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BAAL Annual Meeting. Manchester. September 1979

Defining applied linguistics was the theme of the 1979 Annual Meeting held at the Manchester Polytechnic. In spite of some apprehension that this would lead to the repetition of gloomy platitudes those who attended the meeting were excited by the sense of purpose and the feeling of success in British applied linguistics. There was an awareness of the difficulty of defining a discipline, a difficulty for linguistics no less than for applied linguistics. There was an awareness too that while both linguistics and applied linguistics share the same central concern, that is language, it is not to be expected that the prevailing orthodoxy in linguistics, now moving from a psycho-linguistic to a philosophical to a socio-linguistic interest, should be reflected in applied linguistics. There is no opposition between the two disciplines, indeed, they both need one another, but the problems they face and the training they provide are necessarily different. Alan Davies took an autobiographical approach, explaining how he had come into applied linguistics from a language teaching and an educational background. (It was pointed out later that this has been a major difference between British applied linguistics and American linguistics applied in that many American applied linguists have no language teaching or similar experience but come straight into academic applied linguistics). Alan Davies pointed out that to him applied linguistics had offered a framework on which to examine his language teaching and learning questions. In no sense did it provide solutions to problems. That would be a vain delusion. But it took his questions seriously in a way that linguistics could not since its questions are quite rightly procedural and theoretical. Five papers on the theme were sufficiently diverse to reassure the meeting that the Association has a serious understanding of and commitment to its own discipline. At the same time the more experimental papers given in the second half of the meeting were assurances that the Association is developing the discipline in addition to talking about it. Indeed, British applied linguistics moves into the 1980's in a very strong position, having a good membership in BAAL, a steadily increasing AILA, a new journal 'Applied Linguistics' from OUP due to start early in 1980, a steadily increasing number of professional openings for applied linguists and enough BAAL seminars planned to fill the calendar until 1982. The single disappointment of the Annual Meeting was the numbers there, about 65, to hear all the splendid news were so few. It is very much to be hoped that the 1980 meeting in Leeds will have a larger attendance.

Alan Davies

What is Applied Linguistics?

A.Spicer

This paper looks (once again) at the relationship between Linguistics and Applied Linguistics and suggests that unless the scope of Linguistics is (improperly) equated with those limited areas of interest which occupy the main attention of the so-called 'modern linguists', the relationship is one of inclusion i.e. Applied Linguistics is one (large and important) branch of linguistics - and "Modern Linguistics" is another (comparatively small but equally important) branch of the same discipline. It is also suggested that the criterial feature of Linguistics is not its data (which it shares with many other disciplines) nor its research methodologies (which are many and various and of which none is unique to Linguistics), but rather its objectives (which sufficiently distinguish linguistic language studies from the studies of language carried out for other purposes by scholars in other disciplines).

The relationships both within the discipline of linguistics between the Applied branch and the many other branches and between Linguistics and the cognate disciplines are briefly considered. It is then concluded that these many and varied relationships are of the essence of Linguistics: that all can and should be reciprocal, and, finally, that both Linguistics as a whole and Applied Linguistics as one of its major branches can properly be regarded as being simultaneously (and non-paradoxically) autonomous and dependent fields of study.

Models and Fictions

H.G.Widdowson

The expression 'Linguistics applied' carries with it the implication that the principles of linguistics as a discipline must remain intact however they are applied to practical matters. 'Applied linguistics', on the other hand, implies no such constraint: it is a kind of linguistics, like folk linguistics, which can establish its own principles of enquiry and conditions of relevance. With 'Linguistics applied' we have to consider the status of models of linguistic description and the extent to which this permits of possible application. It is suggested that such models are best regarded not as empirical constructs but as fictions which are recognized as corresponding to some ideal image of reality which requires no actual realization. In this view, linguistics cannot be applied but can only provide insights to be used in the development of independently justified models of description in applied linguistics.

Why versus? - and not only!

Peter Strevens

'Applied linguistics' is a label, and not a self-evident technical term. Its meaning is simultaneously of two kinds: (i) a multi-disciplinary approach or contribution to the solution of language-based problems; (ii) what applied linguists do.

As to (i), we should add that AL redefines itself afresh according to the detailed nature of the problems being addressed, although linguistics in some form is probably the only central, inescapable contributory discipline in all cases. As to (ii), it is essential to observe that applied linguists have multiple identities, which match their multiple aims and their invoking of multiple disciplines, and are reflected in the way almost all applied linguists are simultaneously engaged both in theoretical discussion and in practical tasks.

Applied linguistics, then, provides, through relevant training over a broad field, an intellectual basis for problem-solving in relation to language: hence on the one hand the difficulty of teaching AL at first degree level, before students have progressed far in mental discipline, and on the other, the considerable demand, world-wide, for practitioners with the breadth and depth provided by an AL training.

AL RULES OK?

Being Interdisciplinary - Some Problems Facing Applied Linguistics

Christopher Brumfit

The paper examines some difficulties of an applied activity. Practicality inevitably results in the need to be interdisciplinary because no practical problem can be interpreted purely in terms of one discipline alone. However, scholars and researchers within each discipline use terminology and indeed approach data (in our case linguistic data) in very different ways, so that problems arise in directly relating what (say) a psychologist means by 'language' to what a linguist (say) means. It is suggested that the progress being gradually made towards a dynamic rather than a static model of language use will help applied linguists to interpret insights from feeder disciplines more systematically in relation to each other.

Pathological Linguistics

Pam Grunwell

The history of sporadic contacts between speech pathology and therapy and the linguistic sciences during the 1960s is reviewed. In the early 1970s permanent interdisciplinary links began to develop with the introduction of Linguistics in speech therapy training courses. In more recent years publications have begun to appear illustrating the applications of linguistic procedures to clinical practice. The time has now come, it is argued, to define the principles and procedures of applicable linguistics - that is, a framework of clinical linguistics which will satisfy the requirements of the practitioner in carrying out the clinical tasks of assessment, diagnosis, prognosis and prescription.

Note: it is hoped to include the full text of this paper in the next issue of the BAAL Newsletter.

Applied Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, and Descriptive Linguistics in a
Developing Language

Chaim Rabin

The paper is based on experience in Israel. Applied linguistics is discussed as an integrative discipline uniting, and divided into, Descriptive and Theoretical Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Sociolinguistics, and Psycholinguistics. Aspects of language planning in Israel are discussed in relation to this view.

Applying Linguistics? Specifying and Meeting Needs in ESP Teacher Training

Jennifer Jarvis

The paper provided an illustration of some of the issues which arise in applying linguistics in the situation of training overseas teachers of English for Specific Purposes.

Examples of pedagogical constraints on applicability were given, and the paper then centred on the problems non-native teachers of English have in analysing specific purpose discourse. A main problem for such teachers is developing the ability to identify implicit function and members' presuppositions in text. While there is a body of AL research in this area, a need was suggested for further work in explicating facets of native-speaker awareness, on which research itself perforce relies.

Attitude and Use: the Aston Experience

John Galleymore

A Nuffield Small Grant of £2,000 in 1975 initiated an assisted self-tutoring scheme at the University of Aston for the languages less commonly taught: particularly Arabic, Chinese, Dutch and Swedish, but soon adding others, notably Italian, Japanese and Spanish. A tutor has overall responsibility and postgraduate native speakers are employed as informants, with small groups using cassetted courses. External examinations, currently those of the Institute of Linguists, envisaging eventual Unit/Credit possibilities, are obligatory and the system, developing in part on lines of autonomy, now works successfully for some 24 languages, with 170 undergraduates and 50 postgraduates and staff. It has, additionally, informed, but not enough, other non-degree traditional taught classes for 150 undergraduates in French and German and is interesting Birmingham industry. Surveys, including one of British Leyland (D.Ager), show that the urgent need is for communication, to understand and speak, in the wider world beyond Europe, if only to an elementary standard. This is wanted by more than half the university population and a steady 17% are very highly motivated.

A Systematic Linguistic Analysis of Strategies of FL Teaching in the
Secondary School

Rosamond Mitchell and Brian Parkinson

The full text of this paper is included in this newsletter.

Russian - Language and People

P.T.Culhane

A self-instructional course to accompany a 20-part TV series to be broadcast in January 1980.

The course is intended for beginners, and incorporates the teaching of the alphabet during the first five lessons. Most of the exercises are based on comprehension of Russian and are based on information-gathering procedures. Word games, crosswords and realia are used in an attempt to make the study of Russian an interesting exercise. It is hoped that the book and the TV series will stimulate the learning of Russian in the year of the Moscow Olympics. The book is accompanied by three LP records (or cassettes).

Jane Freeland (Portsmouth Polytechnic): Text type as a factor in the cloze testing of foreign languages.

When cloze procedure is used to test foreign languages, it is generally assumed to test "general proficiency", and a disturbing proportion of research stresses cloze's robustness and efficacy, regardless of the type of text used. A few researchers have examined differences to be found between scores on different tests, and have tried to relate them to learners' experience. Their results are suggestive; but a major problem has been to find clear criteria for differentiating texts from which tests are constructed.

This paper reviewed their findings, and reported on an experiment to investigate whether one source of variation in learners' performance could be the discourse type to which test passages belong. It was argued from such work in discourse analysis as, e.g. van Dijk (1977), van Dijk and Kintsch (1978), Hasan (1978), that native speakers intuitively distinguish discourse types, like sentence types, by their formal properties; they can then make certain assumptions as to how a text should cohere, the meaning of certain of its structures, etc. This intuition should therefore be a source of redundancy, facilitating performance on cloze tests. Foreign language learners, however, may lack this intuition, wholly or partially according to whether their learning has been limited to certain discourse types or not organised in this way at all. Such a lack would reduce the redundancy of certain types of cloze test, and be a source of difficulty.

The experiment compared the performance of native speakers and first-year polytechnic students of Spanish on four common text types (narrative, expository, descriptive (of place), rule-giving). Results indicate clearly that text type was an important source of variation in learners' scores, but not in those of native speakers. They suggest that foreign language proficiency is not homogeneous, and that, with more research, cloze tests could prove useful for establishing profiles of learners' range. But first certain assumptions about cloze tests need re-examining. Certain differences between the profiles of scores given by the acceptable-word and exact word scoring methods suggest that it no longer holds that either one may be used in preference: different systems may be sensitive to different textual features. And the practice of expressing learners' scores as a ratio of native speakers' is suspect, since the relationship between native and non-native scores can fluctuate in unknown ways. Further research also depends on refinement of the criteria used to assign particular texts to a discourse type.

Paper presented to the Annual Meeting of the
British Association for Applied Linguistics,
Manchester Polytechnic, September 1979.

A SYSTEMATIC LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF STRATEGIES OF FL
TEACHING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

Rosamond Mitchell & Brian Parkinson
Department of Education
University of Stirling

Introduction

The general remit of the research and development project in which we are involved at Stirling was to investigate the 'skills and strategies' of elementary foreign language teaching in school settings, as a basis for the eventual production of teacher training materials related to these skills. One part of our research activities was the descriptive study of current teaching practice outlined in this paper. We undertook this study because of our realisation that, while the literature of FLT methodology is rich in hypotheses about desirable practices, and in prescriptions and recommendations to teachers, little research evidence existed about the relationship between such suggestions and teachers' current practice in the classroom. In fact, while classroom observation is now a common technique of educational research, we found that systematic studies of FL teachers at work in the classroom are extremely rare, as a glance at any compendium of classroom observation studies will confirm (e.g. Galton, 1978). Such studies as we could track down were almost all derived from the Flanders system of interaction analysis (e.g. Wragg 1970, Moskowitz 1971); the concern of Flanders-derived systems with such broad features of classroom interaction as teacher 'directness/indirectness' seemed to us unhelpful in attempting to identify the critical features of FL classroom instruction, making for more and less effective FL learning.

We therefore devised a new instrument for the analysis of FL classroom discourse, and this paper outlines its development and application.

Section 1: The Critical Dimensions

Our aim was to base our investigation of FL classroom discourse in the first instance on current psychological and psycholinguistic thinking concerning FL learning in formal classroom settings (see Mitchell 1978). Thus in developing our system, we were attempting to establish a tool for the analysis of FL classroom discourse which would reflect current thinking about the features of the teaching/learning situation most likely to affect critically the development of pupils' FL competence. This would allow us systematically to describe the kinds of linguistic experience provided to pupils by FL classroom discourse in terms of these features, with their patterns of interrelationship and co-occurrence. Such a description would provide an account of the kinds of activity which currently make up the FL teaching repertoire. If contemporary practice is out of step with contemporary methodological thinking, the description would indicate the directions and extent of the disagreement. Further, it might perhaps provide a means for the empirical evaluation of some of the kinds of discourse currently hypothesised to lead to greater pupil attainment, by making possible the conduct of process-product, correlational studies. We considered that five dimensions of FL classroom discourse could be of importance, in affecting the quality of the FL learning environment provided: the topic of discourse, the type of language activity, the mode of involvement of teacher and pupils in the discourse, and the forms of class organisation (whole class *versus* different types of group and individual work). Of these only the first two will be discussed here in any detail.

The Topic of Discourse

The *Topic* dimension of analysis is designed to recover information regarding what is being talked about. It is a peculiarity of FL lessons, as compared with other types of classroom discourse, that what is being talked about is frequently of only secondary importance. The general purpose of large amounts of discourse in these lessons is to provide pupils with opportunities to practise a variety of

language skills - listening to the FL, speaking it etc., rather than the transmission to them of any new information.

We cannot, however, simply disregard what is being talked about in these FL lessons, even if we accept that a very large part of the discourse is best accounted for in terms of the practice opportunities it provides. Firstly, no-one concerned with the initial period of school language study appears to think its sole purpose is to provide for the development of FL competence. The development of an understanding of the FL culture and way of life is a generally accepted objective for this period; a further ancillary objective advanced by some (though by no means all) is the development of a generalised understanding of the nature of language, using the given FL as an illustrative example contrasting with L1. Secondly, our still limited understanding of the process of FL acquisition, at least under formal school conditions, suggests that a process of conscious analysis and discussion of the structure and rules of FL may have a contribution to make to the development of FL competence - even though it is not at all clear either what grammatical models are likely to be most useful for this purpose, or what the relationship between conscious linguistic analysis and practical training in language skills ought to be like. Thirdly, it is currently fashionable among FLT methodologists to argue, by analogy with first language learning, that practice in using the FL which involves the transmission of real messages, preferably concerning the actual needs and interests of the learner, is superior to other kinds of FL practice in developing the learner's competence.

We felt our system should reflect these concerns with lesson content and additionally attempt to investigate the extent to which coherent topics of discourse were maintained in the course of language activities intended primarily to develop pupils' practical language skills, and the character of these topics.

The categories suggested for analysis of the *Topic* dimension were therefore as follows:

1. Civilisation
2. General linguistic notions
3. Language points (course)
4. Language points (other)
5. Situation (course)
6. Situation (other)
7. Real life
8. Fragmented /non-contextualised
9. Routine procedures
10. Pupil performance
11. Other.

Full definitions of these categories are included in a monograph describing the study to be published shortly. The following abbreviated descriptions will serve the purposes of this paper:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. <i>Civilisation</i> | The discourse concerns aspects of life and culture in the foreign country |
| 2. <i>Gen ling notions</i> | The discourse concerns the nature of language in general and possible ways of analysing it |
| 3. <i>Language points (course)</i> | The discourse involves explicit, analytic discussion of particular grammatical structures, semantic notions, or functions of the FL being studied, drawn from a pre-specified syllabus or course book |
| 4. <i>Language points (other)</i> | As 3, but involving structures etc other than those included in the course syllabus |
| 5. <i>Situations (course)</i> | The discourse concerns a third party situation narrated or presented in course materials |

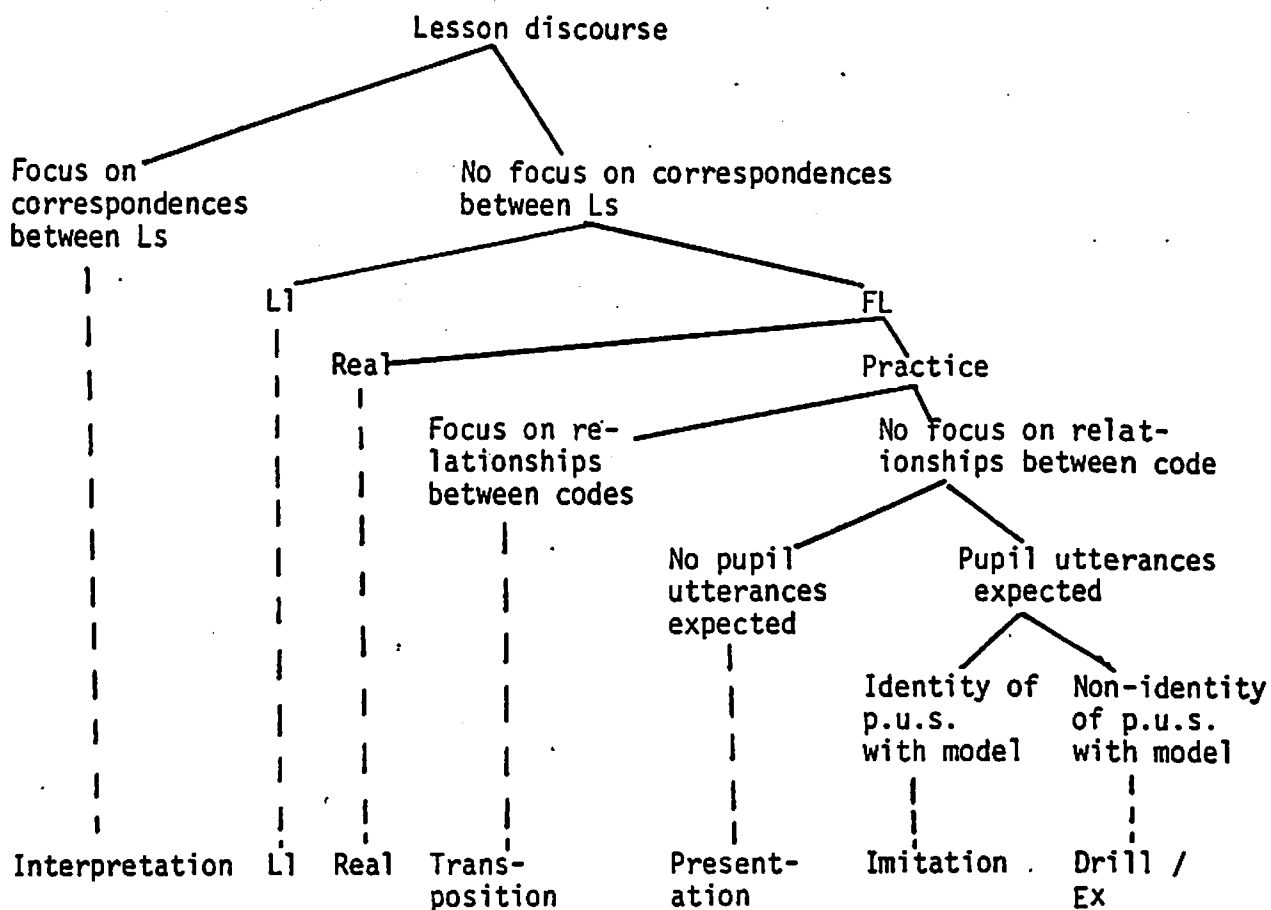
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| 6. <i>Situations (other)</i> | As 5, but concerning other third party situations |
| 7. <i>Real life</i> | The discourse concerns aspects of the pupils' and teacher's life and interests, at home and at school |
| 8. <i>Fragmented/non-contextualised</i> | The discourse concerns no coherent substantive topic (its unity and coherence rests in formal aspects of the language being practised). |
| 9. <i>Routine procedures</i> | The discourse concerns classroom management and organisation |
| 10. <i>Pupil performance</i> | The discourse concerns pupils' previous performance |
| 11. <i>Other</i> | All other topics. |

Language Activity

The second dimension of the system is designed to investigate the *Language activities* engaged in by FL teachers. We were here centrally concerned to discover the extent and character of the target language activities organised by teachers, the extent of FL use in the classroom to any substantive communicative purpose (whether referential, instrumental or expressive), and the principal types of 'practice' FL activities. The set of categories devised is as follows:

1. Interpretation
2. L1
3. Real FL
4. Transposition
5. Presentation
6. Imitation
7. Drill and exercise
8. Compound.

The diagram below illustrates the relationship between the first seven categories:



Summary descriptions of the categories are as follows (again, for full descriptions, see forthcoming monograph):

1. *Interpretation* Discourse in which lexical meanings of FL are made explicit through L1 (e.g. translation)
2. *L1* All discourse in the native language
3. *Real FL* FL discourse in which substantive messages are being transmitted, and the focus of attention is on the encoded speech act(s)

- | | |
|--------------------------|---|
| 4. <i>Transposition</i> | FL practice discourse realised simultaneously in both written and spoken codes, and where the focus of attention is on the relationship between them (e.g. reading aloud) |
| 5. <i>Presentation</i> | FL practice discourse presenting text to pupils with the focus on global comprehension of lexical meaning (e.g. listening comprehension) |
| 6. <i>Imitation</i> | FL practice discourse where pupil utterances imitative of FL models are expected (e.g. repetition) |
| 7. <i>Drill/exercise</i> | FL practice discourse with an expected component of pupil utterances, with the focus of attention on syntactic form and/or the appropriacy of utterances to their discourse context (e.g. structural drills, question-&-answer) |
| 8. <i>Compound</i> | All discourse involving brief occurrences of more than one of the above categories, in regular, structured sequence. |

T mode, P mode and Class organisation

The remaining 3 dimensions of classroom discourse the system attempts to analyse are: *Teacher mode of involvement*, *Pupil mode of involvement*, and *Class organisation*. The categories on these 3 dimensions are listed below:

<u>T mode</u>	<u>P mode</u>	<u>Class organisation</u>
1. Not involved	1. + Listening	1. Whole class
2. Instructing	2. + Speaking	2. Pupil demonstration
3. Interacting	3. + Doing	3. Cooperative, same task
4. Watching/helping	4. + Reading	4. Cooperative, diff task
5. Participating	5. + Writing	5. Individual, same task
6. Working with group	6. - Looking	6. Individual, diff task
7. Working with individual		7. Cooperative and individual.

Again, detailed category definitions can be found in the monograph. For the purposes of this introductory paper only brief comments are needed:

Teacher mode of involvement

This dimension reflects the teacher's relationship in the discourse with the class as a whole.

Pupil mode of involvement

This dimension is composed of six binary categories; pupils are coded as + or - *Speaking* etc., on the basis of the teacher's intentions and plans for their involvement.

Class organisation

This dimension reflects the patterns of pupil grouping implemented by the teacher, taking account of the identity or non-identity of academic tasks allocated to groups and individuals.

Section 2: The Concept of the Segment

The research is to be seen in the context of current interest in the description of language above the level of the utterance. We were not concerned primarily to characterise any single teacher or pupil utterance as *Imitation*, *Drill* or whatever (indeed such characterisation would be meaningless without considering context and 'co-text'), nor were we concerned to decide whether the pupils were (e.g.) *Speaking* or the teacher (e.g.) *Working with an individual* at any given instant. Rather, we were interested in general patterns which persist for some

time, and which correspond at least roughly to teachers' own ideas about the main sub-division of their lessons. We felt that we should be looking for a unit longer than the single exchange (e.g. T question, P answer) but shorter than a whole lesson. Following Gump (1967) and McIntyre (n.d.) we chose the name 'Segment' for this unit.

An important insight in deciding what is and is not a segment comes from the work of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) who showed how teachers tend to use so-called 'framing moves' and 'focussing moves' to indicate that one stage of the lesson has ended and another is about to begin. Framing moves are realised by a marker such as "right", "now", "O.K.", followed by silent stress. Focussing moves either sum up the activity just completed or launch a new topic or activity, helping pupils to see where they are going and describing what will occur.

An important idea in setting up the 'segment' unit was that FL teachers would be consistent in using framing moves at what appeared to be the natural breaks in the lesson. This turned out to be the case, with frequent occurrences of "now", "right", "alright", "O.K." and also French versions such as "bien", "alors", "maintenant". Another way of introducing something new, used alongside or instead of framing moves, was to use standard formulae such as "écoutez", "écoutez et répétez", "questions", and these could reasonably be seen as equivalent in function to Sinclairs' focussing moves.

These moves were a great help to us in our initial search for segment boundaries, and we shall return to them below. Our final decisions on segmentation, however, were made by different criteria, relying to some extent on the special characteristics of the FL lesson. To understand this, consider the ways in which a pupil might respond to the teacher utterance "Va à la fenêtre". (We are concerned here with 'correct' responses as intended and envisaged by the teacher - it is a general feature of our system that it is about teacher intention, and cannot cope directly with failures of comprehension and discipline.)

There seem to be at least six different sorts of response that the pupil can make:

- (i) He can make no overt response at all
- (ii) He can go to the window
- (iii) He can say in English "Go to the window"
- (iv) He can write down "Va à la fenêtre"
- (v) He can say "Va à la fenêtre"
- (vi) He can say "Je vais à la fenêtre", or "Le professeur veut que j'aille à la fenêtre", or any one of countless 'transformations' of the original sentence.

What makes each of these responses the appropriate response at different times? Clearly it is some shared understanding that the class is, for example, doing a dictation, or a translation, or a transformation exercise on the periphrastic future with 'aller'. And this is not based on the last thing the teacher said or did, but on something that went before, e.g. "Write down everything I say", "Translate into English", "Respond using a future construction as in the example". This creates a *pattern of expectation* which persists until it is cancelled and/or replaced by a new pattern. We decided to regard any such change in the pattern of expectation - e.g. from a 'presentation', where pupils only have to listen to a series of utterances, to an 'exercise' where they have to put all of these into the past tense - as the beginning of a new segment.

The concept of the segment has so far been explained solely in terms of the *Language activity* dimension, but the same applies to all the other dimensions. Our definition states that a change in the pattern of expectation on one or more dimensions leads to the recognition of a new segment. To illustrate - if the teacher is doing a drill based on incidents in the textbook story, then switches to a drill with examples drawn from the pupils' own life, this is a new topic, and therefore a new segment. If the teacher does the first half of an exercise with the class and then leaves them to complete it unaided, this is a new teacher mode of involvement, and therefore a new segment.

A certain difficulty arises with the binary categories: *Speaking*,

Listening etc. If one coded a new segment every time a pupil started or stopped speaking, there might be hundreds of segments in a lesson, and this would vitiate the whole purpose of the system. The difficulty disappears if one follows through logically the concept of 'pattern of expectation'. It was decided to consider a segment as *-Speaking* if the general pattern of events left no place for pupil speaking - e.g. the first part of a tape-slide presentation, where the pupils just listen and look, or a dictation where they just listen and write. But a segment was taken to be *+Speaking* if a pupil speaking component was built into the pattern. The pupil speaking involved cannot just be an aside, it must be an integral part of the pattern of expectation; but with this proviso it can be a very small part of the total activity of the segment. The extreme example is probably a game of bingo, where one pupil shouts "carte" at the end of minutes of silent work by thirty pupils, but the requirement of preparedness to speak has been built in for all pupils throughout the segment. The same applies, *mutatis mutandis*, to other binary categories.

Our experience in the empirical study described below was that the system worked well in dividing most lessons up into natural-looking units, mostly of between one and ten minutes.

One of the problems was how to treat a whole series of potential segments of only a few seconds in length. We felt that the concept of 'pattern of expectation' becomes meaningless below a certain point, and we have therefore imposed an arbitrary minimum time condition of 30 seconds. Candidate segments which are shorter than this are fused with adjacent segments according to a detailed system of rules. Some longer stretches of discourse are also seen as introductions to a segment, setting up the pattern of expectation, and these too may not be accorded separate segment status. The precise rules governing these decisions cannot be dealt with here.

This way of dividing an FL lesson into segments yields results

which often correspond quite closely to a division by use of focussing and framing moves, and in fact these moves proved to be a useful guide to the coder in deciding the precise moment of transition. When there is a mismatch between focussing/framing moves and new segments, it is usually for one of the following three reasons:-

- (i) *False starts.* Some teachers need to say "bien", "right", "listen now", several times, sometimes over a period of minutes, before the new pattern of expectation is really launched. This is sometimes, but not always, related to indiscipline or the teacher's own uncertainty about the next segment.
- (ii) *Non-differences.* Occasionally, a framing move will signal (say) the end of exercise 7 and the start of exercise 8, but both are identical on all our dimensions, and so are coded as one segment.
- (iii) *Abrupt shifts.* Occasionally, the teacher may go straight on from (say) the last sentence for repetition to the first question to be answered. The pupils are expected to infer from internal evidence how the teacher utterance is to be treated. In our corpus this strategy was common with only one teacher, a devotee of an extreme audio-lingual method with many non-contextualised utterances. This is an interesting example of how this method can produce utterances which are unobjectionable in themselves but which might be considered 'ungrammatical' by the rules of discourse cohesion.

Cases where the pattern of expectation apparently intended by the teacher was not in force among the pupils were of some interest, but not the main subject of our research, and we can only mention this very briefly. Some classes seemed to have learned a strategy of 'if in doubt, repeat', and there were some amusing incidents where pupils repeated questions they were meant to answer, or instructions they were meant to act upon. Other areas of uncertainty among pupils were whether or not they should be reading the text when

responding to a teacher utterance, and whether or not they should be looking at pictures in the book. The ability to make clear the pattern of expectation seems to us an important teacher skill.

Section 3: The Application of the System

Our empirical study using the lesson analysis system involved 17 teachers of mixed ability first year French classes, in 7 Scottish comprehensive schools. (The Scottish context meant the pupils were normally 12 years old, having their first exposure to any foreign language.) All were using the same course, popular in Scotland, *Longman's AV French Stage 1/A1*. We observed and audio-recorded the teachers through the course of a week's work with a single first year class, in the first and third terms of the school year 1977-78. We also interviewed the teachers on each visit, and in the third term administered an oral test to a sample of pupils from each class. This interview and attainment material has been, or will be, described elsewhere (Mitchell, 1978; Johnstone, Mitchell & Parkinson, monograph forthcoming.) Here we shall briefly outline some of the most striking preliminary findings concerning the general character of the body of teaching observed.

The corpus of lessons recorded totalled 146. The recordings have been analysed using the system outlined in this paper, and the resulting lesson codings are being processed by computer, using the standard *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*.

The following set of tables show the breakdown of the corpus of lessons, by segment, on the various individual dimensions of the lesson analysis system. (The corpus analysed contained a total of 1656 segments, averaging 3.2 minutes in length.)

Table 1: Topic (frequencies)

Topic	Absolute frequency (no. segments)	Relative frequency (%)
Civilisation	63	3.8
Gen ling notions	2	0.1
Lg point (course)	180	10.9
Lg point (other)	22	1.3
Situation (course)	528	31.9
Situation (other)	127	7.7
Real life	155	9.4
Fragmented/non-contextualised	373	22.5
Routine procedures	173	10.4
Pupil performance	31	1.9
Other	2	0.1
Total	1656	100.0

The most interesting features of this table are the high incidence of segments dealing with course book situations and with fragmented/noncontextualised topics on the one hand, and the relatively low occurrence of segments dealing with civilisation, with linguistic material, and with real life. Such percentages offer little scope for the acquisition of new, substantive information by pupils, whether about the foreign culture or the structure of language. The lowish incidence of *Real life* topics, and the popularity with the teachers of the somewhat banal situations of the course book as opposed to any other fictional narratives and situations, suggest that there is not a great deal of content of personal or imaginative interest in the lessons either.

Table 2: Language Activity. (frequencies)

Language activity	Absolute frequency (no. segments)	Relative frequency (%)
Interpretation	176	10.6
L1	353	21.3
Real FL	30	1.8
Transposition	123	7.4
Presentation	114	6.9
Imitation	203	12.3
Drill/exercise	573	34.6
Compound	84	5.1
Total	1656	100.0

On the *Language activity* dimension we find that 70 per cent of the segments involve FL activities of one kind or another, evidence that pupils are provided with quite substantial periods of exposure to FL. But fully half the FL segments fall into the single category of interactive FL manipulation *Drill/exercise*, and another third is accounted for by the even more tightly constrained categories of *Transposition* and *Imitation*. Less than 2 per cent of the entire corpus of segments involves the use of the FL for communicative purposes in the strict, *Real FL* sense, and the *Presentation* category adds only another 7 per cent to this. The amount of time spent by pupils involved in FL discourse with any primary focus on meaning thus appeared to be very small.

A detailed examination of the patterns of co-occurrences between these two dimensions is beyond the scope of this paper. However, such an analysis shows for example that almost 70 per cent of the infrequent segments coded as *Real FL* on the activity dimension have *Routine procedures* or *Pupil performance* as their topic, while on the other hand almost 80 per cent of the segments with *Civilisation* type topics are coded *L1* on the activity dimension. Thus in a number of ways the system suggests that such substantive 'informative' discourse as occurs, is English medium: such communicative FL usage as occurs is largely procedural in character.

Table 3: Pupil Mode of Involvement

Mode	Absolute frequency (no. segments)	Relative frequency (%)
+ Listening	1477	89.2
+ Speaking	1133	68.4
+ Doing	186	11.2
+ Reading	787	47.5
+ Writing	345	20.8
+ Looking	477	28.8

The table concerning *Pupil involvement* shows the number and percentage of segments in which pupils were required to participate in the listed ways. FL classrooms are obviously quite strongly biased towards oral activities at this level: there was something for pupils to listen

to in almost 90 per cent of segments, and there was an expected speaking component in almost 70 per cent. However, in almost half the segments there was a reading requirement also, while practical activity even of the most minimal sort occurred in only 11 per cent of the segments.

The system could also tell us how the various modes of pupil involvement co-occurred. The 5 most common combinations were:

Table 4: P Mode as Combined Frequencies

Combination	Absolute frequency (no.segments)	Relative frequency (%)
1. Listening, Speaking and Reading	339	20.5
2. Listening & Speaking	274	16.5
3. Listening, Speaking & Looking	267	16.1
4. Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing	101	6.1
5. Reading & Writing	94	5.7

This shows, for instance, that pure comprehension activities, listening and/or reading, without some productive component, were relatively uncommon.

Analysis on the *Class organisation* dimension picked up information about the forms of class organisation implemented by the teacher. The distribution of segments on this dimension was as follows:

Table 5: Class organisation (frequencies)

Grouping	Absolute frequency (no. segments)	Relative frequency (%)
Whole class	1469	88.7
Whole class with pupil demonstration	33	2.0
Cooperative, same task	4	0.2
Cooperative, different task	-	-
Individual, same task	139	8.4
Individual, different task	10	0.6
Cooperative and individual	1	0.1
Total	1656	100.0

That is, the overwhelming majority of teaching segments in the corpus were spent in a *Whole class* situation, with the children participating in a common task initiated and paced by the teacher. The only pattern to occur otherwise with any frequency was one where the children worked individually at a set, common task. Group work of any kind was very rare; and so was any kind of individualisation or differentiation of academic tasks. Evidence complementary to this came from the *Teacher mode of involvement* dimension, which showed the teacher in interaction with the class as a single group for the bulk of lesson time.

Conclusion

The 17 teachers of course varied individually in the use they made of the range of topics, activities, modes of involvement etc. investigated in this study. For example, on the *Language activity* dimension, a single teacher produced almost 40 per cent of the segments categorised as *Real FL* in the entire corpus; these constituted 12 per cent of her personal segment total, as compared with the overall 1.8 per cent. The study is investigating these patterns of variation between the teachers, and will report on such relationships as can be discovered between individual teachers' teaching profiles, their views on the objectives of FLT at this level as recounted in interview, and their pupils' performance in the oral test administered in term 3. We will also be reporting on the extent of variation in teaching profiles between Term 1 and Term 3. But even the aggregate profile produced when regarding the teachers as a single group provides useful descriptive data regarding what is common, and uncommon, practice in

this selection of contemporary FL classrooms. The overwhelming impression is one of a commitment on the part of the teachers to a development of practical FL skills, mainly oral, but with a substantial use of reading (as a supporting rather than an independent skill). There is little emphasis on developing pupils' knowledge about the foreign culture, or on developing a conscious understanding of language in the general sense. Even the development of a conscious understanding of the structure of the particular, target FL is not very salient.

Our study shows there is indeed a great quantity of FL usage taking place, in elementary FL classes. But this use of FL is restricted in a number of important ways. It largely involves the rehearsal of 'course book' situations, not for their intrinsic interest, but for the sake of imitative or manipulative practice in the course book syllabus of the sounds and structures of the FL. There is little evidence of any sustained attempt to apply the competence thus developed to other purposes which might have been expected to reinforce it - neither to the teaching of substantive cultural or linguistic content, to the personal concerns of the pupils, or even to other fictional material. Communicative FL discourse sufficiently sustained to be picked up by our system - and our 30 seconds duration requirement was hardly rigorous - is almost completely lacking.

Missing also is any effective individualisation of the language learning process. The pupils in the classes we studied received virtually identical language experiences, which moreover centred almost always on the teacher. Group and individual work were rare, and differentiation in the tasks set even rarer. (Even reading was overwhelmingly a whole class, lock step activity.) The general impression was one of direction and control, the language experiences of the pupils being limited and closed in important ways. Children do develop FL competence of a sort in our classrooms: but if they find it hard to improvise, cope with the unexpected, do without a text of what is being said, talk about their personal needs and concerns perhaps this description suggests some possible reasons.

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LANGUAGES FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES
CONFERENCE REPORT

The Second European Symposium on Languages for Special Purposes was held at the Sprachenzentrum of the University of Bielefeld, West Germany, in collaboration with AILA and the UNESCO-ALSED LSP Network, from 24th to 26th September 1979.

Papers were presented in English, French and German on the theme Description of Communication in Language for Special Purposes. Since the first European Symposium, held in Vienna in 1977, had been largely concerned with the teaching of LSP, papers of a theoretical nature were particularly requested for Bielefeld. Nevertheless, a majority of participants were concerned directly with the teaching of LSP (often more particularly ESP) and so discussion often centred on the application of the theories. It was clear, moreover, that much of the direct research had developed from the needs of the classroom or the needs of the translator.

The papers included work on issues (such) as how to proceed in the study of LSP, the role of the author and the reader in the construction of texts, how to select the most appropriate methods of text analysis, and what the role of statistical studies should be. Papers also reported on research into vocabulary frequencies, the rhetorical structure of texts, the linguistic properties of texts, terminology, and the stylistic analysis of texts. In the educational field, reports were given on ESP teaching in institutions in Sweden, S America and Thailand and on communication problems in information transfer in TV science programmes in Hamburg.

The participants, although mainly from German, included representatives from Britain, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Peru, Thailand and the USA. While there is obviously a growing interest in German and French for Special Purposes, the majority of international work still seems to concern the English language, and it was a pity that native English speaker participants were few. It is expected that the next LSP Symposium will take place in 1981, but the venue is still to be finalized.

The proceedings of the 1979 Symposium will be published early next year.

Meriel Bloor
 Language Studies Unit
 University of Aston in Birmingham

10 October 1979

NOTICESLEXICOGRAPHY SUMMER SCHOOL

An international summer school in applied linguistics and dictionary-making will be held at Exeter University, from 16 - 23 August, 1980.

It will be aimed at linguists, language teachers and dictionary project leaders, and should be especially suitable for young lexicographers as part of their postgraduate training.

Topics to be covered will include linguistic semantics, grammar and pragmatics in relation to lexicography; types of dictionaries and dictionary users; problems of compilation; and computer techniques.

The programme will consist of a balance of lectures (in the mornings), Section workshops and lecture/demonstrations (in the afternoons). A book exhibition is also planned, as well as a number of outings.

For further information and preliminary registration form please contact: Dr. R.R.K. Hartmann, The Language Centre, University of Exeter, EX4 4QH. Tel: (0392) 77911, Ext. 715.

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