ABSTRACT
              This paper attempts to enact Rivers' (1971 and 1972)
urgings to base ESL listening instruction on both psychological and
linguistic findings and contends that advanced ESL students'
listening needs call for improvement in processing spoken English
discourse. Psychological data on memory span is cited to demonstrate
that advanced ESL students differ from intermediate ESL students and
from native speakers in processing capacity of a particular type.
Linguistic discourse analysis findings are cited to demonstrate the
types of clues and continuities ESL listeners must attend to if they
are to adequately comprehend spoken English discourse. A three-phase
approach of listening instruction and practice for advanced ESL
students is proposed to meet the discourse processing needs
discussed. Phase One consists of practice aimed toward increasing
students' familiarity with and accuracy in processing intrasentential
items and thus toward reducing the processing time devoted to
intrasentential items. Phase Two pushes students to expand the time
they have left over for processing discourse relations by requiring
them to perform operations beyond those necessary for processing
individual sentences. Phase Three consists of instruction in the
types of discourse clues and continuities available to listeners and
practice in attending to such clues and continuities. (Author)

LISTENING INSTRUCTION AND PRACTICE FOR ADVANCED ESL STUDENTS[1]

Dennis Godfrey

The University of Michigan
English Language Institute & Department of Linguistics

In papers published in 1971 and 1972, Rivers has presented convincing arguments for basing ESL listening instruction on both psychological and linguistic findings. In this paper I will argue the same general point, but I will depart from Rivers in the attention I pay to spoken discourse. Inasmuch as Rivers' attention is focused more directly on listeners' processing of sentences, she does not discuss the differences between rela-tions within the sentence and relations that extend beyond the sentence. My attention in this paper is directed toward expli-cating the relations that extend beyond the sentence and their relevance to listening materials for advanced ESL students. But there is an additional significance for this investigation, namely, that with more and more emphasis in TESL on communica-tion in context, the need to examine issues related to discourse processing and discourse relations is becoming more and more pressing for ESL teachers.

Recently, more adequate listening materials for ESL students have begun to appear. Morley's Improving Aural Comprehension for beginning-to-intermediate students, Crymes, James, Smith and

Taylor's <u>Developing Fluency in English</u> for high-intermediate-to-advanced students, and Hughes' (1974) report on listening comprehension exercises have helped to fill some voids in available materials. The learning materials I suggest in this paper help to fill additional voids and, in fact, could be used to supplement the above materials. To emphasize this point, I have used a segment of a conversation from the Crymes, James, Smith, and Taylor book as the basis for all my examples. It should also be noted that not all the exercises suggested are original or even new; it is primarily the ends to which they are applied that I believe to be original.

I will begin by examining some data relevant to advanced ESL listeners' needs drawn from psycholinguistic investigations in Part 1 and from linguistic investigations in Part 2. In Part 3 I will attempt to show how specific types of practice and instruction are called for by the evidence of Parts 1 and 2. It will be obvious as we proceed, that the empirical data i.; far from complete. Hopefully the reader will bear with me as I speculatively fill in major gaps in the available data and will realize that this demonstration eagerly awaits the revisions that additional evidence most certainly will require.

1. <u>Psycholinguistic Input</u> - To begin our description of what advanced ESL students' processing of spoken English is like, casual observation can tell us at least the following: (1) advanced students have difficulty understanding certain unstressed words, such as contracted and reduced forms; (2) they complain of not understanding normal speech because it

is too fast; and (3) they seem to process spoken English sentence-by-sentence or even phrase-by-phrase and have difficulty relating one sentence to another and to the discourse as a whole.

Rivers (1971 & 1972) has observed that even though advanced ESL adults can recognize the essential items in a spoken message, they cannot retain what they have recognized. The process of recognition takes up all their attention, leaving them insufficient processing time for rehearsal of the information. The difficulty in recognition, she claims, is due to the advanced ESL listeners' relative lack of familiarity with the language and thus his inability to anticipate and distinguish between low and high information items. Having insufficient time left over for rehearsal, the listener is unable to retain information adequately and is constrained in his ability to relate the information to what has preceded and to what follows in the discourse.

These observations by Rivers and the casual observations we made earlier, it must be noted, are merely observations. The question we must entertain now is: what psycholinguistic data is there to confirm or deny our suspicions. To my knowledge, there is no data for ESL students on information rehearsal, nor on attending to and relating information to other elements in the discourse. However, there is one step that has been researched, namely memory span, which I take to be involved in the ability to concentrate on crucial elements.

Studies by Lado, Glicksberg, and others clearly show that memory span for foreign speakers is shorter than for native

speakers. Also, as proficiency in the target language improves, the differential between foreign and native speakers' memory spans decreases.

Lado (1965) reports on memory span for digits for fourteen native English and native Spanish speakers who were also of comparable proficiency in each others' languages. Thirteen of the subjects were consistently able to repeat longer series of digits in their native language than in the foreign language, with a difference of approximately 1.6 digits. Glicksberg (1963) reports on memory span for digits, for one grammatical pattern (prepositional phrase), and for sentences related in context. Subjects were 40 foreign students in a seven-week intensive English course and eleven native English speaking university students. Glicksberg's results show for all three types of material that memory span is shorter for foreign speakers of English than for native speakers of English. For 23 of the foreign students tested whose native language was Spanish, Glicksberg also administered the memory span tests in Spanish and found likewise that subjects' memory spans were shorter on all tests for their foreign language than for their native language. In addition, Glicksberg's data for all 40 foreign subjects shows that memory span in English increased on all measures during the seven weeks of the intensive course.

In sum, the data show that even the advanced foreign language students tested had not yet reached native proficiency in memory span. Until the foreign language student reaches

5

native proficiency, his memory span fails to hold certain of

the presented information in short-term storage long enough for

rehearsal, and thus he is not able to retain that information,

nor is he able to relate it to preceding and following informa-

tion in the discourse.

2. _Linguistic Input_ - The above discussion seems to indi-

cate that there are aspects of the discourse that the advanced

student does not have the processing capacity left over to attend

to. Unfortunately, psycholinguistic data is not available at

this time that will allow us to isolate which aspects of discourse

are attended to by foreign speakers and which are not. We need

to examine, then, some linguistic analyses of discourse to

identify some of the features that advanced ESL students might

possibly be missing. In the following discussion, the linguists

I cite represent different approaches being taken to discourse

analysis. While meandering through some of their findings and

techniques, I will attempt to demonstrate what information from

discourse analysis might prove relevant to the development of

second language listening skills.

K. Gordon and K. Pike (1973) have used a method of paired

sentence reversal to isolate form and meaning relationships in

spoken discourse. The authors reversed pairs of sentences within

a discourse and asked a native informant to make the grammatical

adjustments necessary to preserve the discourse. The types of

finding they encountered will be illustrated here by analyzing

a segment of a conversation, item 1. below, which is reported

in the Crymes, James, Smith, and Taylor book. (Sentence

6

numbering is added for ease of reference.)

> 1. CRAIG: Nonverbal communication? What's that?
>
>> ART: (1) Well that's a way of communicating with people
>> but without using words. (2) For example, gestures
>> and movements. (3) Uh, yesterday something happened
>> that is a good illustration of it. (4) My friend and
>> I were going to a restaurant and we wanted to park
>> our car at the restaurant's parking lot. (5) The
>> attendant motioned to us to park at a certain stall
>> but I thought it was kind of inconvenient--there was
>> one much closer--so without saying anything I pointed
>> at the other stall, indicating that I'd like to park
>> at that one, but the attendant motioned with his
>> hand "No," and pointed at the first one again indica-
>> ting that I should park there. (6) I nodded and
>> parked my car there. (7) No, no words had passed
>> between us, and yet we understood each other. (25-26)

If we reverse sentences (1) and (2) as in item 2. below, we find

no major grammatical adjustments have to be made, and no major

violence is done to the meaning of the discourse.

> 2. ART: (2) Well that's like gestures and movements, for
>> example. (1) It's a way of communicating with people
>> but without using words. (3) Uh, yesterday something
>> happened that is a good illustration of it...

But if instead we reverse sentences (2) and (3), as in item 3.,

major adjustments have to be made.

> 3. ART: (1) Well that's a way of communicating with people
>> but without using words. (3) Uh, yesterday something
>> happened that is a good illustration of it. (2) Oh,
>> by the way, I forgot to mention that some examples of
>> it are gestures and movements. (4) Anyway, my friend
>> and I were...

The close relation of sentences (1) and (2) is signalled by the

words "Oh, I forgot to mention that...," which is another way

of the speaker saying that sentence (2) really belongs with sen-

tence (1) but that something extraordinary happened such that

it did not get into its normal position in the discourse.

Similarly, the word "Anyway" in sentence (4) signals that something--in this case, sentence (2)--has interrupted a sequence that has begun and that it is now time to resume that sequence. From item 3., then, we can see that sentences (1) and (2) group together and sentence (3) groups with at least sentence (4). From item 2. we saw that changing the order within a group of sentences is less disruptive than interrupting a group.

In item 4., the sentence (1)-sentence (2) group is maintained, but it is interposed within the sentence (3)-sentence (6) group.

> 4.   CRAIG: Nonverbal communication? What's that?
>   ART: (3) Well, yesterday something happened that is a good illustration of it. (1) You see, it's a way of communicating with people but without using words. (2) For example, gestures and movements. (4) Anyway, my friend and I were...

Appropriate adjustments have to be made--such as the parenthetical "You see" in sentence (1)--but on a different plane, the role of the sentence (1)-sentence (2) group has changed. No longer is it a statement of the definition plus an example, nor is the sentence (3)-sentence (6) group merely an illustration supporting the abstract definition. Instead, the speaker's whole response has become a definition by illustration, and sentences (1) and (2) have become parenthetical background material used to assist the reader in understanding the illustration.

For the advanced ESL listener, who is having difficulty attending to much more than one sentence or phrase at a time, there is bound to be difficulty in detecting the relationships that bind sentences into groups and the roles that such sentence groups play in the discourse. The assumption to be made

here is that native English listeners can and do detect such relations and roles, while ESL listeners can not and do not detect them as well. Given a less-than-native performance by ESL listeners, it further remains to be determined what proportion of such a difficulty is to be attributed to less-than-native processing capacity and what proportion might be due to so-called "interference" from the native language. (See Kaplan [1966] for one opinion regarding "interference" in paragraph development for writing.)

A second linguistic approach to discourse is represented by Halliday and Hasan (forthcoming) who examine discourse for cohesion. Cohesion is a quality that binds elements in a discourse together, and it consists in the duality of (1) the elements that presuppose the existence of some other element for their interpretation and (2) the elements that are presupposed. To cite one example, the use of a pronoun in a sentence presupposes that an antecedent for that pronoun exists elsewhere in the discourse. The relation of the pronoun to its antecedent contributes a cohesion that helps bind the discourse together.

Halliday and Hasan make the important point that were it not for cohesion, a listener (or reader) could not interpret a discourse. One can conclude from this that for ESL listeners to adequately understand spoken English discourse, they must be able to attend to the cohesive relations that bind it together: they must be able to identify which elements in a discourse enter into cohesive relations, plus be able to specify the types of relation that hold between these elements.

9

Another approach to discourse analysis is taken by Chafe
(1972), who seeks to characterize the relation between what
speakers know about the world and what they say in discourse.
Chafe posits inherent features to capture permanent knowledge
of the world, such as that rocks are hard, and contextual fea-
tures to capture the concept that certain knowledge changes
during a discourse, such as the identifiability of an item
being discussed. To handle changeable knowledge, he introduces
contextual rules to identify the initiators of transitory
phenomena in a discourse. The initiator invokes a temporary
constraint which remains in effect until a terminator is encoun-
tered; this terminator may in turn serve as an initiator for a
subsequent temporary constraint. To illustrate, let's return to
the example in item 1.

1.   ART: (1) Well that's a way of communicating with people
          but without using words. (2) For example, gestures
          and movements. (3) Uh, yesterday something happened
          that is a good illustration of it. (4) My friend and
          I were going...

The word "yesterday" in sentence (3) serves as an initiator for
the use of the past tense in "happened" in sentence (3) and
"were going" in sentence (4). This tense remains in effect until
the end. If a new time were to be introduced in an eighth sen-
tence, it would be signalled by a simultaneously terminating and
initiating item, such as "tomorrow" in (8) "Tomorrow, I won't
try to argue with the man."

The significance of Chafe's work for ESL students lies in
the realization of what information is assumed to be constant

10

throughout a sequence of utterances and what signals initiate
and terminate the assumption of that information. If an ESL
student can be made aware, for example, that tenses tend to con-
tinue unless a change is overtly signalled, then a basis for com-
prehending the relatedness of one utterance to another will be
established. In addition, it is possible that instruction of
ESL students in such linguistic rules would make items like
tense markers--once initiated--low information items for them,
and items like terminators and initiators high information items.

A final group of linguists has contributed substantially
to understanding the types of sequencing rules that determine
certain aspects of natural conversation. Schegloff (1968) has
examined opening sequences in telephone conversations to formu-
late rules for when the caller speaks and when the answerer
speaks, and he has noted the forms and the implications that
violations of these rules have. Labov (1972) formalizes a rule
of discourse involving question-answer sequences to the effect
that when a speaker makes an indirect response to a request,
there must be some proposition known to both speakers that can
be inferred as connecting the request and the response. Labov
cites the following example to illustrate:

4. A: Are you going to work tomorrow (U_1)
    B: I'm on jury duty.   (U_2)
    A: Couldn't you get out of it?   (U_3)
    B: We tried everything.   (U_4)   (123)

According to Labov, in order for (U_2) to be seen as a response
to the question in (U_1), the statement "I'm on jury duty" must
be interpreted as "'I'm not going to work because I'm on jury

duty.'" Such inferences might be quite difficult for the ESL listener to grasp, an indication that instruction in sequencing rules might be helpful for him.

To summarize our findings from discourse analysis, at least the following information is either available to the listener in spoken English discourse or must be supplied by the listener: (1) that segments of discourse are identifiable as related units, (2) that certain devices can be identified which bind elements in a discourse together and allow them to be interpreted, (3) that continuities and signals for changes in the continuities can be detected, (4) that awareness of sequencing rules can provide signals that one should search for and should supply certain information that is not available in the sentence.[2]

---

[2]A major question remains as to which features of discourse are language-specific and which are language-universal. Unfortunately, the answer is not readily available to us at this time, although some current investigations are beginning to provide evidence. Of course, if a given feature is language-specific, the ESL student must receive instruction and practice in its use. On the other hand, even though a given feature might be language-universal, the particular form it takes in English and the fact that it must be attended to are matters that also deserve attention in the ESL listening classroom.

---

3. <u>Listening Instruction and Practice</u> - What, then, does our examination of advanced ESL listeners' capacities and the information potentially available to listeners in a discourse tell us about the instruction and practice that advanced ESL students need? I will suggest here that a three-phase program in listening instruction and practice is called for, based on the data we have considered. The phases are as follows:

Phase 1 - practice in achieving accuracy and familiarity
with the forms and meanings contained in spoken utterances.

Phase 2 - practice in reducing the amount of time necessary
to process spoken utterances and in creating time left
over.

Phase 3 - instruction in the features of discourse available
to the listener and accompanying practice in utilizing
those features in the time left over from processing
single utterances.

3.1. _Phase 1:_ If ESL students are to expand their memory
spans, it appears that not only must they improve their ability
to recognize items in sentences accurately, but they must also
be able to allocate their processing time appropriately among low
and high information items. To accomplish these goals, what I
call Imitation Exercises are called for. Materials designed by
Morley (1974), called Listening/Writing: Understanding English
Sentence Structure, have students write sentences from dictation,
then indicate multiple-choice responses based on their understand-
ing of the sentences. To supplement the Morley exercises, an
Oral Imitation Exercise is helpful. An utterance is read to the
students or presented by interruption of a film, tape, or class
discussion. While one student in the class attempts to imitate
the utterance, other members of the class listen to his response
for corrections to be made or for questions about difficult items
to perceive.

6. Teacher: Yesterday something happened that is a good
illustration of it.

13

Student: Yesterday something happened that is a good
illustration of it.

Essentially, what the students are doing in the Imitation Exer-
cises is gaining accuracy in discriminating difficult sentences
and sounds by focusing attention on them, such that, with prac-
tice, not only will the difficulties diminish, but so will the
need to focus attention on them for discrimination.

In addition to practice on Imitation Exercises, which con-
centrates primarily on processing the form of the utterance,
practice in gaining accuracy in understanding the meanings of
utterances is necessary. To accomplish this, an Oral Paraphrase
Exercise is helpful. Students are presented with a spoken utter-
ance or pair of utterances, and one student is to rephrase the
message in his own words.

7. Teacher: Yesterday something happened that is a good
illustration of it.

Student: You mean something happened on Thursday,
February 6, that exemplifies it. .

Again, additions and corrections are made by other students, but
in addition, shifts in emphasis or implication can be discussed
when they distort the original meaning. This type of exercise
is well-suited to group discussion situations, for students can
be instructed to use the common clarification device, "Oh, you
mean..." or "I see! What you're saying is..." at any point in
their discussion of the day's topic.

The Paraphrase Exercise forces students to attend to the
form of the spoken utterance and to extract the meanings accurately.
In actuality, the Paraphrase Exercise serves as a transition between

14

Phase 1 and Phase 2. The Imitation Exercise requires only that
time be spent processing the sentence for listening and processing
the same sentence again for production. On the other hand, the
Paraphrase Exercise requires not only that the original sentence
be processed for listening but that, in addition, a new sentence
be processed for production. Processing the new sentence forces
the student to retain the original sentence in memory and, in
some sense, to "create" extra time for performing the additional
processing activity.

   3.2 <u>Phase 2</u>: Given that students achieve a certain degree
of accuracy and familiarity through the exercises of Phase 1, a
second phase is necessary to create extra time to be used ultimately
for processing features of discourse.[3]

---

   [3]While it is assumed here that an increase in memory span
follows from gaining accuracy and familiarity with the elements
in a spoken utterance, it is not assumed that an increase in time
left over automatically follows from increasing memory span.

In the face of incomplete psycholinguistic data, I will suggest
that a likely way to create extra time is to push students to do
more with an utterance than to simply process the forms and mean-
ings expressed within its boundaries.

   As has been mentioned, a Paraphrase Exercise forces a
student to perform an operation in addition to the processing of
the original sentence. Another type of exercise is suggested by
Pike's paired-sentence reversal technique. In a Reversal Exer-
cise, students are presented with one or more sentences contain-
ing, for example, two events or two propositions. One student

is then asked to reverse the order of the events or propositions
and make appropriate grammatical adjustments.

> 8. Teacher: Well that's a way of communicating with
>   people but without using words. For example,
>   gestures and movements.
>
> Student: Well, an example is gestures and movements.
> They allow you to communicate with people even if
> you don't use any words.

Other students are available to make corrections and enter into
discussion of the discourse relations that are or are not main-
tained in the response. Other types of transformation exercise
can be used also, but always with the awareness that different
transformations represent different complexities of processing.[4]

---

[4] It should be recognized before going on to Phase 3 that
the attempt to expand students' amount of time left over from
processing spoken utterances may be only indirectly served by
the exercises of Phase 2. The operations students perform in
completing the tasks might be imposed on only the recall process
and not on the comprehension process at all. However, it seems
likely that during comprehension, students anticipate performance
and perhaps even initiate some steps toward processing the extra
operations. If so, they would indeed be creating some extra
time during comprehension.

3.3. <u>Phase 3</u>: Given that students are able to create more
time left over by doing the exercises of Phase 2, it is necessary
also to direct their use of that time toward relating utterances
to what precedes and follows in the discourse. It is at this
phase that the first direct instruction per se is required in
addition to practice.[5]

---

[5] In the two preceding phases, improvement was possible
only through practice; lectures in language processing, memory
capacities, and retention procedures would produce only intellec-
tualization with no progress. In Phase 3, by contrast, features
of discourse which are English-language specific need to be
referred to when the language specific features rely on them for
explication.

In general, instruction for Phase 3 should touch on lin-
guistic devices used for specifying relationships and attaining
cohesion in discourse and in subunits of discourse, i.e., the
ways in which continuities such as tense and definiteness can be
detected. Instruction should also cover linguistic devices for
specifying relationships between subunits of discourse which
represent changes in continuities, i.e., the signals for transi-
tional relations such as are found in terminators and initiators.
Students should be led to observe, for example, that in English,
time continuity is signalled by continuity of tense, that altera-
tion from that continuity is signalled by such words and phrases
as before that, previously, and earlier still, as well as by
tense change. They should further observe that the differences
between, for example, earlier and earlier still, are significant
for being able to comprehend time development in a discourse.

Practice for Phase 3 involves pushing students to process
discourse features using the time left over from processing
utterances. Reversal and other transformation exercises help
to serve this purpose in part, but more direct practice in using
the time left over is available in exercises like those suggested
by Hughes (1974) for developing predictive and retrospective
listening skills.

Retrospective Listening Exercises involve stopping at some
point in a discourse and asking students to recall what has
preceded. Because Hughes' interest is in designing materials for
the laboratory, he is restricted to having students check an
answer sheet for the topic they identify as having been discussed.

17

In the classroom, we are less constrained, so a variation on the Paraphrase Exercise can be used to suit our purposes. The Oral Retrospective Listening Exercise suggested here is basically the same as Hughes' in the presentation, but in the response students are to paraphrase or summarize what has preceded.

> 9. Teacher: Well nonverbal communication is a way of communicating with people but without using words. For example, gestures and movements. Uh, yesterday something happened that is a good illustration of it.
>
> Student: You mean you think nonverbal communication with people is when you don't use words but use gestures and movements, and you're going to give us an example of it now by telling us what happened yesterday.

In order to perform the task accurately, students must be attending to the meanings and relations expressed in the discourse and demonstrate their awareness of those meanings and relations in their responses.

A Predictive Listening Exercise involves stopping at some point in a discourse and asking students to predict what is likely to come next. To perform the task, the student must be attending to the features of discourse that signal the types of topic development being pursued, and at the same time he must draw on his knowledge of how a continuation of that type of topic development is likely to be realized. Thus, Predictive Listening Exercises incorporate a process of retrospective listening, as well as adding a new process.

> 10. Teacher: Well, nonverbal communication is a way of communicating with people but without using words. For example, gestures and movements. Uh, yesterday something happened that is a good illustration of it.

> Student: Oh, you mean you're about to tell us the
> first thing that happened or about a place where
> something happened that's an example of nonverbal
> communication.

In overview, all the exercises suggested above can be done
with the same basic type of stimulus, i.e., they can be done with
a teacher-read stimulus, with stoppage of a film or tape, or
with interruption of an on-going discussion. Once instituted,
all can be used in ten-to-twelve minute segments at the beginning
or end of a class session, if not incorporated into other activity
underway in the course. One disadvantage of all the exercises
except the Imitation Exercises is that they are not adaptable
to language laboratory use for the purposes advocated in this
paper, due to the necessity of variable creative responses and
variable feedback to those responses. However, this disadvantage
is overcome by the number of advantages associated with involving
students in creative language processing and with the exercises'
adaptability to use in active situations. Examples have been
shown from conversational material, but the approach is readily
applied to lecture types of material for those adult learners
who are preparing to enter universities. However, caution must
be observed that instruction is appropriate to the different
registers used in different listening situations.

4. Conclusions - There are undoubtedly additional types
of instruction and practice that would be instrumental in improv-
ing listening skills for advanced ESL students, such as Hughes'
inferential listening exercises or evaluative listening exercises.
However, in this paper I have tried to confine my comments to
proposals for the use of instructional approaches and practice

19

materials that have a basis in one type of psycholinguistic data
on how advanced ESL listeners process spoken English and in
linguistic data about what is available and probably necessary
for them to process while trying to understand spoken English
discourse. Unfortunately, the psycholinguistic data relevant to
ESL students' processing of discourse is sparse in some areas,
so several inferences had to be drawn in the above discussion.
Similarly, linguistic investigations of discourse are still in
an early stage of development, so research on such distinctions
as which discourse features are language-universal and which are
language-specific remains to be completed. Nonetheless, I feel
confident that by basing attempts to construct instructional
materials and approaches on both psycholinguistic and linguistic
findings, especially with an eye to spoken discourse, we can not
help but improve our attempts to help ESL students develop their
listening skills.

REFERENCES

Chafe, Wallace L. "Discourse Structure and Human Knowledge." in
Language Comprehension and the Acquisition of Knowledge.
Roy O. Freedle and John B. Carroll, eds. Washington, D. C.:
V. H. Winston & Sons. 1972. pp. 41-69.

Crymes, Ruth, Gary James, Larry Smith, and Harvey Taylor.
Developing Fluency in English: With Sentence-Combining Prac-
tice in Nominalization. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-
Hall, Inc. 1974.

Glicksberg, Daniel Hillel. A Study of the Span of Immediate
Memory Among Adult Students of English as a Foreign Language.
University of Michigan. Unpublished doctoral dissertation,
1963.

Gordon, Kent H. and Kenneth L. Pike. "Paired Semantic Components,
Paired Sentence Reversals and the Analysis of Dhangar (Kudux)
Discourse." International Journal of Dravidian Linguistics.
Vol. 2. 1973. pp. 14-46.

Halliday, Michael A. K. and Ruqaiya Hasan. Cohesion in Spoken &
Written English. London: Longmans. Unrevised prepublica-
tion draft. (forthcoming)

Hughes, Glyn. "Aspects of Listening Comprehension." Audio-Visual
Language Journal: Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language
Teaching Technology. Vol. 12. 1974. pp. 75-79.

Kaplan, Robert B. "Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter-Cultural
Education." Language Learning. Vol. 16. 1966. pp. 1-20.

Labov, William. "Rules for Ritual Insults." in Studies in Social
Interaction. David Sudnow, ed. New York: The Free Press.
1972. pp. 120-69.

Lado, Robert. "Memory Span as a Factor in Second Language Learning."
IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language
Teaching. Vol. 3. 1965. pp. 123-29.

Morley, Joan. Improving Aural Comprehension. Ann Arbor: The
University of Michigan Press. 1972.

_____. Listening/Writing: Understanding English Sentence
Structure: A Workbook for Sentence Dictation/Multiple Choice.
Ann Arbor: The English Language Institute. 1974.

Rivers, Wilga M. "Linguistic and Psychological Factors in Speech
Perception and their Implications for Teaching Materials."
in The Psychology of Second Language Learning: Papers from
the Second International Congress of Applied Linguistics,
Cambridge, 8-12 Sept. 1969. Paul Pimsleur and Terence Quinn,
eds. Cambridge: The University Press. 1971. pp. 123-35.

Rivers, Wilga M. "Listening Comprehension." in Readings on English
     as a Second Language for Teachers and Teacher-Trainees.
     Kenneth Croft, ed. Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers, Inc.
     1972. pp. 87-99.

Schegloff, Emanuel A. "Sequencing in Conversational Openings."
     American Anthropologist. Vol. 70. 1968. pp. 1075-95.