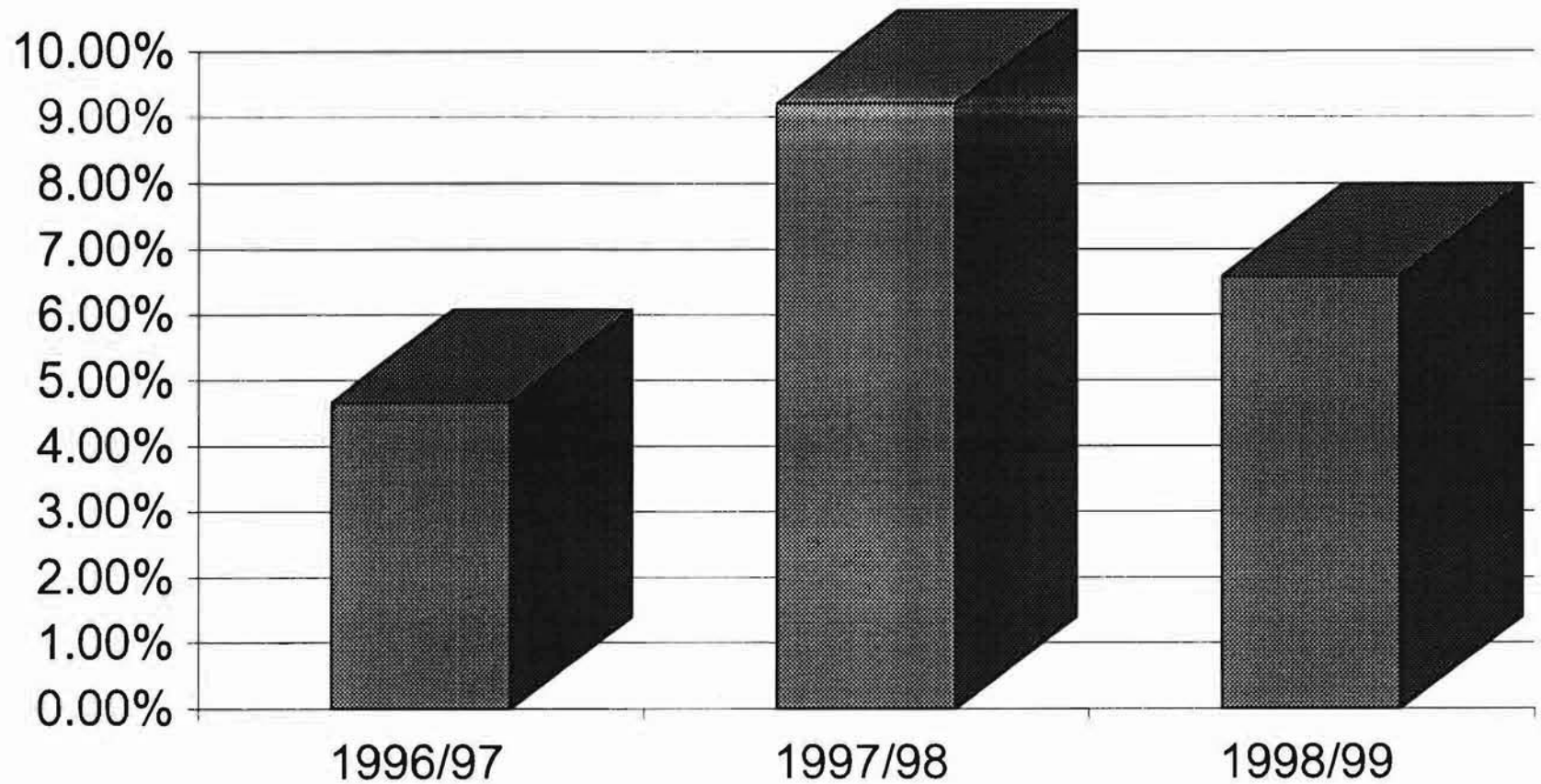
Figure 15

POINTS SCORED FOR READING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1996/97
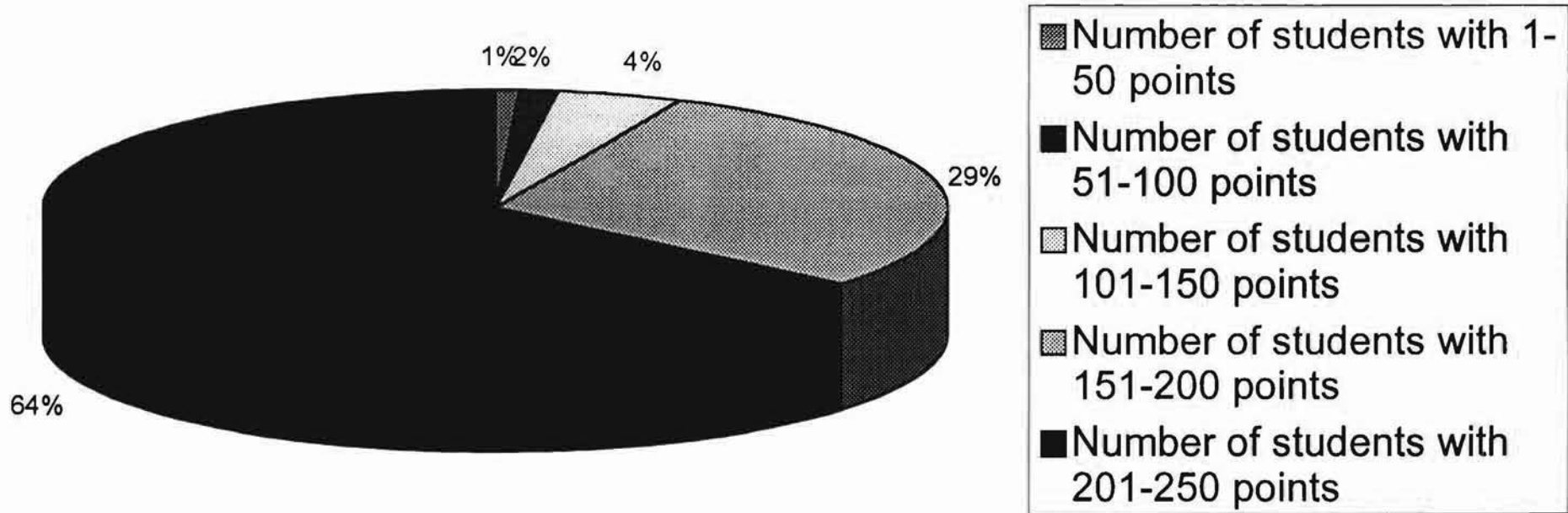
Figure 16

POINTS SCORED FOR READING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1997/98
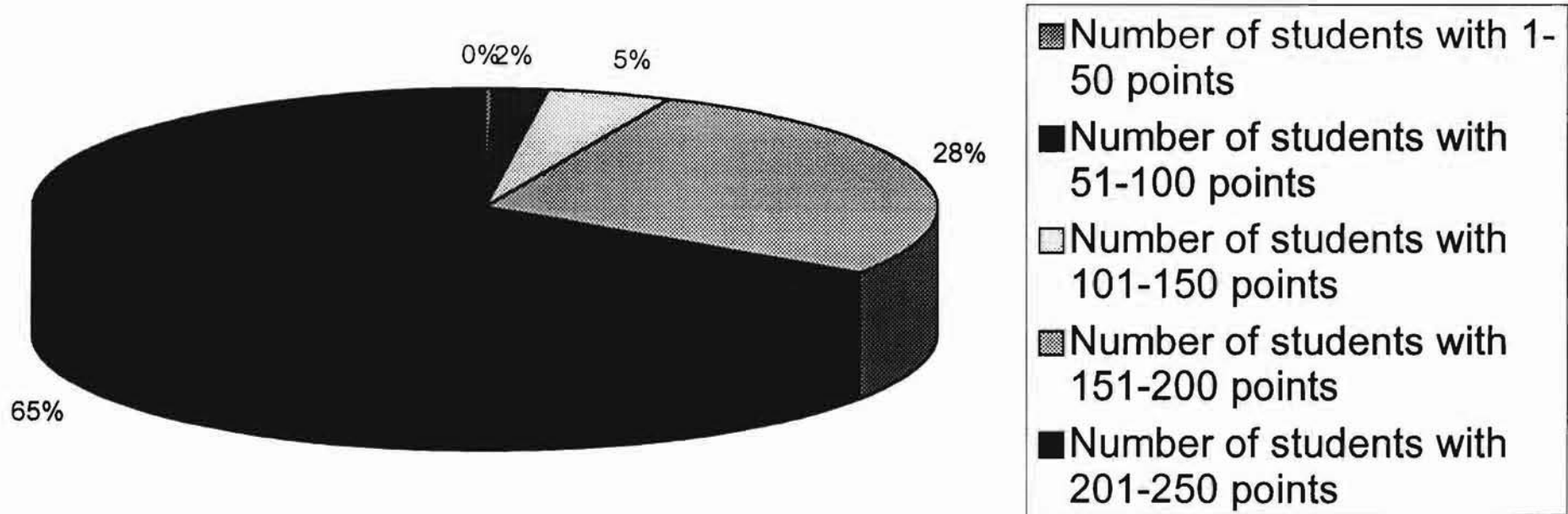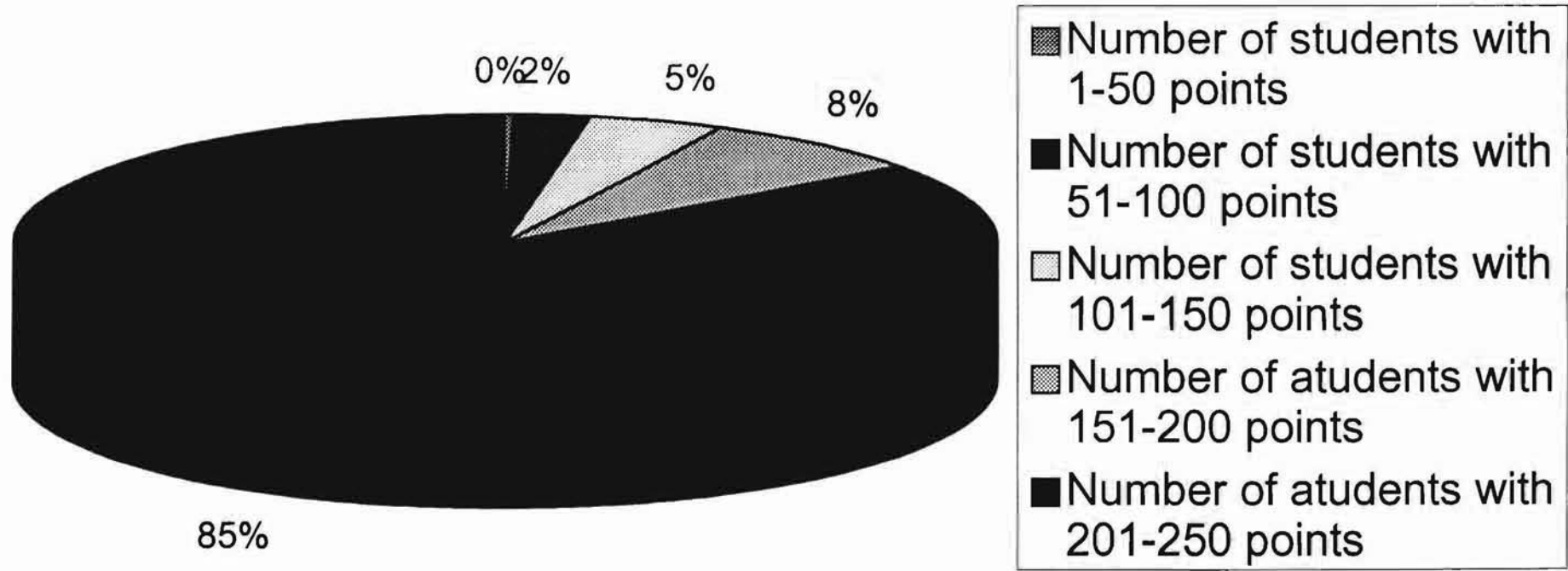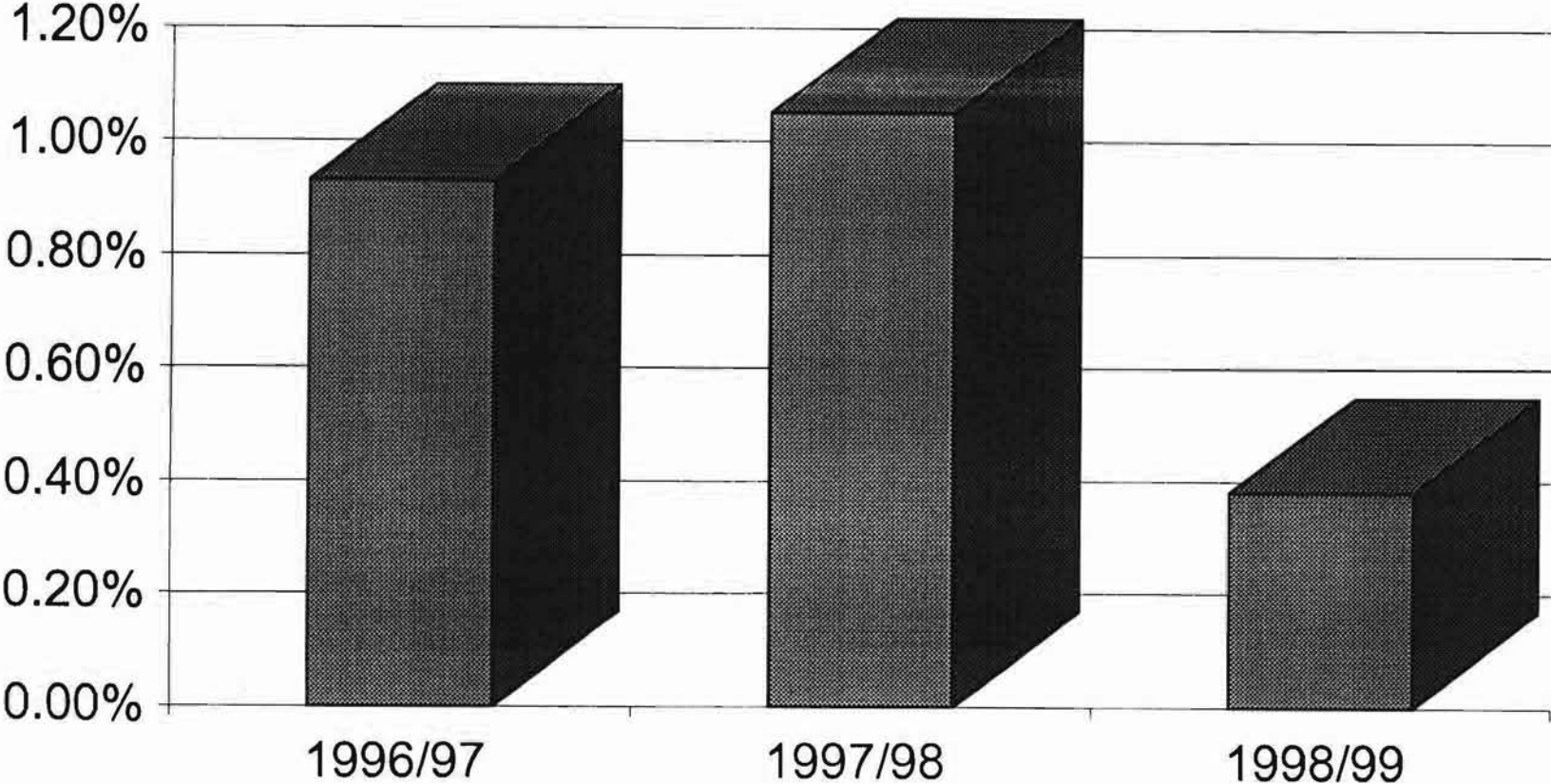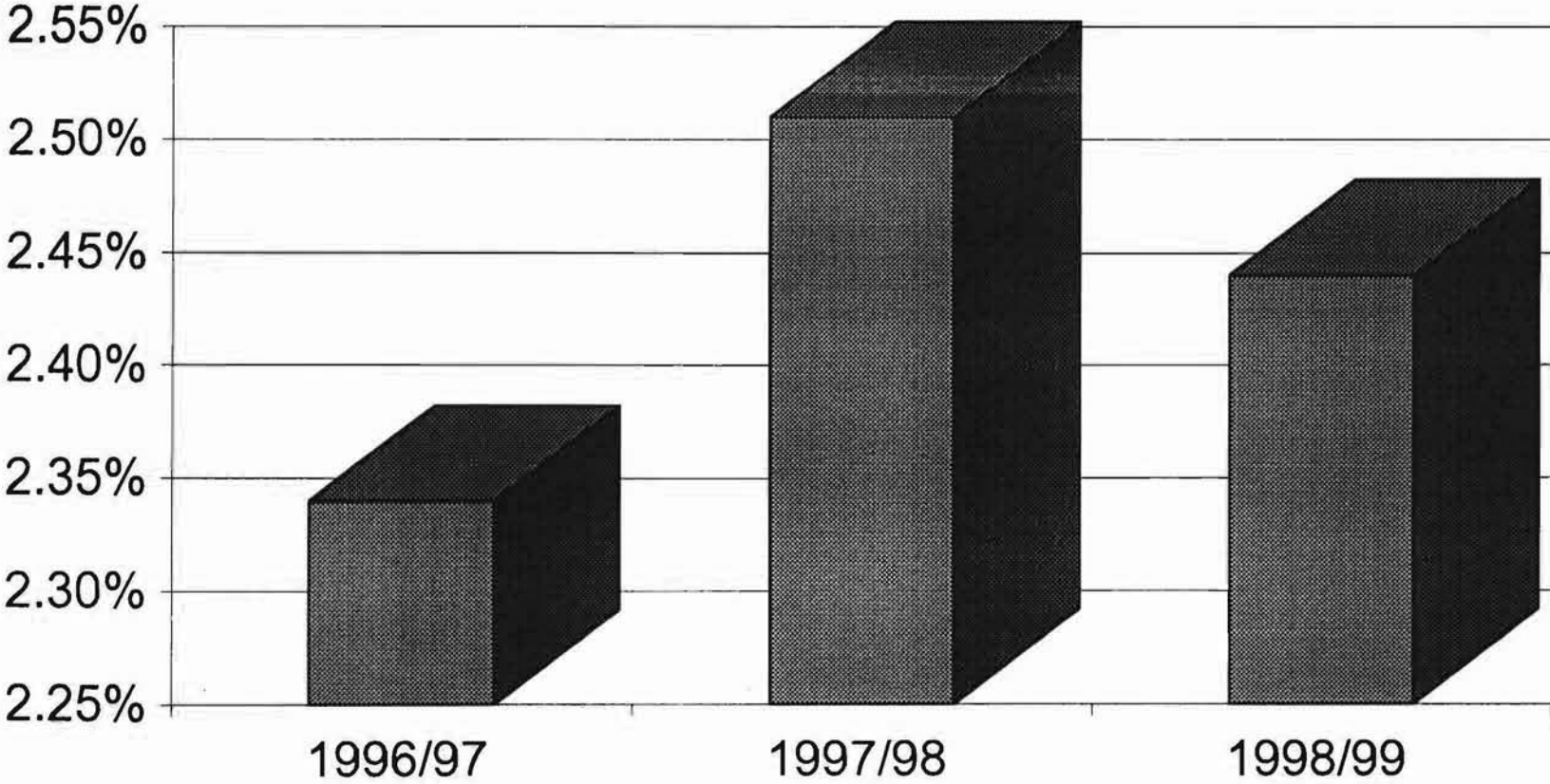

Figure 17

POINTS SCORED FOR READING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1998/99
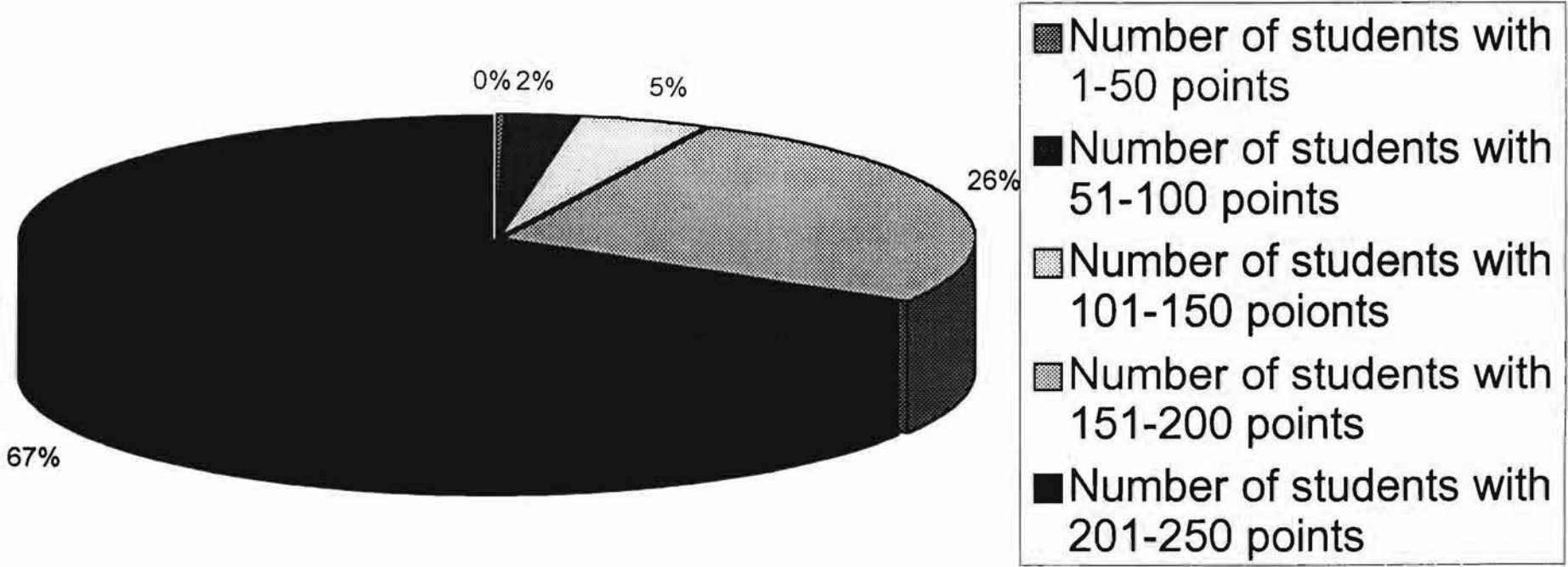
Figure 18

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 1-50 POINTS SCORED FOR READING
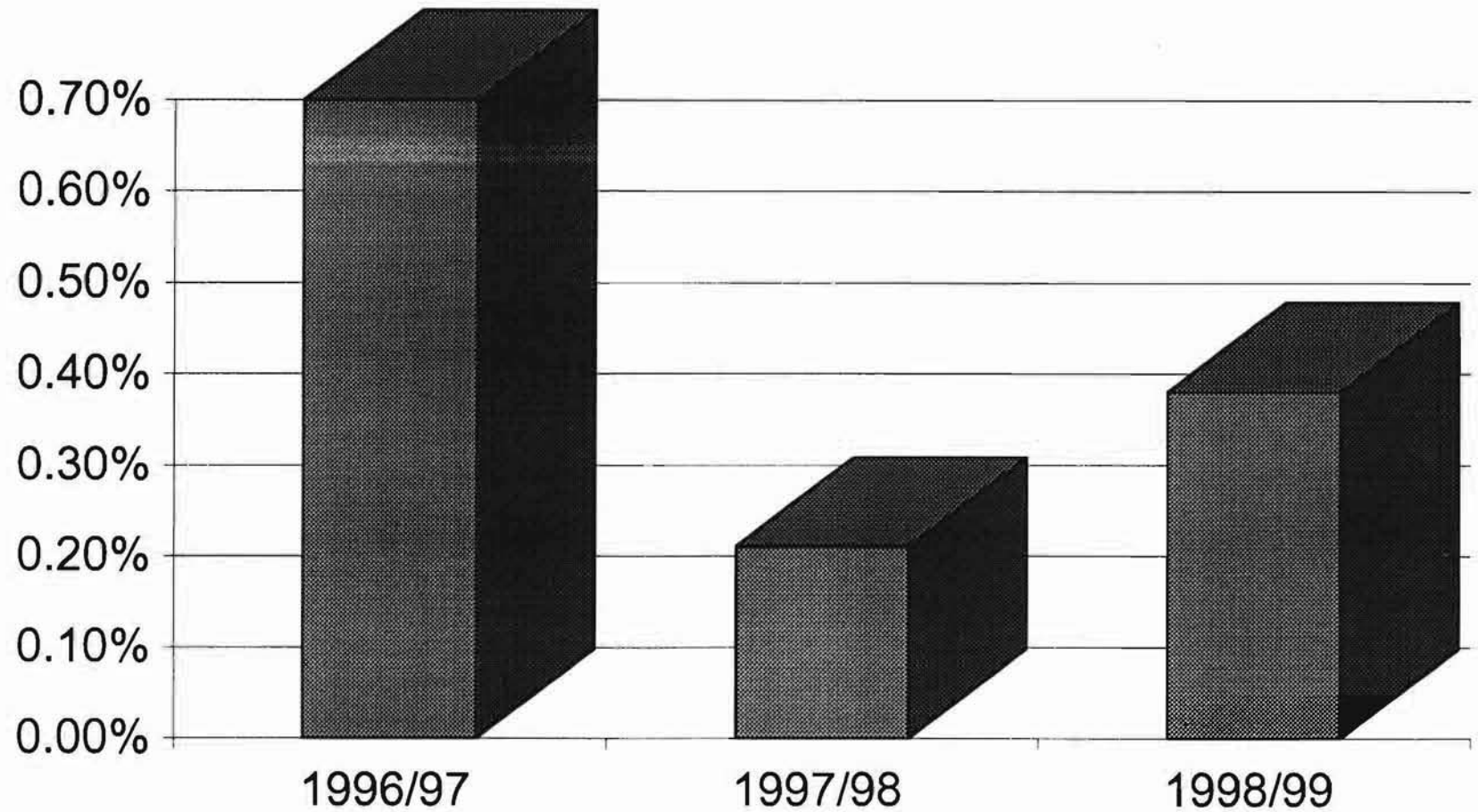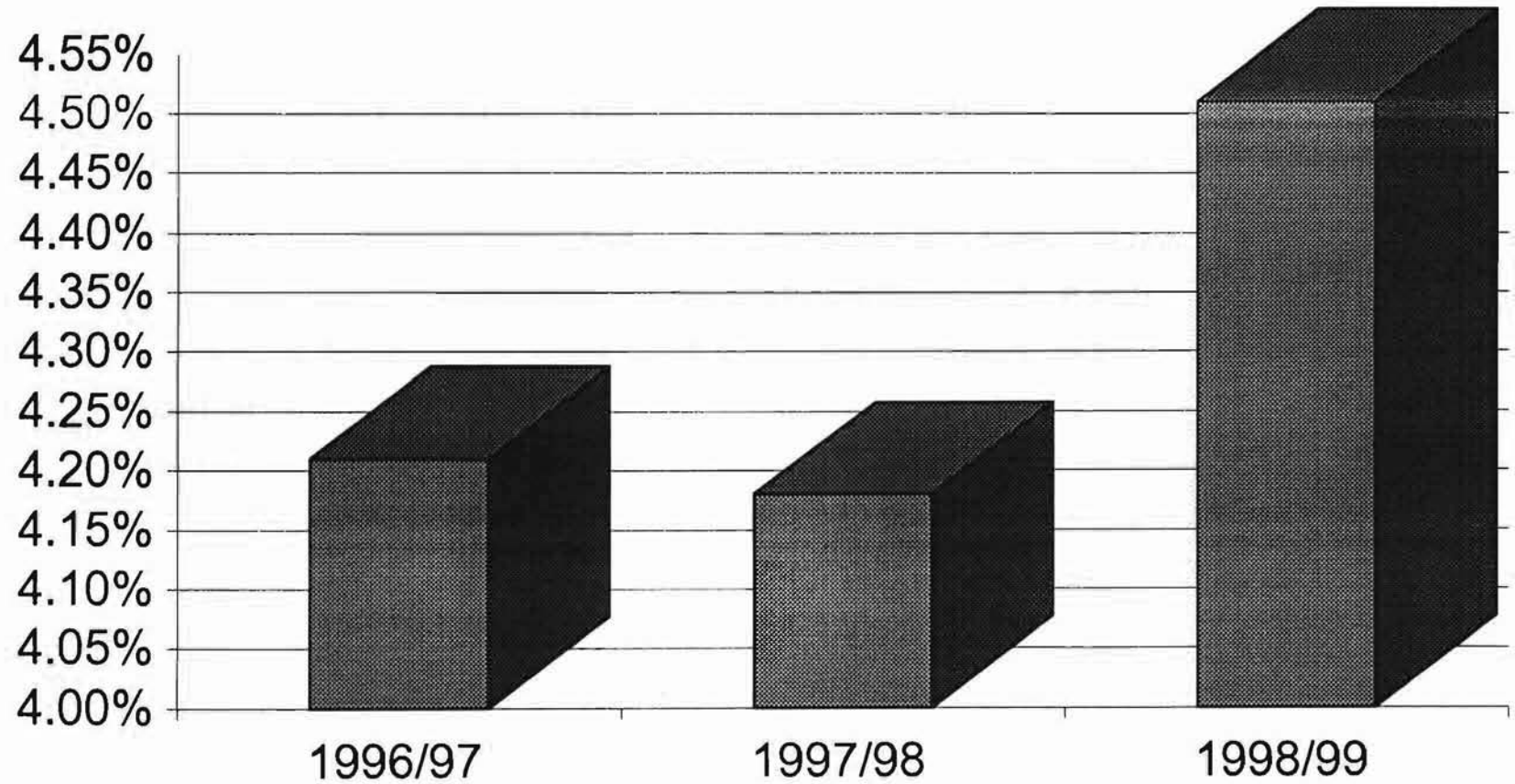
Figure 19

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 51-100 POINTS SCORED FOR READING

Figure 20

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 101-150 POINTS SCORED FOR READING

Figure 21

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 151-200 POINTS SCORED
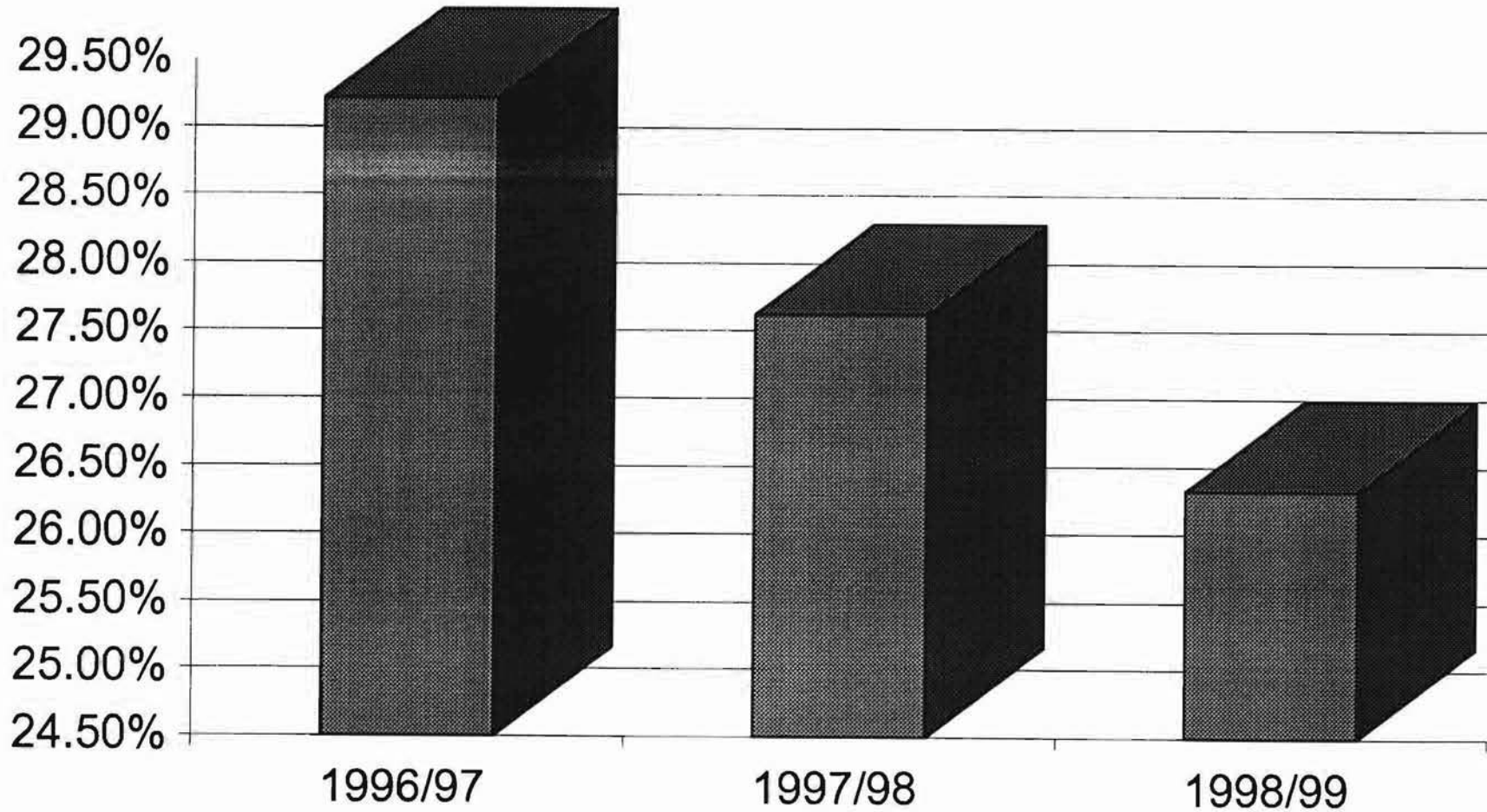
Figure 22

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 201-250 POINTS SCORED FOR READING
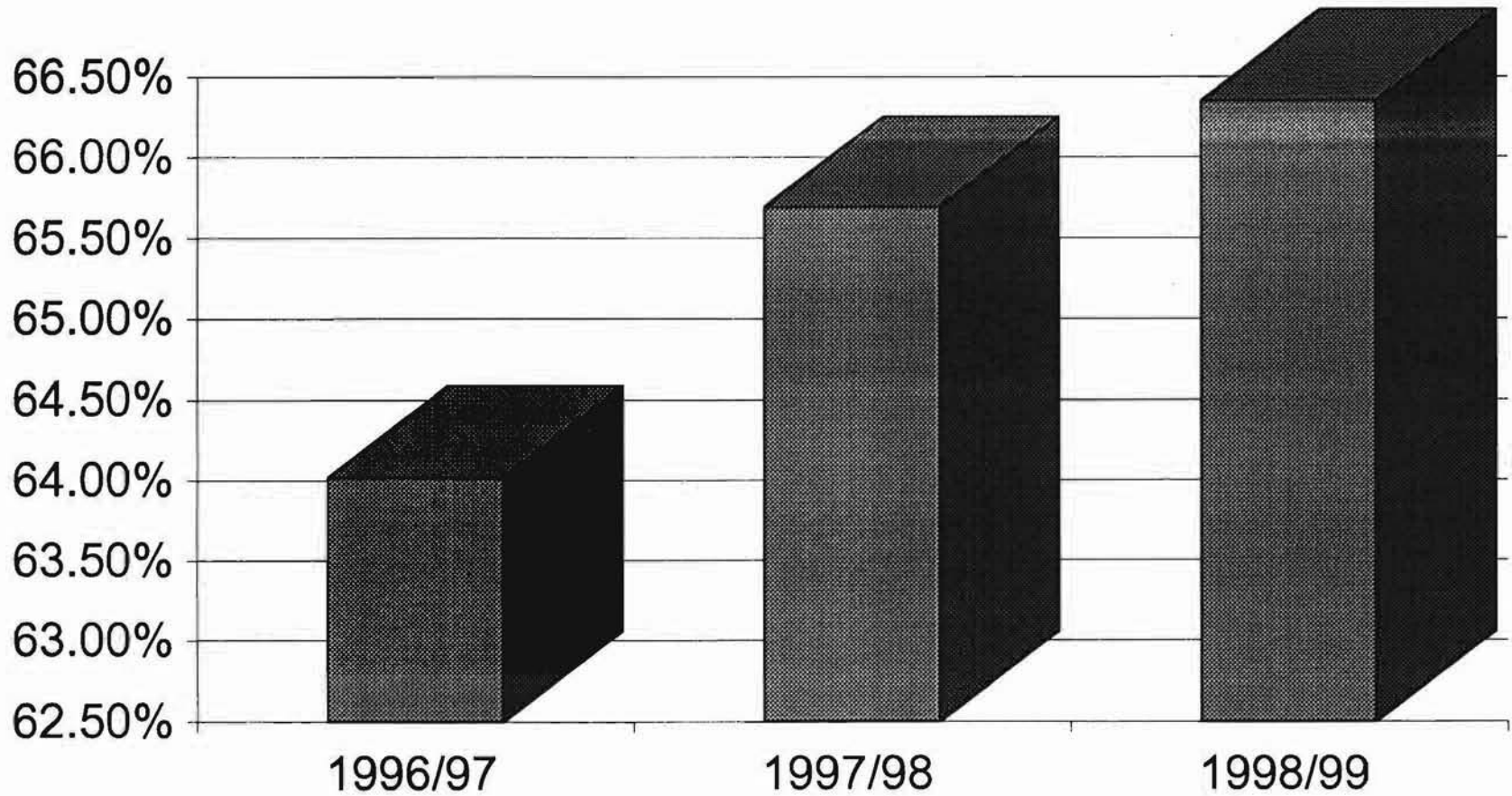
Figure 23

POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1996/97
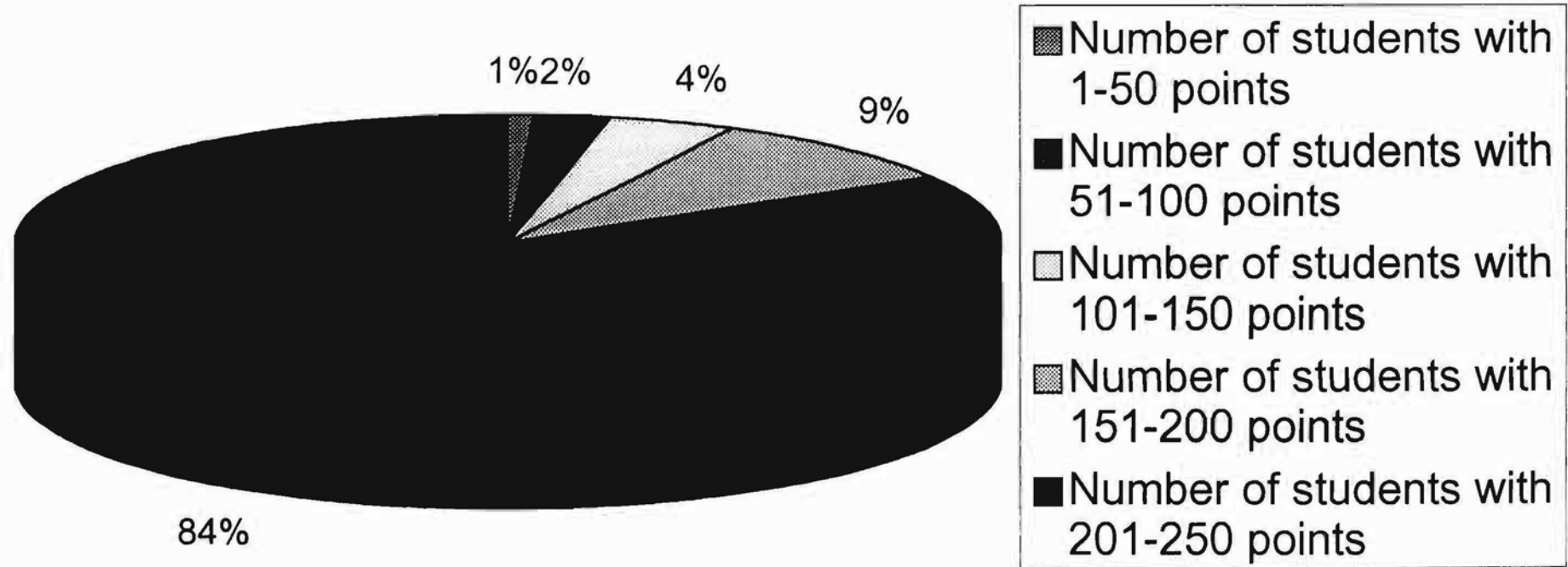
Figure 24

POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1997/98

Figure 25

POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING, ACADEMIC YEAR 1998/99

Figure 26

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 1-50 POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING

Figure 27

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 51-100 POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING

Figure 28
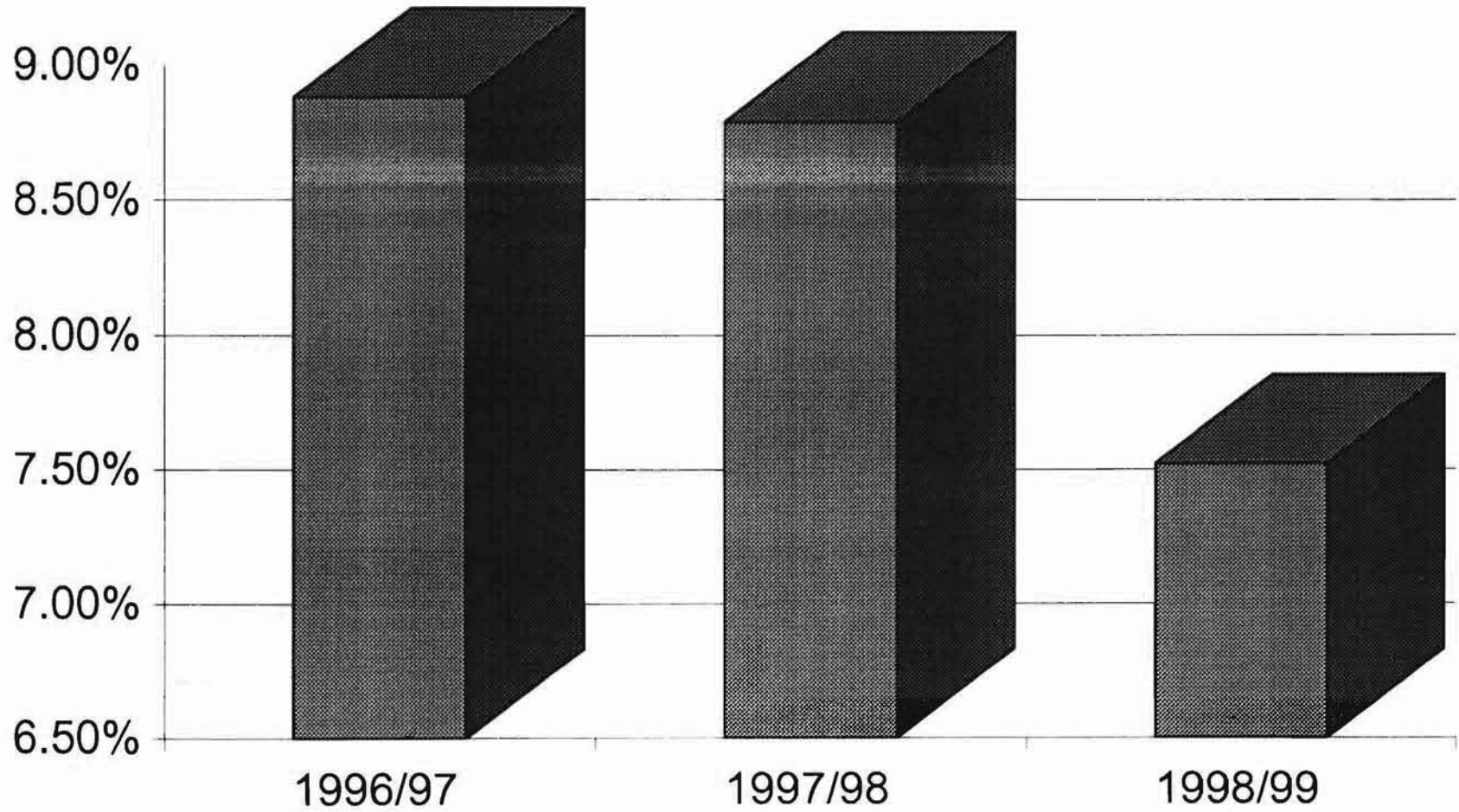
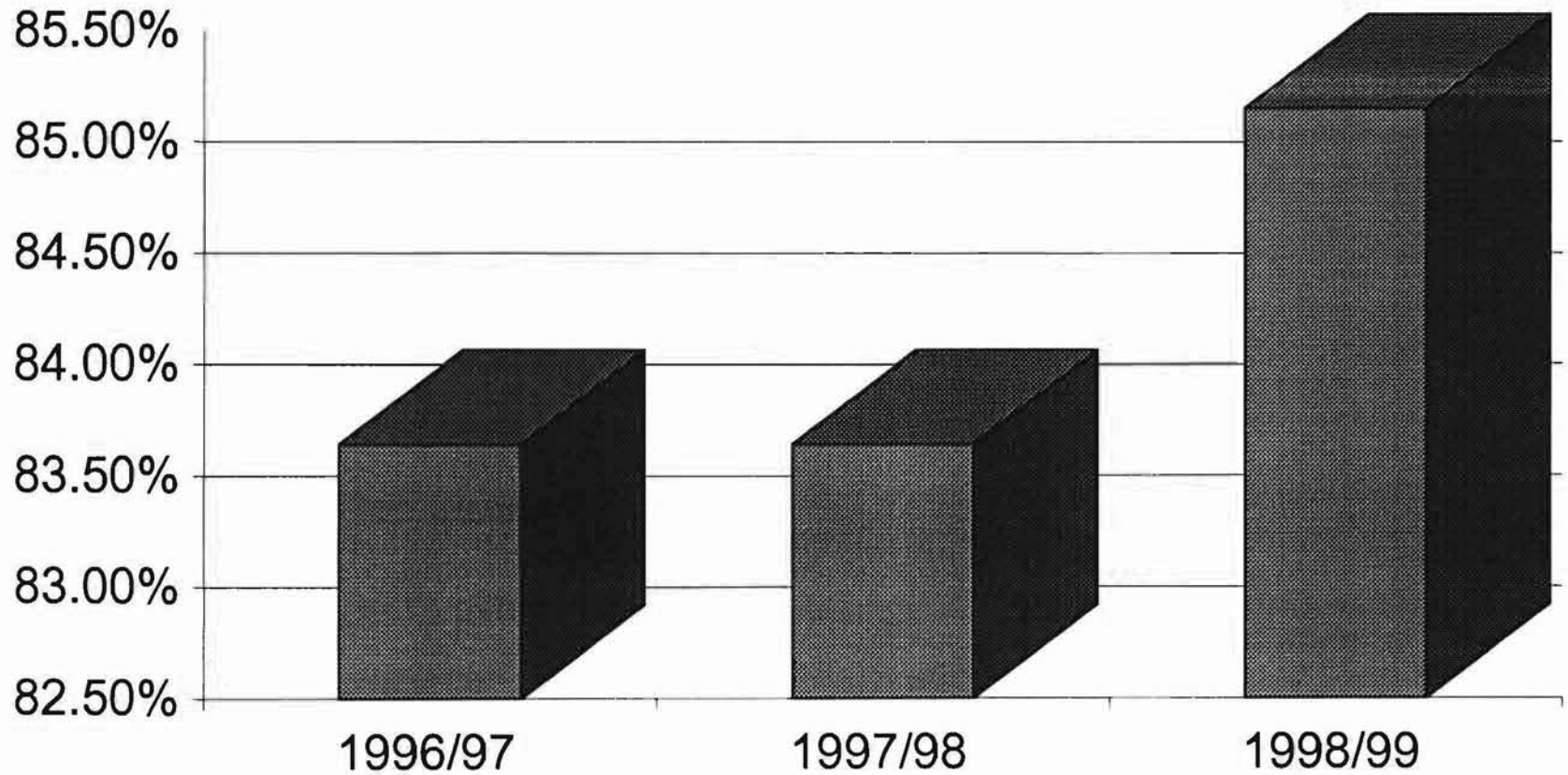# NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 101-150 POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING

Figure 29

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 151-200 POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING

Figure 30

NUMBER OF STUDENTS WITH 201-250 POINTS SCORED FOR SPEAKING

Figure 31