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ABSTRACT

Papers in this volume on individualized instruction in foreign languages include: (1) "Individualized Instruction and 'Back to Basics': Are They Compatible?" by Howard B. Altman; (2) "Individualized Instruction in French at Northwestern University" by Margaret Sinclair Breslin; (3) "An Individualized French Program for Secondary Schools" by Virginia Bell; (4) "Self-Pacing and Structure in Individualized Instruction Experiences of the Spanish Program at The Ohio State University" by Kathleen S. Cox and Alix Ingber; (5) "Developing Oral-Aural Language Proficiency in an Individualized Setting" by Elena M. DeCosta; (6) "Needed: A Conceptual Model for Individualizing Foreign Language Instruction" by Ronald L. Gougher; (7) "The Use of Video and Suggestopedic Techniques in Individualized Language Learning" by Lawrence Hall; (8) "Programmatic Individualization in Foreign Languages: A Proposal for the Smaller College" by Wolf Hollerbach; (9) "Different Approaches to Teaching Reading in German" by Hannelore Lehr; (10) "Individualizing Instruction in Foreign Languages Through the Implementation of a Functional-Notional Syllabus" by Margaret M. Marshall; (11) "Who Needs Computers?" by George W. Mulford; (12) "Materials Developed for Individualized Elementary Spanish Courses at the University of California, Davis" by Fabian A. Samamiego; (13) "Group Interaction in an Individualized Program in Intermediate Latin" by Elaine Simons; (14) "Maintaining and Developing an Individualized Program in Intermediate Latin" by Grundy Steiner; and (15) "An Approach to Individualization" by Cristina Woodhouse. (JK)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SECOND NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES

OCTOBER 24 - 25, 1980

Sponsored by

The College of Humanities

The Ohio State University

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FOREWORD

In 1976 the College of Humanities at The Ohio State University received a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities to develop model programs in individualized instruction in six foreign languages: Arabic, French, German, Latin, Russian and Spanish. In 1979, at the end of the term of the grant, the First National Conference on Individualized Instruction in Foreign Languages was held on the Ohio State campus to publicize and disseminate the results of the Ohio State experience. Representatives of many other institutions offering or interested in individualized foreign language instruction were also present at that conference, either to share their own experience or to learn what others had been doing. The proceedings of that conference were published under the terms of the NEH grant, and copies are available free of charge, as long as supplies last, from the OSU College of Humanities. (The proceedings of that conference have also been entered into the ERIC system and may be accessed as ED 192 563. Interested individuals should check with their ERIC librarian.)

The conference of which the present proceedings are a record took place in Columbus in October, 1980, a year and a half after the first conference. If the first conference was dominated by a reporting and examination of the OSU experience, the second conference, while not excluding attention to the continued oevelopment of OSU's programs, was more a reporting and sharing of the diverse experiences of many conferees from around the country. This volume reflects that diversity.

The papers in this volume are presented alphabetically, by author's last name, rather than by topic, conference session, or language focus. A glance at nearly any one of the papers will reveal the reason for this arrangement: most of them span a wide range of topics and experience, and their conclusions have relevance, in most cases, to more than one language or teaching situation. (Conveniently, the alphabetical arrangement places the paper of Howard Altman, the keynote speaker at the conference, first. Professor Altman's paper provioes an overview of individualized instruction as we enter the 1980s, and it can serve as a useful point of reference from which to consider the remaining papers in the collection.)

Taken together, the papers presented here--whether long or short, descriptive or theoretical in style and purpose, and despite the evident variation in what the authors mean by the term "individualized instruction"--provide convincing evidence that much is being oone in this area of foreign language pedagogy. Notably lacking in this volume (and in its predecessor), however, is any sizeable body of empirical research on the various aspects of individualized instruction in foreign languages. Clearly, this is an area that should be addressed in the future.

The Second National Conference on Individualized Instruction in Foreign Languages--hence, this volume--would not have been possible without the initiative of Professor Leon I. Twarog of the Slavic Department of The Ohio State University, nor without the solid administrative and financial backing provided by Dean Diether H. Haenicke of Ohio State's College of Humanities. The timely appearance of these proceedings reflects credit upon the authors of the papers, who adhered to deadlines and heeded pleas for rapid proofreading of their edited manuscripts, and particularly upon the assistance of Ms. LaNell Corley, whose cooperation, attention to detail, and thorough competence in operating a word processor both lightened and hastened the arduous and lengthy mechanical aspects of bringing out this collection.

Copies of this volume may be ordered as long as supplies last (prepaid orders only, please; a receipt marked "PAID" will accompany each order filled) for $9.00, postage paid, from the College of Humanities, 186 University Hall, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210. These proceedings have been submitted for inclusion in the ERIC system.

Gerard L. Ervin
Columbus, OH
December, 1980

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INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION AND "BACK TO BASICS": ARE THEY COMPATIBLE?*

Howard B. Altman
University of Louisville

SEPTEMBER 29, 1980 WAS A rich news day. In major newspapers around the nation on September 29th recent attempts by Iran and Iraq to decimate each other's oil resources were described. On that date the Metropolitan Opera Company announced the cancellation of its entire 1980-81 season because of irreconcilable differences with the striking musicians' union. A medical breakthrough with the potential to save thousands of lives--the existence of a new vaccine against a form of hepatitis--was extolled in the press on this same day. Space was devoted, as it had been for some time, to an analysis of the differences between the major presidential candidates. The beginning of peaceful busing of school children to achieve racial desegregation in Cleveland was likewise a major news story.

These and many other national and international events received coverage in the evening newspapers. But the headline story in the September 29, 1980 issue of The Louisville Times, which filled a third of page one, all of page four, and most of page five, bore the title, "Jefferson County pupils 'average' in basic skills." For the fifth year in a row, Jefferson County, Kentucky, pupils, according to the report, had approximated the national average on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, with elementary school pupils doing slightly better than the national average and high school pupils slightly worse.

The Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills is a nationally standardized achievement test, published by McGraw-Hill, which purports to evaluate student achievement in the areas of reading, language use, mathematics, reference skills, science, and social studies. The report in The Louisville Times highlighted the reading and mathematics sections, and even supplied sample questions in these two areas for different school grade levels. Indeed, almost an entire page of the newspaper was devoted to an itemized listing, by grade level (one through twelve), of the average reading and mathematics scores for each of the ninety-six elementary schools, twenty-two middle schools, and twenty-five high schools in Kentucky's most populous county. I would guess that the majority of the newspaper's

*Adapted version of a paper presented at the 16th Southern Conference on Language Teaching, Charleston, S.C., October 2, 1980 and published in C. Feagin, ed., Dimension: '80. Proceedings of the 16th SCOLT. Atlanta, GA: SCOLT, 1981.

150,000 subscribers consulted that list that day to check on the scores of their own schools or of those of their children.

One might pause to wonder how strange it is that a report about local school achievement in the basic skills has been elevated to the status of headline prominence, with charts and graphs to illustrate its main points. Perhaps this might seem more appropriate in a small-town newspaper which specializes in community news, but The Louisville Times is a major newspaper in a metropolitan area of almost a million people. The fact that the results of a test in the basic skills of education should be viewed as so newsworthy is evidence of the snake-charmer effect which the "back to basics" movement in our schools and colleges continues to exert upon a concerned public.

What does "back to basics" mean? Its definition as an educational slogan would seem to depend upon one's values and Weltanschauung. One person's "basics" are another person's frills. There is a story told that the distinguished British phonetician Daniel Jones once sought to learn the definition of a dog. He posed this question to some eminent zoologists who reflected upon it for a week and replied that a dog is a four-footed mammal recognized as a dog . . . by another dog.[1] This may be the most accurate approach to the definition of the "basics" in education, for it allows us to define the "basics" as those elements or qualities of learning and teaching which some people consider . . . "basic"!

Basic education proved to be a major theme in the recently completed Twelfth Gallup Poll on Education, conducted in May of this year and published in the September, 1980 issue of Phi Delta Kappan.[2] Some of the statistics are quite revealing, and they allow us to characterize the "back to basics" movement with more precision. For example:

---"Poor curriculum [and/or] poor standards" was cited as the third most important problem facing the public schools today. The first choice of respondents was "lack of discipline," followed in second place by "use of drugs or dope." As we shall see below, all three choices are intimately entwined in the thinking of some "back to basics" proponents.

---49% of the sample responded that emphasis on "basics" such as reading, writing, and computation was an important way to improve public education in their community. Overall this item placed second only to the need for "well-educated teachers and principals," but among the sample of public school parents (i.e., parents with children currently attending a public school) the emphasis on basic education was clearly first.

---79% of the respondents indicated their approval of moral instruction in the schools; this figure included respondents without school-aged children. Of those who had children currently attending public school, 84% supported this position.

---Basic education--defined in the poll for this question as reading, writing, and arithmetic--was viewed as the single most important priority for the new Department of Education to address in the immediate future. 72% of the public school parents and 69% of the total sample selected this item, as compared, for example, with a 33% overall rating for "developing individual educational plans for every child." (So much for the effectiveness of our propaganda for individualization!)

---61% of the public school parents and 72% of the parochial school parents said that the local public schools failed to give enough attention to the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic. It is interesting to note that when this same issue was put to a random sample of professional educators (who are members of Phi Delta Kappa), 56.9% of the respondents felt that enough attention is being paid to basic education by the schools. That figure jumps to 77% of the public school administrators in the sample. Thus there is a major discrepancy between the perceptions of professional educators and those of the general lay public,[3] and this discrepancy is attributable at least in part to the variety of interpretations of "basic education."

In a recent article in Change, Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., Chancellor of the State University of New York, explores what he calls "The New Darwinism of Basic Learning."[4] Wharton identifies five interpretations of the slogan "back to basics" as it is used by its advocates.

1. "Back to basics" can mean educational austerity. The advocates of this position feel that schools, in their curriculum, have usurped functions which are better handled by other institutions of society, such as the church, the home, or even the jail. This position is one of ideological conservatism and takes a narrow, restrictive view of the proper functions of the public schools. Curricular emphases should lie with reading, writing, and computation; controversial issues in sociology, psychology, and current events should be avoided. No-frills education is what is called for, with no-frills pedagogy consisting of drills, recitation, daily homework, and frequent testing.

2. "Back to basics" can mean educational nostalgia. With the clarifying spectacles of hindsight, the supporters of this interpretation yearn for a return to the "good old days" of education. The fact that most of their images of an educational Eden are wholly fictitious does not detract from the comfort offered by dreaming of the past. This is the literal sense of "back" to basics.

3. "Back to basics" can mean discipline. Its supporters believe strongly in law and order in our schools, in corporal punishment for offenders, and in dress codes and hair codes for students and teachers. (Toscanini would never have been allowed to conduct a school orchestra according to this view!) As Wharton suggests, many an essayist on "back to basics" seems more alarmed about the breakdown

of order in schools than about the breakdown of learning. Several recent television documentaries have portrayed today's public schools as centers of violence where drugs are openly sold and used, where extortion rackets flourish among the student body, and where teachers' health and safety are often in danger. The fact that discipline was cited in the recent Gallup poll as the greatest problem facing the public schools today is evidence that this interpretation of "back to basics" does not lack supporters.

4. "Back to basics" can mean remedial education. In this definition it suggests that students who are deficient in the basic skills--usually assumed to consist of the "Three R's" of reading, writing, and arithmetic--should be given remedial help to bring them up to standard. This interpretation of "back to basics" has been strengthened by the massive publicity given to the more than a decade-long drop in Scholastic Aptitude Test scores of high school seniors, and by the equal volume of publicity given to the inability of college freshmen to write coherently.

5. Finally, "back to basics" can mean career-oriented education. In this meaning, the "proof of the pudding" for education is its ability to qualify young people for the world of work. Employers have long complained that school graduates lacked fundamental skills in reading and writing and arithmetic and are therefore unproductive workers. The solution according to this interpretation is to provide the kinds of educational training in school which yield productive and capable employees. The problem, of course, is that there is no known magical model of education which can guarantee acceptability on the job for its graduates.

Is foreign language instruction one of the "basics"? The answer, it seems, as with the definition of "back to basics" itself, depends upon whom one asks. Certainly the most restrictive view of basic education, held by many of today's more outspoken critics of the educational reform movement of the last dozen years, excludes foreign language study and consigns it to the status of an educational frill along with driver education and training in the arts. This is, however, not the position of the Council for Basic Education of Washington D.C. Foreign languages, along with English (including reading, writing, speech and literature), mathematics, science, history, geography, government, and the arts are viewed as the basic intellectual disciplines.[5] These disciplines provide not only subject-matter content, but frames of reference for problem-solving, for coping with life, and for interacting with other people.[6] Thus the concept of the "basics" implies more than school subjects; it implies a range of abilities which allow an individual to live a competent, constructive, and happy life. In this wider meaning of the term, can there be any doubt that foreign language learning has a unique and vital role to play?

The focus of these remarks is on the role of individualized instruction and of innovation in general in the "back to basics" movement. Upon examination we must conclude that the current status

of individualization and other forms of innovation in basic education is paradoxical.

On the one hand, as Brodinsky expressed it in the March 1977 issue of Phi Delta Kappan, the attitudes of many of the more conservative supporters of "back to basics" seem to be: "Ban innovations--a plague on them!"[7] In this sense, "innovation" is interpreted in its literal meaning as "the introduction of anything new or different." This implies a plague on the new math, on new disciplines in the schools such as linguistics or psychology, on the use of electronic media to do what teachers ought to do themselves, and on new curricular emphases such as the emphasis in science and social studies on understanding concepts, rather than on the memorization of facts, formulas, names and dates. (I am reminded of Tom Lehrer's wonderful satire of the new math in which he tells us that what's important is to understand what you're doing, not to get the right answer.) According to this rather reactionary view, the products of education are, or should be, almost eternally valid, and there is little room for change.

It is, however, not only the traditional products of education which have been reaffirmed in this attack on innovation. So, too, has the traditional process of education. The assumption seems to be that education takes place best--and perhaps only--when teachers, standing at the front of a room and commanding the rapt attention of their pupils, perform with the precision and short-fuse of a military drill sergeant. Thus conventional methodology is what is called for, and innovations in teaching techniques or pedagogical approaches such as student-centered classrooms or peer-directed instruction are anathema.

Does this mean that innovations such as personalized or individualized instruction can play no role in this highly conservative and traditional view of education? If both the product of education and the process of education must get "back to basics," where does this leave innovations like individualized instruction? Fortunately there is one dimension of "back to basics" which would seem to afford an opportunity for pedagogical innovation, and that is in the area of the maintenance of standards. To quote from Brodinsky again: "Promotion from [one grade to the next] and graduation from high school are to be permitted [according to the supporters of "back to basics"] only after mastery of skills and knowledge has been demonstrated through tests. Social promotion and graduation on the basis of time spent in courses are out."[8]

It is in this sense that "back to basics" is a very forward-looking and constructive movement. Its insistence upon the maintenance of standards and upon demonstrated learning to criterion level echoes almost verbatim the rhetoric of those who espouse the virtues of self-paced instruction or mastery learning or criterion-referenced testing. The irony here is one of means; the supporters of "back to basics" allege that only traditional, no-frills pedagogy will produce acceptable standards of mastery, while supporters of individualized instruction, for example, claim with

equal conviction that traditional pedagogy has consistently failed to bring most students to mastery level.

The way to reconcile this contradiction, it seems to me, is to insist that what is "basic" in education is learning. To get "back to basics" means to adopt whatever measures are necessary or desirable to bring about high quality learning. It is likely that different learners will require different pedagogical treatment. It should be in every case incumbent upon the innovators to demonstrate that alternative pedagogical approaches are superior to those they wish to supplant. Increasingly such evidence is being documented,[9] but usually not in sources readily available to the lay public.

What are the various approaches to curricular or pedagogical innovation which have been practiced in most institutions? They tend to fall into several categories. The emphasis here is on higher education, but the implications for the secondary school are obvious.

1. The "monkey see, monkey do" approach. It is no accident that, as a former governor of Alabama once stated about the standard-bearers of the Democratic and Republican parties, there's not a dime's worth of difference among the programs of study from one college or university catalogue to the next. Faculty tend to pattern the curriculum at their institution after what is being done at other institutions, as if this lent a kind of face validity to their actions. If College X develops a new approach to the training of the liberal arts major, College Y is likely to follow suit soon thereafter. If University P adopts a new grading scheme to record student achievement, University Q's faculty will push for its adoption as well. In this way an innovation can become an established fad in a matter of very few years.

2. The "professorial hegemony" approach. Professors--and to a lesser extent teachers in secondary education--yearn to teach courses in their area of specialization. No matter how esoteric an individual's special interest may be, or how peripheral to the mission of the department, it is almost inevitable that at some point he or she will propose a course in it, if not a series of courses, and will recruit disciples from among the student body. In this way department curricula or pedagogical practices get cluttered with ad hominem (or ad feminam) innovations that disappear from the catalogue when their proponents move on to greener pastures. Most university faculty consider themselves specialists within their own disciplines; few wish to be known as generalists. The underlying assumption of the "professorial hegemony" approach is pseudo-egalitarian; if Professor X has had to suffer through the writing of a dissertation on some topic or other, it is only fair that he or she should share that suffering with the next generation of students.

3. The "student needs and interests" approach. This approach played a major role in the educational innovation of the past two decades. It resulted and still results in the creation of degree programs around the country in Black Studies, Women's Studies and the

like. Its prevailing shibboleth was "relevance," and its courses were designed to cater to a clientele supposedly turned off by conventional offerings and/or conventional pedagogical practices. The underlying curricular assumption seemed to be that any subject was fair game for study as long as people were interested in it. In pedagogy the "student needs and interests" approach engendered the rise of personalized, humanized, individualized, learner-centered, interdisciplinary, values-oriented, small-group teaching methods. In some cases, these changes brought about significant enrollment increases. In other cases--especially where the innovation was introduced haphazardly into the curriculum--enrollments continued to decline. In some institutions the new approaches to teaching resulted in significant and meaningful learning. In other institutions the faculty succeeded only in documenting new methods for teaching students nothing. The curricular and pedagogical excesses of the "student needs and interests" approach are the cause of some of the most vehement attacks by "back to basics" advocates.

4. The "task analysis" approach. This approach to curricular reform involves tailoring courses and curricula to meet the specific future vocational needs of students. It implies a career-oriented emphasis in much of the liberal arts curriculum. In language departments, the "task analysis" approach finds its realization in the development of so-called "special-purpose" language courses designed to meet the needs of a specific clientele. "Spanish for social workers" or "Spanish for law enforcement officers" are among the more popular options in this genre. In general, however, this approach to innovation is viewed by many language departments as marginal to the mainstream of the department's mission: the cloning of future specialists in the target literature.

Why do curricular or pedagogical innovations so often fail on the drawing board or after only a relatively short period of operation? Let me suggest a number of reasons here. The emphasis is again on innovations in higher education, but many of the points are applicable to the secondary school as well.

1. A lack of sustained institutional support. Most innovations in curriculum or pedagogy require institutional support. The classroom faculty member alone is usually not in a position to decide upon and adopt an innovative grading policy or to select innovative curricular goals or even to develop an innovative course without institutional cooperation. Such cooperation is often fiscal, but always needs to be attitudinal. Fiscal cooperation is facilitated by the existence of so-called "soft money," i.e., grants from educational agencies or foundations for the purpose of starting up an innovation. When the "soft money" evaporates, the institution's commitment to the innovation may also evaporate. In these days of fiscal belt-tightening among foundations, sustained financial support for innovation is harder to come by, and institutions themselves are often expected to pick up the costs of maintaining a new program after the first year or two.

2. A lack of time for faculty to prepare. Changes in curricular or pedagogical procedures signify a change in the educational status quo. Any change in the educational status quo is likely to fail if the faculty have not been trained to deal with the implications of that change, and if they have not been given sufficient time to prepare themselves for the change. An innovation such as the individualization of instruction, for example, usually requires more preparation time on the part of faculty than does the maintenance of lockstep teaching. Where faculty lack such time--and they ought not to be expected to sacrifice weekends or summers without pay to find it--it is unlikely that there will be strong faculty commitment to the innovation and the innovation will doubtless fail.

3. Faculty fears of new programs or procedures. Many innovations in education are intimidating to faculty for a variety of reasons. Teachers, who are, after all, only human, get used to certain set procedures and are loath to change. There is also in many minds the danger that a new procedure, if successful, could jeopardize one's job. Electromechanical technology has been slow to become adopted in American classrooms for a number of reasons, not the least of which is the unstated fear of many faculty that they may be replaced by a machine. The popular literature in this area has helped to kindle such fears. Even the function of the human teacher as a friend and counselor may seem in jeopardy; one well-known cartoon depicts a depressed-looking student inserting a quarter into a computer which reaches out long arms, pats the student on the back, and exclaims sympathetically, "There! There!"

Paralleling faculty fears of new programs is faculty hostility to ANYTHING new, and perhaps for some of the same reasons as account for faculty anxiety. There are those in every department who maintain that any deviation from the status quo is harmful or unsound. Though often possessed of what Frederick the Great called "ein durch keinerlei Sachkenntnis getrübtes Wissen"--i.e., a knowledge unencumbered by the facts--they do not hesitate to criticize and disparage the claims of reformers from within their ranks. When I first set up an individualized German program at the University of Washington some nine years ago, I repeatedly encouraged my colleagues in German to visit the program and see what we were doing. Of course, no one ever came, but this did not stop my "colleagues" from criticizing the program, sight unseen, in departmental faculty meetings.

4. The tendency of a regression toward the mean of established programs. The distinctive features of many curricular or pedagogical innovations have a tendency to become eroded by existing and long-standing programs and practices. After a short period of experimentation, innovative features are often tempered to reflect more closely the established practices and prejudices of the faculty. Thus, for example, an individualized self-paced program may start out in a continuous progress mode (i.e., no time limits) but in many institutions the faculty tend to build in deadlines after a year or two, thus reflecting their preference for the "tried and true" in education.

5. Faculty unwillingness to evaluate and to be evaluated. One of the less fortunate traditions in education, especially in higher education, is the reluctance of faculty to formally evaluate their own teaching or that of their colleagues, or to welcome peer evaluators into their classrooms. A faculty member behind the closed door of his or her classroom reigns supreme, and visitors are rarely invited. This inviolability of the academic classroom in higher education has a long and depressing tradition, though one which has been substantially weakened in recent years in many institutions.

The difficulty with this regal stance is that educational institutions have a legitimate need and right to know how effectively their curricular and pedagogical practices are serving the needs of the institution's clientele. External funding agencies invariably require formal evaluation of any program to which financial support has been given. Inadequate plans for evaluation may result in the denial of an otherwise acceptable proposal for funding. Decisions about renewed funding either by the institution itself or by an external agency rely heavily on evaluations of what has transpired thus far. The denial of funding or of continued funding is often sufficient to retire an innovation to the graveyard of good ideas.

6. Time required for ongoing duties prohibiting innovation. In many cases the curricular or pedagogical plans of faculty members fail to come to fruition because of a surfeit of already existing pressures on their professional time. As many faculty can attest, the development of an innovative course or of an innovative approach to an existing course--for example, individualization--requires a great deal of time and concentration if it is to be done properly. Institutions only rarely reduce a faculty member's other responsibilities to allow this sort of work to be done. Time for planning, development, and field-testing of a new idea often must be carved out of a faculty member's personal time.

7. Low ranking of curricular or pedagogical innovation in the academic reward structure. It is a well-established belief in many institutions of higher learning that time spent in course design or curriculum revision is time taken away from those activities which count in the institution's reward system. Traditionally there has been little external incentive for a faculty member to be a creative teacher; one's career is much more certain if one performs one's instructional duties perfunctorily and devotes the bulk of one's professional time to publication. (There is evidence, however, that the priorities within academe are changing today as institutions find themselves scrambling to attract and hold a diminishing student population.)

8. Lack of a generally accepted theory of reform for the curriculum. There are few, if any, guidelines known to most faculty concerning the principles or practices of curricular reform. Educational innovation is practiced as an art, not as a science, and dilettantism is prevalent. It has been suggested that innovation in higher education is a fountain where some faculty come to drink, some

come to sip, but most come to gargle! Whatever theoretical bases exist for innovation in general, or for a specific innovation such as individualization, tend to be unknown or ignored. There is little agreement among faculty concerning what ought to be taught, and even less agreement concerning how. This militates against the durability of innovative practices.

9. The idiosyncratic nature of innovation. It is a sad fact of curricular or pedagogical life--and one often played out in many institutions--that an innovation is inextricably linked to the presence and continued interest of its developer. If the faculty member who spearheaded the new program or practice leaves or loses interest, it is likely that the innovation will wither on the vine.

Let me summarize what I have tried to present in four concluding points.

1. The "back to basics" phenomenon in education is a recurring phenomenon which is manifested in some form every few decades as a reaction to the swings of the educational pendulum in some new direction. The previous hue and cry for "back to basics" came in the 1950s; the current cause célèbre shows signs of surviving well into the 1980s. Although the movement is ideologically conservative and at times seems predicated upon, in Neil Postman's terms, a "sociology of revenge"[10] against the young, the liberal, and the permissive in education, the movement need not be viewed as disastrous to the cause of individualized or otherwise innovative education, in foreign languages or in any other academic discipline.

2. Paralleling the "back to basics" movement is the national trend termed "minimal competency testing." The two movements are philosophically kindred spirits; minimal competency testing logically follows from the demands by the advocates of "back to basics" for continuous testing to monitor student achievement, upon which, and only upon which, promotion from grade to grade or graduation from school is to be based. If innovative pedagogical approaches can be demonstrated to develop the mandated competencies more effectively or efficiently than traditional methods--and the lay public seems presently to be quite skeptical of this in view of past failures--then process-oriented innovation should be welcomed with open arms by local school boards, PTA groups, and college deans. The burden of proof, however, is on the innovators.

3. If innovations in pedagogy have a potentially important role to play in a "back to basics" educational universe, what about innovations in curriculum? Will parents and teachers continue to tolerate such courses as "leatherwork, gourmet cooking and . . . hula lit"[11] which flourished as alternative education in the last decade? I suspect that the diversity of our school-aged and college-aged population will necessitate the preservation of some schools and curricula whose emphases seem non-academic. But for the majority of students, innovations in curriculum will need to be able to demonstrate intellectual rigor and respectability to be allowed to

survive. "Rigor and respectability" may supplant "interests and needs" as the shibboleth for the last half of this decade.

4. The old military strategem that "if you can beat 'em, join 'em" has never been sounder advice than in discussions of the role and future of individualization and innovation in general in the "back to basics" movement. Despite its fiscal and ideological conservatism, despite its link to such non-educational concerns as love of country and love of God, despite its punitive approach to the excesses of the past, "back to basics" can be a positive force in causing us as educators to reexamine our objectives and to look at our results. Where our innovations in curricula and pedagogy have been guilty of the mindlessness of which Charles Silberman accused public education a decade ago;[12] where they have accomplished not a legitimate diversification of respectable content, but rather a pandering to intellectual laziness, we need to rethink their justifications.

Foreign language education has always had an uphill battle in maintaining credibility in the eyes of the American taxpaying public. To innovate our practices with the result that the credibility of learning another language in this country is enhanced among both educators and the general public will secure for us a comfortable place in the mainstream of the basic education movement. And that might prove to be the best innovation of all.

Notes

[1]With thanks to Professor Peter Strevens of Cambridge University and the Bell Educational Trust who shared this story with me.

[2]George H. Gallup, "The 12th Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools," Phi Delta Kappan v. 62, n. 1 (September, 1980), pp. 33-46.

[3]Stanley M. Elam and Pauline B. Gough, "Comparing Lay and Professional Opinion on Gallup Poll Questions," Phi Delta Kappan v. 62, n. 1 (September, 1980), p. 47-48.

[4]Clifton R. Wharton, Jr., "The New Darwinism of Basic Learning," Change v. 11, n. 8 (November-December, 1979), pp. 38-41.

[5]Quoted from p. 3 of a pamphlet entitled "Council for Basic Education" produced by the Council for Basic Education, 725 Fifteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

[6]Adapted from Foreign Languages and the Basics, a brochure produced by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1978.

[7]Ben Brodinsky, "Back to the Basics: The Movement and Its Meaning," Phi Delta Kappan v. 58, n. 7 (March, 1977), pp. 522-527.

[8]Brodinsky, p. 522.

[9]See, for example, Jack Magarrell, "Self-Paced Instruction Seen Benefiting Students" The Chronicle of Higher Education, 15 November 1976, p. 6; also see Malcolm G. Scully's supportive review of The Ohio State University individualized language programs, "Taking Foreign Languages Out of the Classroom," The Chronicle of Higher Education, 22 September 1980, p. 9.

[10]Neil Postman, Teaching as a Conserving Activity. N.Y.: Delacorte Press, 1979, p. 3.

[11]Quoted in "Back to Basics in the Schools" in NEWSWEEK, 21 October 1974, p. 37.

[12]Charles Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom. N.Y.: Random House, 1970.

LEARNING FRENCH IN STYLE

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ANY TEACHER ATTRACTED TO INDIVIDUALIZING instruction recognizes that students learn in different ways. But does it make sense to have all the students working on programmed instruction, or listening to audio tapes, or studying independently when some students learn best assisted by a teacher, or are not auditory learners, or like to reflect ideas off another student? Before we can instruct students individually, we must assess how each student learns. Then we can match instruction to the student's learning style.

The teacher as leader

I have seen individualized instruction programs where the teacher has been demoted to a position of materials manager or of clerk at a check-out counter. I prefer to consider a teacher as a leader; that is, a person who has people do things that they want to do but would probably not do by themselves. Several years ago, for example, I thought that if students had all the necessary materials, they could learn by themselves. To test this hypothesis, I decided to learn German on my own. I borrowed a text and tapes for a first-year German program and made out a schedule of work. Lessons One and Two went very well. In Lesson Three, I found myself postponing my study because of other, more urgent matters (test papers, dinner, the World Series). I am still on Lesson Four.

As a new teacher, I used to feel guilty when I would place demands on my students to do homework or to study for quizzes. "Aw, do we have to do this?" they would moan. I came to realize that behind this façade of lack of cooperation, they nevertheless knew that I was leading them where they wanted to go. Their complaints to their friends about how much work they had to do was really a badge of their courage to stay with the course. As long as the teacher does not abuse the role of leader by unrealistic expectations and impossible work-loads, students relish the challenge and thrill at their success. I no longer feel guilty: Students want objectives and direction.

When I was faced with decreasing enrollments in our upper-level French classes, I decided to assess the following two areas of Worthington's French program: 1) What the students were going to be able to do at the end of the French program, and 2) how I was going to

get them there. After conversations with students and colleagues and drawing on my own experience, I designed a program whereby students would 1) have control of all language skills, 2) have a knowledge of French history and literature, 3) be able to live in France, not merely as tourists, but as residents with a more than superficial understanding of daily life and experiences, and 4) establish their knowledge of the language, the people, and their culture as a permanent part of their personal and/or professional lives. The course descriptions I wrote for French III, IV, and V are found in Appendix A of this paper. The result of a more explicit direction to the course of study was immediate: the number of students in French IV and V tripled.

Once I attracted students to the courses, I had to work to keep them there. Dr. David P. Cavanaugh, Principal of Worthington High School, had developed a learning-climate model that I adapted for my classes. My two overall goals were: 1) to provide a stimulating and productive atmosphere in the classroom, and 2) to encourage in the students a sense of satisfaction about themselves and about what they are doing. Both goals need to be met. To have productivity without satisfaction is to run a sweat-shop; to have satisfaction without productivity is to maintain a playground. When both goals are being realized, they become self-enhancing. When students feel satisfaction, they produce more; the more they produce successfully, the more satisfaction they experience.

The teacher as diagnostician

Derrick Nunney, then vice-president of Oakland (Michigan) Community College, stated at the 1977 Central States Convention that if students were diagnosed for how they learn best and if instruction were accommodated to how each student learns, then 90% of the students would learn 90% of the course material. In May, 1978, using the "Learning Style Inventory" (LSI), developed by Drs. Rita and Kenneth Dunn and Dr. Gary Price, I diagnosed students who would be taking French III the following fall.[1] Once I had the data identifying my students' individual learning styles, I realized that a variety of teaching methods was needed to accommodate these styles. I also realized that developing such a variety of teaching strategies over the same content would not be done overnight, or even in one year.

Convinced that the diagnostic and prescriptive approach to education was philosophically sound, I began implementing this approach in several stages. During the first year (1978-79), I attempted to match my instruction to some of the students' varied learning styles. I worked with tactual materials, then developed structured small group techniques, Contract Activity Packages, and so forth. Each approach was designed for a different type of learner. I attended two workshops given by Drs. Rita and Kenneth Dunn in order to learn more about prescribing the correct teaching strategy for certain learning styles. Also, I met with forty-two high school teachers from all subject areas once a month; we shared with one another the

successes and the problems we were encountering in dealing with students' learning styles. By the end of that year, I knew that if I could have the course content in all these forms of instruction, students could achieve 90% success or better.

For the next year (1979-80), we hired a French teacher, Liz Larson, specifically because of her willingness to work with me to develop materials for French III. She and I devoted that year to establishing student objectives and developing structured worksheets. In this, the third year, we are making use of various small group techniques and assembling Contract Activity Packages. Also, since a high number of our students are "adult-motivated" we had a parents' meeting to explain our approach to accommodate their children's learning styles and to invite them to become active participants in helping their children learn better.

The student as client

Just because we can diagnose a student's learning style and prescribe the appropriate materials does not insure our success in all cases. A doctor may tell a patient to stop smoking to remedy a respiratory ailment, but the patient may decide not to follow the doctor's orders. In talking to Dr. Mark Ozer, I realized the need to involve the student more in the business of learning. In his book,[2] Dr. Ozer shows approaches for helping even the most problematic student to own more of the process of learning. Once students know the objectives and the resources to be used, they need to become aware of how their learning style will help them succeed. As they begin to analyze what works for them as they learn, they begin to take responsibility for their learning. By the time they arrive at the end of the French program, they are able to fulfill the last objective, namely, to establish their knowledge of the language, the people and their culture as a permanent part of their personal and/or professional lives.

Conclusion

I have always been struck by a scene depicting the death of Mazarin, the mentor of Louis XIV. Three of the most brilliant medical minds of seventeenth-century France were summoned to cure Mazarin. One said he should be bled; another suggested a potion be prepared by an alchemist. The third was sure they should do nothing and pray to God to cure him. As they argued, Mazarin died. And yet, within 350 years, professional descendants of these three "experts" are transplanting livers, performing triple by-passes on the heart, and engaged in genetic engineering.

If the reports of declining student enrollment in foreign language classrooms and of the dearth of Americans knowing languages other than English are to be believed, then foreign language study is definitely in a weakened state. The technology to do our equivalent of a heart

transplant exists today. My wish is that we mobilize available talent, research, and resources to help our clients achieve success. By diagnosing their learning style; by matching the appropriate materials and strategies to their learning style, and by assisting them in owning the learning process, we will help students achieve greater productivity coupled with a meaningful sense of satisfaction.

Appendix A:

Course Descriptions of the Upper-Level French Classes at Worthington High School

French III

Starting in French III, the students begin to use French to study the people and the culture of France. French III concentrates on learning about French people, events, and literature in history, and how this heritage is important for understanding the French people as they are today. Students continue to learn more advanced grammar and to perfect the French they have already learned. Students use the French language by reading two basic texts about French history and literature, by creating their own projects, by acting out dialogs and skits, and even by listening to a French rock opera. Evaluation is based on quizzes, projects, and tests.

French IV

After having studied the history and past literature that helped form the French people, the student is ready to study France as it is today. The basic text for this course presents various aspects of French life today: television, sports, newspapers, culture, music, theater, film, etc. In addition to videotapes and a radioplay, two works of contemporary literature are read, one of which is a screenplay viewed on film. While students are learning about life in France, they continue to perfect their language ability. French IV students are eligible to participate in the school exchange program, in which students from Worthington High School spend three weeks in France (Caen, in Normandie) in February. Each participant lives with a French family and goes to a French high school. In April, students from France come to Worthington. Evaluation in this course is based on quizzes, projects, and tests.

French V

French V is a course in French International Studies. The basis of the course is in current issues in French culture, politics, and commerce that are of international importance. Through our contacts in Caen, France, we receive authentic materials in the forms of magazine and newspaper articles, records, audiotapes, and books. Students are guided to examine ways their language ability can be applied to a career and/or personal interest. As the culminating course of the entire French program at Worthington High School, French V prepares students to make French a functional part of their professional and/or personal lives. French V students are eligible to participate in the school exchange program described above in French IV. Evaluation is based on quizzes, projects, and tests.

Appendix B:

Factors Identified by the Learning Style Inventory

1. NEEDS QUIET

   Establish magic carpet instructional area; create individual den area.

2. SOUND IS ACCEPTABLE

   Permit student to study with sound present.

3. REQUIRES BRIGHT LIGHT

   Create den area near window(s) or other source of light.

4. REQUIRES LOW LIGHT

   Create den area away from windows or other source of light. Use dividers to shield light away from den.

5. NEEDS COOL ENVIRONMENT

   Create den area away from any source of heat; place near windows and/or doors in winter (reverse in summer).

6. NEEDS WARM ENVIRONMENT

   Create den area near sources of heat (radiators) or on inside walls away from doors and windows; permit wearing of sweaters, etc.

7. REQUIRES FORMAL DESIGN

   Maintain chairs and desks; establish at least one instructional area to accommodate formal study needs.

8. REQUIRES INFORMAL DESIGN

   Establish magic carpet area; permit student to use floor, pillows, or similar lounge-type study area.

9. SELF-MOTIVATED

Encourage use of contract activity packages, instructional packages, and programmed learning; permit self-pacing and achievement beyond grade level; encourage use of self-corrective and self-assessment materials.

10. ADULT-MOTIVATED

Establish den area near teacher (unless student is adult- but, not teacher-oriented); praise often; send communications to home (notes, commentary, tapes, student's work); praise in front of adults; involve with other adults when working.

11. TEACHER-MOTIVATED

Establish den area near teacher; praise often; incorporate reporting to teacher into prescription; include in small-group instructional techniques when teacher is involved.

12. UNMOTIVATED

Design short-term prescriptions that require frequent teacher feedback; provide simple options based on interests and include in prescription; experiment with token reinforcers; experiment with behavior modification; attempt to develop peer relationship with a motivated (and willing) pupil; reward for achievement; use instructional packages of student's choice; use games; use manipulative materials (if tactual or kinesthetic learner); permit limited options under direct supervision; praise for evidenced progress; involve in development of own prescription; observe reactions to each suggested method and use baseline data for comparison of relative effectiveness.

13. PERSISTENT

Design long-term prescriptions after establishing a procedure for obtaining assistance when necessary.

14. NOT PERSISTENT

Design short-term prescriptions that require frequent teacher checking; if peer oriented, involve as part of a pair or team; if teacher oriented, seat near teacher; experiment with token reinforcers; experiment with behavior modification; reward for completion of tasks; use task cards and simple games; experiment with singular multisensory activity... If these are completed successfully, experiment with instructional packages. Keep the

prescription on level of functional ability; praise for completion of each task.

15. RESPONSIBLE

Begin by designing short-term prescriptions; as these are successfully completed, gradually increase their length, being certain to keep them on the student's level of functional ability.

16. NOT VERY RESPONSIBLE

Design short-term prescriptions that require frequent teacher feedback and checking; provide few options; make directions as simple as possible; if peer oriented, involve with responsible youngsters with whom the student views interaction as being desirable; if teacher oriented, seat near teacher; if adult oriented (other than teacher) maintain frequent contact with appropriate motivating adults (relatives, heroes); utilize student's interests as focus of prescription, experiment with behavior modification; use task cards; praise when tasks are completed appropriately; experiment with rewards; be certain to follow through on statements.

17. NEEDS STRUCTURE

Be precise about every aspect of the prescription; permit no options; use clearly stated objectives in a very simple form; list and itemize as many things as possible, leaving nothing for interpretation; clearly indicate time requirments and the resources that may be used; required tasks should be indicated; as successful completion is evidenced, gradually lengthen the prescription and provide some choices from among approved alternatives; gradually increase the number of options. Establish specific modes of conduct and study; use programmed learning; experiment with instructional packages.

18. NEEDS LITTLE STRUCTURE

Establish clearly stated objectives but permit choices of resources, activities, reporting procedures, etc.; permit choices of environmental, sociological, and physical elements; use contract activity packages, many creative-type options and, if sufficiently mature, work-study and/or community-contribution programs.

19. PREFERS LEARNING ALONE

Permit student to do so.

20. PREFERS LEARNING WITH ONE PEER

Permit student to do so and to self-select peer. When positive outcomes occur, continue the pattern; when negative outcomes occur, discuss openly with both, reinforcing clear guidelines for acceptable behavior and task completions; if negative outcomes continue, discontinue the paired relationship.

21. PREFERS LEARNING WITH TWO PEERS

Permit student to do so and to self-select peers, being certain that all three youngsters agree to work together. When positive outcomes occur, continue the pattern; when negative outcomes occur, discuss openly with all three, reinforcing clear guidelines for acceptable behaviors and task completions; if negative outcomes continue, discontinue the grouping.

23. PREFERS LEARNING WITH ADULTS

Establish den area near the teacher; include student in all (many) small group lessons given; develop prescription that includes frequent interaction with adults rather than peers; praise; use instructional packages and/or tapes with adult voices and commentaries; use media taped by adults. If older youngsters are available for tutoring, experiment with this type of paired relationship.

24. PREFERS LEARNING THROUGH SEVERAL WAYS

Permit student to do so.

25. HAS AUDITORY PREFERENCES

Use tapes, records, radio, television, instructional packages (if adult oriented, use adult voices; if peer oriented, use peer voices). Require activities that involve talking, listening and repeating what is heard; use instructional packages.

26. HAS VISUAL PREFERENCES

Use pictures, filmstrips, films, single concept loops, transparencies, drawings, books and magazines; require activities that involve reading, looking and describing what is seen; use programmed learning (if in need of structure) and instructional packages (also structured).

27. HAS TACTILE PREFERENCES

Use manipulative materials; use three-dimensional materials; use fabrics of varied textures, shapes, sizes; use water and sand to draw or write necessary information; require activities that involve touching, e.g., drawing, building, tracing, painting, claywork, etc.; use instructional packages and many tactile-oriented games, task cards, etc.

28. HAS KINESTHETIC PREFERENCES

Use real experiences as basis for learning; take trips; use projects extensively, and permit wide variety of multi-sensory activities; use instructional packages and kinesthetic games.

29. REQUIRES FOOD INTAKE

Provide thin slices of carrots, celery, green peppers or fresh fruit, etc.

30. DOES NOT REQUIRE FOOD INTAKE

31. FUNCTIONS BEST IN MORNING

Permit student to self-schedule. If not possible, teach student's most difficult subject(s) in the morning.

32. FUNCTIONS BEST IN LATE MORNING

Permit student to self-schedule. If not possible, teach student's most difficult subject(s) in the late morning.

33. FUNCTIONS BEST IN AFTERNOON

Permit student to self-schedule. If not possible, teach student's most difficult subject(s) in the afternoon.

34. FUNCTIONS BEST IN EVENING

Permit student to work extensively at home; use homework as basis for demonstration of mastery. When possible, permit student relaxation periods during the day; test for lows during which student may be unable to function effectively at all; check nutritional intake and number of hours of rest at night. If possible, experiment with an open campus approach.

35. NEEDS MOBILITY

Permit student to move from area to area as long as he does not interfere with lessons, studies, discussions, etc.; permit frequent breaks; do not harrass student because of sprawling, stretching, or frequent movement; provide opportunities for active involvement in kinesthetic experiences.

36. DOES NOT NEED MOBILITY

Notes

[1]Rita Dunn and Kenneth Dunn, Teaching Students Through their Individual Learning Styles: A Practical Approach. Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company, 1978. The book explains in detail the LSI and how learning styles can be accommodated. The elements of the LSI are explained briefly in Appendix B of this paper.

[2]Mark N. Ozer, Solving Learning and Behaior Problems of Children. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980.

AN INDIVIDUALIZED FRENCH PROGRAM FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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THE ENTIRE BASIC FRENCH PROGRAM (French I through French IV) at Norman High School (an 11-12 year school in Norman, Oklahoma) is individualized to a certain extent. I shall be discussing here, however, the French I and French II programs only. These two levels are completely individualized, whereas the upper levels are individualized for grammar, but not for reading or literature.

The necessity for an individualized approach to teaching at these beginning levels became very apparent when Norman High School moved from a traditional to a modular schedule for classes twelve years ago. In a traditional schedule, the student-teacher contact time is usually about 275 minutes per week; in our modular schedule, the structured contact time is cut to 165 minutes per week. (This particular individualized approach is workable, however, either on a traditional schedule or on a modular schedule. In the school year 1977-78, I asked to have a control class of French I on a traditional meeting pattern of 55 minutes every day, and in 1978-79 I continued with the same meeting pattern for a French II class. In both of these classes we used the same materials and the same approach that we were using in the classes which were on the modular schedule. Only a few minor changes in administrative procedures were necessary.)

Materials

The textbooks used at Norman High School are the Harper and Row series Jeunes voix, jeunes visages[1] and Fenêtres sur la France[2] by Yvone Lenard. For French II, Fenêtres sur la France is actually supplemental, and the Amsco French Two Years: Workbook Edition[3] is used as the basic text. For both levels several other textbooks are kept available to the students for additional work or for a different approach to some point that may be giving particular difficulty.

For French I the independent study units have been developed to generally follow the text in the sequence of the chapters. The units for learning each of the three regular verb conjugations, however, are completely independent of the text. Each of these units is quite comprehensive and includes most of the basic verbs that a French I student is expected to know by the end of the year. Since the verb units are independent of the text, they may be introduced at any point where the class or a particular student seems ready for them.

For French II, there are two intensive review units with which we always begin: a written unit and an oral unit. These units encompass the basic knowledge which the students are expected to carry forward from their French I experience. Since the two units are complementary, the students work on both at the same time. They may elect to do either the oral or the written first, but they must follow the order given for the various parts of the unit. For example, they may elect to begin with either the oral or written work for the verbs avoir and être; but they must complete these sections satisfactorily before continuing to the next section.

To determine how to proceed after the review unit for French II, I originally made a list of what I considered to be the basic grammatical concepts which the students should know by the time they finish the second year of French. I then developed independent study units for these concepts in the following basic format: objectives (with the acceptable degree of achievement), learning activities, points of testing, and criteria for retesting. The Amsco second year workbook is the basic reference work for these units, though occasionally the students are also referred to the text, Fenêtres sur la France, mentioned above. (These independent study units do not, however, necessarily coincide with the order in which the material is presented in the text. They could easily be used either without the text or with almost any other text as supplementary material. In fact, I found that from year to year I would vary the order in which some of the units were studied, depending on the interest and readiness of the students.)

Program

At the beginning of the year, the students are given a thorough orientation for the individualized program. It is impressed upon them that they themselves must assume the responsibility for self-pacing in their work. Deadlines are set for completion of units, and it is only the occasional student who needs intensive supervision to meet the deadlines. In fact, for the motivated student the meeting of deadlines is an important factor in the grading process. Within the first few weeks, of course, the spread of the levels at which the students are working becomes very wide, with the spread for the French II students usually much greater than that for the French I students.

For classes which are on a traditional schedule (meeting every day for a specified number of minutes), the teacher must give careful thought to the division and usage of that time for a successful individualized program. My solution was to designate two days per week for formal student/teacher contact time (i.e., a formal class period); two days when the class would be divided into small groups where I would be doing intensive oral drilling and conversation with some students while the others were working independently; and one day when the entire class would have 20 minutes of intensive aural comprehension work with tapes or, for French I, intensive pronunciation work. For the remainder of the time on that day

everyone would work on independent study and testing, and I would be available for consultation.

There are, of course, some trouble spots of which one must be aware, e.g., cheating by some students and wasting time by others on days when the teacher is working orally with small groups. To curb the wasting of time, which seemed to be the greater problem, I found it very effective to use a check sheet (see Figure 1) which included each student's name and a list of the activities he could choose to do during his independent study time. Thus, on independent study days, each student was obligated to check at least two activities he planned to do; these included exercises in the workbook, working with a tape or the language master, checking completed exercises with a key, working with flash cards, taking a test, or, occasionally, reading French magazines or playing French games (Monopoly, Scrabble, etc.).

If one allows testing during this time, as I did, it is essential to have a reliable student aide (an advanced French student or even one from the same class who has progressed well ahead of the rest of the class) to administer the test and, for all testing, to have a designated table or desks in the room for the testing area. The other major prerequisite for the system is to have the tests graded as quickly as possible and to have a simple system of record keeping (see Figure 2). Thus the students may easily check their progress without interrupting the teacher or aide, and the teacher will not be burdened with record keeping.

The actual procedure for working through each unit is standard. Suppose that most of the class is ready to begin Leçon 8 in Jeunes voix, jeunes visages (French I), which is the lesson on colors and items of clothing. The teacher begins by introducing these orally, using flash cards, pointing to clothing students are wearing, and possibly using an overhead transparency. If there is time, one or two exercises can be done orally from the textbook. The flash cards are then put in a file and made available for the students to use for independent study work. After the unit has been thoroughly presented orally, the written information sheet is given to those students ready to continue with the unit. Students not yet ready to do written work with this unit continue with the earlier work they are doing. For the few students who may be working ahead of the rest of the class, this oral presentation is giving them a review or is giving them practice they have missed when proceeding individually. (On the whole, we have not found this approach to be a complication for highly motivated students who wish to progress faster and more inoependently than the rest of the class.)

Once this oral introduction to the lesson is made, it is followed with small group work (8 - 10 students) where again everything is done orally. Small group sessions usually last from 25 to 30 minutes, and during these meetings every student in the group must participate. These groups are extremely important, for it is here that each student has the opportunity to participate at his particular level of

FIGURE 1

Student Activity Check Sheet

DAY _____ DATE _____

Name	Test	SG	Lang. Master	Cards: Vocab.	Workbook; check/key	Sound Page	Work w/ Stud. Aide.	Games; Music; - Magazines	No. of Act.
1. Bickham, Lise	X						X		2
2. Blackburn, Kerri		✓							
3. Crane, Lisa	X			X	X				3
4. Danner, Bob			X				X		2
5. Edge, Sherri		✓							
6. Enterline, Butch		✓							
7. Fogel, Dara		✓							
8. Graves, Lauren		✓							
9. Harrison, Brenda				X		X			2
10. Jenkins, Kay	X				X				2
11. Merkel, Elizabeth			X	X					2
12. Moore, Lorilyn	X				X			X	3
13. Norman, Nancy		✓							
14. Robinson, Marian		✓							

FIGURE 2

Student Progress Sheet

NAME	AVOIR	RETEST	ETRE	RETEST
1. Bickham, Lise	-0		-0	
2. Blackburn, Kerri	-1		-0	
3. Crane, Lisa	-1		-1	
4. Danner, Bob	-2		-1	
5. Edge, Sherri	-0		-0	
	10 pts		10 pts	

ability. Cue cards, lists of words on poster-board, magazines, and posters are all excellent tools to use in these groups, and they offer material for conversation which is limited only by the imagination of the teacher and the students in the group.

On the days when small group work is done, sometimes two or three small group sessions may be held. Occasionally the first part of the class period will be devoted to cultural material or a brief film. On the average, one week is allotted in the rough time schedule for each lesson. By the end of the week most students should have completed testing on the unit and be ready to begin the new lesson the following week. For French II the time schedule must be more varied, of course, for the units do not follow a particular textbook lesson sequence; the teacher must use some judgment about what would be considered a reasonable amount of time to allot per unit for the student to keep on a satisfactory time schedule.

The format for allotment of class time used for French I is also used for French II. When the direct object pronouns are to be introduced, for example, the initial presentation is done orally with the entire class. All kinds of audio-visual materials are used, including overhead transparencies, posters, and tapes. The small groups then offer excellent opportunities for conversation using the object pronouns, and tapes and language master cards are available for students to work with during independent study time. Of course all students receive, when ready, the information unit; this unit includes many written exercises which the students will complete and personally check with prepared keys. When the students, individually, feel prepared for written and oral tests they take them during the time allotted for independent study. Occasionally the small group sessions are also suitable for oral testing.

Problem areas

The potential problem areas with the program center on the extremely accelerated and the very slow students. For the slower students it is sometimes necessary to tailor special programs for their specific needs, interests, and abilities: for them, for example, it may be necessary to put emphasis on reading or oral work and to diminish the written work to bare essentials. For the accelerated and highly motivated students, by contrast, a bit of special attention from the teacher usually suffices: they work through the units rapidly and independently since objectives and procedures are outlined on the units, and they participate in small group oral work where they always have the opportunity to use their advanced knowledge.

Conclusion

With this system we have had several students who have completed two years of French in one year; some who have begun the study of

French independently and joined the class at mid-year; and, on rare occasions, some who have completed one full year independently (e.g., over the summer) and entered the next level class at the beginning of the next school year. Thus the program is especially advantageous for students who wish to pursue the study of French but have schedule conflicts (with driver's education, for example) which make it impossible for them to be a part of a regular class.

As a result of this program, the enrollment in French has increased considerably: it has been necessary to add a half-time French teacher to the staff. In fact, this year (1980-81) the enrollment increase has been so great as to put a burden on the two French teachers. If this trend continues, as I feel confident it will, very probably the half-time teacher will become full time; the administrators at Norman High are very supportive of our program and of all foreign languages. The French teachers find this particular program very demanding and at times exhausting, but also very exciting and stimulating.

Notes

[1]Yvone Lénard, Jeunes voix, jeunes visages. New York: Harper and Row, 1976.

[2]Yvone Lénard, Fenêtres sur la France. New York: Harper and Row, 1977.

[3]Eli Blume, French Two Years: Workbook Edition. Third Edition. New York: Amsco School Publications, 1979.

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN FRENCH AT NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

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THE INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION PROGRAM IN French at Northwestern University is currently limited to the second year of language study. Originally (Fall Quarter, 1975) an experimental program involving three out of eight sections of the normal classroom course, it quickly became autonomous under the number A99, as I shall call it throughout this report. In its five years of existence, it has experienced a number of changes and expansions, not the least of them in student enrollment: from just under 40 students in its first year to a current 140 (a slight drop from its all-time high of approximately 165 students). Furthermore, it currently enjoys its largest-ever complement of instructors: three regular faculty members, one part-time lecturer, and one teaching assistant. There are also two work-study students, one of whom serves as tutor and grades grammar portions of exams, while the other handles the clerical side of the program.

Most individualized instruction programs have certain elements in common. I should like to emphasize, therefore, what we consider to be the unique apects of our program, giving a brief description of the content and mechanics of this year's A99, and offering some predictions of where we may go from here.

Relation of A99 to other programs

The fact that Northwestern University has a foreign language proficiency requirement (a two-year university equivalency) in its College of Arts and Sciences funnels some 550 students per year through our first and second year French courses. In Elementary French, in addition to a three-quarter beginning course, we offer a two-quarter intensive course for students who are past the beginner's stage but are not yet ready for second year. (This latter course may some day become individualized, but there are no immediate plans for such.) Students at the second-year level have a choice of three different programs: a regular three-quarter classroom sequence, a three-quarter Reading Knowledge sequence, and the Individualized Instruction A99. In this Fall quarter there are seven sections of A02, the classroom course, with an average of 25 students each, taught by three graduate teaching assistants and one faculty member; one 30-strong section of Reading Knowledge, under one faculty member; and a group of 140 students in A99, taught by five instructors for an average of 28 students apiece. The instructor-student ratio is

therefore quite similar across all programs. (Generally, however, we have only four A99 instructors, such that the program represents a savings in manpower as compared to the classroom courses.)

Rationale for A99

A99 exists to offer students an alternative learning experience. It appeals to students who are eager to escape the blocked-in classroom situation in at least one of their courses; it makes enjoyable a subject matter that might otherwise, as a college requirement, be viewed as a complete bore; its self-pacing feature offers savings in time both to students who simply want to fulfill their language requirement as quickly as possible and to those who wish to reach the intermediate level and major status in French as soon as they can. In the last category we often find students eager to spend their Junior year in Paris with the Sweet Briar program; if they can complete their second-year work in one quarter, they have winter and spring in which to raise their competence to the necessary level in intermediate courses. A99 also, unfortunately, attracts a fair number of young people with the misconception that it is an easier course than the classroom--a problem with which I.I. instructors from other institutions are surely familiar. For such students it is all too easy to forget about or postpone the one course in which they do not have to be in class at least three times a week. Many do just that, thinking that they can cram in all that grammar a day or so before the exam. In an effort to eliminate such difficulties as much as possible, we have found it advisable to increase the number of rules, regulations and deadlines each year, which has detracted to some degree from the open, more flexible operation of the course envisioned at its inception.

Description of the course

A99 has the same language goals as the classroom course: to develop a student's competence in all four linguistic skills to the "proficiency" level, which means a grade of "C" or better in the last quarter of the course. Since 1976, A99's second year of operation, this goal has been pursued via a three-pronged program: a general grammar review and a listening comprehension program together form half of the contents of both course material and exams; for the other fifty percent the student is offered a choice of concentrations (this year, literature, conversation, or civilization; in previous years, reading knowledge and business French were also available). It is this concentration option which sets A99 off from a number of other I.I. programs, and it has been the type of concentration offered which has given A99 a slightly changing focus over the years. We shall return to this feature shortly.

The A99 program is organized around a series of group sessions at which attendance may or may not be obligatory, programmed materials, and individual consultations with the instructors. Progress in the

course is measured by a series of twelve exams, of which grammar forms 35%, listening comprehension 15%, and the elected concentration 50%. Grades are posted only for complete exams although a student can, through an instructor, check any part already completed. The great majority of students take the minimum four exams per quarter, but since exams can be taken whenever a student has mastered the material, generally a dozen or so students accelerate the pace to complete the course in two quarters, and sometimes even in one. This gives the students more time to fulfill other college requirements, to expand their number of possible elective courses, or to reach the intermediate level in French that much sooner. For these students, who are normally well-disciplined achievers, A99 is particularly well-suited.

Components of the course

Let me now describe the course's three components: listening comprehension, grammar, and concentration area. 1) Listening comprehension is developed the first two quarters via Emil de Harven's spy story, Aérodrame (EMC Corporation) and during the last quarter with Madeleine Le Cunff's Sur le vif (also EMC). Armed with vocabulary sheets (only instructors have the texts) and study guides which pose questions similar to those on the next exam, the student listens to the tapes in the language laboratory or at home (cassettes are available), and is tested on comprehension either by an oral interview with an instructor, by written exam, or by a written summary of the material. This can all be done in English, though extra points can be earned for responses in French. Listening comprehension comprises fifteen percent of each exam.

Students have relatively little difficulty with this component of the exam, since they can listen to the tapes just as often as they need to understand the plot, and also because they do get involved in the story and rather enjoy it. Sur le vif is more difficult than Aérodrame, being plotless, but the challenge of understanding real French voices, with regional accents and all, appeals to most students and gives them a real sense of progress made.

2) In the grammar component, until this year, Carlut and Meiden's French for Oral and Written Review (Holt, Rinehart and Winston) was used in A99: it offers reasonable grammar explanations in English and a substantial number of exercises for each chapter--important elements in an I.I. program like ours. The tape program, however, adds very little to the text. For several reasons--the principal one being that it was time either for a new set of exams or for a complete change--we have shifted this year to the Comeau, Bustin, Lamoureux Ensemble series (also Holt, Rinehart and Winston). The main advantage is that this series consists of three texts: grammar, culture, and literature, which are coordinated in vocabulary and grammar, and which have been easily integrated into our program to provide a more coherent meshing of the elements than in previous years. Ensemble: Grammaire resembles French for Oral and Written Review in that its

explanations are in English and there are numerous exercises; its further merits in my view are its thematically oriented vocabulary in each chapter and a superior tape program.

To help students prepare for the grammar exams, a group session (class) is held one hour a week, which at the beginning of Fall Quarter students are strongly urged to attend to help them get started on the right foot. Attendance is not obligatory, however, and the bulk of the class are soon working entirely independently. Various learning aids, in addition to the laboratory tapes, make this possible: the answers to the exercises in the text are available for consultation, along with the answers to the practice or "study" exam for each chapter. Furthermore, if the students have any difficulty, they can either attend the group session for that chapter section, or consult an instructor or the tutor during consultation hours.

Another change in the grammar component has been implemented this year: the grammar exams have generally consisted of the standard exercises, with some short translation sentences. To encourage active development of competence in written communication, students are now required to hand in with each exam a 200-word essay which they have prepared at home. This change toward a stiffer exam will require careful monitoring to avoid too much of a drop in grades from previous years. The essay is worth a third of the grammar exam, which itself is 35% of the total grade.

3) The concentration part of the course is, as mentioned earlier, a unique and particularly attractive feature of A99. Students can choose to focus on specific interests and skills (though none of the four skills is neglected), and can switch options from quarter to quarter if they wish. In the past, with the exception of conversation, attendance at group sessions for the concentrations was not obligatory. Many students covered civilization, literature or reading knowledge material entirely on their own, with only occasional consultation with an instructor. The results were satisfactory; however, only with the better students; many of the others could have made more progress with more classroom guidance, epecially in the development of oral skills.[1] At the expense, therefore, of some of the flexibility of "individualized" work, attendance at most concentration group sessions has been made mandatory this year, with exception made for some accelerating students. Classroom hours, then, are: two per week (only one of which is mandatory) for literature, two per week for conversation, and one per week for civilization. Roughly 80 of the 140 students are enrolled in conversation (6 sections, 15 students maximum), 25 are in civilization and the remainder are in literature. This latter option uses Ensemble: Littérature as a basic text, with the instructor's choice of supplementary materials; the two others use Ensemble: Culture et société, again with additional material prepared by the instructors. Where more than one instructor is involved, i.e., in conversation, a single syllabus is set, but each person has considerable freedom within it.

Progress in the concentrations is measured in different ways. In conversation, class participation comprises 50% of the exam grade; a 15-minute oral exam constitutes the rest. Civilization and literature both use a combination of homework and written exams. In all cases study guides and/or practice exams are available; students taking conversation have a chance to practice for the oral exam by preparing directed skits or debates in the last class of each unit.

It is rare to find a student who does not become interested, if not enthusiastic, in these concentrations. The opportunity to do something different from the classroom course, to develop some depth and greater skill in an area of particular interest, touches even those students who just want to get the language requirement out of the way.

For students with demonstrated ability (a grade of B+ or better) we offer, in the last quarter of A99, the option of working on a special project, which they themselves choose. They work under the supervision of a faculty member (not aways an A99 instructor). In the past students have done their own research and prepared all sorts of materials on French wine, music, Baudelaire, etc. Those relatively few students who have the initiative to depart from the prepared program are the best advertisements for a program of this sort at this level.

Materials

Like most I.I. programs, A99 depends on large quantities of programmed materials for its operation (study guides, etc., alluded to above). This year, the introduction of the Ensemble series has eased the materials situation at least in the concentrations. Heretofore, instructors were free to choose their own texts. While a number of literary readers and conversation manuals already exist, finding texts for the civilization option was more problematic, and instructors developed a large quantity of their own materials: xeroxed articles, slide and tape programs, etc. All of these can still be used as supplements to Ensemble if desired, and indeed, supplements will be necessary for our twelfth exam, since the Ensemble texts contain only eleven chapters.

Although it is still a bit too early to tell, the Ensemble series seems to be working quite well and both students and instructors seem to appreciate the coordinated texts and the greater coherence they give to the program. One drawback, however, must be mentioned: students entering A99 in Winter or Spring Quarters will be working entirely on their own, since all the other students will be following the set program. Previously, it was possible for such students to do the first four exams of grammar and listening comprehension on their own, while following a second quarter option, because the two halves of the exams were not thematically tied to each other as they are now.

Mechanics

All study guides and exams, vocabulary sheets, and supplementary materials are available to the students in a distribution center which also contains an examination room, the office of the student-tutor, and a bulletin board where grades and announcements are posted. Students are responsible for keeping up to date and checking their own progress.

Students take the exams when they are ready, although past experience with student procrastination has led to the current system in which each exam must be taken by a set deadline. The result of this policy is to produce four smaller tidal waves during the quarter instead of one final flood. Since, for reasons of space, exams are distributed from the main department office, they can be taken at any time the office is open. Next quarter a new room placed at our disposal will allow us to move finally, if only temporarily, from the department office; this will necessarily decrease the number of hours during which students have access to the exams.

Grading the exams and posting results are generally the areas most vulnerable to snafus. As the secretaries receive the completed exams, they distribute them among the instructors' mailboxes. Concentration exams pose no problem: each instructor grades his own exams. The grammar and listening comprehension segments have a more complicated journey, especially this year. Now that we have a tutor, all grammar exams go first to her. After grading the exercise questions, with the help of a prepared grid, she distributes them to the instructors for grading of the composition and listening comprehension sections. Then all graded exams are deposited with the other student assistant, who enters the results in a computer and posts the grades in the A99 center. Although we always hope to get all this done in a few days, circumstances--illness, computer breakdowns, busy schedules, the deadline rush--occasionally conspire to set us back, especially at the beginning of the year.

The student's grade each quarter is simply the average of the scores on exams completed: in most cases four, often more. Computerization of the exam results, begun last year, has been a great boon to the coordinator, who previously did the averaging by hand at the end of the quarter. The quality of the grades has in general paralleled the results in the regular classroom course.

Directions for the future

Judging by the evaluations quarter after quarter, the majority of French A99 students enjoy the course more than they expected and direct their criticism mainly at themselves, particularly at their procrastinations. The feature of concentration options receives a good deal of the credit for the generally favorable student reactions to the program, and we shall probably maintain the present format indefinitely. Any changes in A99 itself, apart from the addition of

new options (business French, for instance), will doubtless occur in the mechanics of the course rather than its philosophy or methodology. A consolidated physical area--a set of offices and exam rooms specifically identifiable as "the A99 space"--is an obvious desideratum. Faster computer service in our building would be helpful also.

Future development, then, will probably involve the existing program less than other programs. A considerable number of A99 students have gone on successfully to intermediate and advanced courses, even to become French majors, thus proving that learning can take place in an individualized instruction framework just as well as (if not better than) in a traditional course. Parts of the beginner's course may eventually be individualized; there is no reason why the recently instituted second-year reading knowledge course should not follow the individualized path, returning in large part to its origins. The next step would be to expand the I.I. concept to intermediate and advanced courses, all of which will require much time and persuasion. In any event, as I.I. developers and instructors already know, time, hard work, and enthusiasm in approximately equal amounts are a minimal prerequisite for establishing I.I. programs--but the results are certainly worth it.

Notes

[1]In the case of the reading knowledge concentration, there was, of course, no attempt to improve oral skills since the direction is always from French to English. It was thus easier for students to work on their own in this option either at regular pace or in acceleration. The large interest in this particular option and its somewhat anomalous position vis-à-vis the others led us to remove it from A99 into its own slot.

A STUDY COMPARING STUDENT ATTITUDE AND ACHIEVEMENT IN COLLEGE LEVEL SPANISH UNDER TWO INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES: INDIVIDUALIZED AND LECTURE-RECITATION

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ALTHOUGH MANY ADVANCES HAVE BEEN made in developing innovative and effective means of presenting content to students of foreign languages in elementary and secondary schools, the tendency is still to approach the teaching of foreign language courses at the college level in the lecture-recitation manner. Research in the field of foreign language teaching at the college level is very limited, with most of the focus on teaching English as a second language and on bilingual education.

Research by Allen and Paquette[1], Carroll[2], Connor[3], and Valette[4], indicates that students do have problems in learning foreign languages at the college level. College students enter the study of foreign languages bringing with them individual strengths and weaknesses. There are differences in their abilities to code auditory phonetic material, to recognize the grammatical functions of words in sentence context, to memorize vocabulary and verb conjugations and as Carroll put it, to "infer linguistic forms, rules and patterns from new linguistic content itself with a minimum of supervision or guidance."[5]

There is a need to extend the data base in the area of instructional approaches to teaching foreign language in college level courses, especially in the area of individualized approaches to language learning. Presumably college students would benefit (i.e., they would be more successful in their course work, achieve mastery level more easily, and have a better attitude toward their studies) if they were allowed to proceed at their own pace through materials which were designed especially for them and which took advantage of their particular skills and differences.

The intermediate level of college foreign language study is a particular problem area because students enter this level with many different experiences: some students may have had two years or more of high school foreign language study, which traditionally is evaluated as the equivalent of first year college level; others may be transfer students from other colleges or junior colleges; and often several years have passed since some of the students have studied the foreign language. Even though the intermediate level presents many problems for foreign language educators, it is at this level that we find the least amount of research. The purpose of this study was to make a comparison of the effects of individualized instruction and

lecture-recitation approaches in intermediate level college foreign language courses on student achievement and attitude.

The study was conducted at the University of Houston in Houston, Texas, in the fall of 1979. Five directional hypotheses which followed this general form were investigated: students in an intermediate college level Spanish course who had experienced an individualized instructional approach to learning Spanish would demonstrate a statistically significantly greater ability to 1) write Spanish, 2) read Spanish, 3) comprehend spoken Spanish, 4) communicate orally in Spanish, and 5) would exhibit a more positive attitude toward learning Spanish, than students who had experienced a lecture-recitation approach. A sixth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant difference between the two treatment groups in the amount of time spent in learning Spanish.

Procedures

A two-treatment group quasi-experimental pre-test post-test design was used in this study. The independent variable was the instructional approach used in teaching intermediate college level Spanish: the individualized vs. the lecture-recitation approach. The dependent variables were 1) the ability to write Spanish in a grammatically correct way, 2) the ability to read and comprehend written Spanish, 3) the ability to comprehend spoken Spanish, 4) the ability to communicate orally in Spanish, 5) the attitude toward learning Spanish, and 6) the amount of time spent in learning Spanish.

The experimental subjects were students in two classes of intermediate college level Spanish. The experiment was conducted in the natural setting of the classroom, but the experimental subjects were not assigned randomly from a common population to the two-treatment groups. Rather, the students selected the times that they wished to take their courses and were assigned, according to their requests, by computer. The flip of a coin determined which group would receive the individualized instructional approach to learning and which group would receive the lecture-recitation approach. Each of the two groups consisted of twenty-three students, resulting in a total sample size of forty-six. Although no attempt was made to have equivalent matching groups, the two groups were remarkably similar in sex, age and marital status. All students received the treatments and remained in the course during the entire fourteen weeks of the experiment.

Due to the nature of the study, there existed potential sources of bias which, if introduced, could limit the generalizability of the study. Therefore, the following limitations of the study are acknowledged: that the sample size of forty-six was relatively small; that the study was done in only one university; that the sample was not randomly assigned to the two treatments; that the two courses were not taught at the same time of the day; and that the reliability and validity of several instruments used to collect data to test the hypotheses of the study had not been estimated prior to the study.

The following instruments were used in this study: 1) An observational checklist designed to measure the independent variable (i.e., the instructional approach). 2) Instructor evaluations designed to measure the overall effectiveness in both classes. 3) Instructor-made pencil-and-paper pre-tests and post-tests designed to collect data needed to test Hypotheses (dependent variables) One, Two, and Three. 4) An instructor-made oral pre-test and post-test designed to collect data needed to test Hypothesis (dependent variable) Four. 5) A Likert-type rating scale, administered on a pre-test post-test basis, designed to collect data needed to test Hypothesis (dependent variable) Five. 6) Time Logs kept by each student documenting the time spent in actual Spanish study during the fourteen weeks of the treatment to collect data needed to test Hypothesis (dependent variable) Six. 7) A written learning style questionnaire administered to the students experiencing the individualized instructional approach, used to determine each student's cognitive learning style.

All instruments designed to collect data to test the six hypotheses were administered to both treatment groups. The pencil-and-paper pre-tests and the Likert-type attitude scale were administered during the second week of the fall semester of 1979, and again as post-tests during the last week of the semester. These tests were administered and scored by the instructor from an answer key prepared in advance. The oral test was administered in the second week of the fall semester of 1979 as a pre-test, and during the last week of the semester as a post-test. These oral tests were recorded on tape and scored by the instructor and by another Spanish instructor. The student Time Logs were totaled at the end of the treatment period.

To insure that each treatment of the independent variable was faithful to its instructional intent, three observers attended each classroom for fifteen minutes on three different dates during the semester and recorded the behaviors they observed on the observational checklist. At the end of the experiment, students in both groups were asked to fill out an instructor and course evaluation form. The students' anonymous responses to the questions on the forms were analyzed to provide data which were used to measure instructor effectiveness in each of the two treatment groups.

Hypotheses One through Five were tested using analysis of covariance. The pre-test scores were used as a covariate inasmuch as adjustment for the covariate would lead to a reduction in the error term, and consequently to a more sensitive analysis. Hypothesis Six was tested using a t-test. A .05 level of significance was used as the criterion level of significance.

Instructional treatment I, individualized instructional approach

The pre-tests and the Learning Style Questionnaire were used for diagnostic purposes to determine each student's cognitive learning style, strengths and deficiencies. Students were scheduled for

one-to-one conferences with the instructor to establish individual instructional objectives, and to select the particular materials and activities that they would use in attempting to achieve their specific objectives. The students then proceeded through the course of study at their own pace.

The material to be learned was broken up into mini-modules. There were several modules for each part of the textbook used by the other sections of intermediate Spanish. The modules were kept on file along with pre-tests, practice tests and post-tests for each module.

A room was set aside to function as a learning center. Hours were posted when the instructor or the teaching assistants would be available to distribute materials, administer and score pre-tests and post-tests over the modules, and to confer with or tutor the students. A great variety of instructional materials and media was available to the students. Students in the individualized instruction group could take advantage of any of the materials and media relevant to their own instructional objectives.

Students worked their way through the modules which corresponded to the grammatical material covered in the textbook used by the other treatment group. They tested out of some modules, achieved mastery with the first post-test on others, and had to redirect themselves through other modules by doing remedial work. They moved along at a speed that was appropriate to their needs, with some students spending more time on one module than on another. The instructor acted as a resource person, a facilitator and an advisor, giving help when it was requested. Students controlled their own learning situation and helped to set their own objectives, operating within the restrictions and framework of the Spanish Department.

Instructional treatment II, lecture-recitation approach

The large group mode was the major classroom grouping. The instructor systematically covered the material in the textbook in chronological order. Most of the instruction was given in Spanish, in a lecture format, with the students reciting when called upon. There was little movement in the classroom. The students sat in their seats with their books open, following the instructor as she discussed the material in the textbook. The instructional environment was teacher centered. Fifteen minutes of every class meeting was set aside for conversation and oral discussion over assigned outside readings. At the end of every chapter, usually every third class meeting, students took a pencil-and-paper test over the material in the chapter. They were also assigned eight compositions during the fourteen-week treatment.

Results

As indicated in Table I, statistical findings did not support the acceptance of Hypothesis One. No statistically significantly greater ability to write Spanish was evidenced in the group that experienced the individualized instructional approach. Figure 1 depicts these findings.

As indicated in Tables II, III, IV and V, statistical findings supported the acceptance of Hypotheses Two, Three, Four and Five. Students who experienced the individualized instructional approach to learning Spanish demonstrated a significantly greater ability to read and comprehend written Spanish, to comprehend spoken Spanish and to communicate orally in grammatically correct Spanish and demonstrated a significantly more positive attitude toward learning Spanish than did the students who experienced a lecture-recitation approach to learning Spanish. Figures 2, 3, 4 and 5 depict these findings.

As indicated in Table VI, statistical findings supported the rejection of the null Hypothesis Six. Sstudents who experienced the lecture-recitation approach to learning Spanish reported spending statistically significantly more time studying outside of class than did students who experienced the individualized instructional approach. Figure 6 depicts these findings.

Conclusions

Students at the intermediate college level of Spanish demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in their ability to write, read, comprehend oral Spanish and communicate orally in Spanish, regardless of whether they experienced the lecture-recitation approach or the individualized instructional approach. Furthermore, the students experiencing the individualized instructional approach demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in attitude towards learning Spanish after instruction in comparison to pre-instructional attitude measures. While both methods of instruction produced statistically significant levels of improvement in the ability to read Spanish, to comprehend spoken Spanish and to communicate orally in Spanish, the individualized instructional approach produced a statistically significantly greater level of improvement than did the lecture-recitation approach. Finally, despite the fact that students in the lecture-recitation group reported spending more time studying Spanish outside of class then did students in the individualized instructional approach, the students in the individualized instruction group outperformed the students in the lecture-recitation group in reading Spanish, comprehending spoken Spanish and communicating orally in Spanish; the students in the individualized instructional group also demonstrated a statistically significantly better attitude toward Spanish than that of the students in the lecture-recitation group.

TABLE I

Pre-Test Post-Test Mean-Score Comparisons for Writing

and Analysis of Covariance of Post-Test Scores

Group	n		Mean		SD		t	p
	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test		
I I	23	23	80.87	51.70	18.95	18.79	9.34	.0001 *
L R	23	23	83.52	58.30	23.36	24.29	8.39	.0001 *

Variable	N	GM	SS	df	MS	F	p
Writing	46	55.00	235.19	1	235.19	1.18	.284 *

* criterion level of significance of .05

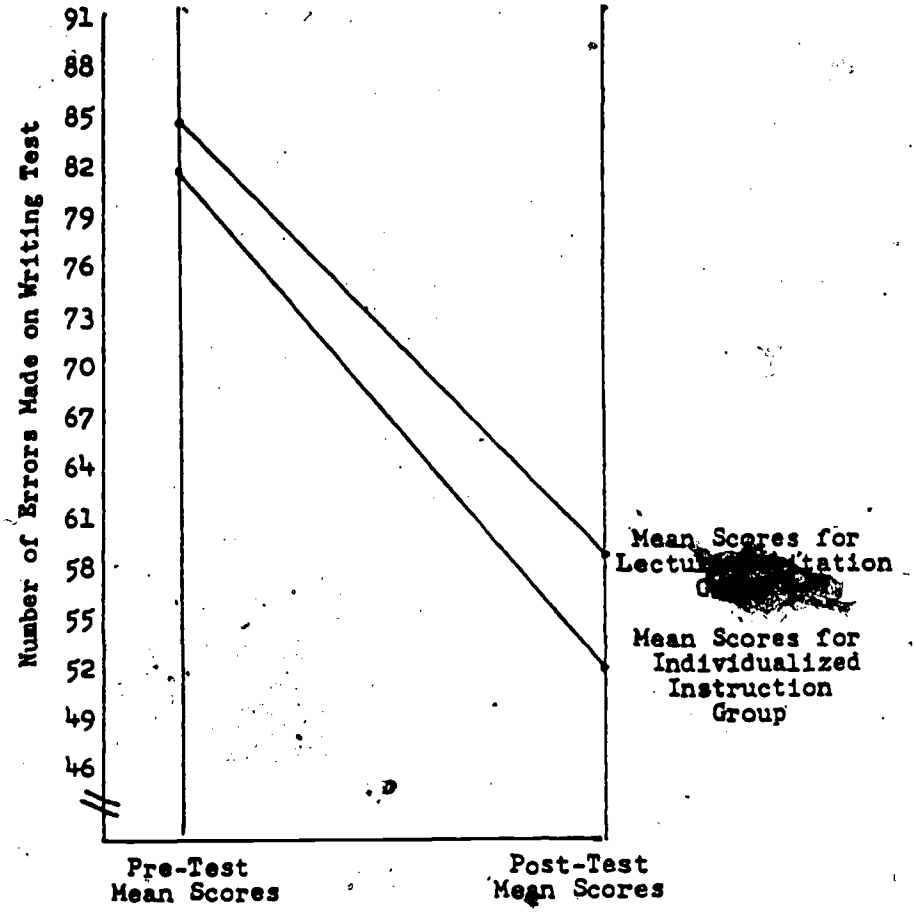

Figure 1. Comparisons of the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the group receiving the individualized instructional approach and of the group receiving the lecture-recitation approach

TABLE II

Pre-Test Post-Test Mean-Score Comparisons for Reading and Analysis of Covariance of Post-Test Scores

Group	n		Mean		SD		t	p
	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test		
I I	23	23	6.48	3.35	3.88	2.35	5.02	.0001*
L R	23	23	6.74	5.09	4.39	3.13	2.50	.01 *

Variable	N	GM	SS	df	MS	F	p
Reading	46	4.22	30.25	1	30.25	6.98	.011 *

* criterion level of significance of .05

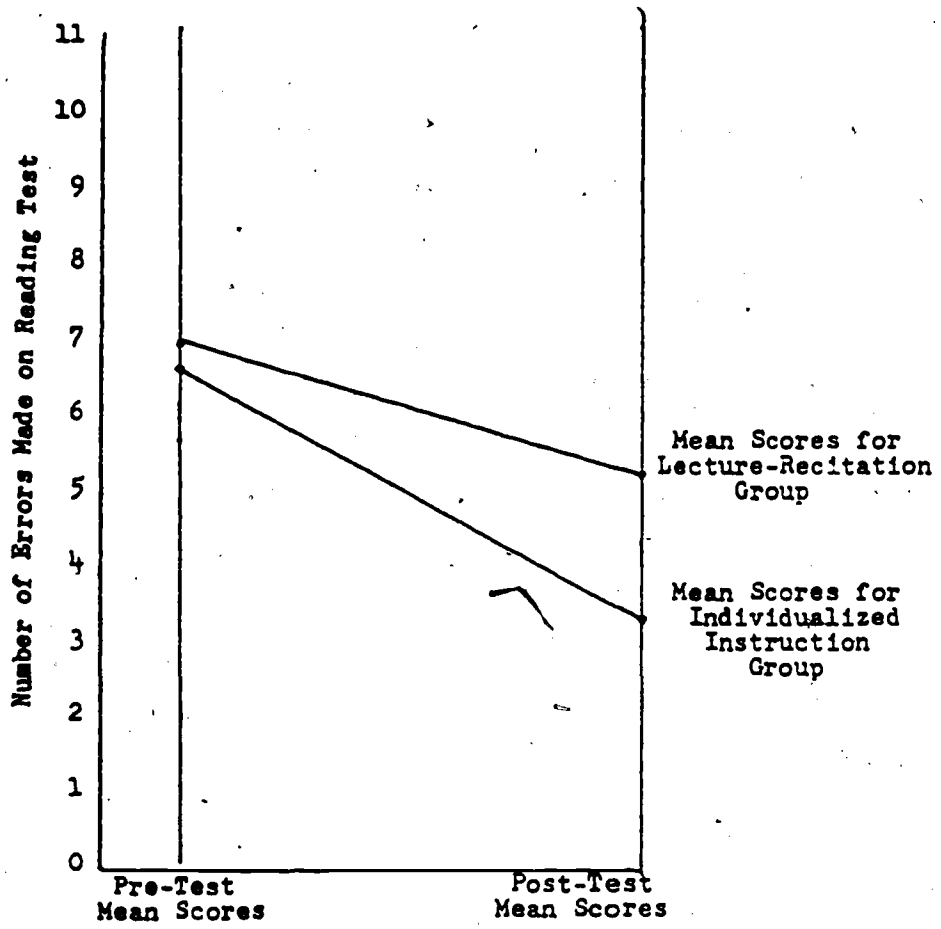

Figure 2. Comparisons of the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the group receiving the individualized instructional approach and of the group receiving the lecture-recitation approach

TABLE III

Pre-Test Post-Test Mean-Score Comparisons for Oral Comprehension and Analysis of Covariance of Post-Test Scores

Group	n		Mean		SD		t	p
	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test	Pre-Test	Post-Test		
I I	23	23	73.70	15.87	40.34	12.81	8.07	.0001*
L R	23	23	74.78	53.13	35.66	32.92	6.04	.0001*

Variable	N	GM	SS	df	MS	F	p
Oral Comprehension	46	34.50	15536.78	1	15536.78	48.02	.0001*

* criterion level of significance of .05

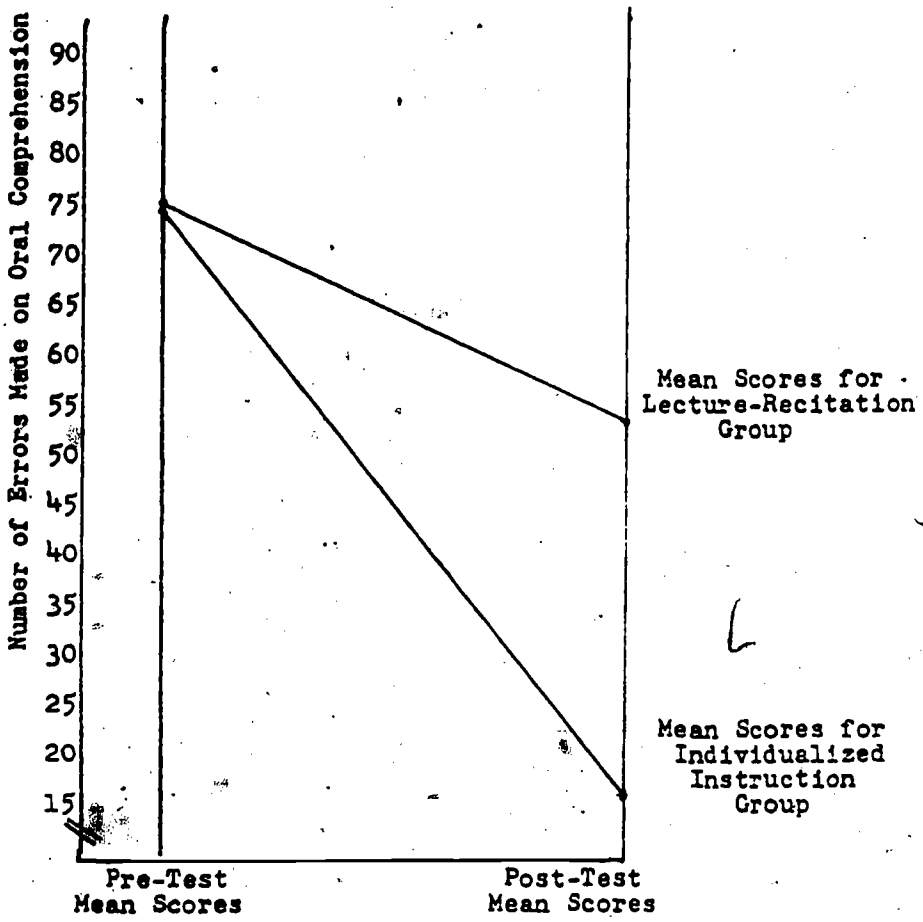

Figure 3. Comparisons of the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the group receiving the individualized instructional approach and of the group receiving the lecture-recitation approach

TABLE IV

Pre-Test Post-Test Mean-Score Comparisons for Oral Communication and Analysis of Covariance of Post-Test Scores

Group	n Pre-Test	n Post-Test	Mean Pre-Test	Mean Post-Test	SD Pre-Test	SD Post-Test	t	p
I I	23	23	63.04	18.83	25.93	10.89	9.56	.0001*
L R	23	23	84.61	53.57	31.49	28.27	8.87	.0001*

Variable	N	GM	SS	df	MS	F	p
Oral Communication	46	36.20	5320.15	1	5320.15	24.36	.0001*

* criterion level of significance of .05

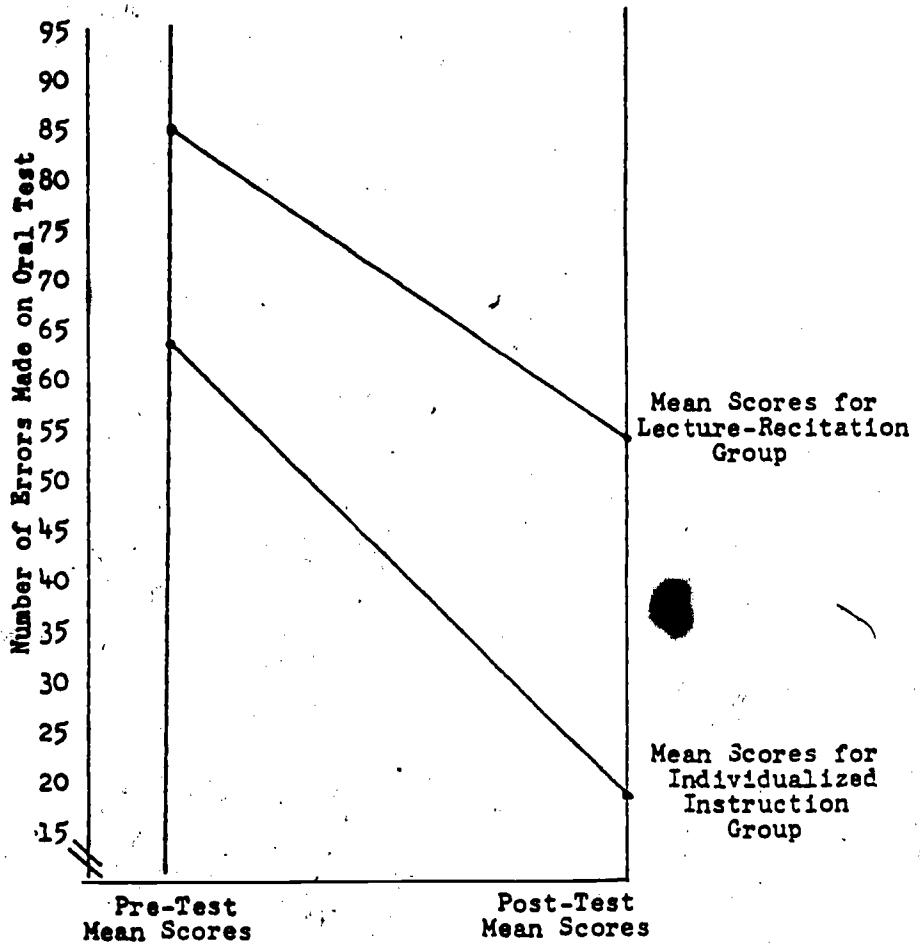

Figure 4. Comparisons of the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the group receiving the individualized instructional approach and of the group receiving the lecture-recitation approach

TABLE V

Pre-Test Post-Test Mean-Score Comparisons for Attitude and Analysis of Covariance of Post-Test Scores

Group	n Pre-Test	n Post-Test	Mean Pre-Test	Mean Post-Test	SD Pre-Test	SD Post-Test	t	p
I I	23	23	49.04	67.17	33.51	20.60	3.59	.001 *
L R	23	23	49.48	52.35	20.68	21.12	1.11	.139 *

Variable	N	GM	SS	df	MS	F	p
Attitude	46	59.76	2608.70	1	2608.70	12.30	.001 *

* criterion level of significance of .05

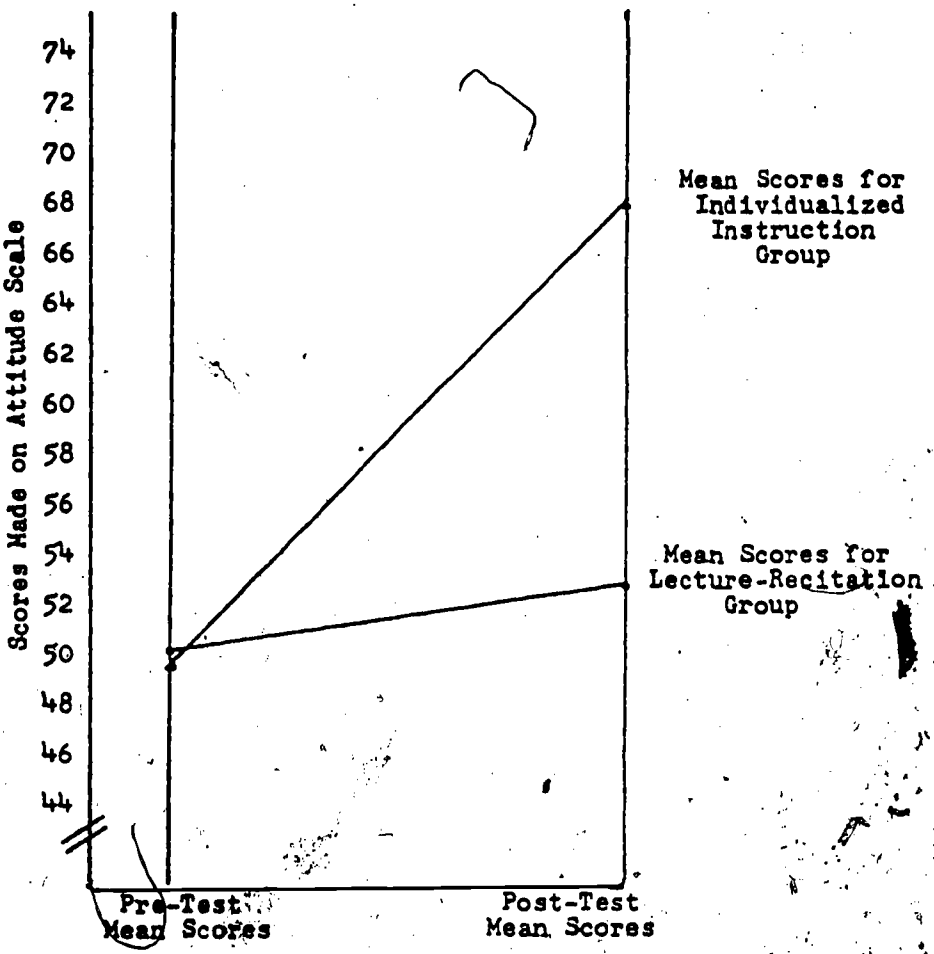

Figure 5. Comparisons of the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the group receiving the individualized instructional approach and of the group receiving the lecture-recitation approach

TABLE VI

Overall Comparison of Means on Time Spent Studying

Group	n	Mean	SD	t	p
Individualized Instruction	23	79.83	14.56	3.57	.001 *
Lecture-Recitation	23	100.74	24.03		

* criterion level of significance of .05

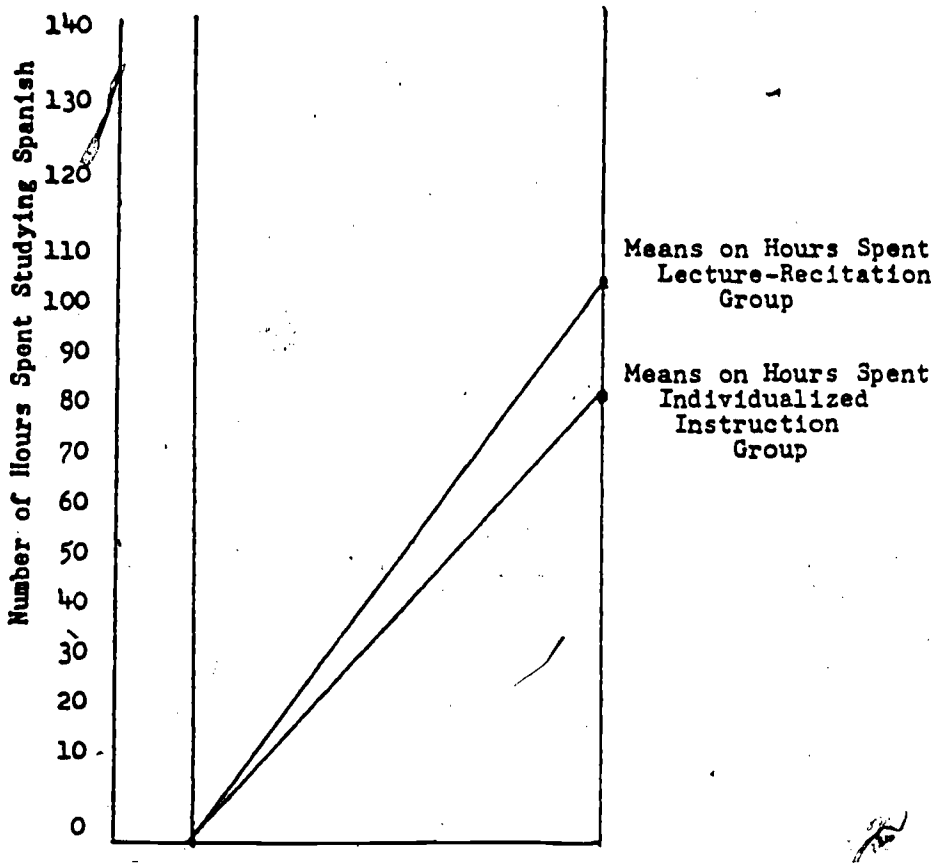

Figure 6. Comparisons of time spent studying Spanish outside of class for both treatment groups.

Recommendations

Since positive findings did result from this study, it is recommended that further research in this area of individualized instruction of foreign languages be conducted. Attention should be directed toward the following areas:

1. Replication of the study should be undertaken to determine if the findings will be supported with different instructors.

2. A study should be undertaken in first-year college level Spanish to determine whether the individualized approach is effective with students who have no previous knowledge of the language.

3. A study should be undertaken using a larger sample size in order to increase the generalizability of the findings.

4. A study should be undertaken to attempt to determine why there was no statistically significant difference in the ability to write Spanish between the two groups in this study. Replication of the study and a careful examination of the findings from Hypothesis One would be a step in this directon.

5. Many questions were opened up in this study as to why students in the individualized instruction group developed such a statistically significantly more positive attitude toward Spanish. Further research in this area is recommended.

6. Since students in both groups demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in ability to write, read, comprehend, and speak Spanish, research should be undertaken to determine whether, taking into consideration the cost involved (both financial and in staff time), it is cost effective to adopt an individualized instructional approach to teaching foreign languages at the college level.

Notes

[1]Virginia G. Allen and F. André Paquette, The Student's World Is World: New Dimensions in FLES. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1969.

[2]John B. Carroll. "Research on Teaching Foreign Languages," Handbook of Research on Teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1971.

[3]Marjorie W. Connor, "Learning Characteristics of Able Nonachievers in Audiolingual Foreign Language Classes," Dissertation Abstracts, 1975, v. 35, 1146A-47A (Cincinnati).

[4]Rebecca M. Valette, "The Pennsylvania Project, Its Conclusions and Its Implications," Modern Language Journal, 1969, v. 53, pp. 396-404.

[5]John B. Carroll, "A Model of School Learning," Teachers College Record, 1963, v. 64, pp. 723-233.

FRENCH COMPOSITION FOR BEGINNERS: AN INDIVIDUALIZED APPROACH

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OVER THE LAST THREE SUMMERS, beginning French students at Middlebury College have been given a chance to develop their writing skills via an individualized approach. There are certain characteristics specific to the Middlebury program, but it is still adaptable to other college situations.

Each summer since 1978 Middlebury has hosted a small group of beginning students in French. The group is heterogeneous, comprised of undergraduate students, graduate students, professionals, and even dilettantes. For the years 1978 to 1980, the beginning students can be broken down as follows:

	1978	1979	1980
Freshmen & Sophomores	5	5	7
Juniors & Seniors	2	2	2
Graduate Students	1	5	4
Others	1	1	4
TOTAL	9	13	17

Generally, all these students are highly motivated, although individual abilities may vary. Many students, for example, have already studied one or two languages. In 1980, the class profile was as follows: three were native speakers of languages other than English (Spanish, Farsi, and Arabic); five had already studied Spanish; four had studied German, and one had studied Russian. One student had studied Latin and Greek. Six students had had no previous exposure to a second language.

The beginners over the years 1978-1980 have fallen into two basic groups: first, the undergraduates, who generally attend Middlebury to learn a second or a third foreign language; second, the graduates, who seek to learn French in order to fulfill certain degree requirements. During these years it has been our experience that the undergraduates have been noticeably more successful at learning French than the graduates. This difference can probably be attributed to the fact that most of the undergraduates have studied another foreign language. (Motivation does not seem to be a deciding factor, since all the students--with rare exceptions--are highly motivated. Perhaps, however, there are different types of motivation. The

undergraduates are interested in learning the language for itself; the graduates need to learn the language for an immediate purpose.)

The undergraduate program is seven weeks long, and the students receive four hours of classroom instruction per day, five days a week, for a total of 140 hours. Three instructors share the teaching assignment. The first instructor teaches two hours in the morning, covering the material which appears in the course manual: cultural content, vocabulary, and supplementary reading material. A second instructor, teaching an hour a day, reinforces the material covered by the first instructor. The third instructor meets with the students for one hour every afternoon and attempts to provide the students with situations in which they can use the French that they have learned.

In such an intensive program many students, because of their unusually high motivation, want and try to speak French almost from the very first day. Many of them immediately use all the French they have just learned--grammar, morphology, and vocabulary--and they promptly fill the gaps with English. This can be a stimulating situation for a teacher: the efforts that the students make are spectacular, and not always clumsy.

It would be pedagogically unsound to tell a student, "You will speak when you really can," for there is obviously no ideal moment when a student may officially start to speak. If students want to speak, the best we can do is to try to channel their desires, needs, and energy. Meanwhile, since attempting to control oral expression is self-defeating, it seems that the most reasonable approach is to control something more easily controllable: written expression.

As early as possible Middlebury students are asked to write, and their first paragraphs usually follow a certain pattern. Most often, the first composition is a series of five or six short sentences which the students are invited to turn in at the end of the first week. Most of them respond to this invitation, although there are no penalties for not doing so and there is no grading. During the second week, students are told that once their first short composition has been corrected they may expand on the same theme, if they wish. The following is a sample of a second composition by one of the better students.

> Je m'apelle Judy. Je suis Américaine. Je suis étuoiate à l'école Française de Middlebury College. Je suis débutante. Je ne parle pas très bien Français.
>
> Pendant l'année je suis étudiante à Bryn Mawr. Je parle allemand et un peu Portugais.
>
> Mes parents habitent à Philadelphie. J'ai deux frères et je n'ai pas de soeurs. Nous avons une chienne qui s'apelle "break-my-back." Nous avons aussi un chat qui s'appelle Tiger-lilly.

When a composition is turned in all mistakes are corrected by the instructor and some editing is done if necessary. (The students are never asked to correct a mistake that has been only identified by the instructor.) The student's next task is to rewrite his composition. It is then turned in along with the original. The instructor rechecks it and then returns it to the student. (Rewritten compositions are rarely error free, hence there is a necessity to double check them. Moreover, the personal rapport that grows between the student and the teacher as they work together to produce the best possible written work is an important feature of our approach.)

At the next stage, the student is asked to memorize one of his compositions, and a certain amount of role playing will follow. At a meal, for example (the students and instructors take their meals together), the instructor may invite a graduate student in the language to ask a few questions of the beginning student. The graduate student usually asks some simple and basic questions like "Comment est-ce que tu t'appelles?" The range of real-life responses of which the beginning student is capable is usually astounding.

Students are not always willing to memorize their entire compositions, but the majority of them will do so. Again, at mealtime an instructor who knows what the student can respond to, guides the conversation and keeps the questioning within manageable boundaries.

Each time a student has turned in an error-free composition during the course, he is invited to write another. No specific topic is assigned, but most students, if not all, stay close to their personal and immediate experience. The following paragraph is a sample (this is the beginning of a composition of about 200 words):

> Il y a [illegible] semaines que je suis arrivé à l'école Française à Middlebury. D'abord j'étais assez dépaysé car tout le monde parlait exclusivement Français. Après tout, je ne comprends pas beaucoup de mots qui sont utiles dans la conversation, parce que je suis débutant. Mais après la première semaine, cependant, ça n'allait pas trop mal et j'ai commencé à parler un peu Français.

Middlebury students are bound by oath to speak French at all times. They prefer to associate with students having a proficiency equal or superior to theirs. Though mute at first, they quickly react to the situation and view their composition program as one avenue toward recognition and involvement. Getting the students to write freely is the easiest step in this instructional system. Correcting the papers, however, can become an onerous task. The number and length of some compositions makes this part of the process very time-consuming.

Regardless of the lockstep classroom situation, the program encourages the students to learn according to their abilities. Because students are given a chance to write freely, they explore the

learning process on their own terms. They find what they need to know either through a book or by asking an instructor or a graduate student. There is always an abundance of learning resources available to the inquiring student. In fact, it turns out that this technique is not merely a teaching device, but rather a vehicle for self-expression that allows the students to write as much as the instructors can possibly correct. It gives the students a chance to see their compositions rewritten in good French, which they can then memorize and use in the context in which they live.

In addition to the amount of correction work created for the teachers, this approach has other shortcomings. An astute learner, for example, can fairly easily develop a strategy of avoiding obstacles, i.e., in a free composition one does not have to use what one does not know. One technique that can help force the students into terra incognita is to ask each student to write a set of questions that he would like his classmates to ask him. When the questions are turned in, they are corrected by the instructor and then returned to the student. Next, they are rewritten by the student and turned in again. At this stage the instructor asks the student to discard the obviously easier questions. Now, with the student operating at his own level of ability, he is placed in a challenging situation. This technique, used at successively higher levels, provides room for continued growth and improvement.

The students' corrected questions are mimeographed and passed out to all the members of the class. Each student must respond to his own questions; the cooing strategy cannot be used very well. These question and answer sessions provide the setting for continued student interaction. While it would be difficult to give a quantitative measure of the students' progress, it can be said that the majority of students do well. Each summer, in fact, one or two students reach a level of proficiency equal or even superior to that of a third-year French major.

Writing compositions in a beginner's course can play a major role in language learning. The individualized approach presented here has several essential features. They are: 1) allowing each student a chance to begin writing at a very early stage; 2) providing each student with the opportunity to write at his own pace; 3) providing each student with prompt corrections of his mistakes; 4) requiring that all compositions be rewritten free of errors; and 5) making development of the writing skill, which is a skill that can be controlled and checked, a support for development of the more elusive speaking skill.

SELF-PACING AND STRUCTURE IN INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION: EXPERIENCES OF THE SPANISH PROGRAM AT THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

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Introduction

THE PRIMARY GOALS OF THE Spanish staff at The Ohio State University in setting up its program of individualized instruction were both pedagogical and practical. In addition to the desire to develop a program in which students could receive help from instructors on a one-to-one basis according to their needs, it was also felt that we should provide a program with sufficient flexibilty to allow students with complicated or heavy schedules to take Spanish without having to adhere to the five day, five hour per week schedule of the traditional classroom program.

As it turned out, both aspects of our program--its self-paced nature and its flexibility--have appealed to a great number of students, attracting many who would not normally be studying Spanish during a particular quarter--or ever. At the same time, however, the lack of apparent structure in the individualized language programs at OSU has also created a number of problems unique to this type of program. The intention of this paper is to describe these problems, indicate the steps we have taken in an attempt to lessen their impact, and report the results we have achieved to date.

The major difficulties students experience in the individualized program are nearly all related to their tendency to procrastinate. While the classroom track provides a day-to-day syllabus and specific dates for exams, the individualized programs encourage students to work at their own pace. The problem, of course, is that for many students, "at their own pace" ends up meaning at no pace at all, and students who begin the program intending to complete as much work as is done in the classroom--or even more--often react to the program's flexibility in such a way that they do very little work during the first seven or eight weeks of a ten-week quarter and then must put in enormous amounts of time at the end of the quarter in order to complete even the minimum amount of work required. Occasionally, in fact, things have gotten so bad that a handful of students even forget that they are enrolled for a Spanish course.

While this is a common problem, it does not have a single underlying cause. The most frequent reasons for procrastination seem

to be the following (in approximately the order indicated):

1. General lack of maturity: many students are simply not capable of taking full responsibility for their own rate of learning.

2. Real pressure from other sources: students tend to put aside work in the individualized program when they are faced with more specific deadlines in other courses, or from responsibilities related to off-campus jobs.

3. Unrealistic objectives: students forget to consider their work in the individualized program when making a tally of the credit hours they are taking during a particular quarter. As a result, they find themselves registered for more work than they are able to handle. Some also make the incorrect assumption that the individualized program will be easier than the classroom track.

4. A reluctance to ask for help: students with poor language skills are sometimes too embarrassed to admit that they are having problems. They may put in a lot of time, but make very little progress because they do not ask for tutoring from the program staff.

Before discussing the measures we have taken to deal with some of the above student problems, we should like to present a brief description of our program in its original format.

> Students enroll for the individualized course. All new students attend a two-week orientation in which procedures are explained to them and they cover the material for the first unit of credit in a classroom format. After this time they are "on their own," continuing the work at their own pace, using the learning packet as a guide, and coming in to meet with instructors to go over each lesson and to take their oral and written unit exams. A minimum grade of 80% is required before a student may go on to the next unit of credit. During the seventh week of the quarter each student must meet with an instructor to sign a credit contract, through which he makes a binding agreement as to how many credits he will complete by the end of the quarter. Students may add or drop hours at this time, or may elect to keep the number of hours for which they were originally enrolled. Students who do not complete the number of hours indicated in their contract by the end of the quarter receive a failing grade for the entire course (total number of hours contracted). Students who complete their contracts early may go on to do additional work if time permits.

It might be added that during the original phase of the program students who did no work by the seventh week of the quarter were "disenrolled" from the program, and also that large numbers of

incompletes were given during this period.

Evolution of the changes

During the first quarter the program was in operation students worked fairly well, completing an average of 2.47 credit hours apiece. During the subsequent quarters of the 1977-78 academic year, however, the program's newness seemed to wear off, and this average dropped steadily, reaching a low of 1.79 by the summer of 1978. Moreover, these later figures include a considerable amount of work which was actually done the following quarter in making up a grade of Incomplete, so that even less new work was completed than these figures appear to indicate (see Figure 1 for graph of average credits).

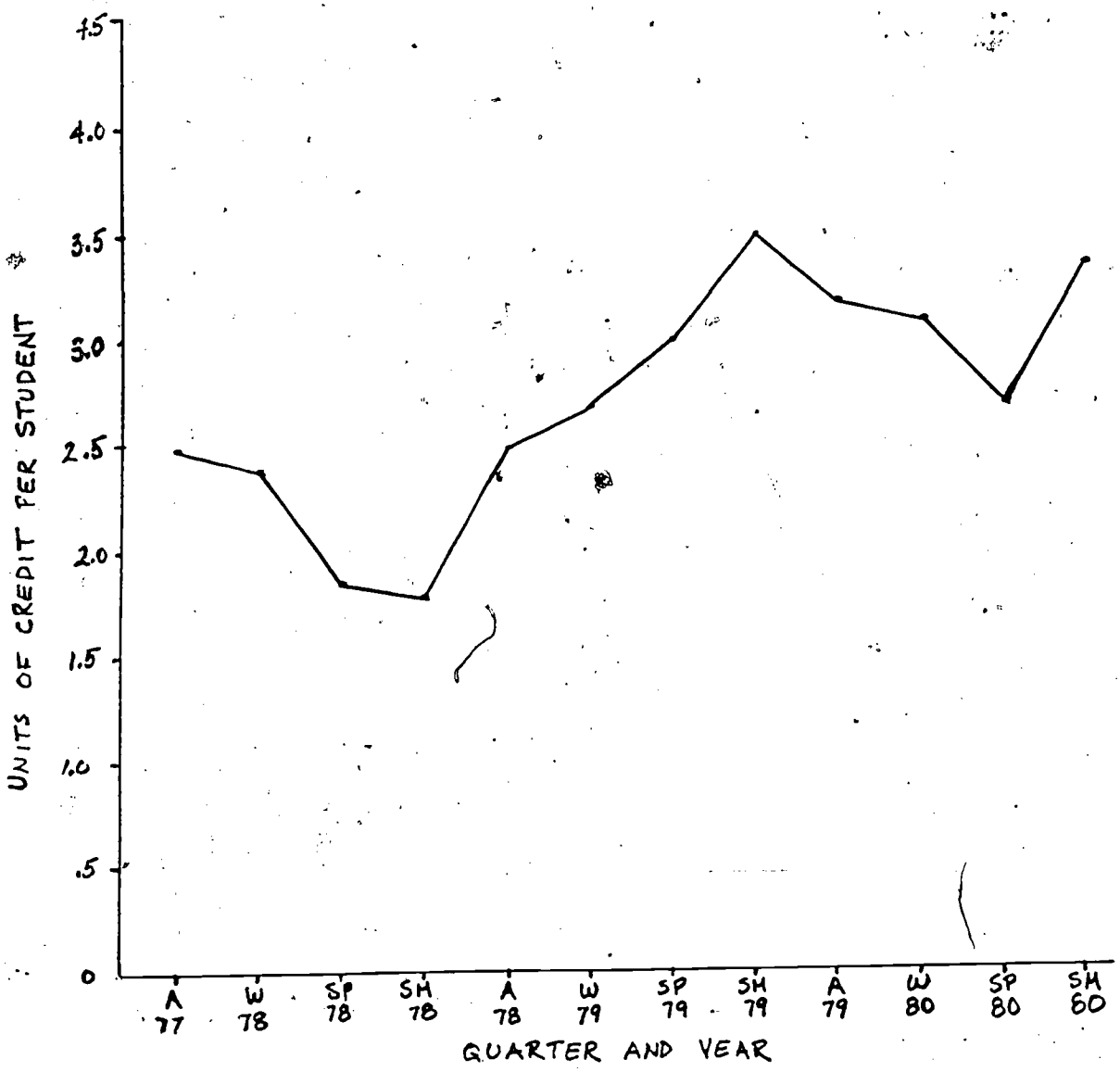
Our problem, then, was twofold: to maintain the pedagogical advantages of the individualized concept (and its inherent flexibility) and to encourage students to be more productive within this often unfamiliar framework. In the summer of 1978, as the pilot phase of the program was coming to an end, the Spanish staff decided that, at the very least, students should be required to complete a minimum amount of work in order to receive a passing grade. This minimum was set at two credit hours per quarter, and became the backbone for the gradual addition of structure (or, at times, apparent structure) to the program. It was also decided at this point that no Incompletes would be given unless a student had already completed a major portion of work for the course and could present a valid (i.e., usually medical) written excuse for not being able to finish on time. This policy was consistent with the University regulations regarding the assigning of Incompletes.

As the Autumn Quarter 1978 began, it soon became clear that these minimum requirements did have some beneficial effect. Students were completing the two-hour minimum, and not a single incomplete was given. The average number of credits completed rose to a real 2.49. It was felt, however, that these preliminary measures were not sufficient to get students to work most effectively. Too much work was still being crammed into the final weeks of the quarter, and procrastination was still seen as the major cause for this. During that quarter, therefore, we conducted interviews with all students in the program at the time they came in to sign their credit contracts. These interviews followed a set series of questions, through which we attempted to ascertain students' reasons for enrolling in the program and their reactions to the program itself and to their own performance in it. A majority of students interviewed indicated that they were happy with the program, but dissatisfied with their own rate of progress. Moreover, 80% of all students stated, when asked, that an attendance requirement would be extremely helpful in forcing them to work more consistently.

As a result of the information gathered from this first set of interviews, the program staff decided that additional elements of structure could be worked into the program without jeopardizing the integrity of the individualized approach. Since we felt that further

FIGURE 1

AVERAGE NUMBER OF UNITS OF CREDIT COMPLETED PER STUDENT BY QUARTER AND YEAR



	A 77	W 78	SP 78	SH 78	A 78	W 79	SP 79	SH 79	A 79	W 80	SP 80	SH 80
No. Students:	47	38	46	29	96	155	156	65	177	200	217	66

raising the minimum number of credits to be completed would present difficulties to students with extremely poor language skills, it was decided that we would experiment with applying pressure of a psychological rather than a strictly administrative nature.

As a first step, it was decided that the two-week classroom orientation should be replaced by a three-day orientation designed to give the students a better idea of how the program works and what kinds of difficulties students encounter when working on their own. This included a full hour "workshop on procrastination" in which guest speakers--former students who had experienced serious problems in the program and others who had been very successful--were invited to share their personal experiences with the new students.

During the final day of this orientation students were required to meet with an instructor to fill out a personal syllabus--a week-by-week schedule in which a plan for work to be done during the quarter was mapped out in advance, taking into account the amount of work the student would attempt to complete and any individual problems the student might have with regard to language learning and/or scheduling. These personal syllabi were to be filled out in duplicate: one would be retained by the student for reference and the other would be kept in a ring binder in the Learning Center to be used by students as a sign-in sheet for attendance.

A minimum attendance requirement was set at two hours per week. This too, however, was more in the nature of apparent pressure than real, since University regulations specifically forbid the enforcement of attendance requirements.

The effect of these measures could be seen immediately. During the Winter Quarter more students began working earlier in the quarter. Results, in fact, were so good that we found ourselves faced with a serious problem of overcrowding in the Learning Center. This was resolved at first through the use of a bakery-style take-a-number system which helped to some degree but was difficult to control. During the now all-too-familiar end of the quarter crush, some students found themselves having to wait up to four hours for instructor time. In all, however, improvement continued, and the average number of credits completed per student rose to 2.66.

The winter of 1979 was also the last time we disenrolled students from the program. We realized during that quarter that students who had been disenrolled were not being penalized (all record of their having taken the course was removed by the registrar) while the more responsible students who dropped the course at around the same time were receiving a grade of "W" on their permanent records. We felt that this was unfair and also that our students should be aware from the beginning that they alone would be responsible for their enrollment in the program.

One further change was made during the winter of 1979. Students who intended to complete their contracts during final exam week were required to sign up for appointments to do so. This system worked out

very nicely, and cut down the crowds and confusion normally experienced during that week.

At the end of Winter Quarter 1979 the program staff met to discuss the recent changes made in the program and the problems which still existed. It was agreed that we now faced two serious and paradoxical problems: procrastination and overcrowding. We decided that we should, in the spring, experiment with an appointment system: students would sign up to work with an instructor up to a week in advance. Students working on the same material would be encouraged to double up for an appointment; other students who needed help and did not have an appointment could work with an instructor, if there was time available, on a first-come, first-served, basis. Students could not make appointments by telephone; they would, however, be encouraged to call in to cancel an appointment if they found themselves unable to come in.

This system, which we are still using, has had a number of beneficial results. Overcrowding has been virtually eliminated (except, as usual, during the final week of the quarter). The appointments also have increased the number of students working together and, at the same time, seem to encourage students to plan their work more carefully. Furthermore, having an appointment to keep has given students a new sense of obligation, and many have told us that they would not have come in on a particular day were it not for the fact that they did not want to miss an appointment. Thus, the system designed to deal with the problem of overcrowding also has turned out to be effective in reducing the amount of procrastination that had been taking place.

One additional restriction was imposed during Spring Quarter 1979: students were told that only those completing contracts of five or more credit hours (the equivalent of a classroom course) would be permitted to take exams during finals week, and then only on the first day of that week. As a result, the peak of student prooductivity was pushed back one week, and only twelve students completed work during finals week (as opposed to seventy-seven the previous quarter).

That spring, as a result, showed another rise in student productivity--to 2.99 credits per student. No changes were made for the summer, normally a low-enrollment quarter at OSU. (Many students studying with us during the summer were studying only Spanish that quarter.) Overall, an average of 3.48 credits per student was completed. The following Autumn Quarter 1979, with typical enrollment loads and with students following the same procedures as outlined above, the average completion rate was 3.16 credit hours per student.

By the end of Autumn Quarter 1979, the program staff felt that while the program was certainly working better than it had the year before, there were still some problems that had to be dealt with. Not the least of these was the students' tendency--still--to procrastinate. Although substantially more students had done regular, consistent work during that quarter than previously, many continued to wait until the last minute to get a significant portion of their

contracts completed. This problem came to a head during the last week of the quarter, and every instructor in the program came away with the impression that many of our students needed additional pressure put on them in order to prevent the recurrence of such a situation.

Our response was to institute a series of further regulations for the winter of 1980. These regulations were designed to give a real advantage to students who work consistently--at whatever pace--during the first seven weeks of the quarter. These students would receive preferential treatment in signing up for appointments during the final weeks, while the others would not only have fewer opportunities to sign up, but also would be denied tutoring and oral lesson review sessions after the seventh week. Students who had been working consistently were allowed to sign up for appointments in both columns of our two-column appointment sheet; those who were designated as non-preferential students were allowed to sign up only in the right-hand column.

These procedures, adopted to penalize students who had not been working consistently, proved to be rather unmanageable. Part of the problem stemmed from the way we chose to differentiate between the groups: students who had completed a unit of credit before the beginning of contract week (the seventh week) were designated as preferential students. Also included in this group were students who had not yet completed a unit of credit but who had been working steadily all during the quarter. As a result, the number of preferential students far exceeded the number of non-preferential students, eliminating the possibility of preferential students' receiving any real special treatment. In addition, the non-preferential students were glad not to have to go over each lesson with an instructor. Thus half of their penalty became a prize. Hence, the overall effect of these policies was to introduce much confusion about who could sign where on the appointment sheet and not, as had been desired, to motivate students to work consistently by providing a real advantage at the end of the quarter. The average number of credits completed per student fell to 2.95.

A questionnaire completed by students during contract week suggested that a portion of their decline in productivity may have been due to a difficulty in making appointments when they were needed. Many students complained that they were unable to get an appointment when they were ready to be tested and, thus, were not able to progress as quickly as they might have. The overwhleming majority said that they liked the program, however, especially its flexibility and the self-pacing component. Moreover, of the 172 students who completed the questionnaire, 40% said they would not have been enrolled in a Spanish course that quarter if the individualized program did not exist. Thus, while there were still problems, the program did seem to be serving the needs of a larger number of students.

Winter of 1980 was also the first quarter during which the individualized program was more cost effective than the classroom program in terms of units of credit earned per class section. This

trend has continued to the present. (The two programs had been about equal in cost effectiveness since Spring Quarter 1979. Before that, the individualized program had been significantly less cost effective than the classroom track. See Table I.)

During Spring Quarter 1980 the same regulations were followed as in Winter Quarter 1980, with similar results. Students averaged only 2.69 units each. During the last week of the quarter--a quarter in which 215 students were enrolled in the program--192 units of credit were completed. This last-minute glut of activity brought on by procrastination became intolerable for the program staff. We decided that further stringent regulations would be needed. These stronger regulations were instituted during summer 1980 and continue in effect now during autumn 1980. So far, they seem to have helped. (As noted above, summer quarter tends to differ from the other quarters of the year, so we will not know until the end of the present quarter what effect the regulations have had on the program.)

Several changes were made. Contract week was moved forward from the seventh week to the fourth: we wanted the students to start thinking of Spanish as a real course with a real, set number of credit hours early in the quarter. (The fourth week was chosen because Friday of that week is the last day on which students may drop a course without penalty.) Contracts are still turned in to the college offices at the end of the seventh week, however, so this change has enabled us to be somewhat more flexible in dealing with students who forget to contract. Also, if we find a student who has been working steadily but who has gotten bogged down unexpectedly by a particularly difficult grammar point, we are able to renegotiate his or her contract before we turn the contracts in to the colleges.

Another new regulation states that one unit of credit must be completed by the end of the seventh week or the student will fail unless he or she drops the course. Students may drop a course through Friday of this week although they receive a "W" on their permanent records. The primary purpose for this regulation was to get at least part of the credit of the quarter done earlier. It is a stricter version of the "disenrollment" policy that we had used earlier, and in effect requires that students complete some of their credit by the end of the seventh week or take responsibility for getting out of the course.

The final change in regulations made in the summer of 1980 was also intended to lessen the last crush of work done at the end of the quarter: those students who contract for two or three units of credit may no longer work during the last week of classes. They must finish their contracts by the end of the next-to-last week, generally the ninth week. Students completing four units must finish by the last day of classes, as before. Those completing five or more credits may still work the first day of finals week. In addition, during the last week in which a student is allowed to work, he or she may retake a test only once to pass it; he or she may not retake a test simply to better the grade. On the last day of that week, only one test may be taken.

TABLE I

COST EFFECTIVENESS

	CLASSROOM					INDIVIDUALIZED				
	SECS	STUDENTS	STUD/SEC	UNITS	UNITS/SEC	SECS.	STUDENTS	STUD/SEC	UNITS	* UNITS/SEC
A 77	51	1057	20.7	5	103.5	101 only (3)	(49)	[illegible]3	4.00	65.2
W 78	49	999	20.4	5	102.0	101, 102 (2)	(48)	24.0	2.86	68.6
SP 78	41	820	20.0	5	100.0	3	52	17.0	2.59	44.0
Sm 78	10	164	16.4	5	82.0	3	29	9.7	3.08	29.9
A 78	46	916	19.9	5	99.5	7	104	14.9	2.59	38.6
W 79	41	823	20.0	5	100.0	8	185	23.0	3.00	69.0
SP 79	39	675	17.3	5	86.5	8	197	24.6	3.36	82.7
SM 79	8	124	15.5	5	77.5	4	82	20.5	3.73	76.5
A 79	44	818	18.6	5	93.0	8	205	25.6	3.62	92.7
W 80	47	820	17.5	5	87.5	8	231	29.0	3.34	96.9
SP 80	39	675	17.3	5	86.5	8	246	30.8	3.14	96.7
Sm 80	10	133	13.3	5	66.5	4	87	21.8	3.35	73.0

* UNITS = CONTRACTED UNITS COMPLETED PER STUDENT COMPLETING CONTRACT

There were very few problems with these new rules. Most students who had not completed a unit by the end of the seventh week dropped. This lowered the number of students enrolled, but except for five students, those who stayed completed their contracts. On the average, students completed 3.33 credits each during summer 1980. Only summer 1979 had had a higher average. (As mentioned earlier, summer quarters are usually not typical of the other quarters; thus, it cannot be said with certainty that the trend of falling productivity is being reversed. The summer 1980 results are, however, promising.)

Conclusion

In its three years of operation, the OSU Spanish Individualized Program has undergone a steady evolution from nearly total flexibility to more structured flexibility. This process has been necessary to counteract the human tendency to procrastinate. Flexibility is still an important and valued aspect of the individualized learning concept for us, and we do not believe we have undermined it in any way by adding the structure that we have. Even if a student has not completed a unit of credit by the seventh week, for example, he or she may avoid failure by dropping the course.

We have found that only the most organized and self-initiating person can work effectively in an environment of total freedom. For most of the others, the setting of a minimum amount of required work seems to be necessary. Such a minimum should be low enough, however, so that even the slowest students can complete it and enjoy a sense of accomplishment. More able students need to be pressured in other ways to complete more than the minimum amount of work and not to leave it to the end of the quarter. Psychological pressure has been effective for many students: simply writing things on paper (schedules, appointments, etc.) does seem to increase a student's sense of obligation. When psychological pressure is not enough to make the program manageable, however, deadlines are necessary. The deadlines should be reasonable and not threaten the flexibility of the program. The staggering of deadlines at the end of the quarter seems to be working well for us.

Our students have never complained when we have added rules that make them get their work done sooner. They, too, realize that the regulations help them work closer to the limits of their abilities. They also realize that it is not fair to them, the other students, or the staff when they leave their work to the end of the quarter. The structure we have imposed seems to have had the effect of encouraging students to make more effective use of the inherent flexibility of the program.

INDIVIDUALIZED LATIN AT DELAWARE: A PROGRESS REPORT

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THIS PAPER IS LARGELY THE result of my experience at the first conference on individualized instruction in languages at The Ohio State University seventeen months ago. Besides reading my own paper at the meeting,[1] I managed to hear quite a few things that others were saying. The approach I had made to individualization was quite modest--just a set of computer lessons to help the slower students catch up, keep brighter students challenged, and expand the availability of skill-building exercises for the middlers. Students who were ill-prepared in the concepts and terminology of grammar and syntax got a computer review of that subject early in the term, and everyone had access to lessons on the morphology of Latin verbs, nouns, and adjectives, plus transformation drills in Latin. All of the individualization was left to the computer; otherwise, students all attended classes and took the same tests on the same dates. Was that individualized instruction? Not by the common definition, but it did provide much more flexibility than the class alone had done before the computer came on the scene. I thought, and still think, that it had merit.

The summer of 1979 should have been an unmixed delight for me--there was only the need to write the final computer lesson in translation techniques and finish the Delaware PLATO Latin Curriculum.[2] But through the summer and into the fall I was nagged by the feeling that something more basic needed to be done. The only cure for nagging is action, so soon that one final computer lesson became two, and a syllabus for a truly individualized course began to take shape.

During the 1979-80 academic year I took advantage of a department seminar on teaching techniques to present a prospectus of the individualized program to my colleagues. Their critique was positive enough to convince me that it was worthwhile to submit it as a new course for review by the college committee on academic affairs. It is now before that committee, but under our procedures one may offer an experimental version of a course once while awaiting formal approval. That is how it happens that eleven students are enrolled now in the individualized Latin course.

Unlike the program I described at the first conference, this one is independent of the traditional Latin course. Students enroll in either one or the other. Let me tell you about the individualized track, and how the computer makes it possible for one person to

adminster it within a time commitment comparable to a traditional course.

The program covers the first year of Latin at the college level. With variable credit, this year's work may be accomplished in as many as six semesters or as little as one. A student who enrolls for, say, two credits and successfully completes that amount may re-enroll in the course the following semester. He will begin where he left off. Repeated enrollments are possible up to a maximum of six credits, which is the equivalent of a year of the traditional class. So much for the bookkeeping; it is a familiar format.

A student in the program has four resources: first is the Wheelock textbook[3] buttressed by the newly published workbook[4] for that text; the second is a detailed syllabus; the third is conferences with the instructor. These three are familiar enough to require no elaboration. Together they provide most of an individualized program; but at least four more needs must be met if that program is to work:

1. Students must have close monitoring of their developing skills in morphology, sentence translation, and grammatical/syntactic analysis of sentences. Even a workbook is inadequate here because a student's work must still be checked in some manner. Without prompt correction or reinforcement the learner is left wondering whether he is learning good techniques or bad ones. He has to know when a verb form is right and when not; when a sentence is incorrectly translated; or when a construction has been analyzed correctly. Otherwise his progress will be faltering and his confidence, nil.

2. Tests must be available whenever needed. With everyone progressing at a different rate, test number three may be given at many different times. If the same test is used repeatedly, some cheating is bound to occur. Ideally, each student should have a unique version of test number three, with all of the versions being comparable in content and difficulty.

3. Students must have access to an instructor with reasonable ease, not only for questions about the language itself, but also for communication about the housekeeping details of the course and for forging the link between the two that will help to motivate the student to work consistently because he knows his instructor wants and expects him to achieve.

4. If possible, students should have a sense of shared endeavor--that others are at work just as they are. Any one student may not meet his peers in a regular classroom, but he should know they are there.

I know of three ways of addressing these needs. The first is the learning center, a facility staffed by faculty and/or teaching assistants and kept open for a substantial part of each week. This is an excellent solution, but it requires a fair-sized staff. Most classics departments do not have the resources to maintain such a facility. The second approach is for one faculty member to attempt to give the needed personal attention to each student. Though possible, this solution is extraordinarily demanding in terms of time and energy. Most faculty who try it are likely to find that their other duties--teaching, research, or service--soon are slighted.

As should be evident at this point, the third method is the computer. As used at Delaware, here is how it meets those needs: The job of monitoring student progress in morphology, sentence translation and sentence analysis is greatly facilitated by use of the Delaware PLATO Latin Curriculum. This is a set of six lessons developed at the University of Delaware over the past five years. Each is intended to be used repeatedly by a student throughout the course. Some forty-five to sixty hours of instruction can be had through the lessons in the course of a year's work. Three of the lessons are concerned with morphology of verbs, nouns and adjectives. They involve diagnostic exercises to identify areas of confusion or gaps in each student's knowledge, as well as remedial or skill-building practice in producing or recognizing various inflected forms. A vital feature of these lessons is that they contain algorithms which inflect the variable parts of speech in Latin. This capability allows the lessons to provide almost limitless numbers of inflected forms for drill purposes or, alternatively, to analyze a form a student has typed and then state, for example, that the verb stem is correct but that the tense/mood sign is wrong. Such "smart" lessons can provide much of the routine checking of student work that otherwise would have to be done by an instructor--and can give many of the same hints and corrective comments that instructors would furnish.

The fourth lesson in the series consists of a bank of transformation drills in which a student does repeated manipulations of a Latin sentence, making one change in the sentence upon cue and then determining what other changes are forced by that modification. Partially correct answers are recognized and any offending elements in them are pointed out.

Lesson five gives practice in sentence translation, with the added feature that a student may interrogate the computer about any word in any sentence. With a touch on the touch-sensitive display screen, he can learn the dictionary meaning of a word, the dictionary entry for it, its grammatical form, or its function in the sentence. Freed in this way from the need to juggle dictionary, grammar book and grammatical tables, he can concentrate on the real business of translating--the integration of all this discrete information into something that expresses a thought.

The last lesson gives practice in old-fashioned parsing of words in context. Students work through sentences one word at a time, first

identifying which part of speech a word is, then identifying its grammatical form. No typing is necessary: the parsing is done wholly by touching the appropriate labels on the terminal's display screen. An incorrect identification of a noun, pronoun, adjective or verb will cause the computer to inflect and display a form that corresponds to the student's identification. Thus if a student were to identify portaverat as third person plural, pluperfect active subjunctive (rather than third singular indicative, as it is), the computer would produce the subjunctive form portavissent and display it for comparison with the target form. Feedback of this kind is much more helpful than a simple "No, try again."

It should be emphasized that the Delaware's PLATO Latin Curriculum is meant to be used by the student as a tool for diagnosing his errors, correcting them, and building his skills. It does much of what a living tutor would do in going over a student's homework--but it does it immediately, not hours or days after the exercise was written. Conferences with the instructor are still needed, of course: but their frequency and their duration are drastically reduced with the computer's help. At the same time, a student's progress is accelerated and his confidence is bolstered.

The second need was for tests that were comparable in difficulty and subject matter, but individually different. The computer can make that possible. Students in the Delaware program take two tests per module, with the entire six-credit course consisting of six modules. This means twelve tests for any one student: but since any test may be taken a second time, there is actuallly a potential for twenty-four tests to be taken by one student. Multioly by the number of enrolled students, and the number of tests needed grows explosively. A terrifying job if done manually, this becomes quite manageable if the computer does it. A relatively simple computer routine generates individual tests by selecting at random from banks of questions. Each question comes from a bank of five comparable questions, and the complete tests thus generated are individually unique while preserving the same testing objectives: that is, sentence three on any one version of test number one will include a complementary infinitive with a form of possum to test knowledge of that syntactic pattern.

The computer routine for generating tests is, if you will pardon my exuberance, a joy to watch. The instructor simply chooses the testing level he wants (say, the end-of-module test for module 2), and the machine displays an appropriate test. The touch of a button produces a hard copy of the screen display which can be handed to the student to be taken as a traditional pencil-and-paper test. A student may not even know that his test was produced by the computer. The instructor, however, knows that he can go to the computer and, with successive presses of a single key, produce as many unique versions of that level two test as he wants, at about one every five seconds. Security and comparability are both satisfied, and with minimal drain on the instructor's own time.

Third on the list of needs was easy access to the instructor. The computer can help here through its message facility. Instructor and student can send and receive notes which other users of the computer cannot inspect. In this way specific questions can be answered, conferences can be arranged, and information of a personal or a general nature can be passed. My practice is to sign on to the computer at least once each day so that notes which have been left for me will receive attention promptly. Since there are PLATO terminals at numerous sites around the campus, students can contact me in this way without coming near my office and without having to try to catch me near the telephone.

Last of all is the awkward problem of helping a student in an individualized program to feel that he is a part of a class--with all that implies in the way of shared work, friendly competition, and mutual progress. The computer also helps a bit in this area by providing an on-line "grade book." Any student may check this feature to see not only his own test scores, but also overall class averages, mean and median scores for any exam, grade distributions, and the like. No one student can see any other student's grades with a name attached, but each one can see how he is faring in comparison to the class.

It is certainly appropriate that individualized instruction, which by its very name promises to be many things to many students, should have many forms in different institutions. For the small classics program, individualized instruction may sometimes seem a luxury available only to the giants. My experience at Delaware, however, even in this first semester, is that one person can in fact administer an individualized program, and do so without stealing time from other duties, if he has a computer to help him.

Notes

[1]Gerald R. Culley, "A Computer Supplement to Individualize the Latin Course," Proceedings of the 1st National Conference on Individualized Instruction in Foreign Languages (Ohio State University, 1979) pp. 121-124.

[2]PLATO is a registered trademark of Control Data Corporation.

[3]Frederick M. Wheelock, Latin: An Introductory Course Based on Ancient Authors, 3rd ed. (Barnes & Noble, 1963).

[4]Paul T. Comeau, Workbook for Wheelock's Latin: An Introductory Course (Barnes & Noble, 1980).

DEVELOPING ORAL-AURAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY IN AN INDIVIDUALIZED SETTING

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A NUMBER OF STUDIES HAVE pointed to the importance of instrumental and integrative motivation as well as intergroup relations for success in second language learning. This approach to the study of communicative competence focuses on both the cognitive and the situational contexts of language learning. Both first and second language learners in informal learning contexts have specific information to transmit and understand and, equally important, they have a genuine need to convey or comprehend this information. Children learn a language by "learning to mean" because for them the most important thing is to succeed in getting the message across or in understanding the message correctly. The situation in the classroom contrasts sharply with this "communicative needs" approach since there the emphasis is on linguistic performance (e.g., the learner's long-term goals, how closely he wants to identify with the target language group as determined by the degree and type of instrumental/integrative motives) rather than the learner's immediate situation. In summary, the "communicative needs" approach to language learning suggests that the conditions that most facilitate language competence are those that provide conditions in which the learner develops skills to handle real communicative needs. The incorporation of individualized techniques of instruction in the foreign language classroom (even in a non-individualized program of instruction) can help to create such realistic language conditions and thus dramatically increase the oral-aural proficiency levels of the language learner.

"Spontaneous expression," "liberated expression," "creative language use," in short, communicative competency, must be encouraged from the early stages of language learning so that the student will not find it difficult to move from structured security to the insecurity of reliance on his own resources. And it is only through a program of individualized instruction that real communication, as opposed to the pseudocommunication of mechanical, meaningful, and communicative drills, is most effectively facilitated. In an individualized setting situations can be provided, from an early stage, where the student is on his own, trying to use the language for its normal purposes: establishing social relations, seeking and giving information, expressing his reactions, learning to do something, hiding his intentions or talking his way out of trouble, persuading, discouraging, entertaining others, or displaying his achievements. In this way the student learns to draw on everything he knows at a particular moment in his acquisition of the language, without the support and direction of the teacher in a

non-individualized drill situation; he fights to put his meaning over, as he would if he suddenly found himself on his own surrounded by monolingual speakers of the language. Indeed, in all of my beginning classes the success of the course objectives depends heavily on the use of individualized instruction:

1) to be able to understand conversational Spanish spoken at a normal speed with vocabulary and grammar appropriate to a given level;

2) to be able to speak Spanish, i.e., to be able to maintain a basic simple conversational exchange with a native speaker;

3) to be able to read short cultural passages and dialogues at normal reading speed, extracting the major points;

4) to be able to write short guided compositions on a given topic with minimal preparation.

The following is a sampling of some of the techniques of individualized instruction used to meet these objectives with the aim of developing oral-aural proficiency:

1. individual student interviews with the instructor on a specific prepared topic developing into a spontaneous dialogue; ranges from 15-30 minutes;

2. small-group instruction for slower students using a wide range of instructional materials and methodologies to suit the individual learning style of the student;

3. written and oral cultural projects based on individual interests;

4. audio- and videotaped programs using cultural and situational topics, which may be used for large or small groups or individualized instruction;

5. taped oral-aural examinations;

6. transparencies underscoring cross-cultural differences in values, customs, stereotypes of the opposite culture, etc.;

7. programs developed by students using a variety of media to be entertaining, creative, and informative in the use of the foreign language;

8. leisure activities shared in small groups, such as field trips in which the language is used and/or some aspect of the culture is experienced or explored;

9. realistic problem-solving situations, wherein individual reactions are called upon for possible resolutions to

meaningful concerns (e.g., the Cuban refugee crisis; bilingualism in the United States--privilege or right?; etc.);

10. hypothetical situations, selected according to those with which the student can identify, and in which the student must use his wits to extract himself from a dilemma.

Practice in such interactions should be individualized in the sense that it should allow for the different ways students learn, the different paces at which they learn, the different things which interest them, and the different situations in which they prefer to learn. Students should be offered a choice of tasks (things to do, things to find out, problems to solve, situations in which to react) and then be allowed to choose their own way, their own place, time, and company, for handling them. Some may prefer to work with the teacher. Some who are loners will prefer working through certain situations by themselves, demonstrating their capacity as individuals. Still others may prefer small groups or pairs. Such an approach, which respects the learner's individual learning style, will make the interaction which follows autonomous: a genuine form of communication from one person to another, not just another imposed act of pseudocommunication. Because of the personal nature of the activity that is being promoted, the type of reaction to be displayed must always remain consistent with the personality and talents of the particular student.

Development of instructional programs

I believe in teaching not language as communication but rather language as culture. The second includes the first; the first does not necessarily include the second. For this reason, the individualized attention I afford to my students' ability to perform in the foreign language does not prevent me from considering other apects of language study which may generate lasting interest and give the student something of permanent value by linking communicative competence with cultural awareness. The media and the arts, therefore, should not be overlooked as ideal means to bring together this communicative aspect of language and its cultural significance in today's media-oriented environment. It is my firm conviction that exploitation of today's students' media biases in the foreign language curriculum enhances language competence. For this reason, I would like to expand upon some of the new materials and methodologies that were suggested in the aforementioned program of individualized instruction--particularly those relative to the use of media and the arts in teacher--and student-directed activities.

1. Videotaping instructional materials. I have been project coordinator for a number of videocasette programs with a focus on both the situational and cultural aspects of communication in the target language. Each program is a self-contained unit providing the student with a bilingual, interlinear script, written and visual vocabulary review lists, and a follow-up multiple choice comprehension quiz which

appears both on the script and on the screen. The programs have a dual audio-track system in both English and the target language, thus allowing the student to work on his own without teacher direction. The applications of such instructional units are wide and varied, including listening comprehension practice, vocabulary building exercises, and culture capsules on significant aspects of the target culture. An example of the most recently developed videocassette program follows:

> Language as Culture: Gestures in the Hispanic World.
> Content summary: A narrative on the significance of nonverbal language with particular emphasis on the usage of gestures in Hispanic cultures. A brief dramatization of a restaurant scene wherein misunderstandings arise as certain Hispanic gestures are misinterpreted by an American tourist.

The program is suggested for a second-year college level student who has been formally introduced to the grammatical elements and the level of linguistic sophistication present in the videocassette program. The program is short enough (approximately [illegible] minutes in length) to be used as a valuable self-instructional tool to supplement classroom activities.

2. Multi-media student directed programs. It is only when students are allowed to have a creative input to their program of instruction that the learning process becomes a more meaningful, tangible, unique experience. Indeed, working together as a class or a portion of a class on a specific, well-defined project presents a unique form of individualized instruction, since the creativity, expressions of individual talents, and group interaction provided cannot be easily duplicated in the classroom setting. The most recent program of this type with which I was involved was that of a literature class on the theater of social protest in Contemporary Latin America and Spain. The project was to be a definition of this dramatic form in a multi-media program of song, dance, mime, short dramatic reenactments of plays studied, poetic readings, and music. Such was the enthusiasm of the students involved once the project was underway that the project evolved into a highly professional espectáculo in the truest sense of the word, complete with lighting, sound and filming crews. Each aspect of the performance was done bilingually or given a short English translation for those members of the audience who were non-Spanish speakers. What had begun as a simple class project developed into a polished performance open to the campus community and the general public. A sense of achievement and a pride in each student's contribution to the performance (a full hour and thirty minutes long) could never have been duplicated by traditional methodologies which do not allow for such a broad range of individualized expression by the student. Each student had a particular talent to bring to the project--whether musical or dramatic--which allowed him to combine the cognitive aspects of language learning with the affective aspects of the uniqueness of self. The motivation for genuine communication, not just the pseudocommunication of a response that grows out of a teacher imposed

setting, was provided by the meaningfulness of the communicative [illegible] and the necessity to communicate effectively to a real receptor [illegible] message--the audience. Such projects can be done on a less [illegible]d, less sophisticated level as well. The imagination of the teacher and the creativity and talents of the student are the only bounds to highly motivating methodologies in individualized instruction.

Another way for students to use media creatively might be to make a cassette of a musical interpretation of a poem after a live performance in class and an explication of the literary text. Or, students could produce transparencies and other visuals to teach grammatical, literary, or cultural concepts under the close supervision of the teacher.

3. The Independent Study program (example: media transposition). The subject of a senior independent research project which I am presently directing involves the transferral of a major theme of contemporary Latin American women poets through a variety of media: originally choreographed dance, song, and dramatic interpretation. A single student is involved rather than a group, but the aim is the same as the project mentioned above: the stimulation of the student's communicative and creative abilities to investigate a topic of his choice thoroughly and to present the deeper understanding of language and culture gained therein in a framework that is unique to him. Indeed the philosophy and objectives of the Independent Study program at the College of Wooster undergird the challenge of education which invites all students to come to their best in terms of their own talents--clearly a support of individualized instruction at the institution. The Independent Study program is not reserved for a few students; it provides all students with the opportunity to engage in an activity which is both personally meaningful and appropriate to their individual needs and interests. The philosophy of such a program was summarized 20 years ago by Robert Bonthius, James Davis and J. Garber Drushal in their study of The Independent Study Program in the United States:

> The purpose of higher education is to stimulate and assist growth. . . : Facts may stimulate thought, but thought is not imparted. That is the individual's reaction. Education is an active, not a passive, process, in that it does not consist in receiving but in reacting to information, ideas, concepts. Independent thinking is a difficult art but it is the primary goal of the educative process (p. vii).

The capacity for individual inquiry and expression is a mark of a liberally educated person, and the objective of the Independent Study program is to provide an opportunity through which this capacity may be nurtured.

Three elements of each Independent Study project (thesis or equivalent creative project) are content, method and form as set forth

in the Faculty Handbook of the College:

Content - Students differ in their individual interests and the requirements for various courses of study are not uniform; consequently, there are few rules for the proper choice of content for I.S. projects. A well-selected project is one which advances the student's understanding and responds to the needs of society. Given the constraints imposed by available resources and time, the manageability of the topic is also an essential consideration.

Method - Implicit in every inquiry is a method or plan which includes a logic, a design or a deliberate conception of what is being attempted. The method selected will determine the techniques, devices or tools appropriate for the project.

Form - The successful completion of the project requires the communication of what has been discovered or developed. Through the form of the thesis or creative project, students share with others the results of their efforts. Whether by exposition or through an act of creative expression, the forms of communication should be consistent with the content and method and should be chosen carefully to communicate as clearly and as forcefully as possible the results.

A rationale for individualized instruction in foreign languages

Ability to communicate, to interact verbally, presumes knowledge (cognition) both in the perception of [illegible] categories, and functions, and in the internalizing of [illegible] relating these categories and functions. I am not concerned here with how this knowledge is acquired and am willing to [illegible] validity (and probably the necessity) of a variety of approaches to such acquisitions. This knowledge must, however, be acquired. In the process of acquisition the student learns the production of language sequences; he learns through doing. No matter how much we relate these activities to real-life situations this practice rarely passes beyond pseudocommunication. It is externally directed, not self-originating; it is a dependent, not an independent, activity. To pass into the realms of real communication, individualized instruction of some form is a necessity. In the development of an effective program of individualized learning in the foreign language, I have allowed the following principles to direct my endeavors:

a) learning is an active process;
b) communication is a creative act;
c) media are motivating forces in the present generation of students; and
d) relating to individual needs is paramount in education.

In support of point (d), we find the following arguments:

-- individuals have a diversity of interests;
-- students manifest individual learning styles;
-- students have varied learning abilities, particularly in aural-oral competence in a foreign language;
-- learners have a multiplicity of achievement goals;
-- individuals manifest varying lengths of attention span; and
-- education presupposes a response to an individual interest in the progress of the learner.

Perhaps the best rationale for individualization of instruction lies in its potential for making language learning accessible to students of all backgrounds and ability levels. It is my firm belief that there are no short-cut, easy solutions to a program of individual learning activities, particularly in the development of aural-oral skills in the foreign language. We are also dealing with a generation of students which is accustomed to the transmission of information by audiovisual means--thus, the need for the further development of audio- and videotaped materials suitable to small-group and individual instruction. Media should be connectors between the abstraction of an instructional objective and the attainment of that goal in concrete behavioral terms: the ability to use a grammatical construction to express an idea, the ability to apply a cultural observation to a real-life situation, the ability to explain a complex literary theme in its socio-political manifestations. Of major pedagogical concern is how effectively such media are used to achieve an objective, to imaginatively communicate an idea, to stimulate and motivate the learner to perform a desired goal. The media and the arts are not merely envelopes which carry all messages indifferently; they shape both the message and the perceiver. Each medium codifies reality differently, each conceals a unique metaphysics appealing to the uniquely individual needs and interests of the foreign language learner. In addition, the greater the number and the more intense the participation of the senses in the learning process, the more rapidly assimilated and longer enduring will be the skill learned.

In the aforementioned program of individualized instruction it is possible to adapt certain elements of content and teaching style to the individual's needs in a college curriculum which does not provide for a formal program of individualized instruction, while at the same time meeting all the instructional objectives set forth by the department and the instructor for a group as large as 25 students. Working with individual students and small groups, although time-consuming, can prove to be an enriching experience both for teacher and student alike.

In the final analysis, individualization in humanistic subjects must begin and end with the human, pupil-teacher relationship, although it might be aided by audiovisual materials which have been conscientiously developed. It is an illusion to think that individualization can be based chiefly on textbooks, programmed materials, unipacs, or behavioral objectives. This is because, in the

modern world, such materials tend to be half out of date between the time they are conceived and the time they are implemented in the classroom. Given an adequate budget, paraprofessional help, acceptable working conditions, and the freedom to follow creative ideas, the foreign language classroom teacher is capable of developing a program which best fits the constantly changing learning characteristics of individual students in each unique school situation. It is on this personal conception of individualized foreign language instruction that I have attempted to provide a setting for individualization of learning, whether one was formally existent at the institution or not.

There are a number of ways to individualize and personalize instruction in the university foreign language class even under conditions of traditional scheduling and large class size. Efforts in individualization have generated enthusiastic response on the part of teachers and students and have served as a stimulus to further experimentation. Techniques such as directed small-group work, field trips, lively oral presentations as well as those mentioned here give students an opportunity to use the target language in a meaningful way and make the learning experience practical and enjoyable.

INDIVIDUALIZED LATIN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA: A MODEST PROGRAM

S. K. Dickison
University of Florida

A RECENT ARTICLE IN THE Chronicle of Higher Education (27 September, 1980, p. 9) notes that "declines in enrollment in foreign languages can be halted by the development of individualized programs." The article also indicates that individualized programs attract a more diverse audience than regular programs. The Ohio State program was, of course, the focus of the article. My own fledgling program at the University of Florida could not claim such significant accomplishments but I want to draw attention to it because our goals have been somewhat different from those of the larger programs here and elsewhere.

Background

The University of Florida (UF) has a fifteen-hour language requirement for some students. Every year our department offers three or four sections a quarter of beginning Latin to meet the needs of that requirement; potential majors, students who may take another course or two in Latin, and the merely curious are also clients of beginning Latin courses. The Classics Department has had no difficulty in filling these sections of Latin.

For the spring of 1978 UF awarded me released time in order to develop a small pilot project in individualized instruction for the first two quarters of the beginning sequence. With the help of a very able undergraduate major I first surveyed suitable texts on which our modules might be based.[1] I eventually settled on F. Moreland, Latin: An Intensive Course. Our reasons for choosing Moreland were several:

1. That text had already divided the material into units which were in turn sub-divided into sections. After completing Units 1-12 students would be ready in the third quarter to sample some Latin literature with ample assistance from the instructor.

2. That text provided a full (sometimes too prolix) explanation of grammatical material. Little additional explanation would be required.

3. Moreland's order of presenting syntax (the subjunctive is introduced as early as Unit 2) encouraged early reading.

4. The particular student audience we were seeking would be able to cope with Moreland's demanding approach (it is definitely not a text for the faint of heart!).

5. In short, for our purposes the advantages of Moreland outweighed the disadvantages (the lack of 'real' Latin in the exercise sentences, for example).

Having chosen a basic text, we then prepared a Latin Handbook, a road map through the course materials. The Handbook contains objectives for each unit, brief but pointed explanations where Moreland is too complex, clarifications, new exercises to test vocabulary, forms and comprehension, and exercises selected from the inexhaustible supply in Moreland. One of our major concerns in preparing course directives for the modules was to be as brief, clear and concise as possible.

Mechanics of the Course

As currently constituted, one faculty member and several advanced students work with 15-20 students in each of the first two quarters of beginning Latin. The third quarter of the sequence concentrates on reading from Lawall's Petronius; this quarter is semi-individualized: the class meets as a group only twice a week.

The initial quarter of instruction consists of five units of Moreland, which the student must complete in order to receive a grade for the course--UF has no provision for variable credit in a beginning language course. To a certain extent students work at their own speed, but initial experience with procrastinators forced the imposition of a set of five deadlines spaced over the quarter. Work at a B level is required in each unit. Hand-in exercises may be checked, questions answered, and tests taken in my office, which is open for this purpose several hours a day. Answers for workbook exercises and other assignments are available in the Language Lab and in the Library Reserve Room.

Strengths of the Program

We are now running through the sequence for the second time. Before UF's impending conversion to the semester system the Department will need to decide whether the project is worth continuing. Despite our rather weak attempts at real statistical analysis the following trends are nevertheless apparent:

1. Highly motivated students have felt a real sense of accomplishment in working on their own and completing objectives.

2. The very good students learned a good deal of Latin and in fact performed slightly better in the third quarter than those who had previously followed the regular sequence.

3. Even mediocre students who had studied Latin before performed well using the text for review.

4. The undergraduate tutors (UF does not have graduate students in Classics) made an important contribution to the success of the program. While earning advanced Latin credit, these students have also gained valuable experience of their own and added to their competence in the language.

Wisdom from hindsight

While we have had much success with our program, there are also some caveats that we can share from our experiences. For example:

1. Individualized Latin is not for everybody--the Morelan text is simply too hard for some students beginning a language for the first time.

2. As in all individualized programs procrastination is a serious potential problem.

3. Individualized Latin can be time-consuming for all involved (including the secretary in a busy department). It can even occasionally try the patience of the most dedicated teacher.

4. Computerized exercises (in English grammar, etc.) would be a useful addition to our program. The University has not yet allocated resources to make this possible.

The Future

If we decide to continue Individualized Latin at UF after the conversion to the semester system, I envisage that the program will remain a small one, geared to the needs of two kinds of students: those in the Honors Program and students with previous Latin experience where our individualized track could serve as review. (The College of Continuing Education at UF has also expressed an interest in using the material for a correspondence course in Latin.) In the best of all possible worlds (graduate students, a Latin room, time) I would enjoy the challenge of preparing some brand-new, snappy materials (both text and workbook) appropriate to a wider audience than that addressed by my present program. But failing that I will be continuing to work in my 'garden' (Voltaire, Candide, in fine).

Notes

1I am pleased to acknowledge the initial help of Professor Fabián A. Samaniego of the Spanish Department at the University of California at Davis. The Classics Departments of the University of Texas and Ohio State also graciously allowed me to examine samples of their materials.

COMPREHENSION, CONTEXT, LAYERING AND SELF-PACING IN THE TEACHING OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES

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Background

THE TEACHING OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES presents a number of special problems not generally encountered in other language teaching programs. These problems stem from the demographics rather than the nature of African languages, for African languages display a considerably diversity (somewhere around 800 distinct languages) and because Africa tends to be treated as a single geopolitical unit, equivalent to, say, France, Russia or India.[1]

The most basic problem is how best to deal with this variety so that institutions such as Michigan State University, with a strong interest in African studies, can offer quality instruction to students with an Africanist focus. This problem permeates every area of language teaching from materials development and teacher training to actual classroom offerings, and is exacerbated by an inadequate level of funding for the task at hand.

For example, teachers and students have always been critical of the textbooks they use no matter what the language being taught. In the case of European languages this tradition has led to a gradual refinement in the quality of language teaching materials, because not only can authors profit from the experience of the past, but also they can add to their own experience by teaching the target language with a variety of textbooks. Compare this situation to that of materials development in a typical African language: the most sophisticated textbook was probably written by a linguist who is not a fluent speaker of the language, may never have studied it before, has had little experience teaching the language, and has no previous text with which to compare his/her own work. Worse yet, the prospects for improving this situation are slight because what little money will be allocated to the development of African language learning materials will and should be spent in areas where no materials exist.

Secondly, the variability in requests for the learning of specific African languages imposes demands which a normal language teaching program could not meet because of the extraordinary expense involved. For this reason, we at Michigan State University have found it necessary to modify our program to meet these needs. What has evolved is termed "the learner-centered approach" to language learning.[2]

Learner-centered language learning can be considered a type of individualized language learning, but owing to the nature of the specific problems of teaching African languages mentioned above it is different in one important way: the individual learner has been made the focal point of the learning situation. Each classroom consists of learners (no more than 5), a tutor (who is not required to be a trained language teacher, but who must speak the target language natively), a set of language learning materials, and a language supervisor (a faculty member who knows about the language technically and who has had experience in the teaching of African languages, though not necessarily this one).

A number of reasons may be offered for the learner-centered approach:

1. It is the learner who is the person who will either profit or suffer from the experience. Therefore, it is the learner who has the most at stake. In a learner-centered classroom, the learner need not endure techniques which the learner objects to. If the methods used are not working, the learner in consultation with the supervisor can develop alternatives.

2. Many training programs allow insufficient time, regardless of how that time is used, to permit the achievement of even a minimal speaking competence. This means that serious learners will have to continue their learning outside the classroom. Learners trained under a learner-centered approach will have much less difficulty in making this transition.

3. Tutors are released from their anxiety. Their responsibilities are commensurate with their training and experience, since all we require of a tutor are skills which any native speaker possesses. As a result the relationship between tutor and learner is one of cooperation rather than apprehension.

The importance of the teacher

The learner-centered approach does not underestimate the importance of the role of a teacher in a classroom for the efficient organization and smooth running of classroom activities. It recognizes, however, that these important skills must also be transferred to the learner. This means that the language supervisor must work with the learners both in classroom situations and outside to establish procedures for efficient language learning. Because these learners are not likely to become language teachers, they are not interested in the theory which is supposed to underlie language teaching.[3] What they prefer instead is straightforward proposals on what to do and how to learn, presented in a clear, concise way.

Self-pacing

An important aspect in all of individualized instruction is the notion of "self-pacing." This approach suggests that the learner is capable of determining how rapidly to go through language learning materials. What we need to do is to show the learner how to do this. In presenting this idea to the learner, I introduce the concept of "interest" as the basis of self-monitoring. If the exercise is interesting, then it is working; it if is not, something is wrong.

In general, interest will be lost when the activity is either too complex or too advanced for the learner. This situation leads to frustration, producing anxiety resulting in fatigue, which may further slow down the class. When an activity is too complex a good teacher will examine the situation to determine the source of complexity and either discard the drill if it is a bad drill,[4] restructure the drill, or suggest a remedial assignment to the learners. Such trouble-shooting techniques can be introduced to learners, but it has been my experience that this kind of skill takes a long time for a learner to master (in fact, many language teachers also have difficulty with it as well). The point that I wish to emphasize here is that because of the difficulty in mastering this kind of skill, learner-centered activities need to be simple and straightforward.

Problem solving

The second component of self-pacing is the analysis of language learning activities as problem-solving situations. That is, if a language-learning situation can be interpreted as a (set of) problem-solving situation(s), the situation(s) can be evaluated as interesting or not, and thus can serve as the basis of self-pacing.

There are, no doubt, numerous ways in which problem-solving could be applied to the language learning situation. The particular approach that I have found successful concerns what I am convinced to be a most important area of language ability, reading and listening comprehension. Through the work of Nord[5], Asher[6], and Postovsky[7], the advantages of separating production from comprehension skills have become apparent. This conclusion has been supported by my own experiences in the classroom. Thus, I emphasize the importance of receptive skills. This includes not only the ability to hear the important phonetic contrasts of the language and the ability to identify words in the target language, but also the ability to comprehend written and spoken texts as well. Here the process of comprehension can be treated as a problem to be solved. Often, however, the beginning learner will find a typical text too complex to be solved. This means that the task has to be modified in some way. The two approaches that I have used are (1) enriching the context in which the text is embedded and (2) developing a vertical layering of the text.

Layering

While one normally views a text as a horizontal or linear progression beginning with the first word and ending with the last, it is possible to view a text vertically as well, consisting of a series of layers of complexity. By so doing, it is possible to break down the process of comprehending a text into a series of solvable, albeit challenging, problems. Thus, the task involved is a matter of going through the text again and again, each time focusing on something new to comprehend in the text. In this way the comprehension of the text is built up "layer by layer" until the text is fully comprehended. The following sequence of directions that would be given to a student illustrates this procedure.

1. Listen to the text, without reading it, at least two times (more if you feel that it is helpful) for comprehension and word recognition. Try to identify words which you have encountered previously.

2. Listen to the text again, this time while following the written version, to identify the spoken words as units. Note: the words may not be "physically" there, but their recognition is important because they are important in the syntactic analysis of the sentence.

3. Go over the text with your tutor or with a reference grammar and dictionary until you know the meaning of all the lexical and grammatical content and understand the meaning of each sentence thoroughly. Note: experience has shown that problems of "interference" (the tendency to view the target language in terms of the mother tongue) can be reduced by trying to understand the target sentences literally as well as freely, but with the emphasis on the freely.

4. Listen to the text again. By this time you should have full comprehension and complete understanding of how the sentences are put together grammatically. Think about the content of the story as it unfolds. Listen to the text again and again until you can follow it as it is spoken at normal speed.

At this point the text should be considered only half-learned, but it is important to bear in mind that a great deal has been learned in this exercise. In addition to listening to and comprehending sentences, the learner has heard a large number of words (some new, some old) in context. The learning of words and their contexts is an extremely important aspect of language which is often overlooked by language teachers and textbook writers. (I estimate that a user must have a minimum operating capacity of around 2000 to 3000 concepts to achieve an acceptable linguistic competence. This text analysis is an ideal way to develop this capacity.) In addition to developing vocabulary, the learner has internalized the ability to recognize a number of fixed sentences which serve as the basis of a set of sister sentences in which only one word has been changed. The meaning of

these sentences, even if the new word is not familiar, may be fully comprehended on the basis of the context in which the sentence is uttered.

It should be clear from the above example that "layering" is amenable to self-pacing, and as such is usable in individualized and learner-centered language programs. Because it is so simple and straightforward, learners have quickly grasped the procedure and, once having grasped it, tend to use it.

This procedure can also be used for the memorization of texts, another task that I enthusiastically support. Below is a list of procedures that can be followed in this activity:

1. Go over the text sentence by sentence (or phrase by phrase and even word by word if necessary) with your tutor to develop as accurate a pronunciation as possible. (One procedure for doing this is for the learner to attempt to say the sentence. If the sentence is correct the tutor will say that it is correct, or signal so by not saying anything; if the sentence is incorrect, the tutor will repeat the sentence. This should continue until the learner has done his/her best. The major problem at this stage is the generosity of the tutor. The tutor really has to be encouraged to be critical. Thus the learner must repeatedly ask the tutor if that is really the way it is said, or whether it can be said better. The learner should show enthusiasm in the tutor's indicating these fine points; otherwise the tutor will be inclined to let pronunciation slide.)

2. Once the text has been gone over carefully, repeat the text sentence by sentence until a normal rate of speed is achieved. This can be practiced using a variety of techniques, e.g., repeating the sentences after the tutor (or a tape recorder), along with the tutor, or by tracking. (Tracking is a technique of repeating a sentence after about a second's delay. This has the effect of separating the listening part of the task from the production part of the task.)

3. To be sure you are aware of all the distinctions, you should practice writing the sentence down after hearing it. This dictation drill should be done sentence by sentence, and in beginning stages, the sentence should be repeated as many as three times.

4. Write down the text from memory. This is a form of self-test which will give you a good idea of what is known and what isn't!

5. Attempt to say the text from memory, with the tutor prompting at first.

6. The task is complete when you can rattle off the entire text at a normal rate of speed.

7. Follow up this exercise by a question-answer drill in which the tutor asks questions in such a way that the memorized sentences will be the answers to the questions.

(Note: Initial texts do not have to be long; as few as five sentences will do. But the learner should try to increase the length of these texts as soon as possible.)

Context

The process of communication involves two aspects: the message and the context in which the message is situated. A traffic light, by analogy, presents to us very little information (red, green and yellow); yet the context (a street intersection) permits us to interpret the message: to stop, to go or to proceed with caution. Learning a language can also be seen this way: there is a message and a context. That is, in understanding a sentence, one can take advantage of the context in which the message is embedded. Context is particularly useful for a beginning learner of a language. For example, the context in which a greeting takes place is easily identifiable. The messages which can be asked are finite. The learner does not need to know the entire language, or even hear the entire sentence to know what is being said. A single key word identified from a sentence may be sufficient for full comprehension of the message. In teaching children to read, educators have found that context is very important. Texts for beginning readers have a large amount of context (pictures) compared to the message (one sentence per page). When a child first approaches a new page, he/she will first examine the picture to delimit the range of possible messages that the sentence could represent. (At one stage, for example, my son used only the first letter in each word, along with the context, to construct the message. Not knowing a word, he would guess at its meaning, given the context, and supply a word that started with the same sound as the one he was reading and which made sense in the given context. Quite often he was correct and in so doing gradually built up his reading competence. Often he was not correct, however, though he might even complete a sentence having missed two or three words in the process. But the interesting thing was that if the sentence made sense given the context he would continue reading, while if it did not, he would rescan the sentence for a better reading.)

Ways of controlling context

The classroom is an ideal way of controlling context. Here we can define the range of what is being expressed within very narrow limits and thereby optimize the effects of context. Some specific techniques that can be used might include the following:

1. Sen-sit buildup:[8]

In this drill, the learner is given a list of messages which will be presented to him/her, whether a list of nouns, commands, activities, numbers or anything. Ideally this list should be in the form of pictures, real objects or demonstrations. The important thing, however, is that the learner knows the order of presentation. The tutor then says the first message. (The learner should know in advance the meaning of what is being said.) If it is a command, the learner should carry it out. If it is a picture, the learner should point to it. If it is a thing, the learner should point it out. The tutor will then either repeat the message or utter something new. If it is a new message, it has to be the second item. Once the second item has been introduced, the tutor then drills the learner on the first two messages. The learner can then expect one of two known messages, or a new message that will be the third item on the list. When the third item is introduced, the tutor will drill the learner randomly on the first three items until the learner can identify them easily. Then the fourth item is introduced and drilled in the same way, and so on until the list is complete. Usually only seven items can be introduced in this way during one drill (if more messages are to be introduced, the messages should be divided into two drills).

2. Practical sentences:

This approach can also be used to drill practical sentences that the learner would like to use. Here the learner draws up a list of seven practical sentences that he/she would like to know and has the tutor introduce them to the learner in the target language in that order.

3. Translation drills:

One of the problems in production as well as recognition is figuring out how things would be said in a language. One method is trial and error, in which the learner says something and is, if lucky, corrected. An alternative to this is the translation drill: the learner either writes a composition in English for the tutor to translate, or asks the tutor to translate sentence by sentence. Here the learner knows what is going to be said and should have some idea of the words to be used and the kind of construction involved. Thus, when the sentence appears, most of the context has already been provided. (Such drills should be taped so that they can be reused.)

4. Known event:

Here the learner asks the tutor to talk about a commonly shared event, such as going to market, visiting a friend's house, or even a folktale told in English. Again the learner will have narrowed the range of contexts and should be able to interpret the message more richly than otherwise.

5. Picture drills:

Another way of controlling the context is to use a picture of some scene or activity that the learner is (1) interested in learning about or (2) has some familiarity with already. The learner then asks the tutor to talk about the picture or asks the tutor questions about the picture.

Summary

In this paper, the special demands of the African language program at Michigan State University were presented in order to explain why a learner-centered program of language instruction was established. The demands of this approach on language learning were presented in order to point out the kinds of techniques and practices that we are developing for other programs, namely ones which are straightforward enough for learners to employ on their own. The two approaches, context and layering, centered around the concept of problem solving as a way of maintaining interest. The question of interest itself was defined as the basis of self-pacing.

Notes

[1]For more discussion of the problems associated with the teaching of African Languages, see D. Dwyer and D. Wiley, (eds.) African Language Instruction in the United States: Directions and Priorities for the 80's. African Studies Center, Michigan State University, 1980.

[2]D. Dwyer, "The African Language Program at Michigan State University." System, v. 7 (1979), pp. 7-27.

[3]In fact, I am not so sure such theory exists anyway. In practice, much of language teaching has operated on the basis of what works, rather than what ought to work. Dunkel (1967), cited in Stevick (Adapting and Writing Language Lessons, Washington, D.C.: Foreign Service Institute, 1971) demonstrates that little has changed in our general approach to language teaching over the centuries. The one exception to this approach may be the listening approach argued for by Asher, Postovsky, Nord and others.

[4]Some drills have little to do with language learning but rather resemble mental exercises which would prove difficult to a native speaker. Others involve too much new vocabulary to be effective. A good teacher will take time out to drill the new vocabulary before running the drill.

[5]J. Nord. "Developing Listening Fluency Before Speaking: An Alternative Paradigm." System, v. 8 (1980), pp. 1-22.

[6]J. Asher. "The Total Physical Response Approach to Second Language Learning." Modern Language Journal, v. 53 (1969), pp. 3-17.

[7]V. Postovsky. "Effects of Delay in Oral Practice at the Beginning of Second Language Learning." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of California at Berkeley, 1970.

[8]The term "sen-sit" is from Nord.

NEEDED: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR INDIVIDUALIZING FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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AS I HAVE LISTENED TO many fine presentations at this conference, it has again become clear to me that most people are discussing what I would call components of a process of individualizing foreign language instruction. I base that conclusion on my own definition of individualizing instruction taken from the Reports of the Working Committees, Northeast Conference, 1973:

> Individualization is a process that moves away from making large groups conform to a method in order to achieve narrowly-conceived objectives and moves toward meeting the needs and satisfying the interests of each student. In doing this teachers must increase or at least maintain quality performance. Much will depend on a teacher's ability to manage programs without becoming merely a flustered clerk in the process. It is the teachers rather than the equipment involved that will be most responsible for success or failure and for determining how far the process moves toward the ideal for each student. Teachers must consider each student's optimum learning rate and needs, given the conditions present in his school and its community.

General principles, then, may be stated as follows:

(1) Proceed with caution, giving time for self analysis and introspection.

(2) Take time to make an inventory of the current teaching-learning conditions in each school.

(3) Move from a teacher-dominated curriculum to as much of an individual, student-centered curriculum as the materials, space, financial support, and, perhaps most important of all, the human resources available will allow.

(4) Do not forget behavioral objectives, learning activity packets, and other aids, which are cited in the bibliography.

(5) Emphasize sensitivity to the philosophical bases for individualizing instruction and to the necessary human abilities.[1]

One has heard the term individualized instruction used and discussed in our conference. As I have learned from my colleagues here and elsewhere, the term is not meaningful, simply because it implies too many meanings--as many meanings as there are programs. I propose that we begin an inquiry here, hoping that the inquiry will end much later in the formation and constant review of a conceptual model for all of us as professionals, a common model for thinking to which all of us can refer as we discuss either our own programs or those managed by other teachers and administrators.

Simply stated, we must label properly what certain terms can mean for everyone. Individualized instruction might be the first term to be discarded. The nature of the word, being a past participle, is such that a completed action is implied, motivating some to focus on and want to be given a completed program. The concept "individualizing instruction," however, implies a process that should, most probably, include components such as those mentioned in the definition I provided in 1973. They are components for a process of individualizing instruction; they are not individualized instruction.

Our next step should be to develop a conceptual model for individualizing foreign language instruction so we can talk with one another about various components for a process of individualizing instruction and understand, collectively, what we are doing and what we can do. I hope we, as professionals, can motivate some of our colleagues to work on the project and to solicit the support necessary to complete the job--or should I say, to keep the job going?

Notes

[1]Ronald L. Gougher, "Individualization of Instruction," in James W. Dodge, Ed., Northeast Conference - Reports of the Working Committees, 1973, p. 94. Montpelier, Vermont: Capital City Press, 1973.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INDIVIDUALIZED HEBREW LANGUAGE PROGRAM AT SUNY-ALBANY

--Daniel Grossberg
SUNY-Albany

AT STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK at Albany (SUNYA), we have concentrated our efforts in Hebrew language education on the development of innovative methods of instruction. These innovations have been well received and account for our vibrant program.

Hebrew language in the first two semesters (Heb 101A and Heb 101B) is taught through several correlated modes directed at the various learning modalities of the students. These methods of presentation include videotapes, audiotapes, workbooks, textbooks, live sessions and tutorials. The potential for increasing the effectiveness of foreign language learning through the effective use of these modes was recognized early in our program. A degree of individualization of instruction is achieved by the students' ability to concentrate on that mode of presentation that is most effective for him. We have, nevertheless, continued to strive to raise this level of individualization. This has been done with the encouragement of the College of Humanities and Fine Arts of SUNYA. A stated goal of the college appears in its Programs and Priorities for Action 1979:

> To explore ways in which the College's curriculum and programs can be expanded or improved to offer more effective and coherent learning experiences for all students, including those who do not conform to the conventional profile of the undergraduate or graduate student.

Our efforts also emerge from the Department of Judaic Studies' long-term commitment to the development of the television (TV) format for the instruction of Hebrew. The commitment is expressed in the department's "Priorities for Action 1979" and endorsed by the College of Humanities and Fine Arts in its Programs and Priorities for Action 1979:

> To continue research on new methods of teaching Hebrew through media such as videotape and to revise the multimedia elementary Hebrew program to enhance learning; and to continue experiments with student internships and with advanced students teaching introductory courses.

Phase I

The Judaic Studies Department received a $250,000 grant from SUNY-Central in 1971 to develop a multimedia approach to teaching Hebrew under the direction of the late Professor Zvi Abbo. Working with the Educational Communications Center at SUNYA, Professor Abbo produced a series of 108 half-hour lessons on videotape. These, together with the textbooks and audiotapes for language lab use (also prepared by Abbo) and with live sessions scheduled with the instructor, formed the material for the elementary sequence in Hebrew (Heb 101A and 101B). The tapes are not merely canned lectures; they include response opportunities for the students, graphics, and skits to demonstrate proper use of terms and phrases.

Based on the principle that language is essentially a medium for acquiring knowledge and understanding of a specific country's culture, a primary technique employed in these videotapes is to remove the students from the artificial world of the classroom to the place where the language is used naturally, in this case Israel. This is accomplished by "moving" the student into an Israeli environment through the experiences of a young American tourist, Dani. In his travels, Dani encounters numerous situations typical of Israeli life and through which the student becomes acquainted with Israeli culture and mores as well as many phases of Jewish life and tradition. The college student readily identifies with the American tourist, who begins speaking Hebrew haltingly, with a strong American accent and with the typical grammatical errors that most learners fall prey to. In each successive unit, however, both Dani and the student gain proficiency.

These videotaped lessons are shown four days per week at three different times per day. Audiotapes keyed to the lexical and grammatical elements of each unit are available for student listening in the language laboratory or for copying and later listening at the students' leisure. Mastery tests have been prepared and are administered on audiotapes in the language laboratory following the completion of every three units.

Phase II

The death of Professor Abbo in March 1976 rendered impossible our plans to have him review and revise the material. However, with help from a grant of $2650 from the Chancellor's Innovative Fund, we were able to bring in an evaluation consultant, Dr. Rami Carmi, then associated with Bar-Ilan University. Dr. Carmi did his preliminary work in the summer of 1976, and then continued his evaluation and testing of revised materials as the actual instructor of Heb 101A and 101B during the fall 1976 semester. He produced a 118-page report which has been the basis of our own revision and improvement of the program since then.

The major advantages of our TV approach are the following:

1. The TV format allows our department to offer several sections of Hebrew 101A and 101B by replaying the tapes at different hours. We thus enable more students to enroll in the courses and appeal to a larger student population, since at least one section generally fits into the personal schedule of even a non-traditional student (e.g., an adult, a person working at home, or a person working in business).

2. The videotapes also permit us to expose a maximum number of students to an exceptionally gifted teacher. Further, the standard of performance of the prerecorded lesson is consistently high and not subject to the daily vicissitudes of a live instructor.

Phase III

To avoid the pitfall of impersonalization we have tempered the audio- and videotaped lessons with four half-hour sessions with a teaching assistant immediately following the TV lessons, and a weekly one-hour class with the professor. The teaching assistants view the videotape with the students and then answer questions, review, reinforce, complement and supplement that lesson. The teaching assistants are enrolled in a seminar with the professor overseeing the program; the seminar entails one meeting per week, when the needs for preparation of materials and the direction and supervision of the TAs are addressed. The professor responsible for the program also teaches the HEB 101A and HEB 101B classes once a week each, getting to know the students so that he can respond to them as individuals. This session provides personal contact with the teacher in the classroom, thereby mitigating the possible deleterious effects of overexposure to the hardware and software of the program. Liberal office hours are also provided. Our current Hebraist has also made important adjustments in the course material, most notably in work toward the development of a handbook on Hebrew grammar geared to the TV lessons.

The format of this program has always made experimentation in new modes of teaching (e.g., individualization, variable pacing) a real possibility. Until Spring Semester 1980, however, the Department never had the funds to do much besides offering several sections of Heb 101A and Heb 101B in a semester with a minimum teaching staff. In spring 1980, the Judaic Studies Department offered a 2-credit course entitled "Modern Spoken Hebrew: A Beginner's Course" under course rubric HUM 220. This course used virtually the same materials as the first half of Heb 101A. What was different was its off-campus setting and the possibility for us to experiment with individualization and variable pacing, something we could not do on campus because of lack of funds. We arranged with the Educational Communications Center of SUNYA for the off-campus use of video equipment, and a community agency gave us, rent-free, a secure room for holding a formal class for individualized instruction at times scattered through the week. No adults registered for credit, but we wanted to make this opportunity available and therefore offered it under the college title and rubric. (Twenty-four students did, however, pay a lecture fee and attend.) Dr. Daniel Grossberg, assisted by advanced Hebrew students, was responsible for the course, for which he received no additional remuneration.

Phase IV

Our next step in the development of an individualized Hebrew language program is a logical sequel to what has already been done. Specifically, we recognize the need to address five major concerns:

1. To reduce attrition.

2. To address the problems that the traditional "lock-step" approach to foreign language teaching creates for many students.

3. To marshal and apportion the resources of the University in a new restructuring of the teaching/learning process.

4. To make the study of Hebrew more appealing.

5. To increase enrollments.

These concerns apply especially to foreign language departments of a college, such as SUNYA, in which there is no general requirement for the study of foreign languages. Foreign languages must be made attractive. In a small department such as ours we can assign no more than one faculty member to elementary Hebrew language instruction, and we reach large numbers of students in these courses only because of our TV program.

We are not engaged in adapting our present TV format to a further individualization of instruction of Hebrew. We are establishing a Hebrew Learning Center for the instruction of Hebrew 101A and 101B, to be staffed by a faculty member and student assistants registered in Heb 450, "Practicum in Hebrew." The Center will be open for several hours each day, and it will be equipped with the audio- and videotapes that have been the raw materials for our courses until now. Textbooks, workbooks, supplementary grammar handbooks, mastery texts and record-keeping appurtenances will also be available. A staff member at the Center will provide a personal dimension. He or she will explain difficult issues, answer questions, help with preparation and correction of written assignments, conduct oral-aural exercises, evaluate students' growth, and record progress.

The individualization will be further effected by the following three provisions:

1. Self-pacing: the student will determine his/her own rate of progress.

2. Mastery-based: proficiency tests will be administered at the completion of discrete modules.

3. Variable credit: the student will earn from one to eight credits (corresponding to the 8 credits of 101A and 101B) in the course of the two-semester sequence.

The independent guided study aspect of the program and the extended hours of the "drop-in" multi-media individualized learning center will, we hope, enable the Judaic Studies Department to attract more students to elementary language instruction. Many students are reluctant to take a traditional "lock-step" elementary language class because of an intimidation felt at the prospect of reciting before a full class or at the prospect of falling behind the others. The Center will, we hope, attract these shy learners. The Center will also encourage more able students to progress along the language sequence at their own accelerated rate. Our new program will also appeal to those students who are unable to enroll in a traditional course that calls for attendance at five specific class meetings per week.

Our latest step in the individualized Hebrew TV project will also further increase our present savings of faculty lines: the TV materials allow us to offer multiple sections of Hebrew (Heb 101A and 101B) each semester, and supervision of all these sections is regarded as one course assignment each term for one faculty member. The resultant FTE[1] benefits are obvious.

The introduction of any innovative mode of instruction entails the added expense of teacher training, teaching assignments, preparation of materials and new record keeping procedures. We shall meet these challenges through our aforementioned Heb 450 course, "Hebrew Practicum." The Hebrew Practicum students will register for this course for 4 credits for the semester. This course will entail a weekly seminar in addition to staffing of the Center. In the weekly seminar, these students and the Hebrew professor will study the language elements in depth, will prepare teaching strategies and materials, and will review beginning Hebrew students' progress and needs. The practicum students will gain language proficiency and pedagogical skills while developing material and staffing the learning center, all at relatively little or no monetary expense to the Department.

Our plan for evaluating the success in terms of student achievement, student satisfaction, and support for the cost benefit theory will rest heavily on comparison and contrast with our current economical TV approach to Hebrew language learning. We shall continue to teach Heb 101A and 101B in the style that we have developed in the past several semesters. This will enable us to establish both "vertical" and "horizontal" comparative studies between Hebrew instruction in the former semesters and the Hebrew instruction in our control group. The statistics to be evaluated are: registration figures, attrition/retention, grades earned, credits offered, and average time devoted to earning 4 credits.

The Hebrew Practicum students will provide the director with additional valuable feedback regarding the program. These advanced students are privy, for example to reactions and impressions of fellow students which may not reach the professor directly, but are nevertheless helpful in the direction of the program. A further means of monitoring the program is by seriously weighing the evaluations

that the students fill out for each course they take. The particular evaluation instruments to be used will solicit the students' opinions of the audiotapes, videotapes, textbooks, practicum students, professor, and format. These assessments will be part of our constant review of the program. The professor teaching the intermediate and advanced levels of Hebrew will be able to supply supplementary evaluative data regarding the relative strength of the intermediate and advanced students who have passed through the traditional program vs. those who have come from our new program.

Notes

[1]Full Time Equivalent - a formula for comparing student enrollment with faculty assignment.

THE USE OF VIDEO AND SUGGESTOPEDIC TECHNIQUES IN INDIVIDUALIZED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Lawrence Hall
Howard University

Introduction

THE SUGGESTOPEDIC LANGUAGE CLASS AS originated by Georgi Lozanov is a carefully designed system which is not readily adaptable to current academic programs, nor easily accessible to a large body of language learners. It is a system limited to small groups, and one that requires very exact training for the teacher and careful control of time and materials. While the system as it now stands is the result of years of experimentation and revision, Lozanov has called for continuing research which employs new technology as it becomes available.[1]

Up to now, video programming has not been incorporated into the suggestopedic language class. Since video has become such a pervasive medium, however, and since new technology which gives us precise control over the videotape has become available, the question of how it can be best employed within the framework of suggestopedia arises. This paper addresses the feasibility of the adaptation of some suggestopedic techniques to video in order to exploit that medium in a more efficient manner for the individual learner.

Due to limitations of time and the nature of this presentation, only brief mention will be made of the theoretical considerations involved in this project. First, there is the well-known notion that recall is enhanced when the item to be memorized is associated with a visual image.[2] Second, it is believed in the suggestopedic language approach that recall is enhanced when the language material is presented to the accompaniment of music.[3] Third, there is the assumption that a state of relaxation is essential to both memorization and recall: in suggestopedic classes, music is used to bring about a state of relaxation.[4] (Numerous studies have shown that perception is increased when the subjects are in a relaxed state.[5])

In the work reported on here, an effort was made to bring these elements together, using videotape as the central pedagogical medium. The best results came from one student of Russian who, using a video program (minus the sound track) as a cue, was able to recall after one and one-half hours of work approximately 500 words of text verbatim with about 96%-98% accuracy. A number of other students were able to recall easily and with a high degree of accuracy German texts ranging from 300 to 400 words after working for one or two hours. (The length

of the texts was determined by the film material itself, which was sometimes too short.) The following is a description of the process of preparing and presenting the materials in the form finally determined to be the most effective.

Text

The films[6] were chosen because they generally met the suggestopedic requirement that the text be lively, meaningful, and presented as a continuing story with recognizable characters. The text is transcribed verbatim from the sound track of the film and kept within the format of a narrow column. Each line in the column may range from one to seven words, and should consist, to the extent possible, of a recognizable grammatical unit (e.g., subject-verb, noun phrase, adverbial phrase). This column is placed on the left side of the page, and an English translation is placed opposite it in the right column. The English translation is covered by a blank piece of paper which can be raised or lowered as necessary. In the beginning, the learner must keep the cover raised, but later the cover tends to remain down as the material is mastered. (For individualized learning, appropriate grammatical explanations should be placed on the facing page so that the learner may glance at them during the playing of the music or read them later at his leisure.)

The concert

In the suggestopedic class, music is used in the form of a "concert" which consists of two parts: (1) an "active" session in which the text is read in a dramatic fashion to the accompaniment of music from the Romantic period; (2) a "passive" session in which the text is repeated in a normal voice accompanied by music from the Baroque period. For the first part of the concert, the text is read with varying intonations and pacings. For the second part, the text is read clearly and distinctly with normal intonation. In both parts, the voice pauses as the music pauses. The two sessions are separated by a two-minute interval during which the learner may wish to yawn or stretch to recover from the relaxing effects of the first session.

The first session should last at least twenty minutes. The effectiveness of the concert seems to be diminished if less time is used. The optimum times for the concert seem to be approximately 30-35 minutes for the first part, and 10-15 minutes for the second part. The tapes are produced on a stereophonic tape recorder with two inputs, one for the music and one for the voice, and are played back monaurally.[8] The music should be heard easily, but should not be in conflict with the voice. The voice should be heard clearly and distinctly, but neither voice nor music should overwhelm the other. A good set of speakers or a high-quality headset is desirable.

Environment and relaxation

The environment should be as pleasant and as comfortable as possible. An easy chair is preferred, and the area should be aesthetically pleasing. The booth or room should have a warm, nonthreatening ambiance. Inner calm, or psychological relaxation, is essential to the suggestopedic method. Since the relaxing atmosphere of the true suggestopedic classroom cannot be duplicated for the learner working individually, a set of guided imagery tapes was devised to be used at the beginning of each work session. The tapes last from five to seven minutes. They consist of a combination of relaxing sounds and texts that have been developed based on neurolinguistic principles. They are very effective in the rapid production of alpha rhythms in the brain.

Presentation of the text

The "learning" session lasts about one hour. About 35-45 minutes are taken up by the concert, and the remainder of the time in listening to the guided imagery, in reading the text rapidly, and in viewing the video program for the first time. The learner is encouraged to glance at the text as he views the film. The pause control can be used when difficult passages require extra time. This viewing session should not last, however, for more than 15-20 minutes (the running time for the videotapes is about nine or ten minutes). The learner is asked to seek only a summary knowledge of the contents of the film; no attempt should be made to memorize any of the material.

The learner then listens to the concert. He is asked to make himself comfortable, to relax, and to read the foreign language text and to refer to the English translation as necessary while listening to the recorded voice and music. He is told that there will be a two-minute pause during which he might want to stretch or walk around a bit. When the second part of the concert is played, the learner should put away the text and simply relax and listen.

After the concert is over, the learner should not refer to the text. Rather, he is told not to think about it until the next day. If a learner feels the necessity to study the text (and some do, out of force of habit), then he should only read the text briefly for perhaps ten minutes or so just prior to falling asleep. The learner is told that the language material is in his mind, but that it needs time to "soak in" or "percolate." Any attempt to study the text immediately after the concert is considered useless and, in fact, an unnecessary hindrance that can lead to doubt that the material can be mastered easily.

Practice and recall

In the follow-up session the next day the learner, after his mind has been calmed by guided imagery, reviews the videotape for

comprehension, he pauses and rewinds the tape as necessary with a search control device. After reviewing the tape for passive comprehension, the learner then repeats the program and assumes an active role. This may be done in various ways, depending on the skill level of the learner and the kinds of equipment available. Using a two-channel video recorder with a search control device, for example, the learner can stop the video program, rewind to the phrase he wishes to repeat, turn off the sound, and record his voice on the second channel of the video tape having both the previously heard phrase and the video as a cue. Another means of practice is to have an English voice cue with pauses on a separate audio tape that can be coordinated with the videotape by using the pause control. A skilled learner can even turn off the sound, and using the video as a cue, provide the dialog or narrative himself, pausing the program as necessary.

Conclusion

There are a number of problems remaining with the use of video materials. First, one awaits the development of suitable video programs.[10] The German films we used, for example, are far too repetitive: we used only about one-third of each episode, that is, the central uninterrupted skit, to teach the material. Repetitious exercises based on the central skit were ignored. Another need is to coordinate the visual image with the sound of the concert, that is, to alternate the speed of the video program so that it matches the pacing of the music, particularly during the first part of the concert. Also, the text could be written in subtitles so that the viewer could receive the visual action and the written image simultaneously. (This process is now technically feasible, but the costs in time and money are considerable.)

A general problem for the suggestopedic method is that not everyone responds to it. Of the subjects observed during the course of the experiments, most achieved between 70% and 98% recall; there were, however, a small number of subjects who for some reason did not respond at all. The individual learner knows within twenty-four hours how well he responds to the method.

For those who do respond, the advantages are considerable and the results are often astounding. The learner not only is able to acquire in a short time a large vocabulary with relative ease, but also is able to enjoy the visual presentation with its nonverbal nuances. The psychological relaxation resulting from the concerts and guided imagery seems to remove barriers to speaking. Students have been observed to speak quite freely as the momentum of the video program carries them along. The texts become stored in the long-term memory (subjects evidenced good recall even after seven months), not as a sequence that will always come out verbatim to a stimulus, but rather as a set of implicit grammatical rules and store of vocabulary items.

Notes

[1]These comments were made by Lozanov during a workshop held in Washington, D.C., in April, 1979.

[2]See, for example, Allen Paivio, Imagery and Verbal Processes (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971).

[3]Georgi Lozanov, Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedia, trans. Marjorie Hall-Pozharlieva and Krassimira Pashmakova (New York: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, 1978). Lozanov's description of his first successes is contained in Chapter 2.

[4]EEG testing shows that subjects listening to a suggestopedic concert typically fall into an alpha state. See also G. Lozanov, P. Balevsky, V. Stomonyakov, "The Effect of Study Classes in the Suggestopaedic Method in the Cerebral Bioelectrical Activity of Course Members and Instructors," Proceedings of the First International Symposium on the Problems of Suggestology (Varna, Bulgaria, 1971).

[5]See, for example, Wilson Bryan Key, Subliminal Seduction. (Inglewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1973). Key points out (p. 27) that in studies of subliminal perception there is a repeated emphasis on passive receptivity improving the perception of stimuli. Tests indicate that subliminals often become liminal when the subject is relaxed.

[6]The films were "Martian in Moscow" (Russian), and the "Guten Tag" series (German). The films are distributed by International Film Bureau, Chicago, Illinois.

[7]The musical selections recommended by Lozanov are listed in Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedia, pp. 270-271.

[8]This is done to avoid any dichotic listening conflicts should a stereo headset be used or speakers placed to the left and right of the learner. For an explanation of this phenomenon, see Doreen Kimura, "The Asymmetry of the Human Brain," Scientific American, March 1973, pp. 70-78.

[9]The Sony RM300 Auto Search Control and the Panasonic Auto Search Controller NV-A800 are two such devices currently on the market.

[10]Two series produced by the BBC which are likely to be suitable for this methodology are: "Zarabanda" (Spanish) and "Ensemble" (French). The series are distributed by Time-Life Multimedia in the United States.

SELF-PACED SPANISH AT LANSING COMMUNITY COLLEGE

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THE SPANISH INDIVIDUALIZED PROGRAM (SIP) at Lansing Community College is a first-year course. Attrition in elementary Spanish is high, so it is not economically feasible to offer a classroom track in Spanish 101, 102, and 103 every term. The SIP, however, allows students to enroll in any one of these courses in any school term. The program began operating in the fall of 1978.

Staff and physical facilities

I work in the SIP two hours per school day. My bilingual aide, a student from Venezuela, works with me one hour per day and receives almost minimum wages. Together we are able to serve up to 35 students per term without difficulty.

The physical facilities of the SIP consist of two classrooms, a communication laboratory, two file cabinets, an overhead projector, and a movie screen. Except for the file cabinets, which contain SIP materials, other instructors and students also use these facilities. The communication lab is primarily a reading and writing clinic. It has twenty learning carrels equipped with a slide projector and a cassette tape recorder. It also has a testing area and eight small consultation booths in which instructors tutor students. At the lab counter students check out learning materials such as writing mooules and slide/tape programs to improve their reading skills. The lab houses all the SIP materials, and we test our students there, too.

Enrollment and attrition

Students enroll in the SIP for practical reasons: to enhance their career opportunities, to speak with their Spanish-speaking friends, or to use Spanish when traveling abroad. Although the age of the students (three-fourths of whom are women) ranges between 17 and 70 years old, most are high school graduates whose average age is 20 years old.

Across the College and in the SIP the largest enrollment is in fall quarter, and the smallest enrollment is in summer quarter. A total of 307 students have enrolled in the program from fall 1978 through fall 1980. Figure 1 shows the enrollment figures in SIP 101, 102, and 103.

FIGURE 1. SIP ENROLLMENT, 1978-1980*

SIP 101

	FALL	WINTER	SPRING	SUMMER	TOTAL
1978	20	---	---	---	20
1979	27	20	11	17	75
1980	20	37	23	11	91
				SUB TOTAL	186

SIP 102

	FALL	WINTER	SPRING	SUMMER	TOTAL
1978	---	---	---	---	0
1979	7	15	11	12	45
1980	5	21	11	4	41
				SUB TOTAL	86

SIP 103

	FALL	WINTER	SPRING	SUMMER	TOTAL
1978	---	---	---	---	0
1979	3	0	6	6	15
1980	2	8	8	2	20
				SUB TOTAL	35
				GRAND TOTAL	307

*A line (---) indicates that the SIP course did not exist in that particular term. The program began in fall 1978.

A close examination of the numbers in Figure 1 reveals an erratic attrition pattern from term to term. This pattern is erratic because students enroll in and complete different SIP courses in different terms during the year. For example, one student may enroll in SIP 101 in the fall, skip a term, then enroll in 102 in the spring, and may never enroll in 103. Another student may enroll in 102 in the fall, then take 103 in the following term. A third student, who studied Spanish for a year in high school, may enroll in 103 during the summer just for fun. Normally, the luxury of this kind of curricular flexibility would not be cost-effective in a classroom track at the College. With the SIP, however, this luxury is possible because, in administrative terms, I teach all three SIP courses as a single class. I have found that when students interrupt or discontinue their study of Spanish, it is not because they are dissatisfied with the program; rather, it is because their personal problems demand more immediate attention than does the study of Spanish. For example, students may have a very busy work schedule, serious family or health problems, or financial difficulties. In short, the SIP accommodates student-clients whose language needs and personal problems vary from term to term.

Materials

The textbook and workbook we use is Español a lo vivo (4th edition), written by Hansen and Wilkins, and published by John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1978. I edited the master tapes that accompany the text, omitting many monotonous pattern drills and resequencing the content. The Instructional Media Department at the College duplicated the edited tapes onto cassette tapes so that students can listen to them in the lab or at home. At the beginning of the term students receive a list showing tape numbers and contents.

I wrote six Lesson Packets for each of the three SIP courses. Each packet consists of six parts:

1. A GUIDE SHEET that lists specific learning objectives along with suggested activities for mastering them.
2. Three or four SELF-QUIZZES with keyed answers.
3. One to three INTERVIEW SHEETS for practicing conversation.
4. Varying numbers of SUPPLEMENTARY SHEETS that clarify and illustrate difficult grammatical concepts or that enrich the cultural readings in the textbook.
5. A LESSON TEST that measures oral and written proficiency in Spanish, and knowledge of Hispanic culture.
6. An ALTERNATE LESSON TEST for retesting students who receive lower than 80% mastery on the Lesson Test.

I also wrote an Orientation Packet that explains the purpose and procedures of the SIP, and provides suggestions on how to study a foreign language. At the beginning of the term, every student receives a copy of this packet as well as a course syllabus.

A four-drawer file cabinet holds additional supplementary materials, some of which I purchased and others which I developed. The first three drawers contain a series of grammar worksheets and conversation sheets for each lesson in SIP 101, 102, and 103. Each grammar sheet has 25 fill-in-the-blank exercises based on one grammatical concept (e.g., ser vs. estar), with the answers printed on the reverse side. The conversation sheets, each of which also focuses on one aspect of grammar, consist of 20-25 open-ended personalized questions (e.g., "¿Qué hizo usted este fin de semana?" - "What did you do this weekend?"). Students use these conversation sheets during scheduled conversation sessions and outside of class to practice speaking Spanish.

The fourth drawer contains information sheets that supplement the "Notas culturales" section of the textbook. All the supplementary materials in the program are clearly marked and filed for easy access during regular lab hours. At the beginning of the term, all students receive an updated list of these materials.

Procedures

Each term begins with a one-hour orientation session required of all SIP students. At that time they receive a copy of the Orientation Packet, a course syllabus, a tape list, and a list of supplementary materials. Then I describe the purpose of the SIP and how it operates, and I explain my role as well as the students' responsibilities. To avoid any misunderstandings during the term, I tell students exactly what they need to do in their course, and how their mastery of Spanish and knowledge of Hispanic culture will be evaluated.

On the second day of class, students begin working through the activities in their Lesson Packets. I work with most of the students (SIP 101) while my student aide works with a smaller group (SIP 102 and 103). During the remainder of the term, students work through their Lesson Packets at their own pace.

Every Monday, I post a weekly schedule of SIP activities in our two classrooms and in the lab. On Mondays, I teach the lesson highlights scheduled for 101 students, on Tuesdays, the highlights for 102, and on Wednesdays, the highlights for 103. On Thursdays, all students can practice conversation in pairs and small groups, and on Fridays they can participate in cultural activities such as song fests and film presentations. Figure 2 shows a typical weekly schedule (I am "Dr. H.," my student aide is "Dalida," and "Tammy" and "Sr. Dalby" are student volunteers from my intermediate Spanish class).

FIGURE 2.

A Typical Weekly SIP Schedule

Semana de 6-10 de octubre

1:10 - 2:00 p.m.

LUNES 6

101 HIGHLIGHTS See your course syllabus for WEEK TWO.
REQUIRED for 101 students. 102 students are invited.
Dr. H. Room 326

MESA DE CONVERSACION For 102 and 103 students.
Dálida Room 320. This is your opportunity to speak Spanish with a native speaker.

MARTES 7

102 HIGHLIGHTS See your course syllabus for WEEK TWO.
REQUIRED for 102 students. 103 students are invited.
Dr. H. Room 326.

MESA DE CONVERSACION For 101 students.
Tammy Room 320. Bring your interview sheets in your Lesson Packets.

QUESTIONS AND EXAMS Dálida LAB-by appointment

MIERCOLES 8

103 HIGHLIGHTS See your course syllabus for WEEK TWO.
Dr. H. Room 326. REQUIRED for 103 students.

OTHER STUDENTS may practice Spanish in Room 320...or take a test...or work in the lab.

QUESTIONS AND EXAMS
Dálida LAB-by appointment

JUEVES 9

MESAS DE CONVERSACION For 101, 102, and 103 students.
Dr. H. Room 326. Bring your interview sheets in you Lesson Packets.
Sr. Dalby

QUESTIONS AND EXAMS
Dálida LAB-by appointment

VIERNES 10

CULTURA HISPANICA For 101, 102, and 103 students.
Dr. H. Room 326.
1. Filmstrip: "Shopping in Spain"
2. Names of stores in Spanish.
3. Names of foods in Spanish. (Bring your appetite!)

QUESTIONS AND EXAMS
Dálida LAB-by appointment

All students must attend at least three scheduled sessions per week: a highlight session, a conversation session, and one other session such as a consultation or testing session. Except for a serious illness or emergency, students who fail to attend at least three sessions per week are withdrawn administratively from the program. Experience has shown that this procedure motivates students to study, practice, learn, progress, and to complete their course in one term. It also allows students some flexibility of time compared to classroom-track students who must attend five sessions per week.

After students complete a Lesson Packet, they make an appointment to take a Lesson Test. This test measures listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing skills, as well as cultural knowledge. A student must receive at least 80% (B-) on a test before beginning a new Lesson Packet. Students who receive less than 80% mastery strengthen their weak area(s) of proficiency or knowledge, then take the Alternate Lesson Test. Either my student aide or I correct the tests immediately if time permits, or by the next day. We record students' test scores on a simple grade sheet, and file their tests and grade sheets in a manila folder.

The grading procedure is simple. At the end of the term, I average all six test scores of 80% or above. The grading scale is as follows: 90-100 = A, 80-89 = B. Students who complete only 5 out of 6 required tests successfully (80% or better) receive an I (Incomplete) and must take their sixth test the following term or receive an F (Failure) in the course. Students who complete less than 5 tests successfully are administratively withdrawn from their course, and receive an N (No grade/No credit). Students who receive an N grade may complete their tests during the following term provided they register and pay for the course again. These rules and procedures do not apply to students who audit a course. Interestingly, our records show that only 5% of the audit students complete their SIP course; therefore, students who enroll in a SIP course for credit generally are more motivated to succeed and to complete their course than are students who audit.

Students who complete their course successfully receive 5 quarter credits. They may transfer these credits to most colleges and universities in Michigan.

Program evaluation

The strengths of the SIP include the following:

--The College can afford to offer Spanish 101, 102, and 103 every term.

--With the assistance of a student aide, one instructor can teach three levels of elementary Spanish at nearly the same cost as teaching one level in the classroom track (once the SIP has been developed).

--Students learn their lessons thoroughly and at their own pace.

--Students receive more personal help than students who enroll in the classroom track.

--The SIP supplementary materials are used in the elementary classroom track and in the intermediate Spanish classes.

One weakness of the program is that students need opportunities to speak Spanish. I have partially addressed this need by inviting students from my intermediate Spanish class to volunteer one hour per week to converse with small groups of SIP students. This solution benefits both the elementary and intermediate students.

Every term, I refine the SIP by revising some of the instructional materials and by experimenting with the weekly schedule to make the program operate more efficiently. Currently, I am conducting a research study to identify characteristics of a good SIP learner as opposed to those of a poor SIP learner. The goal of the study is to help students decide at the beginning of a term whether they should enroll in the self-paced program or the classroom track. My procedures are as follows: In the fall term 1980, I administered the short form of the Modern Language Aptitude Test by Carroll and Sapon (The Psychological Corporation, 1958) to all SIP students. They also completed two questionnaires: one on their preferred learning styles and one on their feelings about learning foreign languages. I will correlate each student's scores on these three instruments with his/her final grade in the course. Every term, I will repeat these procedures with students who are new to the program.

Based on my observations of good and poor learners who have enrolled in the SIP in the past two years, I would guess that a partial profile of a good learner might look like this:

-has an above-average language aptitude score on the MLAT.

-is willing to devote more than 10 hours per week to studying Spanish.

-frequently practices Spanish outside of class.

-is highly motivated to learn Spanish.

-disciplines self very well.

-has a very positive self-image.

-has a very good command of English grammar.

-received very good grades in any previous foreign language course.

-has a specific reason for studying Spanish, especially if it relates to the student's career goals.

INDIVIDIUALIZING INSTRUCTION IN A NON-INDIVIDUALIZED CURRICULUM: SPANISH COMPOSITION

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Introduction

"INDIVIDUALIZED" UNDOUBTEDLY MEANS SOMETHING DIFFERENT to everyone who uses the word. For the purposes of this paper it will be helpful if we take as broad a construction of the term as possible. For example, for me it is perfectly possible to individualize instruction while addressing an entire class of students. Individualization of instruction means that you, the instructor, have diagnosed a specific need on the part of an individual, and that you are devoting your time and attention to filling that need. If the same diagnosis is valid for two students, you can meet with both of them together to sort things out. Obviously, then, if an entire class shares a given need and you address it in a classroom situation you have not ipso facto abandoned your commitment to individualizing instruction even if you are doing exercises on ser and estar out of a grammar book.

At the same time, however, if you are working with a class on the material covering ser and estar in your textbook only because the syllabus says that on or about 3 November you will teach Chapter Ten (for the reason that it immediately follows Chapter Nine and precedes Chapter Eleven), even though you may be involved in exactly the same activity as just described above, your commitment to individualizing instruction is non-existent. In a word, then, individualization of instruction is not uniquely definable in terms of a collection of particular techniques; if one were to observe a class, in fact, it might be impossible to be certain at any given moment whether the instructor were individualizing instruction or not. This is merely to remind us that all gold does not necessarily glitter.

Let us agree that a teacher is individualizing instruction whenever he addresses himself directly to a student or group of students who he knows have a particular need, with the desire to speak to that need and satisfy it. Under this definition, individualization is synonymous with student-centered instruction, and whether the immediate audience is one or more than one student need not be an issue.

Student-centered instruction

The most obvious companion of a need to individualize instruction, that is, to make instruction student centered, is the heterogeneity of our classes. At New York University, for example, at the most elementary level of instruction we find in the same classroom students who are beginning the study of Spanish, and also students who can converse in Spanish with astonishing fluency and creditable precision as well. At the intermediate and upper levels of language courses, and also in literature courses I would guess, it is common to find a mix of students, some of whom began their university-level study of Spanish perhaps only a year before, others who have spent a summer or more living in a Spanish-speaking country, and still others who are native speakers of Spanish.

Heterogeneity is perhaps at its peak at the intermediate level, since students bring with them not only their own individuality, but also the stamp of earlier instructional experience. In an intermediate composition class we find students who have had an audio-lingual background mixed in with students having a more traditional, writing-oriented background. The individualizing techniques that I am about to describe make it possible to teach your class to the benefit of all your students. I am happy to say that these techniques are thoroughly tested, and are now in use in at least four universities.

In simplest terms, I am going to tell you briefly how to set up and use an objective, manageable scoring system for compositions which, when combined with a straightforward record-keeping device, allows you to tell at a glance how well any individual or any entire class is doing, where each person's or class's problems lie, and what progress is being made toward clearing up the problem.

The scoring system works as follows: No corrections as such are written on the student's paper. As you notice each error, you indicate its location and type by a convenient symbol on the paper, and return the composition to the student. He in turn locates each error and corrects it. When he has corrected all of his errors as well as he can, he makes a clean copy and resubmits the composition to you.

Identifying error types

Although students' mistakes in writing are infinitely variable, experience shows that they fall into a fairly small number of classes, or "error types." For example, we may not know exactly how our students will run afoul of some subjunctive constructions, but we know that they will find a way. The scoring system requires that we make a list of these error types, and assign each one either a fixed or a variable point value. Each error type is then given a correction symbol, which is all the student sees on his paper. For example, "M" can indicate an error in "mood," and can work as well if a subjunctive

has been used instead of an indicative (*No me dijo si viniera o no) or vice versa (*Cuando viene tu hermano yo se lo diré). The only limitations on the choice of correction symbols to represent error types are that they be easy to understand and remember, and that they be unambiguous.

Representative correction symbols

Since each correction symbol represents a broadly-defined error type, care must be taken to make the level of abstraction appropriate to the level of the individual student writer. In general, the lower the level, the narrower should be the range of errors covered by any given symbol. Advanced students can do with a very broad symbol, such as "Ag," which covers all matters of Agreement. Intermediate students profit more from a narrower breakdown of this error type such as "Nag" for "Noun/adjective Agreement" and "Sag" for "Subject/verb Agreement." The following list shows some additional examples of error types, and their associated correction symbols that are appropriate for use at the intermediate level:

GN	Gender of the noun is wrong.
GP	Gender of a pronoun is wrong, with respect to its antecedent.
O	A conjugation error, or some other morphological error associated with a verb paradigm. *piensaba; escribido.
F	A morphological error involving a non-verb. E.g., *cortésamente; tres o cuatras muchachas.
NE	No Existe. A made-up lexical item, usually based on English. E.g., *la aborción, en facto.
S/E	Ser/Estar. Change ser to estar, or vice versa.
Prim	Preterite/Imperfect. Change to the other one.
T	Any tense error other than "Prim."
R	Reflexive. If reflexive, make non-reflexive, and vice versa.
M	Mode. If subjunctive, make indicative, and vice versa.
V	Vocabulary. Student has missed a word he should have known. E.g., Me *pidió donde yo vivía.
D	Dictionary error. Differs from "V" in that the student probably had to look the word up, and made the wrong choice out of several entries. E.g., *Reggie tiró su murciélago or Mi jefe es un *patín barato. (The

difference between a "V" and a "D" is often a judgment call.)

X Any error for which a correction symbol hasn't been stated, provided that the student can be reasonably expected to spot it and make the correction himself.

Assigning point values to error types

Weighted point values for error types are a good way to let your students know where your own priorities lie. Values can be assigned to errors according to any number of criteria. One might take essentially structural criteria as primary, and assign maximum value to areas in which negative transfer from English is at its most pernicious. That is, one might weight those areas most different from English as the most important: subject/verb agreements, matters of grammatical gender, subjunctive versus indicative mood, etc. On the other hand, one might take success at communicating an idea as the prime criterion. As the research of Guntermann[1] and Chastain[2] shows, the value assigned to any given error type would shift dramatically.

Point values for error types should change as the course progresses. Naturally enough we expect greater precision in an area that has been worked on in class or during tutoring time. It is even possible, and entirely reasonable I might add, to assign the same error type different values for different students in the same class. This is compatible with the raison d'être of weighted symbols: not all errors are equally important, from either a grammatical or a communication perspective. It also further individualizes instruction in that the teacher-student exchanges are even more closely tailored to each student's own strengths and weaknesses.

Active correction process

The scoring system under discussion depends for its success on an "active correction process," in which students take on the responsibility for correcting their own errors once these have been pointed out. The reasons for preferring an active correction process over the more traditional practice of having you, the teacher, laboriously correct each mistake are too many to mention in detail. The most important advantage of an active correction process is that it exposes the student yet another time to the foreign language. Importantly, when faced with a correction-coded paper, only the individual student knows whether or not any given error was a slip of the pen, or whether it represented a true learning problem for him. If you hand back a corrected paper, the student will check his grade, probably grumble a bit, mumble "Oh yeah, I guess that's right," and think no more about it. By involving the student directly in the revision of his own work you in effect force him to diagnose his own status with respect to each error type found in his work. He then

must take the steps necessary to treat his own condition: a resolve not to be so careless in the future, some self study and review, a question to be asked at the next class meeting, an appointment with you for some serious reteaching, et cetera.

Recording student/class progress

As we have just seen, the careful use of correction symbols for errors in student scripts is itself a technique that raises the level of individualization. The maximum advantage, however, is realized when student and class performance over time can be visualized. This involves a comprehensive yet elementary record-keeping device which is arrayed in the form of a matrix. By listing the error type correction symbols vertically and the students' names horizontally we create a matrix in whose cells we can record data for each error type for each student. Each vertical column will then show a Student Performance Profile (SPP) for each sample of writing. Each horizontal row will show a Class Performance Profile (CPP) for each error type.

Table I suggests a number of interesting SPPs. Reading vertically, we can tell at a glance that probably Adams and Erdle are wasting their time in this course, although for very different reasons. Cable, in spite of his "D" based on a score of 66%, shows great promise: virtually all of his errors are likely due to carelessness or sloth, except for the Prims. You make a mental note to assign him extra work that will require him to exploit the difference between the preterite and the imperfect. Fiske, again in spite of his grade, also shows promise if he can just discipline himself to learn irregular verb forms, and to use his dictionary with a bit more discretion.

As we look horizontally at the emerging CPP, we note that no matter what the syllabus says, or what we had previously planned, the next class must be devoted at least in part to a review of the preterite and the imperfect. The CPP also shows that students need to relearn their irregular verbs; probably a verb quiz should be scheduled for the near future. It also looks as though you will have to design a dictionary exercise--perhaps in the form of a classroom game--that will show the students how to choose among multiple translations of a single lexical entry. Do we also conclude from the CPP of Table I that our students miraculously understand the usage of the subjunctive? Alas, the most probable explanation for the lack of tallies across the "M" row is that the assigned topic simply did not lend itself to the kind of thoughts best expressed in the subjunctive.

Correcting and organizing SPPs

Each matrix of error type versus student names contains an enormous amount of information, but even so it is limited. In a sense, it is like looking at a photograph of an experience. A different perspective is available if we see a movie, however. To

Table 1. Sample Matrix

	ADAMS	BROWN	CABLE	DOWNE	ERDLE	FISSEL	Total
Sng 3	//		/				3
Nag 3	////	/	/				6
GN 3	///			/		/	5
F 3	//		/				3
NE 3	/		//			///	6
C 1-3	1,3,3	3,3	3,3			3,3,3,3,3	12
S/E	1,2	2					3
Prim 1-2	2,2,2,2,2,1	2,2,2	2,2,2,2	2		2,2,2,2,2	19
T 0-1	0.1	0		//		1,0	7
D 1	///	//	//	/		///	11
Ref 1	//					/	3
M 0-1			/				2
GI 1-3	//		//			//	6
X 1-2	1,2,2,2			1		2,1	7
+							
Points off	-71	-19	-34	-9	-0	-47	
Grade	F	D	D	A	A	F	
Rewrite							

make a continuing record of a student's progress, all that is necessary is to keep a matrix that summarizes his performance on each writing task in terms of the total from each cell in the whole-class matrix. See, e.g., Table II. Such a matrix lets you know where progress is being made, where problems still exist, and where extra attention to each student is indicated. SPPs are important not only to you as a grading aid, but also to the individual student as a study guide. Each student should be aware of his SPP at all times, and should be given a copy of his SPP, or some other statement of his progress, before each major evaluation, e.g., the midterm and final examination. By looking at a statement of his own performance the student can make the most of his available study time. His motivation is improved by knowing that what he is studying is exactly what he should be studying, and there is no psychological trauma over trying to out-guess his instructor about what will or will not be on the final. He knows where his own shortcomings lie, and thus can get maximum mileage out of his study effort.

Table III shows an abbreviated Class Performance Profile. CPPs are not as transparently informative as are SPPs, because they can be skewed by a single student's performance. Nevertheless, they do reveal class trends if they are interpreted carefully. For this reason, CPPs are perhaps most valuable in assessing the status of the class on each writing exercise (the "total" column in Table I). It is possible to see immediately if the totals for any error type are fairly evenly distributed across the whole class, or are due to a single student who is writing considerably below the level of his classmates.

Recapping the cycle of student/instructor activities

At the beginning of the course the instructor distributes to the students a list of the correction symbols that will be used, with examples of each. Students keep this sheet throughout the course, referring to it where necessary. As soon as the class population stabilizes, the instructor puts the matrix of correction symbols and students' names on a ditto and makes copies enough for all of the compositions his students will write.

There are a number of steps involved in the production of a final version of each composition topic. The student first writes a composition on the assigned topic. He hands it in to the instructor, who reads through it, writing in correction symbols as he goes. These are usually written in the left margin, although the instructor may also underline or circle the actual error. Correction symbols for discrete errors in a single line are separated by commas. Multiple errors that coincide in one form are separated by a hyphen. For example: *El me dijo que salgara sus llaves en el cajón ('He told me that he left his keys in the drawer') gets a "V!" for vocabulary, an "M" for the wrong mode, and an "F!" for an incorrect verb form. Thus, in this case, the left margin would have "V!-M-F!" as a single entry, and the scoring would reflect three errors, not one.

Table II. Abbreviated Student Performance Profiles (SPP)

ADAMS

	Theme I	Theme II	Theme III	Theme IV	Theme V
Sag	2	1	2	1	1
Nag	4	5	2	3	3
GN	3	4	3	3	3
F	2	3	3	1	2
NE	6	1	5	6	6
Prim	6	1	5	6	6

CABLE

	Theme I	Theme II	Theme III	Theme IV	Theme V
Sag	1	0	0	0	0
Nag	1	1	0	0	0
GN	0	0	1	0	0
F	1	1	0	0	0
NE	2		0	0	0
Prim	4	0	3	2	2

Table III. Abbreviated Class Performance Profiles (CPP)

	Theme I	Theme II	Theme III	Theme IV	Theme V
Sag	3	2	2	1	1
Nag	6	6	2	3	2
GN	5	4	3	4	3
F	3	5	4	2	2
NE	6	2	0	0	0
Prim	19	4	17	14	12

As you "correct" and score each paper, you record the scoring in the cells of the master matrix. In a typical composition of about 300 words, recording the errors in the matrix adds about two minutes or less to the task. But the time you have saved by not writing in corrections is more than accounted for, and you come out ahead overall by a considerable margin. In addition, you have something valuable to show for your time: the columns of your completed matrix show you immediately each individual's problems, while the rows reveal shared difficulties. The latter guide your class lesson planning, the former aid the students in focusing their attention on real problems.

The scored compositions are returned to the students whose next step is to correct the errors that you have indicated with correction symbols. At the beginning of the next class the students hand in both their rewrites and their original (scored) compositions. There is a place on the master matrix to indicate that a student has completed the rewrite. You might want to put some corrections on the rewrite, though it should be largely correct. The original and the rewrite are then returned to the students for their own use.

It is important to have students rewrite the whole composition, rather than just correct the original. First, the student in preparing for an examination can review his originals and see if he can recognize what his mistakes were. He checks himself against the rewrite. Second, the complete rewrite obliges the student to pass through the material as a whole a second time, thereby doubling his exposure to the language. Finally, when the course ends each student has a significant number of well-written compositions from which he can study with confidence, knowing that what he has written is correct.

Conclusions

I have presented, albeit in skeletal form, a system for individualizing instruction in an intermediate Spanish composition class, even when the curricular model and methodology in use are not overtly individualized. The system is extremely concrete and not at all hypothetical. It has been in active use now for five years, and continues to acquire new practitioners. The system has a number of advantages, the principal ones being the following:

1. Scoring is objective and quantified. Matters of grammatical accuracy are kept separate from elements of style or content, thereby facilitating a more sensitive grading system.

2. Research performed by John Lalande at Penn State University suggests that students' motivation, far from being lessened by having every writing error indicated (whether points are deducted or not), is improved. Lalande's research clearly suggests that students rise to the challenge to write accurately.[3]

3. Instructors who become familiar with the system save a great amount of time in their scoring and grading tasks.

4. Diagnostic needs are served as well as other evaluation needs.

5. The measures work as well in classes for Spanish speakers as in classes for English speakers.

6. A data base is provided for immediate use in course planning, syllabus construction and materials design.

7. Record keeping is reduced to an orderly system which allows one to note immediately the current status as well as the progress over time of any individual student.

8. Class-as-a-whole records can also be kept easily, and the status of an entire class at any time or across time is easy to determine.

9. The same system that is used throughout the course is also used on the important examinations. Students are not surprised by the introduction of a new format or of new scoring criteria on an exam.

10. Each individual, through the active correction process, is obliged to recognize and deal with his own mistakes. He can see which of them are momentary lapses, and which are truly learning problems.

11. SSPs allow students to take maximum advantage of their available study time; they concentrate on what they know to be their own areas of difficulty.

12. SPPs and CPPs allow instructors to take maximum advantage of their time. No effort is wasted preparing materials or discussions that are not needed by any particular student or class. More importantly, no valuable class time is wasted teaching material that does not represent a problem for a significant number of students.

These last two points represent the essence of individualization: all the techniques and activities of the system have their beginning and end in concrete needs as defined uniquely for and by individual students. Each student in effect designs his own program of study, while the instructor, by spending class time on shared, class-level needs and time with individuals on their own particular needs, provides truly individualized, student-centered instruction.

Notes

[1]Gail Guntermann, "A Study of the Frequency and Communicative Effects of Errors in Spanish," Modern Language Journal 62 (1978), pp. 249-53.

[2]Kenneth Chastain, "Native Speaker Reaction to Instructor-Identified Student Second-Language Errors," Modern Language Journal 64 (1980), pp. 210-15.

[3]John F. Lalande, II. "A Study of the Combined Effects of Student Error Awareness and Problem-Solving/Active-Correction Strategies on the Development of Writing Skills in the Intermediate Level German Classroom." Unpublished Ph.D. diss.: Penn State, 1980.

MEETING INDIVIDUAL CAREER-RELATED NEEDS IN HAWAII: A TOURISM-ORIENTED JAPANESE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

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Background

SINCE THE 1960's THE LANGUAGE requirement at educational institutions has been seriously questioned. Nationally, the 1970's were a period of hardship for the foreign language profession. At the same time, a tremendous effort was being made by teachers to make foreign language more relevant for students and more accountable to the public by developing new curricula and new courses. Chief among these efforts was an effort to explore foreign language programs for special areas. Language teaching for special purposes such as business and commerce, civil service, law, and travel and tourism was proposed and implemented in various institutions. The growing involvement of the United States in international business has stressed the importance of foreign languages. The report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies urged that special attention be paid to this area, stating that the United States was far behind other countries in producing businessmen and -women who are fluent in foreign languages. (The report stated, for example, that there were 10,000 English-speaking Japanese business representatives working in the U.S. but fewer than 900 Americans in Japan, only a handful of whom spoke Japanese.)

The University of Hawaii has a continuing commitment to the bicultural development of Japanese culture and language, as well as of other languages. Approximately one third of the state's population is of Japanese ancestry; consequently, a large portion of the University's students is of Japanese descent. Furthermore, tourists from Japan serve as a major source of revenue, and tourism is Hawaii's leading industry. Thus, meeting the Japanese language needs of the tourist industry is especially important in Hawaii.

At the Manoa campus of the University, approximately 1,200 students enroll in the Japanese language program each semester. While many of these students undertake the study of Japanese to fulfill college requirements, an increasingly large portion of students enroll in Japanese language courses as an aid in their future careers or current occupation.

With the aid of a University of Hawaii President's Curriculum Improvement grant, I have developed a tourism-oriented Japanese cultural and language curriculum during the past three years. I based

this effort on research I conducted in the community. The survey, "Assessment of Community Needs for Japanese Language Education in Hawaii," focused on four groups: local businessmen, pupils at private Japanese schools, their parents, and high school students. The results of the survey showed that:

1. An overwhelming majority--85%--of the businessmen involved in tourism indicated they served Japanese-speaking customers "all of the time."

2. While young people said parental pressure was their primary motivation for enrolling in private Japanese schools, their second reason was "to prepare for future employment."

3. Parents stated their main impetus for urging their children to undertake Japanese programs was "to understand and appreciate Japanese culture." Their second reason, echoing the students, was the desire for career advancement.

4. The high school students' reasons for Japanese language study included ancestral heritage and future career interests as well as satisfying the college foreign language requirement.

My findings indicated a need in the state for career-oriented programs combined with Japanese language education. These survey results paralleled the findings of a survey of University of Hawaii students in 1976, which showed that one of the most compelling reasons for a majority of students to study the Japanese language was the expectation of employment in the tourist industry. Japanese language teachers, too, are increasingly cognizant of the fact that a number of students in Hawaii study Japanese because the language has practical vocational value, in addition to ethnic and academic justification. According to statistics compiled by the Hawaii Department of Planning and Economic Development, for example, the aforementioned tourism has shown an impressive growth rate in recent decades. Japanese citizens comprise a significant percentage of all visitors to Hawaii. (In 1979, Hawaii hosted a total of 580,000 tourists.) Indeed, while the number of visitors from the U.S. mainland has declined in recent months, the number of tourists from Japan has significantly increased.

Curriculum development

A tourism-oriented curriculum needed to be formulated to help students develop proficiency in the primary communication skills of comprehension, speaking, and cultural understanding, and to meet the needs of those who require Japanese conversational ability in preparation for employment in tourism-oriented businesses. The course was to be tailored specifically to help college students planning to work in tourist-oriented businesses develop effective communication skills and interact more empathetically with those they serve by increasing their understanding and knowledge of the Japanese culture

and language. Upon completion of the course, the students would be expected to demonstrate speaking proficiency by being able to carry on limited conversations in working situations, show an increase in knowledge of Japanese grammar and sentence structure, and have developed cultural skills, showing increased empathy for and understanding of the Japanese people and their behavioral characteristics.

In developing the curriculum, the immediate obstacle to be overcome was the lack of a suitable textbook. None of the available textbooks were appropriate for this specialized classroom use. After surveying businessmen, working people and others, I developed Practical Japanese for the Tourism Industry and additional instructional materials, including tapes, to be used in a tourism-oriented Japanese conversation course.

Three components for teaching-learning

While the creation of instructional materials was a significant endeavor, attention also had to be focused on how to conduct the classes in order to maximize individual participation. The awareness of individual student needs recalls the following remarks by Papalia and Zampogna:

> The effective teacher may individualize instruction in an inflexible lockstep setting by grouping students on the basis of ability for some activities and on the basis of interest for other activities. If longer sequences are desired, the language curriculum should be adapted to the individual needs, interests, goals, and modes of learning of each student.[1]

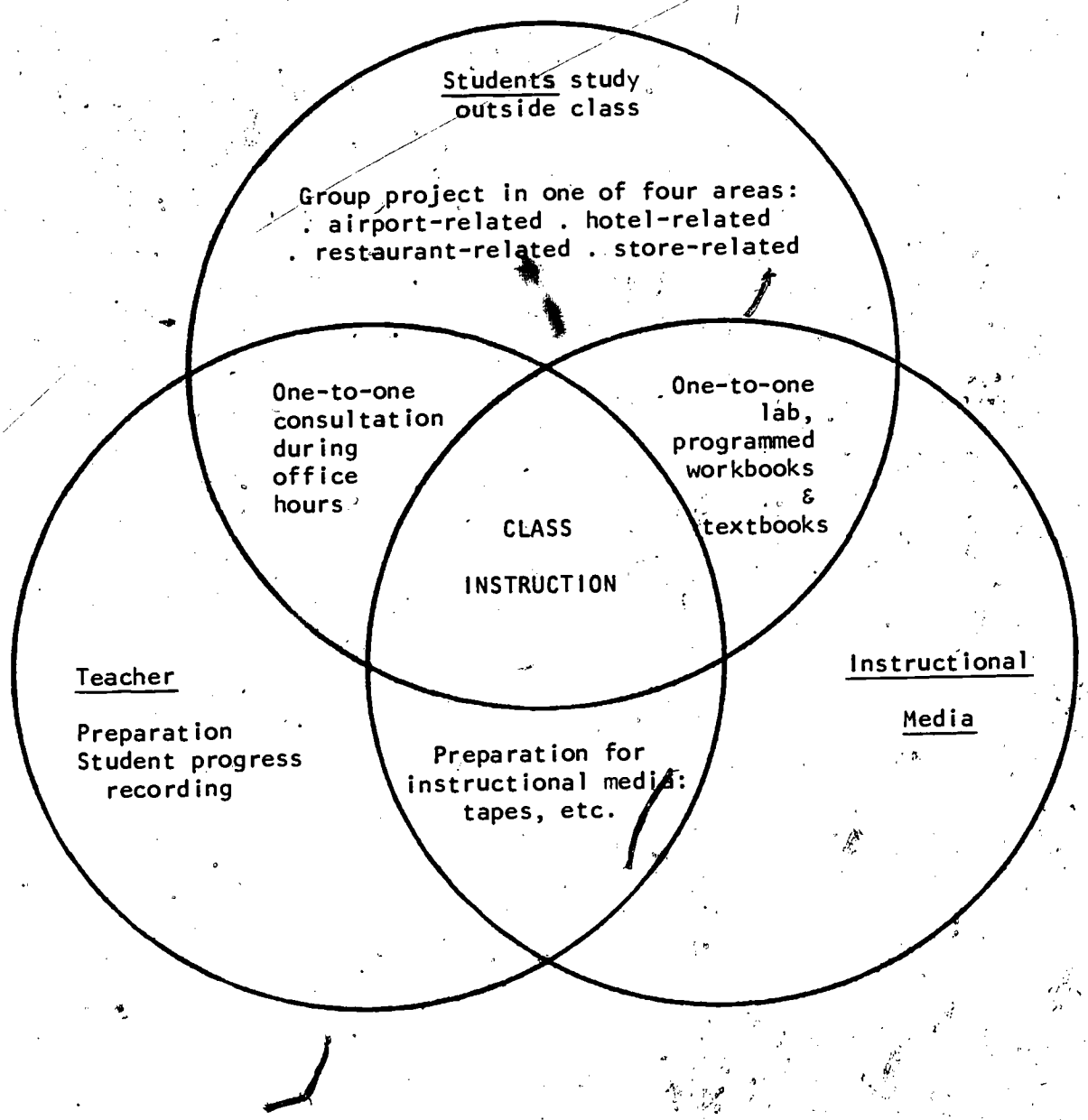
Consequently, the idea of individualizing instruction in a non-individualized curriculum was explored and modified to include a variety of learning activities and groupings, such as one-to-one, small group, and large group settings according to the purpose and type of activities.

In foreign language learning, students, teachers, and instructional media can be thought of as co-agents. Positive attitudes by students toward instructional media (e.g., textbooks, workbooks, and language labs) are dependent on how well the teacher coordinates all learning activities in relation to the objectives of each learning phase. The central role in the classroom will be shared by the teacher, students, and instructional media. The division of labor (i.e., Who does what task?) in terms of learning should be also considered.

The roles of the teacher, students, and media in terms of the responsibilities and interaction can be shown in the diagram in Figure 1. A clear understanding of the division of labor among the three components can provide a guide for study to the students at the beginning of the semester.[2]

FIGURE 1.

Responsibilities and Interaction of Teacher, Students and Media



Five phases of the learning process

The process of language learning can be viewed as a series of phases that need to be explored. Teaching strategies, learning activities, and educational media will be described in line with each of the teaching-learning phases. The teaching-learning phases are divided into five parts: presentation, explanation, drill, application, and evaluation. Figure 2 shows a schematic representation of the five phases of the learning process and illustrates the main learning activity for each of the phases.

FIGURE 2.

Learning Process, Groupings, and Learning Activities

PRESENTATION →	EXPLANATION →	DRILL →	APPLICATION →	EVALUATION
large group introduction of new lesson	large group & one-to-one	one-to-one lang. lab	small group role-simulation skits	one-to-one interview & large group quizzes
discussion	(programmed workbook)		interviews with tourists	

Types and purposes of the learning activities

1. One-to-one activity:

   a) Students are individually assigned to work on certain grammatical points such as noun modification sentence patterns in the programmed workbook.

   b) Students attend the language lab and respond to the questions asked on the tape based on the conversation they have heard. They complete an answer sheet and submit it to the teacher in the next class.

2. Small group activity:

   a) At the end of each lesson, students are divided into groups of two or three and work on skit presentations or perform simulated role playing in an assigned work situation. Sample role-playing skits are shown in the Appendix. After each group presentation, a discussion by the entire class is conducted.

   b) Students are divided based on interests into four topic areas: airports, hotels, restaurants, and souvenir shops.

For a group project, they conduct surveys of language and culture in their area of interest. They also meet Japanese visitors and people working in the tourism industry, and make oral reports to the class.

3. Large group activity

   a) General introduction of new lessons and discussion about cultural aspects are conducted with the class as a whole.

   b) Review exercises, worksheets and quizzes on vocabulary and sentence structures are also conducted with the class as a whole.

Summary

Results during the two years the tourism-oriented curriculum has been offered indicate that the Japanese cultural and language curriculum for tourism-oriented students satisfies student' needs. Students in this Japanese program are highly motivated, since they can apply what they have studied to their work. It is evident that comprehensive practical training in learning the Japanese language not only is sought by students, but also is desired by private industry. Course material could be expanded in the future to include additional areas such as information booths, transportation, and sightseeing situations. With the development of additional material, it would be feasible to extend the course material to two semesters, thus making the language training more comprehensive.

APPENDIX: Samples of role-playing situations for skits

Situation: As a hotel front desk clerk, help a guest who has just arrived and wants to register. The guest has made a reservation (Lesson 3, Hotel-related).

Situation: As a front desk clerk, help a couple who has not made a reservation. Ask their preference about type of room, location of room, cost of room, etc. (Lesson 3, Hotel-related).

Situation: (2 people) Conversation between a sales clerk and a customer. Directions: Use greetings, counters, prices, trying on, persuasion, etc. (Lesson 5, Store-related).

Situation: (2 people) A customer inquires about Hawaiian Plumeria perfume and French Chanel No. 5. The clerk explains the features of each (Lesson 5, Store-related).

Situation: (2 people) A customer asks about the Hawaii state sales tax. The clerk explains that the state adds 4 percent to the price of all merchandise as a tax and this money goes to the state for various purposes (Lesson 5, Store-related).

Situation: (3 people) A Japanese couple comes to a restaurant without a reservation. Since restaurant reservations are not normally made in Japan, the problem for the host or hostess is how to explain to the couple that they will have to wait, even though there are tables that are not being used at the time (Lesson 4, Restaurant-related).

Situation: (3 people) A honeymooning couple from Japan wants to try some of the tropical drinks that are popular in Hawaii, but they don't know what to order. As a waiter or waitress, explain to them the contents and taste of several drinks such as Blue Hawaii and Mai Tai (Lesson 4, Restaurant-related).

Situation: (2 people) As an operator, handle a guest's request for a wake-up call (Lesson 3, Hotel-related).

Situation: (2 people) You receive a letter from a friend in Japan telling you that he is coming to Honolulu for a two-week vacation. After he arrives, you call your friend on the phone and ask about his schedule. Then you offer to take your friend around Oahu and to the University of Hawaii campus for sightseeing (Lesson 2, Airport-related).

Notes

[1]Anthony Papalia and Joseph Zampogna, "An Experiment in Individualized Instruction Through Small Group Interaction," Foreign Language Annals, v. 5, n. 3 (March, 1972), p. 306.

[2]Muneo Yoshikawa, "Toward Integration in Language Teaching-Learning," The Hawaii Language Teacher, v. X, n. 1 (December, 1967), pp. 39-41.

PROGRAMMATIC INDIVIDUALIZATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES: A PROPOSAL FOR THE SMALLER COLLEGE

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LIKE NUMEROUS OTHER INSTITUTIONS ACROSS the nation, the University of Alaska, Fairbanks--the only campus in the state system offering degrees in foreign languages[1]--witnessed, at the beginning of the seventies, decreasing enrollments in foreign languages. The University responded, like most other institutions, with staff cutbacks. Soon, however, the untenable discrepancy between the ambitions of the past and the limitations of the present had become more than obvious.[2]

The solution, adopted five years ago after careful deliberation, is an academically challenging program with an essentially dialectic nature. Learning the language, and about the language, is considered the heart of the discipline: it strongly predominates. Out of eight courses regularly offered per language per year, seven are exclusively or primarily language courses. At the same time the heavy emphasis on language is systematically complemented by (a) the incorporation, into the program itself, of non-departmental support courses and (b) the careful selection and orchestration of learning materials according to the critieria of speech sample authenticity and literary-cultural value. The underlying program philosophy can be described as concentration-plus-expansion.

Instead of specialized degrees in French, German and Spanish, for example, only one degree--a B.A. in Foreign Language--is offered, with two languages required. Similarly the number of courses in each language is limited to the very core. On the other hand, the total number of credits required for a major is, paradoxically, considerably higher than for the usual foreign language degree.[3] In abstract terms, the fundamental principle of program structure is the rather complex equilibrium between rigidity and flexibility, requirements and choices. This balance operates on four levels or introduces four different types of what could be called "programmatic"--as distinct from the normally discussed "methodological"--individualization, or individualized learning (as distinct from individualized teaching). The success of such a model rests on the balance not only between the "must's" and the "may's" on each level, but also between any given level and all the others. The degree and nature of program individualization can best be described in terms of the relationships between what is imposed and what is optional.

Level one

The very first level of program individualization is that of language choice itself. The restrictions that the foreign language student is confronted with are (a) that he must study two languages, and (b) that the pool he can choose from contains not more than four languages: French, German and Spanish are possible first or second language choices, and Russian can be taken as a second language.[4] The first language requires 24 credits, the second, 13 credits above the 10-credit elementary courses. Within those confines, any combination is possible to accomodate the particular needs and preferences of the individual student. Most adhere to traditional patterns combining, for example, French and German, German and Russian, Spanish and French. But there is nothing to prevent a student from taking, let's say, Spanish as his first language and as his second, Russian. Many of our students have quite firmly decided which language(s) they want to learn before they declare a major.

The department has resisted the temptation, and occasional pressures from administrators, to reduce the number of languages offered, out of the conviction that student enrollment in the remaining ones would not increase. On the contrary, the language pool should be widened by the inclusion of Japanese, currently a two-year program, as a second language. (A recently concluded student exchange program with a Japanese university is an important step toward making this a reality.) Another possibility is to make more and better self-instructional language programs available. At this moment, the department is drawing up plans to convert the traditional teaching-oriented lab into a learning-oriented multi-media foreign language center with cassette players-recorders, filmstrip-cassette player units, a videotape viewer, a computer terminal and foreign magazine display and reading area. These new facilities could help to enlarge the pool of available second languages. For example, Latin or Chinese could thus be added, languages in which the department has already been offering occasional courses in the recent past.

Level two

The second level of program individualization provides the student, once his language choice is made, with the basic alternative between a liberal arts option and a career-oriented option. This choice and the individual flexibility it implies does not, it should be pointed out, affect the quantitative aspects, i.e., credit requirements, nor the qualitative aspect, i.e., course composition, of the language training itself. The language curricula, as the core of the major program, remain the same. What this choice affects is rather (a) the whole area of background-related requirements, which represents the third level of individualization, and (b) the objectives and learning materials of four individual study courses, which repesent the fourth individualization level.

Level three

On the third level of individualization, the equilibrium between the rigidity of program requirements and the flexibility of the student's choices can be conceptualized in terms of the relationships between discipline-related and background-related requirements. The requirements relating to the first and second language are rigidly fixed. The program does not contain mutually competing or substitutable courses, and each semester only one basic course is offered per level: one elementary (I in the fall, II in the spring), one intermediate (I and II, respectively), and for the upper division one advanced language (fall semester) or one fourth-year literature/civilization class (spring semester).

The background requirements, on the other hand, offer the student considerable flexibility. Certain courses or disciplines that are considered particularly useful for the foreign language student, or supportive of the foreign language field of study, are built into the foreign language program. Under both the liberal arts and the career option, for example, the introductory course in linguistics (3 credits) is required. Beyond that, the career option makes no further specific requirements: the student is free to form a completely individualized package of courses as long as two minimum conditions are met. One is quantitative: a minimum of 21 credits must be earned; the other is qualitative: the package must form a whole, the coherence, relevance and career application of which can be demonstrated to the satisfaction of the advisor. Relevant fields which open up attractive careers include, for example, business administration, social work, nursing, justice, journalism, education, as well as law, engineering, and potentially all the natural or social sciences. For a given individual, a very unusual combination between foreign languge and a career-preparatory course of study may make sense.

The liberal arts option, on the other hand, implies a more structured framework, yet does not eliminate the possibility of individual choice. Half of the background requirements, i.e., 12 credits, represent specific courses considered by the department to be essential to the support of a broad-based major. (In addition to Linguistics 101, three courses in a highly structured Humanities program are required, namely the two introductory classes, Hum. 201 "Unity in the Arts" and 202 "Unity in the Sciences", as well as a fourth-year course called "Dimensions of Literature.") Another six credits must be taken in literature courses other than those pertaining to the student's major. The justification for this requirement is twofold: it broadens the student's perception of the variety of methods in literary analysis and of standards of evaluation, and it helps to fill the historical space around the national literature represented by his major field. Lastly, the liberal arts option requires the student to take two major-supportive courses in history, history of art, geography, or philosophpy.

It would be erroneous to view the background-related requirements as nothing more than a stopgap measure, a reaction to staff cutbacks

and the elimination of specialized courses. The background requirements represent a deliberate attempt to end the "battle for bodies" which poisons the atmosphere in many smaller institutions, to benefit from our colleagues' expertise, and on a more philosophical level, to put into practice the conviction, so often conjured yet so often betrayed in academe, that the liberal arts are indeed integrated and interdependent.

Level four

The fourth level of programmatic individualization is that of the core program structure itself. Out of the twelve courses listed in the catalog for each of the three principal languages, four are individual-study classes. These courses are special-skill oriented. They are regularly scheduled and fully built into the program. On the second-year level, for example, each spring semester there is "288: Reading French (or German or Spanish or Russian)." Besides developing the reading skill itself and introducing the interested student to modern literary texts, this course usually helps him to make considerable progress in his speaking ability since he must give oral reports in the target language. On the third-year level, "387: Semantics and Vocabulary Expansion" is offered every other fall. Its objective is threefold: (a) to develop the student's understanding of basic semantic and lexicological concepts and techniques of analysis; (b) to furnish him the practical tools of systematic vocabulary acquisition; and (c) to make him learn between 800 and 1100 new words. Alternating with 387 is "487: Translation of French (or German or Spanish) Texts" which is offered also in the fall semester. It is designed to (a) have the student practice his language skills on a variety of more or less advanced texts translating from the target language into English and vice-versa; (b) lead him beyond grammar into stylistics; and (c) introduce him to a special skill that could open up a professional career. Both the vocabulary expansion and the translation courses represent undoubtedly two of the most neglected, yet extremely important areas in foreign language pedagogy. The fourth individual-study course, "488: Senior Project," is offered for graduating seniors "As Demand Warrants." It stands out from the other three courses because it is less a course than a comprehensive exam extended over the entire semester. The student is expected to demonstrate, on a topic chosen by him and approved by the department, what he can do with his principal language or both his languages. In its general thrust similar to a thesis course, the senior project is not, however, limited to expanded term papers. The range of potential topics is kept wide open.

Unlike many ad hoc independent study classes, these courses not only have precise objectives but also follow a clearly definable instructional format which includes a weekly conference with the instructor and specific assignments. Their most salient feature is obviously the high degree of individualization in the learning process with respect to the materials to be studied and to some extent with respect to the methods and approaches to be applied.

The course syllabus theoretically varies with every student.[5] In its concrete form it results from the interplay between the student's needs, wishes and degree of proficiency on the one hand, and the instructor's experience and perception of academic standards or program needs on the other. The latter assures curricular stability, continuity and comparability as well as a certain minimum breadth of learning: students are generally discouraged from pursuing only one line of interest. In the reading or the translation course, for example, the instructor will insist that the student, instead of working on one preferred type of text (for example, legal documents, ballads, or journal articles on political events), broaden his proficiency by tackling at least three different kinds of texts. Similarly, the person enrolled in the semantics and vocabulary expansion course will not be permitted to concentrate entirely on one lexical area (e.g., "the terminology of architecture" or "adjectives" or "German loanwords in Russian") or on only one method of expansion (e.g., the word-family approach). The fundamental objective of the program is to achieve an academically and pragmatically convincing balance between breadth and depth in knowledge, skill and experience.

Programmatic individualization: A summary

As a summary of the preceding discussion, it can be said that the three most important assumptions underlying this particular program model are as follows: (1) An assumption about language, namely that language is man's most versatile tool: the program does not lead, like a funnel, inevitably or even predominantly to the literary scholar's erudition, the translator's craft, the tourist's ease of speaking, or the grammarian's precision of description. It leads to none of these in particular, but may lead to all, and many more. (2) An assumption about teaching priorities, namely that cutbacks in the teaching of language as such are suicidal: emphasizing culture or literary content (literature in translation) can increase student interest and, momentarily perhaps, numbers. But when achieved at the expense of language instruction, it may very well, in the long run, kill rather than cure. (3) An assumption about learning objectives, namely that the variety of potential uses of the tool "language" corresponds to, and ultimately satisfies, the variety of individual learning objectives: a program that teaches language both in depth and in width, and that sets stringent requirements yet allows considerable individual choice, does not necessarily appeal to those who just want to "pick up" a language. Such a program can attract and retain, stimulate and challenge those who are serious about learning another tongue: the future doctor or lawyer, the businessman or journalist, the scientist or musician, the teacher or diplomat, the seekers of careers or of the self, the freshman student, the active professional or the interested senior citizen.

Problem areas

If at a small college only one or two positions are available for each language, a limited but ambitious program runs the risk of intellectual inbreeding. The hiring of various, and varying, part-time instructors can be a remedy provided that there are enough full-time faculty to ensure stability and continuity, and provided that enough part-time faculty with the necessary qualifications can be found. Another option may be to establish a rotating visiting professorship in addition to the regular staff, or to find a native speaker assistant through an exchange program such as the one promoted by the Institute of International Education in New York. If absolutely no funds can be obtained for these, a judicious hiring policy must be adhered to. The objective of hiring ought to be to find and retain professionally versatile faculty who can provide instruction in more than one foreign language. The rather widespread need for versatility in the profession is evident to anyone who reads through the MLA job lists. Yet in a milieu which favors narrow specialization, and for many small universities which cannot offer the prestige or the pay of the Ivy League, this need is not easily met.

Another serious problem is routine: in a situation that is characterized by relatively high teaching loads (four course preparations and an average of 12 to 14 credits per semester), a limited total number of courses, and the absence of research-oriented specialized classes (which among other purposes serve the faculty by providing outlets for special interests), routine is a real danger. Routine without simultaneous professional development and progress smothers the professor's and his students' enthusiasm and eventually the program. Routine can be somewhat alleviated by frequent change of topics, approaches, and/or materials that is part of the philosophy of programmatic individualization.[6] But ultimately the answer lies undoubtedly in the general quality and attitude of the faculty.

Advising, too, is critical. The foreign language faculty must be willing to give freely of their time and to "individualize" their advising in order to make programmatic individualization work. This is particularly true when guiding career-option students through their choices. It is good practice to encourage these majors to have a second advisor, a faculty member in the other field. Generally speaking, close cooperation with other departments and colleagues is a great asset, but it cannot always be taken for granted. Without some form of cooperation, the concept of background requirements or of sharing expertise will not succeed as well as theoretically it can.

Finally, it should be mentioned that the high number of credits required under this program may scare more students away than the quality of the degree attracts. The catalog must make clear, for example, that most background-related credits are applicable to general degree requirements, too. In addition, a special advanced placement bonus credit policy may be adopted to encourage and reward students who continue, at the college level, previous foreign language studies.[7]

Conclusion

A program model such as has here been discussed is not an easy, quick-fix solution. It will not turn a difficult situation around overnight. It demands from administrators patience, and from faculty and students, serious commitment. But given patience, commitment and hard work, it will deliver, within the framework of multiple limitations, what it promises: to the university a curriculum that, intellectually challenging and academically sound, assumes its role and responsibility at the heart of the Liberal Arts; and to the student a good, solid basis for developing mastery in the use of a key that opens a thousand doors--another language.

Notes

[1]The University of Alaska, Fairbanks is the oldest unit in the statewide system. It is a predominantly residential campus with approximately 3000 full-time students. It is strongly oriented towards research in the natural sciences. The Department of Linguistics and Foreign Languages has currently 5 full-time positions and is part of the College of Arts and Sciences with about 100 full-time faculty. Since 1971 there have been no undergraduate and few graduate foreign language requirements.

[2]In 1974 when the present program was under discussion, the catalog listed 36 courses for French, including some on the graduate level. In 1975, staffing had been reduced by more than 40% from the 1971 level, to the present 1 full-time position per language/discipline.

[3]First language: 24 credits beyond the first year, plus second language: 13 credits beyond the first year for a total of 37 credits excluding (or 57 including) beginning classes; plus 24 in background requirements for a grand total of 61 credits (or 81, respectively).

[4]The Russian program is a three-year program; it is also part of a Russian Studies curriculum.

[5]In practice, working in small groups of two or three students is encouraged whenever it promises good results, especially in the translation class. Also, in the semantics course, a group-taught introduction to theory usually precedes the individualized learning phase. Most individual-study courses have between 3 and 6 students.

[6]Varying topics are explicitly announced in the catalog for "432: Studies in French (or German or Spanish) Literature and Civilization."

[7]The explanation of the policy in the departmental brochure (1979) reads as follows: "Upon successful completion (Grade C or higher) of the course in which he/she was placed, the student will receive credits for that course and, in addition, for the two immediately preceding prerequisite courses, if any, unless he has received university credit for these already. A native speaker may not receive credit for 101 and 102."

INITIAL IMPLEMENTATION OF INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION AT GALLAUDET COLLEGE

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BEFORE DISCUSSING THE PROCESS BY which Gallaudet initiated individualized instruction in French, some background information on the college is in order. Gallaudet is a four-year liberal arts college located in Washington, D.C., with approximately 1100 undergraduate students. The liberal arts focus of the institution has been somewhat modified by the addition of a number of pre-professional programs, but the commitment to the liberal arts remains strong and is reflected in strong distribution requirements in the humanities, social sciences, and pure sciences. Two years of a foreign language are required of all students at Gallaudet, although it is not improbable that the requirement will be reduced or eliminated for pre-professional students within the next few years. By far the most unusual characteristic of Gallaudet, however, is its student body: over 95% of its undergraduates are hearing impaired, and a very large proportion of them are profoundly deaf from birth. All classes are conducted using the Simultaneous Method of Communication, which involves the use of speech, American Sign Language concepts, and fingerspelling.

As a result of the unique characteristics of our student body, foreign language teaching at Gallaudet exhibits some distinct features. The cycle of required courses focuses on reading and writing skills. Since very few deaf students are provided with foreign language instruction at the secondary level, almost all students initiate their foreign language study at Gallaudet. Most of the exceptions to this pattern are from Canada or other foreign countries or have become deaf relatively recently.

Another consequence of Gallaudet's uniqueness is that the foreign language departments do not encourage students to major in foreign languages, feeling that the inability of most students to acquire fluency in four skill areas puts them at too great a disadvantage in the job market and largely prevents them from pursuing graduate training in the field. On the other hand, the Romance Languages department has received a grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education for the purpose of developing majors in International Studies which would incorporate a strong foreign language component.

The department of Romance Languages began consideration of individualized instruction for many of the same reasons that lead

other institutions in this direction. The first was the enormous range of ability levels encountered in the classroom. This problem is accentuated at Gallaudet by the varying levels of English language skills which our students possess. Another problem was the difficulty of finding appropriate texts for classroom use, given the strong aural-oral focus of most currently-available texts. A third problem was the fact that, since the foreign language requirement generally occupies two full years, and since we have not found it practical to offer courses out of normal sequence (e.g., first-semester French during second semester), the student who for some reason failed to complete a semester on schedule sometimes found himself unable to graduate on time, or unable to continue with foreign language work without a year's hiatus. A fourth problem, which other colleges probably also face, is that of the visually handicapped student or mobility-handicapped student who cannot function well within the confines of a standard classroom situation.

The first problem which the department addressed directly was that of appropriate textbooks. After extensive review of existing materials, we faced the necessity of "simply" writing our own. The task turned out to be formidable and enormously time-consuming. A colleague and I worked on the text full time during an entire summer and in our spare time for two semesters. The resulting first-year text is a four volume text-workbook, constructed on principles which made it lend itself two years later to individualized instruction. The textbook is written in language geared for the non-native masterv of English typical of our students, and its goals in terms of vocabulary and grammatical complexity are comparatively modest. Each new grammatical concept is explained using approaches which seem to work with our students; the explanation is immediately followed by extensive written exercises in increasing order of difficulty, beginning with simple fill-ins and ending with translation of complete sentences or paragraphs from English into French. Answers to exercises are provided for all except the final level of difficulty, which is checked in class by the instructor in the regular classroom. In the individualized instruction sections, students have the answers to all exercises available. Each unit provides two self-tests, one on vocabulary and one comprehensive one on all new material in the unit.

After using this textbook for several years, we recognize many areas of insufficiency. The exercises could be much more imaginative, for example, and some modification in the order of introduction of certain structures is desirable. We have also realized that through the use of highly-structured presentation and sufficient drill, we can aim much higher than we previously thought in terms of both quantity and complexity of material. Grosso modo, the material works. It has also effected a substantial reduction in the frustration level of our students.

In Spanish, a similar textbook development project is underway and will soon be completed for first-year Spanish. Initially, one of the Spanish instructors developed a workbook patterned after the French text-workbook to accompany an existing Spanish text. After using the

workbook for two years, he decided to revamp his workbook to develop a self-contained text-workbook more nearly parallel to the French text.

With the major issue of appropriate teaching materials nearly, if imperfectly, resolved, the department confronted the other problems facing us: difference in student ability levels, and therefore in time needed to complete the program; inflexibility of our course sequencing; and the problems of the multiply-handicapped student. The time seemed right to experiment with individualized instruction. The decision was made to allocate one of seven sections of first year French to the individualized approach. My course load was reduced from four courses to three during the first semester of implementation. Tentatively, we assessed the appropriate teacher-student ratio to be the same as the regular classroom, which proved to be accurate. The individualized section enrollment was limited initially to 15, with the possibility of allowing students to transfer from one instructional mode to another when deemed appropriate by the instructors involved.

One of the first problems facing the introduction of a new instructional mode was screening of students. At pre-registration, which occurs at Gallaudet near the end of the previous semester, all students enrolling in French 101 were given an information sheet on the method and possible pitfalls, with particular attention to the issue of procrastination. A number of students admitted that they probably would have a problem with the approach and elected other sections, but a sufficient number seemed interested, even excited, about the concept to fill the one section easily.

The issue of supplementary materials required for the program was less complicated than it might have been because of the text already in use. I developed a checklist of required activities for the entire year, breaking down each chapter into appropriate segments. We opted for two quizzes per chapter plus three hourly tests--not notably different from the regular classroom scheoule--and instituted a minimum level of mastery of 80% accuracy before students could proceed to the next test. A file of three versions of each quiz and test was developed. Students received immediate feedback on their quizzes by having the instructor correct them on the spot, but were not allowed to keep the quizzes. Retakes were not limited, but a penalty factor was instituted for more than two retakes. In fact, it was very rare for a student to require more than one retake, perhaps because of the self-tests available in the text.

Other materials distributed to students included a general information sheet outlining the ground rules, and a copy of the detailed syllabus for the regular classroom sections which permitted students to monitor their progress. I kept my own checklist for each student, including a file of all quizzes and tests completed. Answers to exercises not included in the text were made available either in the classroom or in the library testing room. The testing room, available to any department on campus, was a substantial help in expanding the hours during which students could correct their terminal

exercises, although they were not able to get instructor assistance during these times.

One very real concern at the outset of the program was that of how much access time a single instructor would need to provide to accommodate 15 students. Initially, three hours per week of classroom access time were supplemented by an additional three hours per week of instructor office hours during which students in the individualized program were given priority. This proved to be sufficient. In the course of the first semester, the number of students in the program increased from 15 to 22 due to transfers from other sections on the recommendation of instructors. While there were occasional mild backups with students waiting to have quizzes corrected, these were relatively rare. Some other anticipated problems related to teacher time simply did not materialize. For example, we never encountered the situation of having to teach a complete lesson to a number of different students at different times, for, by and large, the text we are using is genuinely self-instructional.

In summarizing the initial approach to individualization of foreign language instruction at Gallaudet, it must be recognized that we have been quite conservative. No accommodation has been made, at this juncture, to genuine self-pacing: students may complete the course in less than the normally alotted time, but may not take more. In practical terms, this means that a student who does not complete the semester's work will fail unless there are extenuating circumstances justifying a grade of Incomplete (such a grade would have to be made up the following semester). A student who completes six of the eight units with an "A" average, however, may receive a passing grade (I have occasionally given a bright but lazy student the option of taking a "D" or an Incomplete, with mixed results). Departmental resistance to making it possible for a student to work more slowly than normal, doing two semesters in three, for example, is based on the observation that a need to do so is generally the result of behavioral rather than cognitive deficiencies, and the recognition that the option of extending the work would encourage many students to do so who would otherwise complete the course in good order. In a word, the department has perceived no real need for extension of time limits which cannot be adequately handled by the occasional and judicious granting of an Incomplete.

Gallaudet is now in its second year of individualization of French 101-102. The program has been expanded to offer two sections in the individualized instructional mode, and thus to accommodate 30-40 students, or some 20-26% of our enrollment in the course. In general, demands on intructor time appear to be roughly comparable to those experienced in the standard classroom approach. In one instance in which a student completed both semesters in one, however, we felt obliged to permit the student to continue with the second-year program in the individualized mode. Using the most structured materials we could find, but which were not totally compatible with our first-year materials, an enormous investment of instructor time was necessary to allow the student to continue. It would appear that the possession or

development of appropriate materials prior to their being needed is crucial to avoid placing excessive demands on instructors. This experience also made clear the need to provide individualization of the second year of the program as well, but the effort is being slowed by the fact that a second-year textbook has not yet been written for Gallaudet students.

An important part of program evaluation is the student success rate. With still too little data accumulated to warrant drawing firm conclusions, it can be said that those students who completed the course did so with a much higher level of mastery than those in the regular classroom; that is, average final grades were much higher for students in the individualized section. This result virtually imposes itself due to the 80% minimum competency requirement. It is difficult to compare the attrition and failure rates for the two modes of instruction, because the department has not kept records of the number of withdrawals from the regular classroom. Certainly procrastination was the single largest problem with the program and was the only reason for failure. The tendency toward procrastination was countered with moderate effectiveness by periodic issuance of firmly-worded notes from the instructor, copies of which also went to the students' academic advisers. Another approach which might help is some requirement that students attend on certain days, or on a certain day each week.

One of the most pleasant and immediately observable benefits of the program was the changed attitude of the students. While those in the regular classroom often approach quizzes with dread and a certain hostility, the attitude of students in the I.I. program is both more relaxed and more positive. Successful completion of a quiz or test is seen as a personal achievement for which the student feels able to take primary credit. This approach offers great promise in the areas of student attitude towards learning, student autonomy and personal responsibility, and self-esteem. This is particularly valuable at Gallaudet since many young deaf people are overprotected both by parents and educators and are thus pushed into patterns of dependent behavior.

For the atypical student, individualization of instruction offers a valuable option. I might cite as an example a student with cerebral palsy who had difficulty following the classroom activities and could not complete tests and quizzes within the time limitations. She became frustrated and depressed and would probably have failed the course, had she not switched to the individualized section: she then completed the course on schedule, with a hard-won B. Both for the gifted student bored by classroom repetition, and for the slower student embarrassed by his inability to perform before his peers, the method seems to work well. For the outgoing student who relishes classroom activity and interacton with peers, however, it is less appropriate. It has proved a boon to the department and to a number of students by enabling them to complete the first-year course out of sequence without needing a tutorial: such students simply attend whatever individualized course is in progress at the time; with the

materials already developed, it is no burden on the instructor to incorporate these students into the class.

In the next few years, Gallaudet's foreign language departments expect to continue to expand the individualized component of our programs. First year Spanish should be available by the fall of 1981; second-year French and Spanish will be added as soon as practicable. Methods must be developed to incorporate the use of visual media into the individualized program to enhance the cultural component. The development of an optional four-skills approach, however, for the benefit of the approximately 20% of our students who could profit from appropriate aural-oral instruction, will probably not use I.I. methodology. The reason for this is simple: our students cannot give one another accurate feedback on their oral skills. We may well move to augment the use of computer-assisted instruction in foreign languages: our Russian courses are already using computers, but their enrollment is comparatively small and the computer system at Gallaudet is presently overtaxed. (It is worth noting that the English language program at Gallaudet, which uses many elements of ESL instruction, makes extensive use of individualized instruction and computer-aided instruction.)

As an option, individualized instruction in foreign languages at Gallaudet has proved to be of considerable value to the department as well as to the students. I would like to recommend it as a possible approach to those of you who may encounter deaf students in your own institutions. Gallaudet would be more than happy to provide further information on foreign language teaching to deaf students to any college or faculty member wishing our assistance.

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN ARABIC AND ITALIAN AT OHIO NORTHERN UNIVERSITY

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A PERUSAL OF THE TABLE of contents of the Proceedings of the First National Conference on Individualized Instruction in Foreign Languages quickly reveals that a chronic problem remains with foreign language faculty at small, relatively isolated institutions: we are consistently frustrated in our attempts to offer any foreign language beyond the "big three," French, German and Spanish. With the exception of two institutions offering Latin, and specialized organizations like the Department of State and the Defense Language Institute, all conference reports in that volume were related either to large universities that have the resources to offer less frequently taught languages, or to smaller colleges that offer individualized instruction in "main line" languages. It is doubtful that the smaller colleges limit their individualized programs to French, German, and Spanish simply because they lack interest in other languages; rather it is very likely because they must utilize the expertise and interests of personnel already on the staff.

Admittedly, individualized instruction has evolved in order to improve instruction and to offer students alternative patterns of learning, and does not have as its primary goal increasing student access to the study of "exotic" languages. Nevertheless, even in small schools like Ohio Northern we do have student interest--albeit modest--in some of the less frequently taught languages; yet we are hard pressed to do anything about it. These days we generally may not entertain the option of adding faculty to offer standard courses to five or six students, regardless of their enthusiasm. The small number of students involved also precludes the use of part-time faculty, even if we could find them locally. This dilemma is well known to all in the profession, and one immediately recognizes the dreary pattern of frustration as we tell students we cannot provide what they want or need.

At Ohio Northern we have recently initiated a self-instructional format which allows us to offer courses in some of the less frequently taught languages. The method is not new, but perhaps as the problems we encountered are exposed, possible solutions may germinate in a group such as this. In 1978, the entire student body of 2,600 at Ohio Northern was surveyed to determine the level of interest in taking self-instructional courses in "unusual" foreign languages. The response was considerably more enthusiastic than expected, especially for Russian and Arabic. After appropriate discussion, the Department

of Foreign Languages decided to offer these two languages in the fall of 1979. The University Committee on Educational Policy agreed to fund the courses for two quarters on an experimental basis.

In format the courses are only partially individualized. Students work on their own with printed and taped materials, and meet two separate hours per week, as a group, with a native-speaking tutor. During these sessions students practice and drill on materials they have already mastered from the tapes. The course is self-paced only with respect to each student's application, not to the rate of coverage of the material. Financial considerations did not permit ...-to-one sessions with the tutor, nor unlimited student access to the tutor.

We immediately ran into trouble when we attempted to locate a native-speaking tutor for Russian. Neither Hardin County, with some 25,000 population, nor Allen County, with over 100,000, produced a single individual who could or would serve as tutor. (We were not seeking a person with a degree in Russian, only a literate native speaker.) We probably could have found someone in Toledo or Columbus, but did not have the funds for extra time and mileage costs. So the Russian courses were postponed until this fall (1980), when again we had to cancel for lack of a tutor. The Arabic courses were arranged more easily because there were some twenty Arabic-speaking students on campus, several of whom were willing to serve as tutor.

The Department was taken by surprise when we began to receive student inquiries about Italian. Italian had not even been considered because the survey had not indicated any student interest. Here again the search for a tutor almost failed; but we finally located a professor of geology at a neighboring institution who was willing to do the tutoring as a labor of love. The resultant course registrations were twelve in Italian and five in Arabic. Since we needed a minimum of three registrations per language, the Department decided to go ahead.

One of the five Arabic students withdrew soon after the first course began, leaving four, a tolerable size for drill sessions. However, the Italian students, now only eight of the original twelve, had to be split into two groups of four each. The high initial withdrawal rate was disconcerting, especially since detailed descriptive handouts had been given to prospective students. They had also taken the Modern Language Aptitude Test, and had had a private interview with the director. Every effort, including at times outright discouragement, was made in order to paint a realistic picture of what this particular instructional method entailed.

In the initial phase of the program, two quarters each of Italian and Arabic were given for a total in each language of eight quarter credits. The Arabic texts used were: Cadora, Phonology and Script of Arabic,[1] and Abboud et al., Elementary Modern Standard Arabic.[2] The Cadora book was covered in the first quarter, and in the second quarter students completed six chapters of the Abboud text. For

Italian we used Speroni and Golino, Basic Italian,[3] of which nine lessons were completed each quarter. Students took weekly quizzes to determine whether they controlled easily the grammatical structures. At the end of each quarter an outside examiner visited the campus and spent 30-45 minutes with each student in order to evaluate performance and assign final course grades. (The examiners in both Arabic and Italian are faculty members at The Ohio State University in Columbus.) All students received either A's or B's, except for one student in Italian who received two C's.

On the basis of final grades it would seem that the experiment was successful. However, we were unable to deal with a significant deficiency, namely, the lack of a cultural component in the course.

In the present courses our methodology, unfortunately, concentrated on listening comprehension and speaking. The only cultural elements in the Italian course were the reading selections after every fourth lesson, while the Arabic texts contained no specific sections on the topic. Moreover, it was virtually impossible to schedule regular non-drill sessions for tutor and students where cultural context might be discussed; even if it had been possible, we have no faculty members in the appropriate fields to be responsible for "quality control" in what essentially is a rather unstructured activity. Faculty in colleges of arts and sciences cannot afford to lose sight of the rationale behind a policy of requiring a foreign language for graduation, i.e., that more than the skill aspects of our professional endeavor appeal to the humanistic sensitivities of our colleagues in other departments. Periodically, as the question of graduation requirements reaches the floor of faculty meetings, we must explain carefully how we systematically include content as well as skill areas in the basic courses. If students elect self-instructional courses to fulfill the graduation requirement, we must provide no less for them than for those who elect the regular courses.

Fortunately, some of the individualized instruction programs already in place include a cultural component that goes beyond what is contained in the basic textbooks, e.g., the "sound/slide" series in Spanish used at the University of California-Davis. Such materials can serve as models which in turn can be modified and/or expanded to accompany the language portions of existing programs. Or, in the case of languages like Arabic, which as we taught it had no cultural component, a content module can be developed either to accompany the grammatical sequencing of the textbook, or to be used independently.

Notes

[1]Frederic J. Cadora, Phonology and Script of Arabic (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1974).

[2]Peter F. Abboud, et al., Elementary Modern Standard Arabic, rev. ed. (Ann Arbor: Univ. of Michigan, Dept. of Near Eastern Studies, 1975), I.

[3]Charles Speroni and Carlo L. Golino, Basic Italian, 4th ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977).

SELF-PACED LATIN AT BERKELEY

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SELF-PACED LATIN IS A relative newcomer to Berkeley. Our program was conceived as our departmental Committee on the Teaching of Latin searched for new and better ways to interest students in learning Latin. In 1974 self-paced language instruction at Berkeley was in its infancy: only K. Mueller in the German department had developed a fully integrated program in a beginning language. Other departments were on the verge of establishing programs, notably in Spanish and Italian. We in Classics talked with Mueller and after much discussion of 'pros' and 'cons' decided to give the self-paced method a try in Latin--little knowing, I might add, how long a road lay ahead.

First we tried to develop a philosophy of self-paced teaching in Latin. We looked at the experience of others who had implemented courses and saw that there seemed to be a common and pervasive problem: student procrastination in completing the course work. There seemed two directions in which we could go to solve this problem in the self-pacing approach: we could have followed the precedent of our colleagues in other departments and made strict (and progressively stricter) deadlines, thereby inhibiting the 'self-pacing' itself; or we could have put our confidence in the ability of mature students to discipline themselves and complete the work contracted for. Ultimately we decided that 'self-paced' should be taken at its meaning in the broadest sense, and we set out to construct a self-paced Latin program as flexible and truly 'self-paced' as possible.

Our goal as we began was simple: to interest more people in Latin. At Berkeley we offered a variety of ways to learn Latin: we hoped, nonetheless, by making available an auto-tutorial program, to reach out to those who found the regular offerings too boring, too rigid, too accelerated, too traditional, or too inconvenient for their schedules. Our targeted group was, therefore, those mature students who wanted to learn Latin but who found the familiar classroom situation unsatisfactory.

As you can well imagine all of this philosophical agonizing took some time. It was not until the summer of 1975 that I, with the aid of a University of California Instructional Improvement Grant, began to work with Robert Rodgers on materials for the course. That summer produced the first, dittoed, version of the Guide to Self-Paced Latin which, in its final form, some of you have already had an opportunity to examine. We tried the Guide out during 1975-76 and then I revised it in the summer of 1976 and again in the summer of 1977. The final version, with key, was ready only in 1978. We have used that version

with little change since.

In concept our plan is simple. We have written a supplementary book to accompany Wheelock's basic Latin text, Latin: An Introductory Course. The decision to base our material on Wheelock was made with some trepidation: Wheelock, as most of you probably realize, is an uneven book at best. There are lapses and omissions; the footnotes often contain more important information than the text; the made-up Latin sentences can be inscrutable while the selections from 'real' Latin tend toward the sententious--or, worse, the jingoistic and sexist. Nevertheless, we have found no other text which the department would prefer to use, so Wheelock is used in all beginning courses. By basing the self-paced Latin on Wheelock we can guarantee maximum flexibility for our students: they can shift out of or into the traditional basic Latin sequence with ease. This seems an important, even overriding consideration: we do not want students 'stuck' in the self-paced track and we do want the option of the self-paced course available to those who for one reason or another find in mid-stream that the normal Latin beginning course is unsatisfactory.

The supplementary material takes a variety of forms. A short excursus on the structure of Latin comes first in the Guide. This seems generally helpful to students since Wheelock's discussion is altogether too brief to be of much use. There is then a rather lengthy glossary of grammatical terms. By all accounts students today have a woeful lack of knowledge about grammatical categories and terms: the glossary was designed to help overcome this deficiency. There is an extensive 45-page series of explanations; grammatical/syntactical words in the body of the Guide are marked with an asterisk to indicate that the student can find more explanation in the glossary. In all candidness, however, I must confess that the glossary seems to be generally ignored by users of the Guide. Why? Probably because those who most need the grammatical material cannot follow a written explanation. This seems a harsh judgment--especially concerning Berkeley undergraduates--but my experience at least tells me it is a true judgment. If any of you are thinking of including an elaborate glossary in a projected self-paced Latin text, I would advise you to think again!

Following the glossary comes the Study Guide itself. Wheelock has been broken down into twenty sections, one for each week of the two-quarter (that is, 20-week) sequence. The twenty sections are grouped into eight units, one unit of study guide material for each unit of university credit earned in the course.

The individual sections are the heart of the Guide. For each section there is first amplificatory material pertaining to the chapters in Wheelock which the student is to cover. These notes are designed to supply the sort of ancillary material which a teacher might otherwise be expected to provide. There follows a drill covering the material just introduced. Wheelock desperately needs such drills and this part of the Guide has been most successful. Next comes aid in doing the "practice and review" sentences and sententiae

antiquae in Wheelock. Finally there is a "pre-quiz" which represents the exact format of the actual quiz over the section. A key is provided for checking the "pre-quiz"--and, indeed, there is a key in the Guide for all work covered in the Guide itself (but excluding exercises in Wheelock itself).

The procedure in the course is straightforward. A student buys Wheelock and the Guide. The student attends the first-and-only classroom meeting at which time the perils and blessings of the self-paced approach are fully set out. The student then contracts for the number of units desired: four per quarter is a full complement; a minimum of two must be taken (this to avoid taking on students who are solely in search of one unit to fill a study list). The procedure followed is well summarized in the handout which we give to students:

> Self-paced Latin is designed to provide thorough instruction equivalent to Latin 1 and 2, but within a flexible framework. Latin 14A and 14B provide the materials to learn Latin as quickly or as slowly as you desire, but at each stage "A" level work is required. Thus, flexibility is combined with mastery.
>
> Instructional procedures are varied. Basically, a student must master the material in Wheelock and in the Guide, and demonstrate this mastery by scoring at the "A" level on quizzes and tests. Tutorial sessions are available with the instructor when aid is required: tapes for chapters 1-15 are also available in the Language Laboratory which will give you practice in pronouncing Latin. The material itself is divided into eight units (four each quarter) and subdivided into twenty sections, each equivalent to one week's work. After you have completed a section you are quizzed on the material covered. Since you have a pre-quiz to prepare you for this quiz, you are expected to score at the "A" level on the quiz: should you not reach this level, you are required to take another equivalent quiz until you do. After this high level of proficiency is achieved, you may go on to the next section, where you will be quizzed again--and so on, until you are prepared to take a unit test. Upon receiving a grade of "A" on the unit test (again a pre-test is available for practice) you proceed to the next series of sections, the next unit test, and so on.

Notice the emphasis on "total mastery" learning. We think that the only way to insure a relatively high level of performance and to prevent the level of course work from degenerating is to require that all work be done at the "A" level. This is not as impossible as it sounds and causes little grumbling among the students. When students know they must get it right, they seem to do it. Although no penalty is exacted for failed quizzes and tests, a student soon realizes that he wastes his time by coming in ill-prepared and failing quiz after quiz or test after test. The "A" level mastery requirement seems to be most effective.

Berkeley's self-paced Latin program is staffed almost exclusively by teaching assistants. We hire about 12-14 TAs per quarter and two or three are involved in self-paced Latin. These TAs have a special office dedicated solely to self-paced Latin tutoring and testing. About 10 scheduled tutorial hours per week, plus special appointments, seem to meet the needs of the 50-70 students enrolled. The students are required to take the first quiz, covering Wheelock chapters 1-2, by the Friday of the second week of class: this is done to insure that students actually have some idea of what the class involves before they decide to stay enrolled. After this required quiz the student is on his own to set his schedule, although an 'ideal' schedule is provided in the Guide. The normal student then does his work and either drops off his exercises to be corrected or comes to an office hour to go over his work. For most students the quizzes take only 10-15 minutes and most pass the first form of the quiz. The quizzes and tests (which take 30-50 minutes) are graded before the student's eyes in order to make the most of the learning opportunity provided by immediate feedback on performance. The quizzes and tests are not allowed out of the testing room although students are welcome to return to consult old materials: the task of making up new evaluation materials is simply too great to be repeated frequently, so hanging onto old tests and quizzes is imperative to avoid cheating.

So far I have talked exclusively about the general setup of Berkeley's self-paced Latin program. I now would like to turn to an analysis of the instructors and the students involved. First, appropriately, the students.

Self-paced Latin was introduced at Berkeley in order to offer students a flexible means to learn the language. How effective has it been in meeting this goal? As far as numbers are concerned, I think we have done all right. Of the 300-400 students who take first quarter Latin during a given year, about a third take it self-paced. Of the 100 or so who take second quarter Latin about 40 take it self-paced. Obviously, a need is being met by the courses, at least in terms of raw figures. The students themselves seem genuinely enthusiastic about the courses--another good sign. In looking at self-paced Latin at Berkeley, however, one begins to perceive disquieting aspects.

First of all, many students take self-paced Latin for the wrong reasons: that is to say, far from a boundless yearning to learn the language, they sign up to pass a language requirement, or worst of all, to pick up a couple of 'easy' hours in order to fill their study lists. These students present a constant headache to the instructors: they are rarely seen, do not keep up on their work, do not take their quizzes and tests regularly, and then appear at the end of the quarter and try to cram five or ten weeks' work into three days. Their attitude is bad and so there is little reward in teaching them. Try as we will to warn off such essentially uninterested students at the beginning of the term, they still enroll, procrastinate, and create chaos at the end of the quarter.

Balanced against these disappointing students are those who are truly marvelous--if distinctly the minority. My favorite example is

the woman who completed both self-paced Latin introductory courses, passed the next course by examination, and was reading at the junior-senior level in two quarters (20 weeks)! She was the exception, to say the least, but others have completed the courses in the minimum time of 20 weeks and have gone on to perform well in later Latin courses. I polled our teaching assistants to see how they thought the self-paced students performed in later courses as compared to those who had come up through 'regular' Latin courses: one TA thought that the self-paced people were decidedly weaker in their grammar, but the others thought that the preparation through each method was about the same. About the same percentage of self-paced students go on to upper division work as do students taught traditionally--a mere 6%, hardly a figure to be proud of in any case. I think that it is safe to say that the self-paced students are trained, on the average, as well as those traditionally taught--but in each instance there is tremendous variability in success because of the factors of individuality involved. Parity is all we can claim for the self-paced approach: there is no evidence that the average student comes out of the self-paced courses better prepared than his fellow student in other Latin courses.

I turn now to the instruction in our self-paced courses. As I mentioned before, our faculty is far too small to handle the instruction in beginning Latin and still be able to retain optimal class size. Thus we use teaching assistants--graduate students in classics, comparative literature and ancient history--to staff most lower division offerings. Two or three TAs are assigned each quarter to self-paced Latin; in addition I teach a section one quarter each year. The reaction of the TAs to teaching self-paced Latin is universally ambivalent. In the survey I recently took, no TA expressed enthusiasm for the assignment, but, on the other hand, none rejected, in principle, the value and validity of the course itself. A curious situation therefore is apparent: while the TAs realize that an auto-tutorial course is effective and desirable for some students, at the same time they would much rather be in front of a traditional classroom.

One common TA complaint is that there is too much record-keeping. Each student has a "progress report" which must be kept up-to-date, and this seems to be an onerous task. But the basic consideration here seems to be human: the TAs think that a student learns more and better from a situation in which there can be classroom interaction between student and teacher and among the students themselves. The most often citeo specific advantage is that in the "live" classroom a teacher can explain such things as how to analyze and sight read a sentence much more effectively than can written aids such as the Guide. I strongly suspect an ego factor comes into play as well: the positive reinforcement and, too, feeling of power which come from the traditional "teacher" role in a Latin class appeal to the TAs who themselves feel powerless and negatively reinforceo most of the time in their careers as graduate students. But I shoulo not wander off into the tangled thickets of psychological speculation: the firm truth is that our TAs, with a few exceptions, do not look forward to doing their stint in self-paced Latin. When pressed afterwaru they

usually admit that it was not so bad after all--but few volunteer for another tour of duty. In summary; let me quote to you comments on self-paced Latin written by Shannon Zachary, one of our very best TAs. These remarks illustrate what I mean by the ambivalent attitude prevalent:

> In my experience Latin 14 is not as rewarding to teach as a regular class section. To put it crudely, the teacher has less influence over the students: one cannot take much satisfaction in the successes (which are only too obviously to the student's credit, not the teacher's), and the failures are even more than usually out of reach (although admittedly one can feel somewhat less responsible for <u>them</u>, too). I found my duties teaching self-paced Latin were overwhelmingly administrative and rather dull. Part of this problem, I think, reflects the specific limitations in space and staff we have at Berkeley. . . . Part of the problem may [also] be built into the nature of the course: students choose it because they want to work independently, and thus only a small percentage seem to want the individual attention they could get.
>
> The class can be a difficult course to teach. In a regular class one can systematically prepare the presentation of new material, organize how best to phrase an explanation and gather apt examples to have on hand. The self-paced Latin instructor must be prepared to answer questions from anywhere in the book--and the students, of course, have trouble mostly with the stickier points. If the TA hasn't taught Latin before or is unfamiliar with the book he is likely to have a tremendous amount of work trying to become familiar with all the material at once.
>
> On the other hand, if one has taught Latin before, if the book is familiar, and after the initial effort needed to become oriented to the self-paced program, the class is much <u>less</u> demanding than a regular course. I found that the job tended to have a "nine-to-five" quality with both the advantages and the disadvantages. little preparation (if any) was necessary on a daily basis and I could tune out on leaving the office--at times a welcome relief from a heavy teaching schedule. The most frustrating aspect of the class for me was the lack of contact with the students. Students would simply disappear for weeks on end. Communications were impossible and woe to any necessary mid-quarter policy changes--for the most part it could not be done. And, despite working one-on-one with the self-paced students, I did not find that I got to know them better than my students from regular classes.

From this candid confession of ambivalence, my point on the TA reaction to self-paced Latin is, I think, clear.

I have mentioned procedures, students, and instructors. Let me now briefly discuss how the self-paced courses fit into Berkeley's overall Latin program. At Berkeley we have five avenues by which a student qualifies for advanced, "upper division" work in the language. He may take Latin 1-2, a two-quarter (20-week) sequence covering Wheelock; Latin 12, a one-quarter intensive treatment of Wheelock; Latin 14A-B, the self-paced courses covering Wheelock; the summer Latin Workshop covering 4-5 quarters' work; or he may achieve advanced placement out of a high school Latin program. A recent survey indicated that we get 25% of our majors from the workshop and 25% from high school programs. The self-paced course, therefore, fits in theory nicely into the program. But in fact few self-paced students decide to continue in Latin. I hasten to add that few students from the traditional courses decide to major--only about 1-2%. But a major from self-paced is a rara avis indeed. The courses need some justification (or, better, explanation) other than as feeder courses to advanced Latin offerings. The service which the self-paced courses do offer is threefold.

(1) First of all, they offer a relatively painless and low risk exposure to Latin. A student can take two units (we do not allow a student to take only one) and begin to get a feel for the language. In theory, such students should be inspired to go on to bigger and better things. In fact, these are often the "unit seekers," the students with poor motivation and a very low success ratio in the courses. A phenomenal number of students take a few units' work and then are never seen again! Their numbers are especially high in the spring quarter: usually 40-50% of beginning Latin students in that quarter take the language self-paced. Evidently these students, seeking the traditional "easy" spring load, decide to try a couple of units of Latin. In realistic terms the students in self-paced Latin aid our enrollment figures and so are not to be shunned; in my own view it is sad that we have not been able to inspire more of these vaguely interested students to go on and do more Latin.

(2) Secondly, many students do not fit neatly into one of our beginning Latin offerings. For example, a student who takes Latin in the spring usually forgets a good deal of it over the summer and might be reluctant to take Latin 2 in the fall. However, self-paced second quarter Latin is available. A student in this program can contract for two units of self-paced credit and review his Latin at the same time as he makes some progress forward. In fact, our satistics bear this pattern out: enrollment in Latin 14B (second quarter self-paced) is much higher as a rule in the fall than in other quarters. To give another example of the flexibility self-paced Latin allows, I could point to the student who has barely survived Latin 1, would like to take some more Latin, but cannot face the full, four unit, traditional class. He can take two units of self-paced, relieve the pressure, and still keep up on his Latin. And, naturally, self-paced is ideal for the students with scheduling problems--although such students are fairly rare since we offer 6-8 sections of Latin 1 and 2 at various times of the day.

(3) The most gratifying service of the self-paced course is to the graduate students at Berkeley. A number of graduate programs require or encourage mastery of basic Latin--comparative literature, English, Spanish, Italian, medieval and ancient history and art, and others. For a highly motivated graduate student with many other obligations, the self-paced approach is perfect. These students are fun to work with, and they excel. Almost all of the great success stories of our program feature graduate, not undergraduate, students.

In summary, once again let me quote from a TA with much experience in self-paced and regular Latin instruction.

> Self-paced Latin is an excellent and effective class for a particular sort of student: the graduate student preparing for an exam, the motivated undergraduate, and the student who has studied languages before and finds the regular classes too slow. The class does not work, I think, for the student with just a casual interest in Latin (unless that person is unusually self-disciplined or grade-conscious), or, most disappointingly, for the student who finds the regular Latin classes too fast. The student who falls behind in a regular Latin class because he has too many other commitments to have enough time for Latin is, for the same reason, very likely to fall into the procrastination trap when left to pace himself. The student who is in trouble because of a weak background in grammar or who is a slow learner gets discouraged when facing the material on his own and when he must constantly retake tests at the same level. . . .
>
> Students entering the program on the whole seem enthusiastic: they like the flexibility and the responsibility the program offers. Even later in their quarter when they are falling behind I recall few who (at least to the instructor) found fault with the program; most would ruefully admit to procrastination and lack of self-discipline or decide that Latin (in whatever form) was too difficult. The end result in either case, however, was that the student dropped out of the program at the end of the quarter. Ironically, the student most likely to succeed is the one who ignores the flexibility of the course and paces himself on a regular class-like schedule.

Evidently, then, self-paced Latin has earned its place in the Latin program at Berkeley. One of the fears which existed before the program got under way was that the self-paced course would siphon off students from the normal Latin courses. Of course there is no way to tell whether a student would have taken a regular course if self-paced had not been offered, but the gross enrollment figures in beginning Latin seem to indicate that some such siphoning has taken place, although not on a large scale. Comparing the four-year periods of 1972/73-1975/76 with 1976/77-1979/80, Latin 1 enrollments are down an average 16% per year, while Latin 2 enrollments are down 9%. Many other factors come into play to explain these drops, but surely part of the explanation is that some students were choosing self-paced

Latin in preference to the traditional courses which they would have taken had self-paced not been offered. For those who have always suspected that self-paced instruction was not so effective as traditional, these figures are negative indeed. But I prefer to look at another aspect of the statistical picture: the total enrollments in--and therefore exposure of students to--beginning Latin. These have risen appreciably since self-paced was introduced. In 1976/77 a 29% rise occurred; in 1977/78, 13%; 1978/79, 11%; and in 1979/80, 16%. Not all of this rise was due to self-paced Latin, of course. But self-paced added an average of 36% to the total enrollments in all beginning Latin courses in 1977-80; regular classes were down 16% in these years, so perhaps we could guess that about 20% of the beginning Latin students took self-paced whereas they would not have enrolled in a regular class. Even the very rough nature of such computations stresses the truth that in the larger picture self-paced Latin has opened up Latin to many students at Berkeley who would otherwise not have tried it. Despite skepticism from some quarters, self-paced Latin has proven, I think, to be an important part of Berkeley's over-all Latin program.

Still, an analysis of self-paced Latin at Berkeley after four years cannot be termed totally optimistic. Problems persist, some of which may prove systemic and insoluble. Number one is the quality of students the courses attract. The generally uncompelling reasons which inspire most undergraduate enrollees mean that the course is populated largely with students with low motivation. I, personally, am not put off by such students: the idea of a self-paced course is that a person can do as little or as much as he wishes, and I think it is justifiable to work with the highly motivated, encourage the slower, and let those who wish, do themselves in through procrastination: part of being a university student is learning to budget one's time. But the apathy, procrastination and high attrition rate in the courses do cause me serious concern. I ask myself whether we are really introducing Latin (and if so, why do so few choose to go on?) or are playing the enrollment game where bodies, not learning, count. Do students in general learn better on their own--and if so, why am I teaching? Is not the personal, instructor-student and student to student interaction fundamental to swift, efficient learning except for the very few? The basic philosophy of the self-paced approach is in question here. I have seen wondrous results from the self-paced courses--but I have also seen disasters. Can the problems in our program be solved by altering our methods and materials somewhat, or does the whole "self-paced" concept have to be so altered by deadlines and required work that the term itself loses most of its meaning? As it exists the self-paced courses at Berkeley meet a need and, I think, perform a valuable service. But whether self-paced Latin is in any way a better, or even equivalent, system of instruction as compared to traditional methods, or whether it should ever be more than ancillary to a basic Latin program--these questions remain in my mind, and the Berkeley experience so far has not provided the clear answers that I would like.

REVIEWING REVIEW UNITS

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IN BOTH TRADITIONAL AND INDIVIDUALIZED programs, materials and class activities have classically been structured around three basic, sequential steps. The steps have variously been called preview, view and review; understanding, manipulating and communicating; introduction, transition and communication; or overview, prime and drill, and check.

Actual observation of teaching often reveals an imbalance in the quality and quantity of activities for review and application. Periodic review of old material is taken for granted: the testing apparatus prompts the learner to review the material before taking a quiz or test, but rarely specifies how the review should be conducted.

In an individualized program, review activities cannot be taken for granted or simply recommended: they must be intentionally incorporated into the system. This is true for two reasons: first, reviewing requires the development of a different set of study skills and a capacity to synthesize and organize. Second, the review step is by far the most appropriate and logical time for the development of communicative skills, both at the lesson and at the unit level. In the case of many programs and materials, reviewing simply means re-reading the package: going over the same exercises or filling out test-like sections set up to mirror other manipulation exercises. In other cases, reviewing is equated with "remedial" work. All of these activities miss the main goal of a review exercise: the integration of known content into authentic and personalized expression, the transformation of competence into performance.

It is my contention, then, that review activities not only should be incorporated into the system as another component--as is the case with the Individualized Spanish Program at Ohio State--but also should be designed and implemented to support the development of a genuine review skill, namely, the ability to apply previously learned material to practical and meaningful purposes: communication.

Two basic considerations

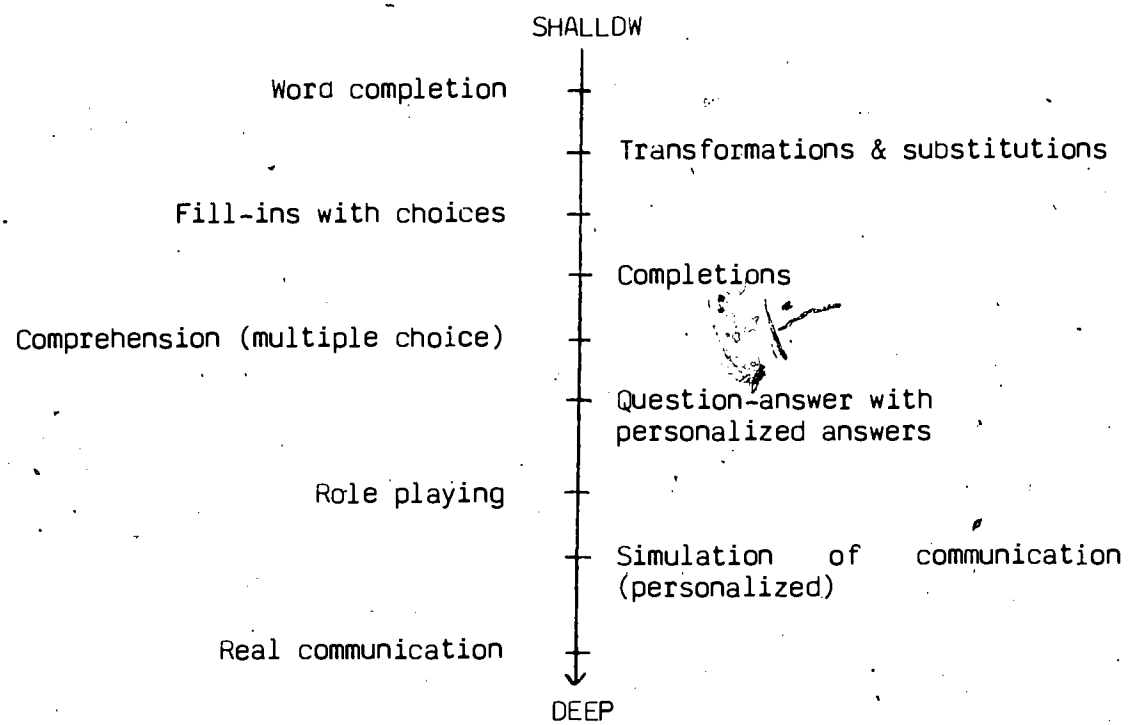
When preparing review packages, materials writers may use two guiding principles that account for two essential features of reviewing: a) spacing or distributed practice; and b) "depth," or

kind of student activity.

The principle of spacing or distributed practice was formulated after extensive work in studies of verbal learning (see Melton).[1] The principle states that separating or spacing study sessions in time yields higher retention of the material for longer periods than does concentrated study. Gradual integration of new material allows the setting up of more stable memory organization which enhances consolidation. It follows that the periodic presentation of review packages should also facilitate the organization and consolidation of material in memory (see, e.g., Stevick, Ch. 2[2]).

The second principle, which refers to the kind of activity done by the student in review sections or packages, proposes that the more elaborate or "deeper" the task, the higher and longer the retention is. In other words, the principle states that learning is affected in a very direct fashion by the degree of elaboration required by the task. Thus, we metaphorically talk about "shallow" and "deep" processing (using the terms coined by Craik and Lockhart[3]), depending on the extent to which processes other than rote or mechanical rehearsal come into play in the learning of materials. In Figure 1 various tasks have been arranged on a continuum to illustrate this point.

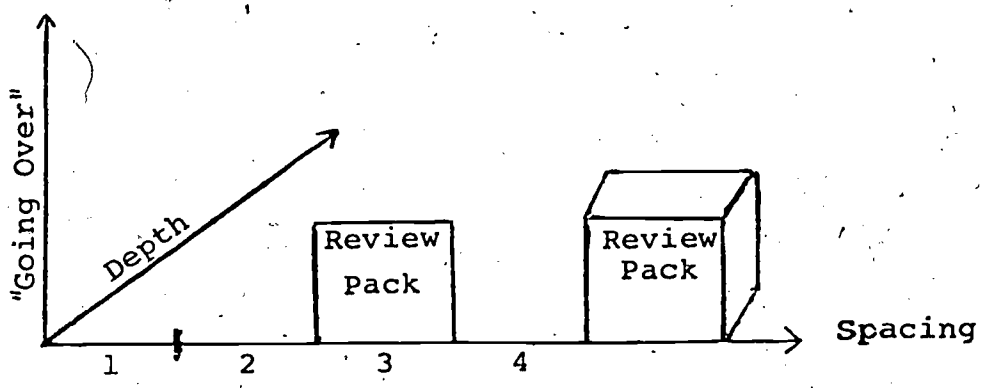
Figure 1. Relative levels of mental processing of common language learning activities (adapted from Gilbert A. Jarvis)



An analysis of any of the "deep" tasks will immediately reveal the different kinds of elaboration involved, i.e., creating, hypothesizing, evaluating; personalized expression of facts, views or feelings; group or individual problem-solving; adapting self-expression to simulation and role-playing tasks, etc. Conversely, "shallow" tasks closely resemble sheer rote memorization with minimal elaboration. Such activities include paradigm memorization, transformation and substitution exercises. They are activities in which learners generally strive for accuracy in reproducing some discrete feature of the language in isolation.

The two principles, spacing and depth, can be represented in a diagram in which the horizontal axis is labeled "spacing," the diagonal is called "depth," and the vertical "iteration" or re-reading materials (Figure 2). Depth is the only one to have direction, because it represents the creative process of reorganizing linguistic knowledge to convey meaning.

Figure 2. Spacing by Depth by "Iteration" in Review Tasks



The horizontal line represents the length of time the system allows for each unit or level. An inherent feature of the spacing axis is thus different degrees of self-pacing for each system. Review tasks plotted on this time continuum may or may not be tridimensional (i.e., may or may not have depth), depending on the kind of activity done by the student and the depth or shallowness of the mental processing implied by the activity. Thus, mechanistic and manipulative review situations cast only a unidimensional, flat representation, whereas activities that require elaboration and application of linguistic knowledge to real language use have depth.

The tridimensional representation of depth is made up of three essential features of communicative tasks: 1) purposefulness or functional use of the language; 2) meaningfulness or use of the language in real contexts; and 3) personalization or creative use of the language by the learner to communicate his/her own views, ideas or feelings. Such exercises therefore result in contextualized and

personalized practice of the language recently analyzed. An important implication related to these features is that deep tasks--because they involve more mental processes, skills and strategies--take longer to carry out. At the same time and for the same reasons, the material thus learned is more stable in memory.

Spacing is fairly easy to handle because textbook organization, testing calendars and level cut-off points all help to determine adequate points in time for placing review units. Sometimes, even the need to coordinate traditional and individualized tracks to allow student transfer generates time periods that may be very appropriately used for the creation of review packages or units. The only problem to be tackled in such cases is the need for adequate credit assignment, which can usually be solved at the administrative level. The principle to be observed in all cases is that review packages must be optimally spaced so that they provide distributed practice in units of material that are to some extent homogeneously organized.

Some problems to solve

Depth is, in my view, the most crucial feature to include and develop in review packages. In an individualized setting this is not an easy task because, while the review unit's activities should foster and support creativity and originality, appropriate guidelines should at the same time allow the instructor or aide a comparable straightforward way for evaluating and grading the task.

Feasible solutions are the provision of terminal task models, checklists, multiple slot correction grids, and the setting up of minimal competence cut-off lines, all of which should be clearly expressed in terms of students' behavior and of the instructor's grading system. Some of these appear in package 10 of O.S.U.'s Spanish Individualized Program. (Note, however, that these were the original solutions and have not been revised to include feedback information.)

Another problem to be dealt with is accuracy and the treatment and grading of error. Again, this is not an easy task. Taking into account the level of our students (beginning) and the purpose of review units conceived as opportunities to develop communicative skills, an approach to error different from the traditional one might be in oder.

Krashen says that "where the focus is on communication and where processing time is limited," (when the activity is oral) "subjects are not able to access their conscious grammatical knowledge and are thus dependent on what has been acquired."[4] Thus, because the probabilities of making mistakes seem to increase with students' involvement in oral communicative tasks--combining form and meaning probably overloads mental activity, cancelling the monitor out--ratings other than measures of paradigmatic accuracy might have

to be set up. Control exercised in task design and the careful construction of the situation can, on the other hand, help in structuring the task and reducing mistakes. In all cases, the use of feedback information, the instructor's experience and the students' impressions should also help in the process of refining and improving both the exercises and the testing instruments. In most cases, however, global ratings of communicability, fluency and vocabulary choice can probably replace the usual discrete-item measures.

Writing review units for a grammatically sequenced program

Given a group of lessons that have been grammatically focused and sequenced (which is commonly the case in our systems), the task of writing a review package can be greatly simplified by following these steps:

1. Identify the major grammar point(s) covered.
2. Identify at least 2 language functions realized by each one of them.
3. List situations and settings in which functional exchanges could occur.
4. Choose an activity that can involve the student personally in using the major grammar points communicatively.
5. Include at least one phrase or expression that would allow for appropriateness and native-like use.

Here is an example of a grammar point review constructed according to these steps.

1. Major grammar point: Formal/informal commands in Spanish.
2. Functions: Getting things done for you, giving instructions, wishing well.
3. Situations: Writing errand lists, product advertising, get-well notes.
4. Activity: Simulation, role-playing.
5. Expressions: Por favor/por favor no se olvide de...

The activity could be one in which the student needs to leave a set of recommendations for a pet- or baby sitter (orally over the phone or in written form). Another activity could be centered on writing a get-well note, an errand list or job list for a roommate. Sets of instructions can also be written and expressed orally or in

writing (how to get to a certain place, play a game or fix some food). Finally, commercials in which a new product is recommended can be enacted. For all packages, at least four activities are necessary: one to serve as a model, one or two to be developed by the student (e.g., one written and the other oral), and still another one for testing purposes.

Review packages that are implemented taking into consideration the principles and steps explained in this paper may approach quite closely true communicative situations and contain activities that are deep enough to promote the development of the highest skill: communication.

In this approach, reviewing is equated with real language use tasks. It becomes a process of application that enhances creativity, the learner's independence and the development of communicative skills and review strategies.

Notes

[1]A. W. Melton, "The Situation with Respect to the Spacing of Repetitions and Memory." Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, v. 9 (1970), pp. 596-606.

[2]Earl W. Stevick, Memory, Meaning and Method: Some Psychological Perspectives on Language Learning. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1969.

[3]F. I. M. Craik and R. S. Lockhart, "Levels of Processing: A Framework for Memory Research." Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, v. 11 (1972), pp. 671-684.

[4]Stephen D. Krashen, "Individual Variation in the Use of the Monitor." Second Language Acquisition Research: Issues and Implications, ed. William C. Ritchie (New York: Acaoemic Press, 1978), p. 176.

DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO TEACHING READING IN GERMAN

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ROSE-HULMAN IS A SMALL, independent all-male, four-year college of science and engineering. Approximately 1200 men are presently enrolled in nine curricula: computer science, chemistry, mathematics, mathematical economics, physics, and chemical, civil, electrical and mechanical engineering. 129 students, or about 10% of the entire student population, are currently enrolled in German. The only department that has a language requirement (one-year) is chemistry; for the rest of the student body, German or any other language is a "free elective."

German enrollments are strong; about 2/3 of last year's 1st and 2nd year students continued with German. Some few students who wanted to continue were not admitted into the 3rd year level because they did not meet the standards that were set up by the language department and the administration. (The student wanting to enter the third year intensive reading/translation program must have a 3.0 or better accumulative average and an average of "B" or better in German.) Why the upward trend at Rose-Hulman while many foreign language departments in the U.S. are faced with a downward trend? We believe it is because we are offering a program that adapts to the interests, needs and expectations of the science and engineering student.

The German curriculum emphasizes readings in science and technology, of which a great part is dedicated to the history and philosophy of German science in the third year. Principles of translation are also taught. The same program is continued in the fourth year; it is, however, more specialized (students read and translate articles which mainly pertain to their major field of study). The culmination of the program is the "Technical Translator's Certificate," which is awarded after students have completed all the necessary requirements set by the Institute. (These requirements follow to a certain degree the outlines and suggestions set by the American Translators Association; they can be found in Unterrichtspraxis 1, 1974.)

The importance of reading knowledge in scientific German

The future scientist, engineer, or researcher, especially if he wants to be employed by a multi-national company, realizes the need for at least a reading knowledge of a foreign language. For him the most important aspect of language learning is the ability to read, for

example, German periodicals in his professional field with comprehension.

According to the 1974 volume of Chemical Abstracts, 30% of the research indexed was in German. The important research center, Chemical Abstracts Service (Ohio State University), employs scientists and engineers who at the same time are reading specialists and/or translators for technical material in the following languages: English, German, Russian, French, Japanese, Italian, Polish, Chinese, Danish and Swedish (the list is presented in the order of frequency of use, with English the most in demand). However, writers in the foreign languages produced more than two times as many new book titles in science and engineering as did writers in all the English speaking world. Any one of these books might have the information necessary for a technical breakthrough.

Another argument for our students' developing German reading skills is the fact that it will help them to pass Master's and Ph.D. requirements, since German in most cases is the mandatory language for satisfying language proficiency exams set up by the science and engineering departments. According to a 1972 survey by the Graduate Record Examinations Board, 99% of the Ph.D.'s surveyed in science and engineering presented reading knowledge in at least one language to satisfy the language requirement. Approximately 60% of those candidates actually used the language in their doctoral studies and in later scholarly work. Fourteen language goals were rated for usefulness during and after graduate study. The goal rated most useful was the ability to read passages in a specialized field with a dictionary for general comprehension only.[1]

In her booklet, A Modern Case for German, Maria Alter predicts a downward trend for German in the years ahead. She argues that only a radical change in the type of appeal exerted by German will successfully reverse the trend.[2] There is room for only a limited number of interpreters, translators, or future teachers on both the secondary school and college level where speaking skills are most in demand. Speaking skills come in handy for the teaching profession, and for traveling or living in German speaking countries, which applies mainly to top multi-national company executives or foreign service personnel; reading skills, however, can be used constantly, in any profession.

For the student of science and engineering foreign language reading skills are important to a number of career objectives and can be complemented by a study of career-specific materials. Thus, a general outline for a German program with these goals includes:

a. Solid groundwork in basic grammar and vocabulary, and the discussion of topics in German culture during the first and second year.

b. Development of reading skills in order to consult reference materials and current periodicals, leading to

c. ability to do translation (German into English in student's major field).

Methods and materials

Scientific German is different from the language used in business or literature. Hans Meinel, in the introduction to his textbook, A Course in Scientific German[3], suggests that scientific German as a subject is situated between philology and science. He believes that as a tool-course within the curriculum of science and engineering scientific German has to adjust to rather utilitarian requirements.[3] According to my experience, the method most appropriate to teach such a course is a bilingual one, which I use mainly on the third and fourth year levels: the third year textbooks and additional reading materials (mostly from my own file) are intended to give the student a basic reading knowledge in the various fields of science and technology. No specific subject knowledge beyond a general technological and scientific background is required. Introductory texts are simplified. They are followed by adapted material from original sources, and during the final quarter of the third year unrevised original texts become the basis for linguistic studies.

In regard to grammar and syntax, such a course intends to supply the essential knowledge and techniques of reading and translation with a maximum of factual correctness. Structural rules not relevant for reading comprehension can be neglected. Here are a few examples:

1. Adjective endings are important for speaking and writing German correctly, but for translating German into English it is only necessary to inform the student of the phenomenon that he is dealing with. The details of the adjective endings need not be stressed.

2. In German sentences, objects referring to time have to precede those referring to place. This rule need not be emphasized either, as the nature of the object reveals itself in the reading process and therefore does not have to be discussed any further.

Only those grammar rules--or parts of them--which are absolutely necessary to obtain the required reading knowledge are taught. This restriction is necessary if results are to be achieved in a short period of time. A rather detailed coverage of structural rules, however, particularly those dealing with syntax, is required in a scientific German reading course. In comparison to typical expository German, scientific German has longer, more complex sentence structure, i.e., extended adjective constructions, a more extensive usage of the subjunctive and the passive voice, participial constructions, inversions and modal auxiliaries. This is due to the tendency of the scientist to report with a maximum of precision but in a rather impersonal style; it could be compared to legal English. From this it

follows that the most difficult task to be dealt with in a reading course in scientific German is more the analysis of the complex information matrix interrelating the special terms than the meanings of the terms themselves. Whenever possible, parallels with English grammar are pointed out (i.e., conditional, case system, conjugation of regular and irregular verbs) and linguistic terminology is reduced to a minimum.

Of equal importance is the selection of vocabulary to be memorized (in contrast to words that do not need to be emphasized). Surveys of the vocabulary appearing in scientific as well as nonscientific texts have shown that in both cases structural words make up more than one-third to one-half of the total amount of vocabulary in such texts. (Structural words include articles, pronouns, prepositions, auxiliaries, modal verbs, conjuctions, and adverbs in their various forms.) Thus, the memorization of vocabulary is most effective and time saving if it concentrates on structural words and their various grammatical forms. Also, a thorough knowledge of high-frequency words (e.g., vielleicht, worin, zusammen) should be part of any effective reading course.

The student is expected to memorize basic scientific vocabulary (e.g., verdünnen, abdampfen, durchleiten, bestätigen, Wellenlänge, Strahlung, Verfahren). These words are constantly repeated in any scientific text. Also of importance is the memorization of vocabulary related to the major field of study that the student is pursuing, (i.e., the chemistry major should be familiar with words like Säure, Sauerstoff, Gemisch, entziehen, Lösungsmittel). Highly specialized vocabulary (Verfahrenstechnik, Umweltschutz, Raumfahrt) are of much lower frequency, but there are many of them: consider, for example, the great number of specialized technical dictionaries that are newly published or reedited year after year. (As a matter of fact, there are more specialized than standard dictionaries.) In order to deal with highly specialized vocabulary, therefore, the student must be taught how to use relevant dictionaries. These should be purchased by the individual science and engineering departments since they know best which dictionaries are most suitable. (A list of specialized dictionaries should accompany any textbook that deals with reading in scientific German, however.) Fortunately many scientific and technological terms are of international usage, e.g., Reaktortechnik, Computer, absorbieren. Also, many German texts--particularly in electrical engineering and computer science--are interwoven with American words, since the U.S. is leading in these fields, e.g., Telecommunication, Video-band. By the end of the second quarter of the third year, the student should have a recognition knowledge of about 2000 words, mainly structural and basic scientific vocabulary.

A good textbook should provide a great number of exercise sentences from various fields of science or technology in which the new vocabulary is used in scientific context. The practice sentences should then be followed by short reading passages that describe a more detailed process in the various fields of applied science and engineering. These passages as well as the preceding exercises should

be accompanied by vocabulary lists in English and German.

During the last quarter of the third year, reading selections of relative difficulty which serve the general interest of the student are chosen. These selections provide the student with the opportunity to read and at the same time comprehend simple as well as more advanced scientific material in preparation for very advanced and specialized articles in his major field toward the end of the next year. At this advanced stage no vocabulary lists are given; the student now uses the appropriate specialized dictionary. I select the majority of these articles from sophisticated periodicals and technical newspapers. Here the student is really tested, much more than is the case with the so-called "reading selections" which are part of any textbook: most such college textbooks lack the arbitrary and sometimes incorrect, long-winded language of the true scientist.

Texts concerning philosophical, sociological and historical issues in science supplement the purely technical content of my course: literary works by such famous German scientists as Einstein (Mein Weltbild), Max Plank (Religion und Naturwissenschaft) come to mind. Other works on our "outside" reading list include: Dürrenmat's Die Physiker; Brecht's Das Leben des Galilei, Kipphardt's In der Sache Robert J. Oppenheimer, or Frisch's Homo Faber. The students enjoy these works, which are followed by discussions mainly in German. Another outside reading source is German newspapers like Die Zeit or Der Spiegel. Even Stern offers sometimes worthwhile reading material. A good cultural reader should also accompany a technical reading course. For the third- and fourth-year level I have used either Kelling's Deutsche Kulturgeschichte, or Koepke's Die Deutschen. It is of vital importance that the student who might work later in a German-speaking country have some knowledge of German history, culture and customs.

In 1975 Barbara Elling conducted a survey on the utility of German in business and industry. She found that:

1. The number of positions in Germany for Americans with German language skills is twice the number of those in the USA.

2. The skills most needed by the employee to obtain a position are in the following order of importance: reading comprehension, writing, oral comprehension, speaking.[4]

These conclusions must be kept in mind if some of the present curricula of German language departments are to be changed. The student should have the opportunity to make a choice between the language learning that emphasizes literature and other types of language instruction, such as a reading course in scientific German. Our program at Rose-Hulman not only enhances the rigorous science and engineering courses, but, moreover, provides the student with a skill he can use in his future job.

In an age of interdisciplinary relations, students of science and technology cannot be expected to be deeply interested in literature and linguistics beyond their utilitarian aspects. Given this orientation, a reading course in scientific German may well become attractive to students who immediately realize its benefits and who already are familiar with analytical techniques through their technical subjects. Therefore, a department that offers such an alternative can only be successful.

Notes

[1]Robert G. Wiltsey, Doctoral Use of Foreign Languages. New York: Modern Language Association, 1972.

[2]Maria P. Alter, A Modern Case for German. American Association of Teachers of German, 1970.

[3]Hans Meinel, A Course in Scientific German. Max Hueber, 1972.

[4]Barbara Elling, Career Alternatives for Students of German. State University of New York, 1977.

INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES THROUGH THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A FUNCTIONAL-NOTIONAL SYLLABUS

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Introduction

ONE OF THE BIGGEST PROBLEMS to be faced in teaching foreign languages today is how to get students to use the language in a way that is meaningful to them. In order for students to be motivated to learn, goals must be clearly defined and these goals must be relevant to the purpose for which the students plan to use the language. If there is a "high surrender value" (the term Wilkins[1] uses to refer to a quick return for the amount of time invested), students will be encouraged to pursue their study of the foreign language.

Despite differences in method and scope, most textbooks are organized according to sequenced grammatical units of increasing difficulty. Students often spend so much time memorizing forms and rules that the real purpose for language study (i.e., to use it for communicative purposes) is often obscured. Students understand that they are learning grammar and that they are being graded on grammar. Thus, when they have completed one, two, or three years of this type of study, they often still cannot speak or write very well. They have not learned what they expected to learn: how to use language. They are often left with the feeling that their foreign language study has been totally irrelevant to their future careers.

The functional-notional syllabus

One way to make language study (in this case, French) more directly relevant to student goals and to teach students how to use language in the way that best suits their individual needs is to design a functional-notional syllabus. At Louisiana State University, a survey is done at the beginning of each semester in order to assess individual and group needs. The survey contains eight questions aimed at defining the goals for language use and the functions and skills necessary to accomplish these goals. Survey results usually indicate that most students are interested in getting a command of general social functions and ideas and in being able to handle situations that travelers often find themselves in. Most students want to obtain some limited control of all four skills, and certain students would like to concentrate on a particular skill such as speaking or writing.

The syllabus is organized with these student goals in mind. The focus is on the purposes for which French is to be used (i.e., the functions) and on the concepts (or notions) to be communicated. The syllabus consists of thirteen two-part units which include the following topics: personal identification, life at home, climate and region, education and future career, leisure activities, intellectual and artistic pursuits, travel, relations with people, health and well-being, shopping, eating and drinking, services, and getting around. These topics have been modeled in part on the topic areas set forth by van Ek.[2]

The functions of language are extremely complex and it is not feasible to present a complete list of them here. However, it is possible to list here the functions that recur most frequently in the syllabus: identifying, describing, asking for information, apologizing, giving or seeking advice, offering or requesting assistance, and expressing such things as preferences, agreement or disagreement, obligation, gratitude, and desires.

In addition to the topics and functions mentioned above, the syllabus focuses on high surrender value and on ind[illegible] goals by:

1. simplifying the number and types of grammatical rules,
2. recycling old material as much as possible,
3. allowing for errors that do not interfere with comprehension,
4. giving individual assignments dealing with the specialized vocabulary and the particular skills relevant to each student's needs,
5. devoting most of class time to communicative use of language, and
6. revising test emphasis from discrete point to purposeful use of language.

In the syllabus grammatical rules are delineated according to the functions to be performed and the notions to be communicated. Grammar is taught not according to a scale of increasing difficulty, but rather by frequency and utility indexes, where the most useful and the most common concepts are taught first. For example, in this syllabus, reflexive verbs occur very early, as do question forms. The tense system is simplified to deal only with the present (indicative and subjunctive), the imperfect, the compound past, the immediate future, and certain verbs in the conditional such as je voudrais and je devrais. Relative pronouns and use of the subjunctive are only partially presented. Complicated structures with relatively low frequency such as forms of lequel are entirely excluded. In other words, the grammar has been simplified to allow for rapid acquisition of communicative skills. Students are encouraged to learn the fine

points of French grammar by continuing their study of the language. Hopefully, they will be motivated to do so by the satisfying results experienced in their early study.

Not only is the overall grammatical content reduced, but also the presentation of grammar is simplified. No attempt is made in the syllabus to present all there is to know about a particular principle when it comes up for the first time. Question forms are presented as needed, rather than in a chapter where all types of question forms are presented. Similary, when the verb venir is presented no attempt is made to present all verbs conjugated like venir at the same time.

Recycling (e.g., reviewing venir when obtenir, revenir and prévenir are presented) is extremely important. It allows for simplification in the presentation of features that will be returned to at a later time in more detail. By contrast, when all related material is introduced at once (as is so often the case), students cannot absorb it all. They may easily become frustrated: 1) they find themselves unable to handle all at once, actively, everything there is to know about forming questions or using irregular verbs; and 2) several chapters later they realize they have forgotten, due to lack of use, the forms they memorized earlier. Recycling helps to avoid this kind of frustration by providing quick, active control of high-frequency features and built-in review of past material. Thus, recycling works to reduce the number of grammatical features introduced for active control and to allow for review of past features as new aspects of a concept are presented for active control.

This view of recycling coincides with what is known about learning strategies. When children learn French as their first language, for example, they gradually master concepts in pieces. Question forms such as qu'est-ce que, qu'est-ce qui, qui est-ce que, etc., are not acquired all at once. Similarly, plurals of nouns are regularized by children: irregular plurals (such as journaux) are not automatic. Children typically go through a phase in which they make errors with question forms and plurals (and other forms) until, having been sufficiently corrected on these points, they learn the correct forms. Thus, recycling and errors are a necessary and natural part of developing language skills. This explains why our students pass through many of the same language-learning phases as French children do.

In addition to taking learning strategies into consideration, the functional-notional syllabus also reflects concern for each student's individual goals. While language is an indication of one's personality and interests, vocabulary lists in textbooks are sometimes inapplicable or irrelevant to individual students. For example, when students learn to use être with professions, many of them do not learn to say what they themselves want to be. Common professions of today such as computer scientist, business manager, broadcast journalist, advertising designer, speech therapist, etc., are not usually on these lists. It would not be advisable to make all students learn the names of each profession, but it certainly is important that each student

learn the French word for his own future profession. Unless this is done, the lesson loses communicative value and practical application. Therefore, while certain vocabulary words are learned by the entire class, each student also learns the vocabulary he needs for his personal interpretation of each topic. Additional vocabulary relevant to each student's major field of concentration is stressed and is utilized to the extent possible in weekly individualized assignments.

The skills that the student expresses the most interest in developing (according to the survey answers) are the skills that he concentrates on in these individualized weekly assignments. Some students are assigned reading projects. Others write letters or paragraphs. Those interested in developing oral skills are given either tapes to listen to and to comment on or dialogues or skits (i.e., some kind of role playing) to perform with others in front of the class.

Since all students are also responsible for learning a common core of basic material for each topic, small group activities are an important part of each lesson. Each week students work together under the supervision of native speakers, teaching assistants, or undergraduate majors on a specific topic related to the lesson. Students are given a list of functions to be performed. For example, when they are introduced to the passé composé, students are asked to:

1. identify their past activities within certain time spans (last weekend, last night, last summer, etc.),
2. ask another person about his past activities,
3. describe an event in the past, or
4. answer questions others will ask about this past event.

In these groups, students have the opportunity to use the structures and the vocabulary they are learning (and past material as well) in a meaningful, relaxed atmosphere. These groups are extremely successful from the point of view of the students. Students enjoy using the language in a way that is real to them, speaking with someone other than their teacher, and having the opportunity to express their ideas in French.

Testing

Students participate in these groups with enthusiasm and interest for yet another reason: they know that speaking is one of the ways they will be tested on the material. During the semester, students take four major exams. These exams are composed of approximately 40% discrete point type questions and 60% communicative competence activities. Types of discrete point questions include dictations, filling in the blanks with the correct answer, rewriting the sentence to perform some kind of transformation (making it negative), changing

the tense, adding a clause, connecting two sentences, etc.) and translating sentences from English to French. The discrete point testing is done for two reasons: 1) to prepare the students for the group final exam that will be based almost entirely on discrete point testing, and 2) to ensure that they have understood the grammatical points in question. However, with 60% of the exam stressing communicative competence, it is clear that the most important thing the students are doing with the grammar is not filling in blanks, but rather using the grammar in a meaningful way.

Communicative competence activities test the students' ability to use language in real situations. They involve correctly producing and interpreting conversations or passages in order to express ideas. Students are tested on their performance in dealing wth specific functions in all four skills. Speaking skills are tested on an individual basis, while listening comprehension, reading, and writing skills are performed as a group test. Each test differs depending on the functional-notional tasks to be performed. In every aspect of communicative competence testing, however, two functions are constantly stressed: asking questions and describing things.

Speaking skills are tested on the basis of specific assignments. For example, Unit I (Personal Identification) has two specific activities listed: 1) students must give information about themselves and seek information about others, and 2) they must describe where and under what conditions they and others live. Each student is asked to perform with the instructor the functions listed under these activities (i.e., identifying, socializing, asking for information and describing). They take note of answers or questions directed toward them and they turn in a report (in English or French) on what they have understood. They are graded on their ability to make themselves understood and on their comprehension of what was said to them.

Although speaking and listening comprehension are complementary skills, listening comprehension can be tested apart from speaking skills. Listening comprehension is tested in the language laboratory (it could also be done in the classroom), where a passage is read and questions are asked on the passage. For example, if students have learned to discuss the weather, a weather forecast as it might be heard on the radio is read to them. Then they are asked to perform the functions outlined for that topic. Such functions may include: 1) briefly describing the forecast, 2) answering questions on or explaining specific information contained in the forecast and 3) asking questions (in writing) dealing with specific apects of the weather report (e.g., "Quel temps va-t-il faire demain dans le Midi?" or "Quelle est la température maintenant?"). Students are graded on their comprehension of the passage and on their ability to perform these functions.

Reading skills are determined on the basis of various types of testing: translating into English certain underlined passages, answering questions on the reading passage, and asking questions on certain parts of the passage. Students are sometimes asked to

describe some aspect of the passage (such as personality traits of the character portrayed) or to provide an alternative solution to the problem presented in the story. If the passage is on some cultural aspect of a French-speaking country, students may be asked to compare and contrast specific items in the passage with aspects of American culture.

Testing reading skills also becomes a way of testing writing skills. In addition to the written exercises based on a reading passage, students may be asked to write guided compositions on a specific topic. These compositions are usually written twice. The first writing provides students with the opportunity to express what they consider important. The second writing allows them to perfect the composition by reorganizing their ideas, if necessary, and by correcting mistakes. This is the only part of the testing process that is done at home.

Thus, all four skills are tested in relation to the core material. Students who are working on developing one particular skill above others are given an additional assignment stressing that skill and, where possible, relating that skill to their future careers. Speaking and listening skills, for example, are demonstrated in additional oral reports or dialogues similar to those done in the weekly individualized assignments. Writing and reading skills are emphasized via written reports on a topic related to the unit and/or to the individual's personal interests. Usually, the subject of these reports is determined by the student in consultation with the instructor. (Students who have no preference for which particular skills they develop alternate between speaking/listening type assignments and writing/reading type assignments.) Skill testing of the kind outlined here has often been avoided by teachers because it is time-consuming and because grading of written skills tends to be subjective. The time problem can be handled without too much difficulty, however, since this type of testing occurs only four times a semester.

The remaining difficulty is in devising a way to grade these exams that is as objective and as fair as possible. In grading speaking and listening skills, the criteria used are comprehensibility, fluency and structural accuracy. Comprehensibility involves proper use of vocabulary and good pronunciation. Only major errors in these areas cause the student to lose credit. Generally speaking, if the student's questions or responses can be understood, full credit is given for comprehensibility. If the student cannot be understood, no credit is given. Thus, this criterion supersedes all others. Fluency, a second criterion, is a matter of speed: it is judged simply by whether or not the activity is completed in a predetermined, limited amount of time. A third measure, structural accuracy, refers to whether the student makes grammatical errors that interfere with communication. The kinds of structural errors that are considered major involve: 1) missing the point of the lesson (e.g., when students are taught to use avoir with age, but when tested use être), and 2) confusing similar structures (e.g., using est-ce que for

qu'est-ce que). Structural errors that are not central to the lesson, that do not interfere with comprehension, or that involve other minor errors (wrong article or gender, lack of adjective agreement, lack of subject-verb agreement, etc.) are simply overlooked. Using criteria such as these, oral tests can measure in a relatively non-subjective way a student's ability to perform specific functions.

Writing and reading skills are graded with more attention to detail than are the speaking and listening skills. This is because students have more time to work out form and structures when they write than they do when they speak. Therefore, written errors in articles, genders, adjective agreement and subject-verb agreement do count against the students. However, even in the grading of writing and reading skills, the focus is on function over form. The most important consideration is whether the students have performed the required functions and whether they have succeeded in communicating their ideas.

Conclusion

The primary goal of the functional-notional syllabus is twofold: 1) to teach the use of language in a way that is meaningful and relevant to future goals, and 2) to achieve "high surrender value." The simplification and recycling of grammatical points in the syllabus provide students with the opportunity to concentrate on the functions of language and on the ideas to be expressed. Individualized assignments and small group activities put the focus on the student and on his or her acquisition of language skills. The syllabus is organized with the thought that revised testing and grading procedures are necessary in order to measure a student's ability to function in the language rather than his ability to memorize grammatical rules and forms. It is hoped that where this syllabus is implemented, it will enable students to use the target language in a meaningful way and within a shorter period of time than is presently feasible under other methods.

Notes

[1]D. A. Wilkins, Notional Syllabuses. London: Oxford University Press, 1976.

[2]J. A. van Ek, The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools. London: Longman, 1977.

WHO NEEDS COMPUTERS?

George W. Mulford
University of Delaware

IF YOUR INSTITUTION IS LIKE any I have known, its attic (I speak metaphorically) is littered with abandoned curricular materials: maps, flash cards, filmstrips, films, slide sets, obsolete language laboratory tapes (rack after rack of them), perhaps a forlorn feltboard or an opaque projector. Someone chose a new textbook, and the older materials went on the scrap heap. Videotapes were the last generation of materials, at my institution, to join that heap; moreover, discontinuing their use meant throwing thousands of dollars away instead of just hundreds.

The first computer-assisted instructional materials are now taking their place in the topmost, and richest, stratum of this pedagogical midden: tens of thousands of dollars worth of painstaking work and computing time, obsolete. The machines to run them are too expensive; they are programmed in a language specific to one type of computer, and can therefore not be exported to other institutions with different hardware; they depend on peripheral equipment like audio devices and microfiche readers which have not stood the test of time; worst of all, someone chose a new textbook and the computer programs suddenly became irrelevant. With costs per hour of instructional time rivaling the pay of student tutors, and development time and expertise exceeding anything heretofore imagined, the first responsible question to ask today of computers in education is quite naturally: who needs them? My own answer is: we all do, and especially those of us engaged in the design of the individualized syllabus. Let me outline why I think we need them, despite their cost, and how that cost can be minimized.

Teachers and learning managers need computers because they are effective and (in this application) cost-cutting record keepers. Individualized instruction poses record-keeping problems (I appeal to your collective experience) of rather formidable proportions. It is recommended that there be at least four versions of every test, and lots of tests. Ideally, the tests should be standardized so that a score of eighty on version one is precisely as difficult to attain as a score of eighty on versions two, three, and four. There must be a record of which test was given to which student, and of the student's score. There should undoubtedly be a vertical record of mean scores on each version to allow us to determine that all the versions are in fact of equal difficulty. If we decide to be rigorous about this, we should conduct an item analysis of each test to find out which items are hardest for all the students, so that we can adjust the difficulty

of a version by varying the proportion of hard and easy items, and so that we can alter the composition of our self-study packets to prepare the students more adequately for the hardest items we intend to test them on. An item analysis of the individual student's test is helpful if we wish to advise that student of recurrent error patterns in his own performance, and so relieve him of some of the bookkeeping tasks necessary for effective study.

The computer can do all this. If the choice is made to compile, not four versions of a test, but one very long list of questions we might think appropriate at the end of a given module, the computer can go through the list and select items, according to whatever criteria we specify, for four or more (perhaps many more) discrete versions of the test. The computer can then type out a version on demand, and it can be torn off the machine and handed to the student, or in the case of an oral test, read from the machine and administered viva voce. Pushing the idea of random selection to the limit, we may even specify that no one version of a given test will be identical, or at least not predictably so, with any other version ever administered.

Notice that one or more filing cabinets full of mimeographed sheets which had to be typed, proofread, run off, collated, stapled, and (for those who must worry about such things) kept secure, just disappeared: each student gets one printout which does not exist until he needs it. Notice also that so far we need only one computer terminal, albeit a fairly expensive one since it must be able to produce written text with, at least, accent marks, and at most, two entire character sets. Our lesson development time, programming time, and actual computing time, however, have so far been quite reasonable; and the testmakers, examiners, and secretaries have realized very large net gains of the time necessary to script, process, proof, file and retrieve from files. Best of all, if we discover errors or infelicities in our stock of test material, the offending items can be corrected, instantly and easily, within the computer's memory. They will stay corrected thenceforward, and we need not seek out and destroy any previously mimeographed copies.

The next bookkeeping step is to record the student's scores. This is probably best done by hand in a gradebook--unless we take up the challenge of error analysis. If we are to attempt to record the student's performance item by item, and then to do anything useful with that information, there seems to me to be no reasonable alternative to seeking the computer's help. And what help it can give! It can produce for the student a list of the items he missed: not merely their number, but a reprint of the questions themselves. It can furnish the instructor any information he is clever enough to ask for: items in order of difficulty, correlations between error frequencies, distinctive patterns of errors peculiar to a particular class of students--anything within the power of statistical theory. The instructor may then use these data to validate hypotheses about the learning patterns of a certain kind of student, or of students taught or tested in a certain way. More immediately, the instructor may decide to increase or decrease the stock of items dealing with a

particularly difficult point; to omit them entirely from future versions of the test; or on the contrary, to make sure they are tested again at the end of the next module, and perhaps to revise the instructional curriculum appropriately. Or the computer, working on its own, may record and continually update its assessment of the empirical difficulty of each item, based on the frequency of errors made by the entire cohort of students ever asked that item, and may then tailor its selection of items for future test versions so as to generate tests of increasingly accurate standard difficulty. Programming and processing time are still rather small. Data entry time may seem forbiddingly large, but students can be asked to enter the data themselves, for instance on computer-readable score sheets.

The process I have just outlined is not computerized testing. We have not yet asked the computer to compose a test question or judge a student's answer to it. All these judgmental functions are still in the hands of human testmakers and graders. The machine is merely filing and retrieving questions and keeping score. We have not altered our tests to fit them to the machine's style; in fact, the process described would work well for oral tests. (One can even imagine a board of examiners, each of whom would enter points on each aspect of the student's performance, like the judges at a high-diving competition.) Nor have we asked the machine to do anything it finds particularly difficult, with perhaps the single exception of printing accent marks or text in non-Roman characters: the lights do not dim all over town when we ask the computer to print us a test on module three for student thirty-six.

We have not yet let student thirty-six--let's call her Rebecca--get her hands on a computer terminal herself. With more trepidation than I have felt so far, I'm going to suggest that we do that next. First, let me warn you that Rebecca has probably had her hands on a terminal, or something like a terminal, before now. In fact, the chances that she has not had this sort of experience are diminishing daily. Chances are, too, that Rebecca enjoyed it; for we live in the age of the computer game. Our society at large has discovered with breathtaking rapidity what has been known to a subculture of mathematicians and engineers for twenty years and more: the computer is a totally absorbing toy, capable of sustaining interest to the point of exhaustion and beyond. The general public has demonstrated its willingness to spend more money than anybody thought it had to purchase these toys. Manufacturers of computers and computer-like gadgets cannot purchase enough components to satisfy the demand for their products.

Rebecca may therefore approach our terminal with a wild little glint in her eye that says "let me at it" (and if Rebecca does not, her little sister, who will be a freshmen in five years, almost certainly will). Rebecca wants to use our terminal. She wants to see what she can make it do. (This, indeed, seems to be a motivation common to everyone, from grade-school children to graduate engineers, who has become addicted to the fascination of watching a machine respond, quickly and often in surprising ways, to various combinations

of touches on its keyboard.) If we set up the rules of the game in such a way that Rebecca is constantly challenged, through her growing knowledge of our subject matter, to perform an increasingly complex set of steps in order to win the game she is playing against the machine, she will sit at our terminal far into the night studying language lessons. (If, however, the chemistry professor gets there first with a good game, language study will lose a portion of students' days and weeks.)

The challenge is really nothing new. What, among the activities you recommend to your students, among the activities you yourself carried out to gain fluency in your second or third language, can you identify as the single most effective one? Was it, for you, flash cards--a memory game like solitaire? Was it quizzing by a partner--and was there an element there of what might be called mating-display behavior? Was it some arcane, cerebral game you played inside your head, perhaps with an imaginary playmate, or some grueling psychological duel with a teacher? Was it free conversation in the target language--the best game of all, and the most expensive? I am suggesting that computer drills may offer at least a partial substitute, in individualized programs, for the entertainment value present in a good classroom.

If you were a successful user of the language lab, the language-lab drill itself was a game for you. Sadly, it is drudgery for many students because the challenges it sets are too hard or too easy. One of the most important tasks the language profession must harness computers to perform is mediation between the student and the language-lab tape. On the one hand, the computer's ability to accept and execute student commands can give the student much more precise control over the tape's progression. On the other, the computer can use the recorded tape as part of a four-skills exercise. Text can be displayed on the terminal's screen; written questions can be asked; written answers to oral questions can be required. On the basis of the student's performance, the computer can select from the tape those items the student should review, or cause the tape to wind past materials the student has clearly mastered. For teachers who wish to evaluate a student's taped responses, the computer can assemble a very short tape of selected items to save the evaluator the trouble of locating them.

What we need to accomplish all this is, first, a terminal with a controlled tape recorder. I say "tape recorder" knowing that other computer-driven audio devices exist. In part I am skeptical of the cost and reliability, at least at present, of alternative devices, and in part I believe there is a very great advantage in being able to hand Rebecca a cassette she can pop into an inexpensive home machine if the terminals are busy when she wants to study her language lessons. In other words, we should not give up the most convenient feature of the best present-day laboratory for any supposed advance; and we may well recoil before the prospect of creating and keeping track of two versions of every audio lesson, one for the computer and one for Rebecca's home portable.

Second, we need a number of editing programs for the computer which will allow us, easily and in full knowledge that the materials are ephemeral, to add a written component to whatever lab programs we decide to use this year and next. Such an editing program can enable a person with no knowledge of computer programming to generate drills by filling in the blanks furnished, and will then manipulate the text so provided in such a way as to set the student challenges of the correct order of difficulty. At the University of Delaware, we are working on editors of this sort, and we have hope that one of several computer-controlled audio devices now available will prove sufficiently inexpensive, rapid in operation, and reliable to satisfy the needs of a language lab.

However, audio material of high quality will, by its nature, always be hard to produce and hard to alter when circumstances change. Moreover, language-laboratory experience suggests that there are limits to student tolerance of even the best taped materials. It may well be that the corpus of audio material should not be much greater than what modern laboratory exercises provide--rather less, in most cases, than was fashionable fifteen years ago. Further growth of the machine-assisted component of the curriculum will probably rely on the possibilities of the interactive terminal alone.

One thing that will hold Rebecca's interest for a while is the contents of her next test. Why not show her the file of all possible test questions? We might then allow her to write notes on the computer addressed to the language staff; she can write her note at any time and it will sit in the computer's memory until someone has leisure to answer it in the same fashion. In this way the computer is being used to increase the efficiency of the consulting system: the course monitor has work all lined up when consulting hours begin, and need not schedule an interview to deliver the needed instruction to the student.

It is a mistake, I think, to hope to generate an entire computerized course by dumping a textbook into the computer. The textbook is cheaper and handier between its own two covers. In fact, neither of the major components of modern language texts--grammatical explanations and whole-sentence drills--is well suited to the computerized format. Audiolingual drills were meant to be spoken aloud; and while there may be some merit in the exercise of writing their sentences by hand, there is surely less in typing them out, and none in having the computer judge the resultant sentence of sixty or more characters for accuracy. Such exercises, even if the computer's judging procedures are sophisticated enough to distinguish typing errors and misspellings from other mistakes, create the least game-like situation imaginable for the student. And, of course, they will perish when someone changes the textbook.

This fate, indeed, is probably in store for any very extensive set of exercises which proceed, point by point, to teach an entire language. Even if they are ideally suited to the computerized medium, and even if they are well-conceived as an individualized course, such

exercises run the risk of obsolescence. (It is my impression, for instance, that most individualized-instruction programs share materials with more conventional instruction in progress at the same institution, and evolve, in a more or less loose fashion, with the standard curriculum. In cases where the two programs swap staff, the staff is reluctant to maintain familiarity with two sets of instructional material at once. And curriculum committees are fickle.)

One way of guarding against obsolescence is to construct small adjunct programs teaching one specific aspect of a language, and compatible with any text. As an example, I might mention my own lesson, Touché, programmed by Dan E. Williams on the University of Delaware's PLATO[1] system, and so called because the student touches the face of the computer screen in order to assemble, from a random vertical list of words, a sentence in the target language. The gaming aspect, besides the visual novelty of the approach, lies in the machine's reaction to an error: the screen goes blank instantly and the whole sentence reappears in a new random order. The lesson makes no claim to teach all of anything, but it illustrates rather well the principle that gaming strategy, subject matter, and medium of presentation can be fitted together to make a coherent whole; and it does drill word-order problems in French, and the grammatical distinctions which manifest themselves in word order, in a thorough and enjoyable way. If the vocabulary used is not that of the student's text, the student can complete the sentence by guessing at the parts of speech; he gets the English translation as a reward for completing the sentence correctly and may or may not learn new vocabulary items in that way. Computers can index and locate such things handily; Touché is less likely to get lost than a similar mini-unit on film or tape or in a pamphlet.

Another, more far-reaching solution to the problem of obsolescence is to program into the computer the entire morphology and syntax of the natural language itself: starting with the inflectional forms and the rules for their choice and formation, and going as far as possible toward generation of whole sentences, toward the vast unexplored territory of combinatory semantics. Ultimately, in other words, the computer must be able to produce inflected forms from their component parts, and diagnose errors in those forms when the student produces them; and it should accept "I'm watering my garden" or "I'm watering my wine" but question "I'm watering my roommate." The task is an unending one, but even the first steps produce workable results. Two projects that have progressed considerably beyond the first steps are those of Henry W. Decker at the University of California at Riverside and of Gerald R. Culley at the University of Delaware.[2]

A computer which "knows" the elements of a language in this way can construct a very large number of forms from a relatively small stock of stored items. The routines which assemble the elements can, at least in theory, accommodate any order of presentation and any specific set of vocabulary: they can be expanded and adjusted to new textbooks without a major overhaul. Certainly, they can fine-tune their challenges exactly to the individual student's requirements.

They can be used as parts of other programs: for instance, a test bank could be designed to include a set of basic sentences plus all the inflectional variations on each one, and would immediately become much smaller (from the computer's point of view) and much larger (from the user's). When the computer "knows" this much about the language, we may even begin trusting it to administer tests of the sort language teachers are comfortable with--tests in formats more humanistically oriented than multiple-choice or true-false.

Given the existence of such programs, written in a computer language our own institution's machines can handle, we can apply ourselves happily for a very long while, devising ever more ingenious and ever more satisfactory ways of delivering parts of the stored information to students and challenging the students to respond in ever more creative ways. One measure of our success, I trust, will always be the frequency of comments like the one I heard about my own material recently: "I dropped by the computing center last night and played Touché for a while."

Notes

[1]PLATO is a registered trademark of the Control Data Corporation.

[2]Henry W. Decker and Thomas Rice, "Generative CAI for Foreign Languages," Proceedings of the National Educational Computing Conference, University of Iowa, 1979, pp. 326-328; Gerald R. Culley, "When PLATO Knows Latin: Advantages of Having the Computer Inflect the Forms," Proceedings of the 1980 Convention of the Association for the Development of Computer-Based Instructional Systems, Washington, D.C., 1980, pp. 237-240.

COOPERATIVE GROUPING IN FRENCH CONVERSATION AND COMPOSITION

Michael D. Oates
University of Northern Iowa

Introduction

FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDENTS AT THE University of Northern Iowa are involved, from their very first course, in oral practice in peer groups.[1] In the first semester course, called "Elementary One," an approach is utilized in which, in addition to regular class meetings, out-of-class groups, guided by advanced undergraduates, provide extra opportunities for students to drill the material presented in class in question-answer expansion-type exercises.[2] The second and third semester courses in French are called "Elementary Two" and "Intermediate." In these courses groups are not scheduled outside of class, but are still used in class to provide fluency training. The text French Conversational Practice[3] is used for much of the in-class group work. The present author also makes extensive use of one-on-one microconversations[4] and ad-lib conversations.[5] These conversations are based on open-ended statements derived from material previously studied. These techniques form the basis for the oral tests administered individually by the teacher. They have been called, for want of a better name, "Comment ne pas mourir de faim en France," and function as follows: a student draws a card on which has been written one of the previously practiced open-ended statements. The goal is to see how long the student can "survive" by keeping the conversation going with the teacher. A grade of "very good," "good," or "no grade" is assigned based primarily on fluency. The grade of "very good" is required on at least one of the three oral tests during a semester if a student is to be eligible for an A.

The three 5-semester-hour courses--Elementary One, Elementary Two, Intermediate--are normally prerequisites to fourth-semester courses in conversation and composition. The fourth-semester courses are, in turn, prerequisites to a fifth-semester course called Advanced Conversation.

Current practice: conversation

Currently the author is teaching both fourth- and fifth-semester levels of conversation and is utilizing cooperative grouping. The decision to utilize this approach stems both from the general success we have had with grouping in our lower-division courses, and from a recent description of cooperative learning groups. In that description, it is claimed that "cooperative learning experiences are more powerful in promoting achievement and positive attitudes toward

the subject area (as well as toward the teacher, other students, and oneself) than are competitive and individualistic learning experiences."[6] In employing this approach, the author decided to base 50% of student grades on group work, which consists of transcribing recorded interviews and dictations, presenting skits, and a group project.

Transcribing interviews. During the first half of the fourth-semester course, taped interviews prepared by previous students in a course in Oral Translation[7] are utilized. Groups meet in our Audio-listening Center and are given from three to four minutes of a recorded interview to transcribe. Working separately, group members write down what they hear. They then compare copies and prepare a final draft of the transcription; each group member signs it. The transcription is turned in in class. It is graded, and, as with other group projects, the same grade is assigned to each member of the group. Groups are generally comprised of two people who have a common free period to use for cooperative assignments. Occasionally three-person groups are allowed to facilitate schedules.

Presenting skits. In addition to transcribing interviews and dictations, each group is responsible for preparing and presenting periodic 5-minute skits based on the tapes and/or the material utilized in class. A group grade is given for both fluency and accuracy. Very often, in addition, ad-lib skits are assigned in class to group members to briefly try out and then present to the class. No attempt is made to give a formal grade for these extemporaneous conversations. Rather, they are used to strengthen supportive relationships among group members and to build fluency.

Group projects. Each group is responsible for interviewing a native or near-native speaker of French. Questions are prepared, a French speaker is contacted, and a 10-minute interview is recorded. A portion of each tape is selected by the teacher and assigned to groups to transcribe during the last half of the semester.

Student reactions

A questionnaire administered midway through the current semester indicates that most of the students are happy with the cooperative groups. The results are shown in Table I. Further evidence of student satisfaction can be seen in the following statements:

> I really enjoy the group exercises. I feel it encourages me to communicate more openly in French. Group settings also help establish rapport among students and we feel more at ease with our French.

> Group work tends to lessen tension and anxiety. I feel at ease here now and I feel I am getting to know people in the class a lot better.

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Table I: The Questionnaire

1. I strongly agree
2. I agree
3. I disagree
4. I strongly disagree
5. No opinion

	1	2	3	4	5	
N	5	15	0	0	0	1. The group dictations and skit preparations are worthwhile.
%	25	75	0	0	0	
N	3	16	1	0	0	2. The groups are helpful in promoting achievement.
%	15	80	5	0	0	
N	6	12	0	1	1	3. The groups are helpful in promoting a positive attitude toward French.
%	30	60	0	5	5	
N	7	9	3	0	1	4. The groups are helpful in fostering supportive and caring relationships.
%	35	45	15	0	5	
N	0	10	9	1	0	5. 50% of the final grade is about the right percentage for group work.
%	0	50	45	5	0	
N	8	12	0	0	0	6. I learn from sharing with another student.
%	40	60	0	0	0	
N	0	1	9	8	2	7. I think I would like French better if I were not in a group.
%	0	5	45	40	10	
N	0	0	13	5	2	8. I would learn more if I were not in a group.
%	0	0	65	25	10	

> The groups make one incorporate many aspects of knowledge, not just the language; you have to think and cooperate.
>
> I like skits if we have a lot of time to prepare for them and the dictations are helping me 'hear' better. I've found if I'm not in a group I don't do things I'm supposed to.

As the questionnaire results indicate, about half of the twenty respondents felt that 50% of the final grade was too high a percentage to base on group work. Two people expressed concern that the groups might benefit the poorer students at the expense of the better. For example:

> These groups are worthwhile and I enjoy working with my partner, however, they could possibly pull a higher level students down if the person they are working with is not responsible or is having problems.

Future plans: composition

Next semester the author will be teaching the fourth-semester course in French composition and will utilize cooperative groups. The decision to employ cooperative groups rather than a form of individualization that has been described elsewhere[8] is due to the excessive cost experienced in the individualized approach, to the problems students had pacing themselves when working alone, and to the lack of proof that students were learning as much through the individualized program as they would have in a traditional teacher-dominated composition class.

The basic methodology to be used will be as follows: each week an in-class composition will be assigned. This composition will be written by a team of 2 or 3 students. (As in the case of the conversation groups, the same grade will be assigned to all members of the group, and groups will be changed each month.) Group compositions will be based on material presented in class, which will be either 1) short stories, articles, anecdotes, poems or songs presented in written and/or oral form, or 2) transparencies of French cartoons, cultural comparisons, etc., assigned initially in class as oral ad-lib exercises and then discussed as a full-class activity before the composition phase begins. Once the initial presentation has set a theme for the composition and highlighted potentially useful structures and expressions, groups will have 30 minutes to work on their compositions. They will spend 5 minutes brainstorming, i.e., recalling the story and suggesting ideas for possible inclusion in the composition. They will then jot down a short outline of the main points of their theme before they start the composition. The actual time spent writing will be approximately 15 minutes. A final 5 minutes will be assigned for proofreading and recopying. As in the case of the oral quizzes previously mentioned, grades on the composition will be given both for accuracy and fluency.

In this three-meeting-per-week course, cooperative group compositions will be written on Friday. They will be corrected by the teacher employing a list of symbols as shown in Figure 1. On Monday, groups will spend 20 minutes actively correcting and rewriting their compositions. Both copies will be handed in for final correction and a group grade will be assigned.

Conclusion

The decision to continue to incorporate cooperative grouping in conversation and composition courses derives both from the belief that working with a partner results in increased attention to grammatical and lexical detail and from the firm conviction that sharing in a mutually responsible situation is the most natural and potentially useful setting for foreign language learning.

Figure 1. Symbols for active correction of compositions[9]

A	A word is missing.
( )	Omit the item in parentheses.
A	Accent: either missing, the wrong accent, or shouldn't be there.
Ang	Anglicism (*obvieux for évident).
Aux	Auxiliary (confusion between avoir and être).
D	Dictionary error or false cognate (temps for heure, cheveux for poils)
Inf	Infinitive: if infinitive, change to another verb form, or vice versa.
M	Mode: if subjunctive, change to indicative, or vice versa.
Nag	Noun agreement: gender and number agreement with adjectives, demonstratives, possessives, past participles, pronouns, etc.
Obj	Object error: confusion in direct object or indirect object (*je téléphone Marie for je téléphone à Marie).
P	Preposition: either wrong or missing.
PC/Imp	Passé Composé/Imparfait confusion
Sag	Subject-verb agreement.
Spel	Spelling.
T	Tense: other than PC/Imp.
WO	Word order (*j'aime New York beaucoup for j'aime beaucoup New York).
X	Any basic grammatical error not covered above but which students should know.

Notes

1. See Renate A. Schulz, "Survey of Successful Undergraduate Foreign-Language Programs in U.S. Institutions of Higher Education." Final Narrative Report prepared for the National Endowment for the Humanities, Grant No. EH-27125-77-67 (March 1978), pp. 57-58.

2. See Michael D. Oates, "A Syntactic Classification of French Verbs as a Basis for Monostructural Presentation at the Beginning Level," Current Issues in Teaching French (Center for Curriculum Development, 1972), p. 85.

3. Gerald E. Logan and Michèle Leroux, French Conversational Practice (Newbury House, 1975).

4. See "Les Microconversations," Le Français dans le Monde, n. 78 (January-February 1971), pp. 29-34.

5. See Michael D. Oates., "Comment ne pas mourir de faim en France," Oral Communication Testing: A Handbook for the Foreign Language Teacher (National Textbook, 1977), p. 66.

6. Barbara Gunderson and David Johnson., "Building Positive Attitudes by Using Cooperative Learning Groups," Foreign Language Annals, v. 13, n. 1 (February 1980), p. 39.

7. See D. C. Hawley and Michael D. Oates., "Oral Translation: An Old Horse for the New Frontier" New Frontiers in Foreign Language Education, ed. Maurice W. Conner (National Textbook, 1980), pp. 67-76.

8. See Michael D. Oates., "Individualizing Instruction in French Composition," Foreign Language Annals, v. 7, n. 4 (May 1974), pp. 456-457.

9. Most of these symbols were suggested by Dr. Ted Higgs of New York University.

A HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM IN INDIVIDUALIZED RUSSIAN

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COLUMBUS ALTERNATIVE HIGH SCHOOL (CAHS) accommodates students coming from many different schools in the Columbus system. The language instruction the students have received prior to attending CAHS is as diverse as the schools they have attended. The Individualized Language Program in Russian, German and French was implemented in September, 1980, to help us deal with the uneven levels of proficiency of the students. The complete Ohio State University Individualized Language Program has been adopted, including texts, tapes, working packets, options, and tests.

The teaching method I use in Russian is modified from the strictly individualized method. I have made 3 specific modifications:

1. Teacher-assisted every period. For about 15 minutes I keep the class together, working on oral drills or communicative exercises, e.g., acting out dialogs written by students or presenting short puppet shows. For the remaining 30 minutes students work in groups or individually, depending on their own place of study in the material. During that time I assist each group for a period of time ranging from 5 to 10 minutes depending on the number of groups or students working individually in the class; this number varies from class to class.

2. Teacher-assisted whenever the student himself asks for assistance. With these students I spend one period in five or six communicating orally for a whole period, based on the material the students have been covering. Otherwise, the students work on their own. This method comes closest to the completely individualized method.

3. Lock-step learning. Here I use all of the individualized material but explain and practice each grammatical point and walk the students through all the options.

About half of the students follow the first method, with the other half about evenly divided between those following the second track and those following the third track. I have found that no matter which method the student is using, he has to be given deadlines and will profit from constant supervision of his progress.

So far this program has worked very well. An important feature of the program is that it lets the student stop at any given point of difficulty and seek out extra help. At the same time, other students are not being held back, but rather can move ahead. The students receive much individual attention, but the teacher has to devote practically every spare moment to the program. Nevertheless, up to this point student success at all levels is quite encouraging.

TECHNOLOGY AND INDIVIDUALIZED TEACHING

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THOUGH THE LANGUAGE LAB BEGAN as the magic solution to large scale second language teaching, it has become the monster that sleeps in the dungeon: Don't disturb it and try to forget it exists. Its original programming, based on pattern drills, has been largely discredited by several new schools of thought regarding second language learning. Complete methodologies built around use of the language lab have come and gone. The 20th century has seen, however, many things bloom, fade, and disappear, only to spring up a few years later bathed in the glow of nostalgia or reactivated as a result of new insights. Perhaps now is the hour of the language lab: a language lab transformed, adapted to human needs and individual requirements, recognizing the teacher as master over technology and the student as an individual. In this paper I shall try to present a few ideas for waking up your language lab and modifying it to fit your needs.

The notion of drill in language learning has of course quite a long history. Drills occur in ancient Egyptian writings and in Greek and Roman schoolbooks, usually in the form of: "On this side is the mistake, on that side is the correct version. Now repeat after me and memorize for all you're worth!" It is hard to dispute the usefulness of a certain amount of pattern drilling: language has automatic structures which must be acquired by the learner to the point of automatic retrieval. While many syntactic and all semantic items need conscious retrieval from memory stores, some features, such as verb conjugations, should spring immediately to the tongue. To be sure, drills are boring in their repetition and frustrating in that no immediate reward is given. The student does not feel that he has learned to speak meaningfully. (How often in real life do we encounter a person saying: "I go, you go, we go, they go, he goes, she goes, it goes?") Like a visit to the dentist, however, the pattern drill is painful but necessary. Can we improve on the experience?

If lab content cannot be much altered, perhaps the circumstances can. Student motivation, for example, has been identified as one of the key factors of successful second language learning. Motivation can be either stifled or encouraged by certain conditions. Many believe that the more regimented, sterile and automatic the setting, pace and materials of an activity, the less motivated the students will be to take part in it.

The language lab has a classic, stereotyped form: a large, square room, usually windowless, painted in the bland neutral colors beloved of academic interior decorators, filled with a series of identical square little boxes. The student has a choice of looking at a blank wall or feasting his eyes on the instructor-monitor sitting immobile, forbidding and probably uncomfortable behind his Wizard-of-Oz console. For the student, human contact consists of occasionally meeting the stern glance of the instructor and, if lucky, hearing a crisp voice in his ear--nine times out of ten pointing out yet another mistake. The tape program unrolls majestically in the student's earphones, giving instructions which cannot be repeated in case of even innocent inattention, producing flowing sounds interrupted by pauses appropriate to a standardized notion of response time. The better student, responding quickly, is left to meditate or sleep during the remaining silence. The poorer student, by contrast, barely begins to stutter his response when the god-like voices on the tape override his quaver: the shock prevents him from hearing the complete answer, and there is no question of his comparing the two answers. Then it is time for the next question. (There must exist somewhere an "average student" who finds the tapes completely suited to his personality and pace, but frankly, I've never met one.) The instructor-monitor, doing his best to give some personal help in a class of 25 or 30, is hard pressed to check the responses of even a third of the students. By the end of the period he is left frazzled, frustrated, and swearing against the powers that invented the blasted machines, especially if two or three of them have broken down in the middle of the program. Under these conditions it may be difficult for the instructor to remember just why language teaching as a career attracted and stimulated him way back when, and indeed this may explain why at some colleges a frequent response is to turn language lab duty over to graduate students and native speaker assistants. These people, generally untrained in teaching methods, now begin making their first attempts at helping and correcting. The results, from the students' point of view, are often ghastly.

This classic use of the language lab is not new. It is the child of scientific optimism, of a faith in the machine born in the 19th century. (An illustration from 1900, one of a series called Anticipations, depicts the world of the year 2000 in glowing terms and a language lab in a form that is extremely familiar. It is startling how little things have changed.) One could put a certain amount of blame on B.F. Skinner and behaviorism, which reinforced the drill approach to language learning. Behaviorism, however, is long out of fashion; the boxy language lab is still with us.

An adapted language lab, variously called library lab, study lab, or fee lab, has slowly evolved. Its relationship to the classic language lab is that of a library to a supervised reading hour. It functions along much the same lines as a library. It occupies a space (preferably not the basic square, but several connecting rooms) which holds varied materials: tapes, records, slides, videotapes, or microcomputer diskettes. It also holds the necessary hardware: tape recorders, record players, slide viewers, video-cassette machines,

microcomputers. A technician hands out materials, helps to explain the workings of the machines, fixes minor technical problems, and sends major repairs to appropriate shops. The lab is open according to the budget of the institution: library hours are ideal, including evenings and weekends. (In our case, we are open five days and three evenings a week.) The decor is also important. Walls can be livened up with posters, cartoons, and multilingual graffiti (of a high-brow nature, of course). Lounge chairs, magazines and newspapers for breaks are psychologically useful. Additional, optional machinery gives the student great control over his materials: he may copy tapes for study at home, which presumably provides an even more soothing setting. As a result of these changes, the student is freed from several constraints: he may choose his time of study, his pace of study, the timing of his breaks, and even, as we shall see, certain materials. The teacher, freed from behind the console, has another hour at his disposal.

Many traditional libraries have well-developed audiovisual sections in which users may listen to Shakespeare, Bach, or lectures; more and more often, in fact, users can also view presentations on videotape. This is a "passive" library system, and knowledge acquired via such circumstances as a part of class work can be tested by writing exams or term papers. The study lab, in addition to being a rich passive system, also has the capability of being an active system: this is our orientation at the University of Guelph.

The Guelph method is used in French language classes in the second, third and fourth years of study. (Classes at lower levels are simply too large to permit its unmodified use.) The philosophy behind this method can be summed up in two words: individualized learning, in which machines in the study lab can facilitate a one-to-one interaction between instructor and student.

Each of our courses has a list of materials graded according to levels, mostly tapes and videotapes. Courses are team taught and the instructors agree on common tapes for each course, presently ranging in number from 30 to 70. Tapes are added constantly via purchase, from the radio, and from teacher-authored materials. Older materials are evaluated, updated or eliminated. The subject matter of the tapes used ranges widely: from art to science, history to fiction, how to cook to how to swear, and much more. Reference tapes in phonetics and syntax are also available; students with particular problems in those areas are encouraged to practice in the study lab.

Once every three weeks, a student consults the catalog and chooses a tape which sounds interesting to him. He listens to that tape as often as he wishes--at home if he wishes--taking notes if necessary. He then records on his own blank cassette a 5-minute résumé of the tape he has been working with, followed by a free-form commentary of 3-5 minutes. On or before the due date for the assignment, he puts his cassette into the storage drawer marked for that course in the study lab. The instructor picks up all the student cassettes on the due date, and listens to them on his portable cassette machine, on

loan from the lab. This machine has two tracks. The instructor sets his machine on the LL track, puts on his earphones, and as the student speaks, he corrects pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. At the end of the résumé, he adds personal comments dealing with idea organization and suggestions for specific error improvements. A grade is given.

The instructor returns the corrected cassettes to the appropriate drawer in the study lab by a set date, usually a week after picking them up. The student picks up his corrected cassette and listens to the whole thing, hearing his voice and the instructor's corrections simultaneously. In this way, correction is immediate, tailored completely to the individual, and it rewards the student by providing personalized comments. (It is strongly recommended as a matter of psychological tactics that the instructor find at least one positive comment to make after five minutes of mistake correction.)

At Guelph, upper level oral language classes are limited to 10-13 students per group and consist of 1 hour conversation class plus lab assignments; an instructor often teaches more than one oral group per semester in addition to literature and written grammar courses. The average correction time per tape for an instructor with some experience is 10-15 minutes, or three hours per assignment. Obviously, then, instructor time can mount up; and even with the greatest enthusiasm, sitting at a machine with earphones on is not the most entrancing occupation: we began by requiring one tape assignment per week, and very quickly changed to one tape every other week. Now, due to increased teaching loads, we are down to one tape every third week.

Student reaction to this method, gauged from written evaluations, has been extremely positive; students particularly like the individualized immediate correction. Second in importance is the freedom of choice, place, and time that the method offers. Negative reactions have included "Tapes are boring" (presumably such a student does not bother to search for an interesting tape, but rather just picks the first one), "I hate all machines," and "My ears hurt."

Instructor reaction is mixed. Everyone appreciates the positive effect of the method on students, but the instructor effort involved is sometimes seen as excessive. Furthermore, simultaneous correction is not an innate talent of all instructors. Anyone who has attempted simultaneous translation knows that there is a knack to listening while speaking at the same time which some people find impossible to master. The effectiveness of corrections may therefore vary from teacher to teacher, along with their enthusiasm. Teachers' negative comments have included: "Students are boring," "I hate machines" and "My ears hurt."

We have developed a version of this method adapted for the larger classes at lower levels: we call it a "comprehension exercise." It is not particularly original, except perhaps in two aspects: our use of tapes of "normal" speech (as opposed to the careful speech of

professionals); and the spoken, free résumé prepared by the students (as opposed to their responding to set questions or preparing written responses). Logistical considerations require, unfortunately, that the comprehension exercise take place in the classic language lab setting. At fixed hours, 9 hours per course, a tape (5-7 minutes long) is recorded onto individual cassettes. Students are free to listen to the tape at their own pace, and may replay it during the period as often as they wish. A vocabulary list of difficult words is visible via an overhead projector throughout the listening period. After students have been listening for about a half hour there is a five-minute discussion of comprehension difficulties. Five minutes before the end of the period, the students remove the class cassette, insert their own blank cassette and record a 3-5 minute résumé in their own words. No notes are allowed, and the projected vocabulary list is removed during this time.

The instructor gathers the student cassettes and listens to them at his own convenience. Correction, of main points only, is done in writing. Corrections and a grade are returned to the student with his own cassette at the beginning of the next lab period. The student then listens to his own recording and compares the written corrections before beginning the next tape. Correction time usually does not exceed 5 minutes per student; with classes of 20-25, this results in a maximum of 2 hours' correction time per lab session.

This type of correction, while individualized, is necessarily confined to gross mistakes; also, it is not immediate. Furthermore, pronunciation corrected by written indications is far from ideal. Still, student reaction to this modified method is good, though less enthusiastic than we have experienced at the upper levels. Instructor reaction is very positive: instructors find making written corrections easier than making oral ones, and the résumés are short, though definitely boring (25 versions of the same topic offer limited scope for variation).

At the beginning of this paper we mentioned pattern drills. Pattern drills are used only in lower level courses. French at Guelph uses no group labs based on pattern drills, but rather such drills are done in study lab. This gives students the freedom to choose the time, pace and place for working with the drills. Student mastery of this material is tested via regular quizzes and exams. This approach toward pattern drills and the use of comprehension-type tapes is consistent with my view that only contextualized use of speech can produce meaningful learning above a certain level.

The Guelph method, then, presents advantages to the learner. Most importantly, the student now controls several aspects of his learning: he may decide on his own pace, his own space and often choose his preferred subject matter. This individualized control seems to improve greatly motivation for learning the language, and this motivation is carried over into more structured phases of learning. Secondly, the student receives feedback on a completely individualized basis, and almost immediately. Unlike live oral

corrections, he may replay the feedback and store it for future reference. Again, this consistent recognition of the student as an individual with a particular interlanguage and special needs greatly encourages positive motivation, one of the key factors in successful second language learning.

PROMOTING ORAL SKILLS IN GERMAN INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

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Introduction

THE GERMAN INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION PROGRAM at The Ohio State University, like its classroom counterpart, is designed to teach all four basic language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Approximately two-thirds of the students currently enrolled in the program have stated that they would not be taking German if an individualized track were unavailable. Some students fear that the classroom pace might be too fast or too slow. A few are insecure about their ability to participate in a group that may contain students who are capable of advancing at a more rapid rate. However, the majority of students entering individualized instruction do so because of scheduling. This program offers them the opportunity to take the first two quarters of German without having to commit themselves to a particular period of time each day. With the German Individualized Learning Center open nineteen hours per week, evenly divided in morning, afternoon, and evening blocks, the student has a great deal of freedom in establishing an attendance pattern.

Visiting the Learning Center is only one of the four components in the course developed by OSU Professor Werner Haas along with Loring Ivanick and Arthur Krumse. The language tapes especially prepared for Individualized German are available at three other locations on campus (all of which offer weekend hours and even a free high-speed tape duplicating service). The DECU (Deutscher Computer Unterricht) computer program created by Professor Heimy Taylor can be used at any of approximately seventy campus terminals. The final component is, of course, the textbook itself. For the 101 level, the text consists of five units, while the 102 course has three units. All of these units have the same basic format that includes a dialog, grammar presentations with accompanying drills, and a reading passage. While Anders Gelehrt, Anders Gelernt (Werner Haas, Ohio State: 1979) has some similarity to any other introductory language textbook, the objectives of an individualized course require a different approach to language learning. The book is designed so that much of the work can be done by the student alone. Grammar explanations are clear and precise, avoiding excessive attention to exceptions in the early stages. Each unit contains a multitude of exercises and most have an answer key provided. Translations and glossaries are included where necessary. By the time the reading passage is reached, all of the grammatical structures and the bulk of the vocabulary will be completely familiar and the student can competently read the material

with little or no explanation required.

The last element of each unit is a self-test ("Selbsttest") that students take on their own and bring to the Center to have graded. Since this is a mastery-based course, students are aware that the minimum passing grade for a unit is 80% or a B-. Therefore, the Selbsttest serves as an indicator of readiness for the actual Achievement Test. (If a student has made few visits to the Center and receives a low grade on the Selbsttest, it is a warning that more time needs to be spent working with the material or that the student requires additional explanation or clarification from the instructor.) As soon as the student is ready, the Achievement Test may be taken. It has a written and an oral section. In the oral test, students will demonstrate that they have mastered grammar and vocabulary and can convey logical spoken responses to questions or hypothetical situations.

This brief overview of the course material indicates that the student is responsible for the great majority of the work that is involved in learning German in our program. This is not a tutorial system where the instructor selects the assignments to fit the individual student's needs. Every student in the program is expected to attain the same specific unit goals that parallel classroom goals of competence in the four basic language skills. Student freedom lies in how the students choose to reach these goals. Homework in its standard form does not exist, for example, and no quizzes or other interim, graded work is required before the Achievement Test. The Selbsttest score is recorded but does not affect the final grade of the unit. The students can mix and vary the amount of attention they devote to each of the course components: the textbook, tapes, computer, and attendance in the Learning Center.

While a few students (e.g., chemistry majors) may be interested in concentrating on reading and others (e.g., voice majors) on pronunciation, most students simply want to "learn German." This means that they want to be able to read on at least an elementary level, to write short passages in a correct and acceptable style, and to understand and speak on a conversational level with some degree of confidence in their pronunciation, syntax, and vocabulary. For the most part, students do not come to the individualized program in hopes of escaping the necessity to speak or read or write; the few that may have had that initial impression immediately discover that, as in the classroom, all four skills are taught.

The speaking skill

Reading and writing skills can be developed with a minimum of student-instructor contact if the materials have been designed correctly and the student is self-motivated. Listening ability can be enhanced with tapes, radio programs, records, films, and so forth. Again, the critical factor is student motivation and discipline for self-study. The fourth skill, speaking, however, cannot be learned by

students on their own. Speaking implies a listener, and at least two people are required for that. Only through contact with a speaker already proficient in the language can a student learn correct pronunciation and acceptable speech patterns.

In a typical classroom, students learn to speak by repetition. The instructor presents a dialog, one segment at a time, and the class repeats in groups or as individuals. When a grammar element is presented the class will orally practice substitution or pattern drills. With a reading passage questions and answers can be used to provide oral practice. The instructor depends on the day-to-day repetition and drills to instill proper pronunciation and usage. Each student might speak only a few minutes each day individually and a few more in choral or group work. If an instructor uses a system of pairing up students, a given student may get a few more minutes of practice but may not be working with an experienced speaker or listener. Nevertheless, the daily opportunity to speak, especially if the student is motivated to work with tapes as well, does provide most students in the classroom track with acceptable oral skills.

Individualized instruction confronts a variety of problems in attempting to teach students to speak. The student is more dependent on tapes for exposure to the language. Since there is no daily class, students do not receive constant reinforcement, not even for a few minutes. Visits to the Center sometimes occur at irregular intervals. Between one session and the next sufficient time may have elapsed for the student to forget or to develop bad habits.

Once the student does come to the Center, the instructor must determine how much time can be spent with each individual. Because students come in at their convenience and scheduling usually permits no more than two and occasionally only one instructor to be available at any given hour, a waiting line of students can develop on some days. Although no rigid formula is followed, during such times an attempt is made to limit work with each student to no more than twenty minutes. Those students still needing or desiring additional contact with an instructor are encouraged to come during the less frequented hours and to return to the Center as often as possible.

In each chapter, the text specifies three points when the student is advised to see an instructor. However, some students will complete all the work in the unit and condense their time in the Learning Center to one visit. While this is not recommended it often occurs, and the instructor must be prepared when it does. Since students do not always work with the same instructor, each oral practice must, in a sense, be self-contained because a specific follow-up session may not be possible. Thus, the constant challenge to the instructor is to make optimal use of every session knowing that many students will attend the Center only two or three times per unit.

In providing oral practice instructors must make decisions in two areas. First, they must be flexible enough to provide short oral practices for the frequent visitor and, by contrast, to select the

most critical aspects that should be covered with students who will have only one or two sessions before the Achievement Test. Second, instructors must also develop a sense of timing that will allow them to do justice to the material and the student's needs while being aware of students who may be waiting.

The textbooks offer a good base on which to build the oral practice sessions. Most of the units are constructed around a specific theme. This structure has several positive implications: students see the same material in a variety of forms (dialog, reading passages, and grammar drills) and they thus become very familiar with it in working through the unit. More importantly, the nature of the topics attracts student attention because the topics are contemporary, humorous, or present ideas that are open to debate: while Unit Two deals with tourists and situations they may encounter, for example, Unit Three looks at the German phenomenon of Heiratsannoncen ("marriage ads"), and Unit Four considers the problems of couples living together.

In short, the text not only provides for learning vocabulary and syntax but also provokes opinion. This increases the possibilities for conversation, in that the students can react to what they read. For example, in the third unit a student can read and discuss various Heiratsannoncen; then one can find out whether the student is for or against them, whether he or she would consider writing one or responding to one and why, what one might write in such a case, and how the ideal partner would be described in a Heiratsannonce. The material has received favorable response. Some students like the topics, some find them off-beat or comical, but no one has complained that a topic is boring. The program frequently attracts non-traditional students, and they also find the topics appealing.

The inverted pyramid

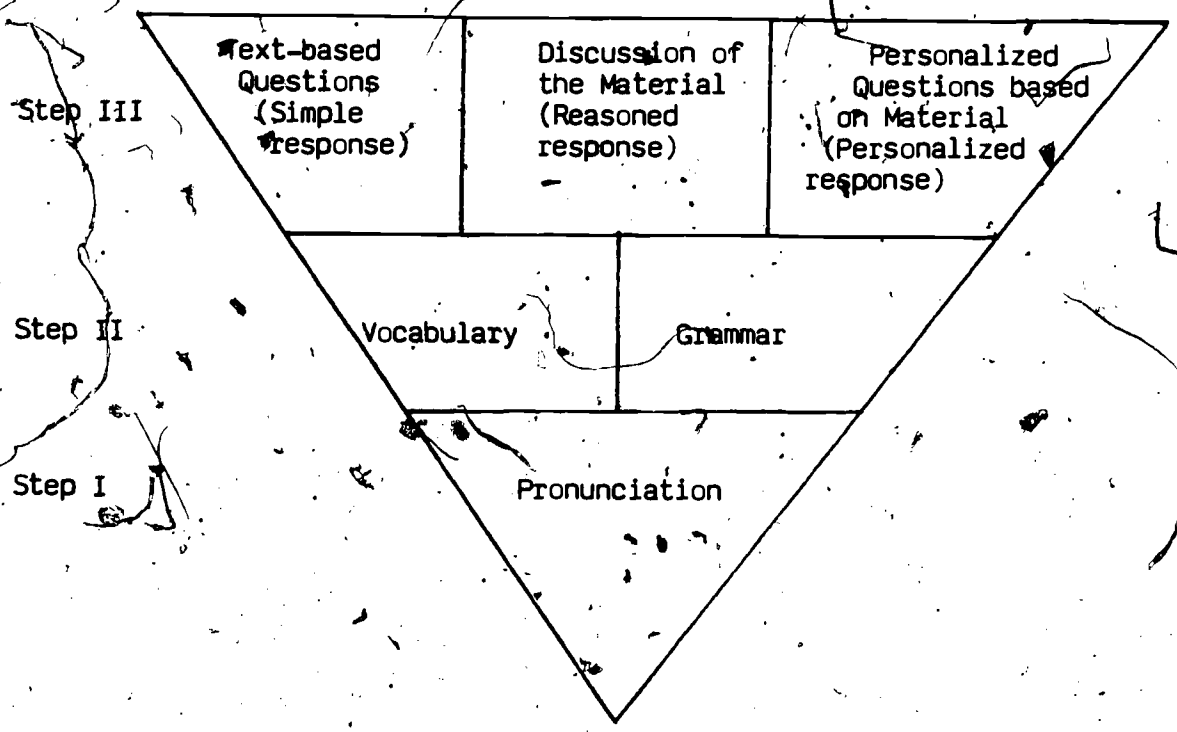
No matter how good the prepared materials may be, the critical factor in teaching oral skills is still the instructor. In an individualized program the instructor must be concerned not merely with a thorough knowledge of the course content but also with efficient interaction with the student to produce the most beneficial results. The key lies in an inverted pyramid approach (see Figure 1) that can be applied whether a student attends the Center once per unit or once each day.

The bedrock of speaking skills is pronunciation. In every session the instructor must provide a proper model for the student, correct errors, and encourage continual refinement beyond the minimum acceptable level. Many students tend to become careless when other considerations such as complex grammar require their attention; thus, the instructor must consistently demand the best possible pronunciation. Reading a short passage aloud is one method to check quickly for problems.

FIGURE 1.

Inverted Pyramid Concept

for Oral Practice Sessions



The next layer of the pyramid has two blocks. The instructor must determine whether the student has mastered the grammar and the active vocabulary of the unit. The first of these blocks can be reviewed by means of pattern drills. Vocabulary can be monitored by questions and answers or translations of short sentences. For example, in Unit Two the student is asked to give various commands such as "tell me not to smoke," "tell me to read the book," and so forth. Major demands are placed on instructors in this process. They must have a thorough knowledge of the sequence of grammar presentation and vocabulary and must be able to call to mind quickly suitable pattern sentences and questions. The less instructors rely on the textbook or notes for these practices, the more aware students become of the spoken nature of the language. Ideally, even at this stage students can feel they they are taking part in a conversation because of direct eye contact with the instructor and independence from the written word.

After the student has demonstrated competence on these two levels the next step can be made. Exactly when the transition should occur in each session is a matter of the instructor's judgment of student progress and readiness. In some cases the instructor may feel it necessary to remain on the second level or even to concentrate on the first while drawing in some grammar and vocabulary. At other times the amount of practice on the first two levels may be minimal. In either instance, in moving to the third level neither of the first two steps is consequently ignored for the remainder of the session. However, the focus does change somewhat.

Students are encouraged at this third level to respond to the material, expressing what they know and ultimately what they think. The instructor must evaluate just how much precision in syntax and pronunciation can be sacrificed. A balance must be maintained to prevent passive encouragement of bad habits or over-correcting that tends to intimidate and inhibit the student. The degree of flexibilty varies, but we make an effort to keep our standards as consistent as possible to avoid the impression that one instructor is tougher or more lenient than another. The possibilities for conversation on this level range from simple responses to questions based on the material, to discussions of the nature of the topic, pros and cons, and conclusions to be drawn. The instructor's goal is to spend as little time as possible on basic responses and to concentrate instead on the student, who is usually most interested in how the material could conceivably apply to his or her own life.

If the instructor has successfully guided the student through the two lower levels, the student should feel relaxed and confident when the third level of the pyramid is reached. At this level a good individualized-program instructor will bring a healthy dose of patience and a good sense of humor into play and should exhibit a sincere interest in the individual. (These same ingredients are, after all, some of the key elements of any good conversation.) The discussion should not consist of mechanically personalized questions but should accurately reflect the involvement of the two individuals: the instructor and the student. Most students, because of th

one-on-one contact, view the instructor as a friend and often spontaneously share--in the target language--information about family, romances, hobbies, or something of personal importance. With this sort of interaction there are no disinterested class members to worry about. The personalized attention given by the instructor gains the student's confidence and creates an atmosphere in which even shy students will usually feel comfortable. Again, the instructor must show a genuine interest in the other person in order to have successful oral practice sessions.

In every single practice, from the very first one, the instructor's goal is to reach the third level quickly while never neglecting the two lower levels. It is possible in the first session with a student who has never had German before to discover whether the student owns a car, what sports he or she plays or what activities are enjoyed. Students can describe themselves and what they think are common clichés referring to Americans, Germans, and Austrians. Beginning with Unit One, the student is expected to answer questions, to ask questions of others, or give commands. As they continue, the students learn to build upon a base of standard responses and to explore their growing knowledge of German to meet individual needs of self-expression. In short, the student is taught to speak German in the context of personal responses and learns to become self-reliant in the new language.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is not to proclaim superiority of an individualized approach. The course does provide, however, a legitimate alternative for those students who need a non-traditional method of learning German. Moreover, the individualized program does not sacrifice a commitment to teaching all four language skills: such a program does not have to content itself with imparting minimal competency in oral skills. It can successfully give students a sense of confidence and independence that they carry with them to the third- and fourth-quarter classroom track courses and beyond. Students can and do make the transition from the individualized to the classroom program wth ease.

German Individualized Instruction at Ohio State does not pretend to have all the answers to teaching oral skills, but what we have done so far seems to be working for our students. Moreover, they frequently tell us how much they enjoy learning German with this method. Instructors are constantly exchanging ideas and trying out new techniques to improve oral practices. The demands for creativity and good pacing are intense, but instructors readily agree that the results reflected by happy and competent students are well worth the effort.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INDIVIDUALLY PACED POLISH PROGRAM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-STEVENS POINT

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IN THIS PAPER I WOULD like to return, with thanks, the encouragement I received at the First National Conference on Individualized Language Instruction. At that time I was beginning work on such an individualized program for Polish to fit the rather specific needs of our campus. I will summarize the practical steps and decisions taken on the way to implementing a second-semester, individually paced course in introductory Polish. Hopefully, this description of the preparation of our Polish program may be instructive to others as they develop curricula for the less commonly taught languages.

Stevens Point, Wisconsin is situated in a rich agricultural area, formerly the bottom of prehistoric Lake Wisconsin, in the geographic center of Wisconsin. The town is named after a certain George Stevens, who made the original survey of the area in 1838. The majority of the settlers who came for the next 100 years were Polish.

When I was appointed to teach Russian at the University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point (UW-SP) in 1972, I was surprised that they did not insist on a background in Polish; I was also relieved, since jobs were scarce that year. As we all know, ethnic groups have not always been interested in studying, or even recognizing, their heritage; this was the case with much of the Stevens Point area Polish population. Furthermore, staffing difficulties had made it impossible to add offerings in Polish to the regularly taught languages at the university: French, German, Russian and Spanish.

With the strong support of the Department of Foreign Languages and Comparative Literature and constant efforts to improve the faculty, all of the regularly taught languages at UW-SP have increased in enrollment over the years. They registered a 10% gain this year over last. We have been able to add a mini-sequence in Chinese, with alternating first- and second-year courses, and independent reading courses; this year we were again able to indulge in the luxury of a course in New Testament Greek. By the fall of 1978, staffing problems had eased sufficiently for the chairman to suggest that I initiate a program in Polish.

After discussing various options, we elected to develop a Polish course that would answer the requests and queries of local residents who, in contrast to past attitudes, now desired to promote ethnic awareness. A strong start had already been made in some areas, but

actual language courses in Stevens Point were limited to an occasional offering of conversational Polish at the branch vocational and technical education campus. Many faculty felt that there was a need for an academically oriented Polish language course. Budgetary constraints precluded adding faculty for the purpose of teaching Polish, however, so Mark Seiler, the department chairman, and I determined that we would develop a second semester course to enable students who had completed a first semester of Polish in our already established program in Cracow to complete their general degree requirement of one year of a foreign language. (This language requirement, incidentally, applies only in some colleges and may be satisfied by two years of high school study of a foreign language.)

Since my academic year is taken up with our Russian program, leaving no time for such a major project, we established the objectives of selecting a text, making materials, and recording master tapes for the program, by the end of summer 1979. The next step was to seek some funds for the program, for recording, travel, and supplies, as well as staff support in terms of summer salary.

The university's Office of Experimental Studies and Innovative Programs was the first to come to the assistance of the project: it provided some funds for travel and supplies and to hire a native speaker of Polish to record tapes once the materials had been selected and prepared. With this help, I was able to acquire textbooks for consideration and to travel to the university campus at Madison to consult with the Polish instructor there. Further assistance came from the dean of the College of Letters and Science, who made it possible for me to attend the First Conference on Individually Planned Language Instruction held in Columbus, Ohio, in May, 1979.

A major concern was to select a suitable textbook. Since UW-SP has a text rental program, the cost of the textbook to the student was of no concern. It was important, however, that the textbook be available without undo travail, and that it follow a coherent and fairly simple lesson plan and course of study requiring little faculty guidance. Further, we decided it should cover the normal patterns of daily conversation without demanding heroics of vocabulary memorization, and should concentrate on useful pattern repetition rather than on the learning of grammatical rules or feats of translation. If possible it was desirable that there be tapes or records of dialogues and other materials.

A number of texts were considered, including Schenker's two-volume Beginning Polish, Swan's Concise Grammar of Polish, and two texts printed in Poland: Język polski dla cudzoziemców, published by the University of Warsaw's Studium Jezyka i Kultury Polskiej dla Cudzoziemcow, and Mówimy po polsku, from the Wiedza Powszechna publishing house.[1] After consultation with Mrs. Lilian Vallee, the Polish instructor at Madison, I narrowed the field to the two texts from Poland. The first, Język polski dla cudzoziemców, seemed advantageous for several reasons. It is the one used by the Cracow program language instructors, and hence was already familiar to our

students who had taken Polish 101 there. It consists of drills and transformation exercises, and it is oriented toward repetition and gradual expansion of structural diversity, rather than toward descriptive grammar or translation exercises. For our program, however, Język polski dla cudzoziemców had several major drawbacks. First, it is entirely in Polish. Since our Polish course would have to function with virtually no staff, a text containing concise English introductions to structural concepts as they are encountered in lessons seemed preferable. Secondly, Język polski dla cudzoziemców presented much more material than we would ordinarily require in a first-year sequence, and it did not seem that we could expect more of the students who were working through an individually paced program than we require of, for example, first-year Russian students. Next, no tapes or records were available, nor was there a glossary in the text or a companion dictionary. Finally, availability of the text was uncertain. (Our students returning from Cracow were not permitted to keep their Polish books. One had managed to exit with his rather bedraggled copy of Język polski dla cudzoziemców, but apparently the text was out of print and the Cracow instructors were trying to conserve their supply. Thus it seemed that no steady supply of the text could be obtained.)

The alternative, Mówimy po polsku, also had its positive and negative points. This text is somewhat simpler than might be desired; the explanations are very brief, and they do not follow the order I have become used to in my Russian text, Stilman and Harkins' Introductory Russian Grammar.[3] On the other hand, Mówimy po polsku covers the structural elements we would wish to include in an introductory course. It covers the forms and uses of the cases in Polish. (For the non-Slavs among us, these are the nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, instrumental, locative, and vocative, with singular and plural forms.) It also includes past, present, and future verb tenses, imperative and conditional moods, and some time expressions. Enclitic and non-enclitic forms of pronouns are also presented, along with other idiomatic structures. The book also contains a key to the exercises, an appendix summarizing grammatical forms, and a Polish-English glossary. While I would have preferred also an English-Polish glossary, Mówimy po polsku came the closest to fitting all the criteria established for our Polish 102 course. Each lesson begins with two or three conversations, followed by grammatical explanations, idioms and expressions, and exercises. As a motivational bonus, there is a simple, minor-key story about the work, travel and diversions, courtship and marriage of the Polish couple in the book, Adam, an engineer, and Ewa, a doctor. While it is no high drama, the unfolding story accompanies language development and provides an extra reward. There is an accompanying set of records of the conversations, complete with sound effects. The positive features of Mówimy po polsku made it appear to be the best choice.

The matter of articulation was also considered in the process of choosing between Język polski and Mówimy po polsku. Since the student would have started with Język polski in Cracow, logic might seem to dictate that he or she be allowed to continue in that same book. The

supply problem, however, along with other drawbacks, seemed to indicate otherwise. Since Mówimy po polsku is relatively brief, I decided that the student could use the earlier chapters for a review of the structures presented in them; this review would also assure that the student was acquainted with anything in Mówimy po polsku that had not been introduced in the Polish 101 course in Cracow. Also, a period of at least four weeks would have passed since the student left Cracow to return home for the long break between semesters. A review was thus very desirable, and by perusing the early chapters a student would also become acquainted with the minor story line of Mówimy po polsku.

While the text was available at an acceptable price from a local Pole who deals in books as a sideline, it was much more expensive through him that it would be in Poland. It happened that my native speaker of Polish, Mrs. Gena Numsen, had a relative in Poland who was happy to send us the texts in quantity, at less than half the cost charged by the local dealer. As the book suggests, we put the conversation recordings on tapes, and Mrs. Numsen recorded the additional materials that we prepared together. I wrote directions for doing exercises, questions reviewing the vocabulary and structural concepts in each unit, and dictations with the same purpose. Then Mrs. Numsen checked the accuracy of the Polish.

Each lesson begins with the recordings of the conversations. There is a brief explanation of the grammatical points being covered, then native pronunciation of the examples given in the book, with time for the students to imitate the models after each word. The exercises in the text follow, with cues, pauses, and correct answers. Next there are questions reviewing the structural points and the content of the lesson, followed by pauses and a correct answer to each question. Finally, the dictation is read to the student in varying ways three times.

The tapes were recorded on a Panasonic portable cassette recorder RQ-4135, or on a Wollensak model 2620 desk-top recorder, in the recording booth of the language laboratory. While this equipment is by no means sophisticated, it provided what I regarded to be adequate reproduction, particularly in view of the fact that the students would have received live Polish instruction and spent three months or so in Cracow during the first semester. After recording several tapes, I took them to Madison to get Mrs. Vallee's opinion of their fidelity and the accuracy of the Polish. She agreed that in both regards they were of high quality. Accordingly, Mrs. Numsen and I completed the rest of the lessons upon my return.

The individually planned course, Polish 102, is now completed. (Time permitted us to prepare the same sequence of materials for the entire book, so that in theory, a student can do the entire first-year Polish course on an individually paced basis.) The tapes are available in the language laboratory, and copies of the questions that are not in the text and of the dictations can be obtained from me. The program functions without staff being employed on a regular

basis. This is possible perhaps because Mrs. Numsen is eager to promote the study of Polish and is willing to answer any questions that I cannot. (I do not pretend to be able to offer extensive vocabulary or model pronunciation, but my rudimentary knowledge of Polish and general knowledge of Slavic languages enable me to explain the simple structures introduced in Mowimy po polsku without problems.)

The development of this program cost the University of Wisconsin-Stevens Point approximately $2,500. While it is intended primarily for those UW-SP students who have participated in the semester program at Cracow, others are welcome to utilize it. Last spring, the textbook, materials, and Mrs. Numsen were employed for an introductory course in conversational Polish which enrolled 33 students from the campus and the community. Some of these students are now participating in the Cracow semester, so their progress in Polish will be interesting to observe.

Notes

[1]Alexander M. Schenker, Beginning Polish, Revised Edition; Volume One: Lessons, Polish-English Glossary; Volume Two: Drills, Survey of Grammar, Index, Yale University Press, New Haven and London, 1973. Oscar Swan, A Concise Grammar of Polish, University Press of America, Washington, D.C., 1978; Teresa Iglikowska and Lidia Kacprzak, Język polski dla cudzoziemców, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, Warsaw, 1978. Waclaw Bisko, Stanislaw Karolak, Danuta Wasilewska, and Stanislaw Krynski, Mówimy po polsku, A Beginner's Course of Polish, Panstwowe Wydawnictwo Wiedza Powszechna, Warsaw, 1977.

[2]Of these books, two are newly prepared and two are older editions: Barbara Bartnicka and Danuta Buttler, Język polski dla cudzoziemców; Cwiczenia leksykalno-stylistyczne; 1978. Barbara Bartnicka and Roxana Sinielnikoff, Słownik podstawowy języka polskiego dla cudzoziemców, 1979; Witold Cienkowski, Gramatyka języka polskiego dla cudzoziemców, Czesc II, Fleksja (z cwiczeniami), 1970; and Wybór tekstów na użytek lektoratów języka polskiego dla cudzoziemców, Czesc I, selected and edited by Cezary Rowinski, 1972. All were prepared by the Studium jezyka polskiego i jultury polskiego dla cudzoziemcow, also known as the Polonicum, and published by the Warsaw University Publishing House Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego.

[3]Galina and Leon Stilman, and William E. Harkins, Introductory Russian Grammar, Second Edition, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1972.

SELF-PACED INSTRUCTION IN INTERMEDIATE RUSSIAN

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MATERIALS FOR INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION IN Russian at six different levels (six academic quarters) are now available in the Department of Slavic and East European Languages and Literatures of The Ohio State University: Elementary Russian 1 and 2, and Intermediate Russian 1 - 4. The first four courses were discussed in detail at the First National Conference on Individualized Instruction in Foreign Languages (May 1979); thus, here I shall concentrate on developments since that time, i.e., on Intermediate Russian (IR) 3 and 4.

Intermediate Individualized Russian is a self-paced, mastery-based (with a minimum of 80% proficiency), variable-credit, instructor-assisted course which also offers some choice of learning activities. Adhering to the policy adopted by the Department for the preceding individualized courses, the same basic text is utilized in both the classroom and the individualized tracks in order to allow relatively easy transfer from one track to the other. The text, Making Progress in Russian (a 2nd year course) by P. Davis and D. Oprendek[1] consists of 18 lessons and two reviews. Each lesson contains a short reading selection, covers several grammar points and provides some drills and exercises; each lesson also has a section on word formation, and concludes with a speech practicum. One half of the text (Lessons 1-9) is covered in IR 3, the other half (Lessons 10-18) in IR 4. (The two review lessons conveniently fit this division.) Textbook work amounts to about 70% of students' time, while the remaining 30% is allotted to supplementary extensive reading in IR 3 (The Little House in the Swamp[2]), and to listening and speaking in IR 4 (the film series Shurik, Vasya and the Verb[3]).

In addition, the student is provided with supplementary materials designed specifically for these self-paced courses.[4] The supplement for each course is divided into five units; each unit is worth one credit hour and covers two lessons from the text (the last unit in each course covers one lesson and a review), and about ten pages of reading in IR 3, or one 20-minute videotape in IR 4. The unit includes a learning packet and answer keys. The learning packet is arranged in the format of an activity schedule: a step-by-step study guide with specific instructions of what to do to complete each unit. The directions refer the student to the appropriate chapters in the text and exercises; they also include suggestions and hints on learning strategies and techniques, provide supplementary grammar explanations, drills, exercises, charts, readings, pictures, cultural and historical comments, etc. A set of nine tapes accompanies IR 3,

each tape containing the reading selection from one lesson of the text, recorded with pauses. There are no tapes for IR 4, and the textbook reading passages are not included in the units; the work with the videotape more than compensates for the omission. Thus, the two courses, while devoting the major portion of the time to grammar, emphasize multiple skills.

The reader The Little House in the Swamp (IR 3) was chosen primarily for its consistent recurrence of vocabulary items, the abundance of verbs of motion, and the fast moving plot. These features make the story easy to retell and ensure retention of the lexical material without forced memorization. Although the main objective of the reading component in this course is vocabulary buildup, reading-for-meaning skills have also been kept in mind; specific activities have been designed to help the student read Russian with greater comprehension and with a minimum of dictionary work.

The objective of the videotape work (IR 4) is to help the student understand Russian spoken in various situations by native speakers at normal tempo. The student is expected to understand what is going on in the film, what the characters are doing and what they are saying in certain situations. In the first unit of IR 4 the students are only supposed only to read about the characters involved in all four films; the remaining four units include viewing one film each. The films are built around the following topics: "Family," "City," "Work," "Recreation." The scripts of the films are available for the instructors, but are not given to the students. The units contain vocabulary and cultural notes, questions and exercises. The student is asked to view the film one or more times, to answer questions on its contents, to identify characters who are saying given phrases and to describe the situations in which the phrases are uttered, to write the missing lines in excerpts from the script, and to provide oral responses to various colloquial expressions (invitations, requests, etc.).

Each IR 3 and IR 4 unit concludes with a test consisting of two parts: part 1 covers grammar and comprises 70% of the grade; part 2 is on the reading or the videotape material and is worth 30% of the grade. The minimum passing grade is 80% for each part. There are no finals in the individualized courses since each unit test is cumulative.

The students are introduced to the program individually. During the first visit, the student receives an Orientation Packet which explains the administration of the program, testing, grading, and adjustment of credit procedures, and describes the materials and the learning center. The students are cautioned in advance not to be overwhelmed by the lengthy learning packets: the orientation towards independent study time without the presence of an instructor results in heavy reliance on written explanations. These explanations of rules, learning hints and suggestions, references, etc., are included in activity schedules and answer keys and play the role of the teacher in a classroom situation.

Notes

[1]P. Davis and D. Oprendek, Making Progress in Russian (a 2nd year course), New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973.

[2]E. Ryss and L. Rakhimov, The Little House in the Swamp. The Russian Packet. Baltimore: Friends School (5114 N. Charles, Baltimore, MD 21210), 1968.

[3]Shurik, Vasja i ... glagol (Shurik, Vasya and the Verb). The scripts for the film are found in Korrektirovochnyj kurs russkogo jazyka (A Corrective Russian Course). Moscow: Russkij jazyk, 1978.

[4]A. Rugaleva, Intermediate Russian 3. Individualized Instruction and Intermediate Russian 4. Individualized Instruction. Columbus: College of Humanities, The Ohio State University, 1980.

[5]Readings from Lessons 1 - 9 in Making Progress in Russian, recorded with pauses. Columbus: Slavic Department, The Ohio State University, 1980.

INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION AT CALIFORNIA STATE COLLEGE, SAN BERNARDINO: "WE MUST BE DOING SOMETHING RIGHT."

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TO UNDERSTAND THE SYSTEM OF individualized instruction at California State College, San Bernardino, it is necessary to know the nature of this college. It is a small institution where at least half of the students work full-time. Few live on campus; many commute from as far away as 75 or even 100 miles; they usually prefer to attend classes only twice per week during the day or limited times in the evenings. The French department is small and in constant competition with Spanish--which is naturally the more popular language in a bilingual state. We have no graduate students to help teach in the program; almost everything must be done by the faculty. All these factors had to be considered in setting up a self-paced program.

Scheduling

The system works as follows: no class or group meetings are arranged before registration. When students register they are asked to write down their free hours so that we can arrange group sessions. The hours for these meetings are arranged the following day. Thereafter, students may attend any session they wish and as many as possible; they need not attend the same ones each week. The only requirement is that they attend class at least once for each unit, before taking the unit's written exam.

Methodology

Ours is a modified form of the direct method, in that the teaching takes place in French; the modification is that new concepts are not acted out but explained, if necessary (though it is rarely necessary), in English for the sake of speed. Students receive a study guide which tells them exactly how to proceed. They are asked, for example, to listen to the tapes and to study the grammatical concepts before coming to a class. The class session is highly important in our program. In actual fact, however, it is impossible to make attendance obligatory. (Students are told that they must go to class at least one time per unit or their grade will suffer.) The purpose of the class session is to test the students' comprehension of the grammatical structures through oral questions.

The students attending any given class meeting are usually studying different units. This would test severely the instructors' ingenuity without the special materials that we have prepared. With these materials, however, it is possible to conduct the class in French (except for grammatical explanations given in English), to cover the material of different units, and to personalize the language use so that it may be suited to the quick learner as well as the slow, to the extrovert as well as the shy student. (There are many shy students who have said, "I could never have had the courage to speak like this in front of a large class.")

In our program the groups are always small because of the necessity of offering a large number of sessions: to meet the students' schedules, classes must be offered at many times of the day. The average number of students in a class at one time is six, often less, rarely more. This means that in spite of attending class only once a week instead of the usual four or five times, students have as much chance for oral practice as those in a traditional class format. All oral questions are of a personal nature, using the vocabulary of the given presentation: we find that students are easily bored by questions on the written text, but personal questions make the language come alive for them. They get the idea that language is really a means of communication. (This is particularly vital in a self-paced course where so much of the work is done independently.) The questions we use are equally suitable for a large class or for a class of one. (In most texts, questions assume the existence of several other students.)

Of course, any idea of conducting drills or of reading the text of the unit during our class sessions must be abandoned. Such activities have their place in a regular class, but in a self-paced session there is not enough time. The students' knowledge of the text is tested in another way (through the lab tapes) and they are encouraged to practice verb drills on their own. Many students who commute considerable distances listen to the tapes in the car or record their verb drills while they drive. The chance of doing homework while driving is much appreciated; it may be said that this could be done in any class, but it is the independent attitude which the self-paced stuoents acquire, once they realize that the learning process is up to them, which gives them the motivation to turn off the music and turn on the French.

Grading and testing

The program is really self-paced, in that slow students are allowed to take an extra quarter to finish if they really need it. They receive a "Satisfactory Progress" grade and continue without penalty. In this way we adhere to the principles of the Keller theories. Written and multiple choice oral tests are used to determine the students' readiness for the next unit. It is, however, the students themselves who decide when they are ready to take the test. Sometimes they hesitate a long time over the first test, but when they pass it they gain confidence and progress more quickly.

Materials

The main source of materials is, naturally, the textbook. There is no book on the market specially oriented toward self-paced learning. In some books too much material is presented in each lesson; the student cannot possibly assimilate it at once by himself. In other books the grammatical explanations in French are too elaborate and too complex for the student to understand on his own. In many cases, the various parts of each lesson, text, grammar and exercises are not well connected. It became apparent that a text specifically suited to the objectives set for self-paced learning was needed. This is the origin of our own book.

The book is divided into 30 lessons (10 for each quarter; 15 for each semester). Every lesson is divided into 3 parts (A, B, C). Each part is self-contained, and offers a presentation, an explication (grammatical explanation), and written and oral exercises. Students tell the instructor when they come to class whether they are ready for Part A only of Lesson X, Parts A and B, or the whole unit. Questions are then adapted accordingly by the instructor. As noted, except for brief explanation of grammar points, no English needs to be used: the teaching process is done entirely through questions and answers.

Part A of each lesson is considered a transition, with review of previous materials leading into the new. For instance, for the introduction of the imparfait (imperfect tense) a sentence in the present is given and contrasted with one in the imperfect tense (e.g., Aujourd'hui je travaille peu; il y a 5 ans je travaillais beaucoup). The presentation of Part A may seem somewhat contrived and stilted, but its simplicity gives the student confidence before he proceeds to the idiomatic French in Parts B and C.

Several other aids are available for use on a voluntary basis. A "tutorette" for pronunciation of vocabulary in every lesson is one such aid: a card with a word and a picture of the word is run through a machine. The student hears the pronunciation of the word and repeats it right after the instructor's voice. Exposure to hearing the words in French and being able to repeat them is of great importance to the student who works alone.

The student can also take advantage of vocabulary drills on computer. He has the choice of translating from French into English or vice-versa. Also available are drills on verb conjugation (regular and irregular) based on the verbs used in the book. In this age of technology, the students find it a challenge to work with complex machines, especially in a foreign language.

A set of tapes accompanies the book. In addition to covering the material in each lesson, the tapes also include a multiple choice test which the student has to turn in with his regular written test. This manner of testing is one more way of making the student aware of the necessity of using the tapes, since part of his quiz is included in those tapes. Also, a short audiovisual program supplements the tapes

for each unit. For example, Chapter 4 in the book deals with organizing a picnic. The telephone calls about the picnic are heard on the tape, and pictures of the picnic are shown. A review of the main grammatical points in the form of examples directly drawn from the text follows the pictures on huge cards visible on a screen. One cannot stress enough the importance of audiovisual materials in a self-paced program.

Discussion

Some students choose the self-paced course over the traditional because they perceive it as a better method of learning; others choose it simply because the class hours, which are scheduled at their convenience rather than that of the instructors, make this the only course possible for their schedule. Whatever their motivations, we welcome all students into the program, knowing from previous experience that this is the only way to draw students into the awesome field ("a foreign language"), and knowing also that some of them once in the program may find it pleasurable enough to continue with a major or minor in French. Some students choose the self-paced option because they have had French before and wish to progress fast, perhaps finishing 101 and 102 in one quarter. Others choose it because they are shy, as was mentioned above: such students find an unexpected benefit in meeting new people each week, since students may vary the sessions they attend. Students can also develop a close relationship with the instructors because of the personalized attention possible in such a course.

As in any self-paced course our students procrastinate, then rush to finish before the end of the quarter. Even students who really do not need the extra time claim it nevertheless. Some students are not mature enough to handle a course where decisions must be made independently; this maturity seems to have nothing to do with age, but rather with self-discipline.

The chief problems, however, confront the instructors. We have no student assistants: proctors were tried at one time, but they did not work out (probably because they had not the sense of responsibility which graduate students have). We are fortunate, at least, to have a tutor in the Learning Center who can help the slow students and can give some of the written tests. Where the instructor chiefly needs help, however, is with the class sessions. The number which usually has to be offered varies between 20 and 30 sessions for 101, 102 and 103, according to the number of students involved and their schedules. This puts a heavy load on the instructor, especially as he or she must be prepared to give both p[illegible] tests and tests at times when the Learning Center is not open (and it must be remembered that 40% of our students can come only at night) as well as keeping all the records, seeing to such things as the correct use of laboratory tapes, tutorette, and computer programs.

On the other hand, there is no class preparation time necessary; indeed it is impossible, because the instructor must be ready at all times for any unit level. Conducting a class using our own materials has become simple. The instructor never has the frustration, so often experienced in a traditional class, of seeing the slower students fall behind because they have not mastered the material. Classes can be lively and stimulating: students come with the material prepared, and often pose very ingenious questions of their own during the last ten minutes devoted to informal conversation. Much flexibility is needed on the part of the students because they may all be on different levels and must adapt their questions to each fellow student's level. The process is fun and provides good review.

Conclusion

The self-paced program may not be suited to all instructors, nor, for that matter, to all students. Those students who have not the necessary discipline or maturity to work on their own, for example, will do better in a traditional class. The major advantage for the instructor in self-paced courses, however, is in seeing the program produce students with a solid grasp of the language, and in watching the enrollment grow: this quarter our French 101 enrollment reached a higher figure than that of the language requirement days. We must be doing something right.

MATERIALS DEVELOPED FOR INDIVIDUALIZED ELEMENTARY SPANISH COURSES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT DAVIS

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University of California, Davis

IN ORDER TO GIVE THIS presentation some perspective and needed background, I would like to begin by giving a brief description of the Individualized Beginning Spanish Program at the University of California, Davis (U.C. Davis). (A detailed description of the U.C. Davis program, presented last year at The Ohio State University's First National Conference on Individualized Instruction in Foreign Languages, is available in the published proceedings of that conference.)

Individualized Spanish 1AT, 2AT and 3AT (AT = auto tutorial) provide a popular alternative for 350-400 students who are interested in learning beginning Spanish but are unable to fit a full six-unit course into their schedules. The Spanish AT Program at U.C. Davis allows each student to proceed at his own rate towards proficiency in the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Except for Spanish 1ATA, there is no fixed number of class meetings per week. Student/teacher contacts consist of individual tutoring, small group conversation sessions and testing periods. Culture and conversation are presented in a variety of ways: through selected readings in the text and in supplementary readers, through student reports on culture topics of their own choosing, and through a related series of audio-visual programs which are viewed in the language laboratory. The culture topics are always discussed in small conversation groups.

Student orientation materials

One of the first problems to be faced in starting our program was how to answer the question asked by each and every student wanting to enroll in our individualized program: What is the AT? We began by doing a once-a-quarter general orientation for all students wanting to know about the AT Program. This idea worked well and we continue to use it; however, it works only for those students who attend the orientation. At U.C. Davis approximately 150 students show up for the orientation session on the first day of classes each quarter; but an additional 200-250 students enroll in the program during the first 3-4 weeks of classes. Needless to say, we very quickly realized that we could not explain the program individually to students who had not attended the orientation. As a result we created a slide/sound presentation that gives a thorough audio-visual explanation of how the program works. We call our presentation "What is AT?" and keep

several copies of it in our language laboratory. Now, whenever a student asks "What is AT?", or whenever a student comes in saying he/she wants to enroll in th AT Program, the first question we ask the student is "Have you seen the slide/sound presentation describing the program?" If not, the student is promptly sent to the language laboratory to view the 15-minute presentation. The slide show explains how the program works and shows the students what materials are used, what type of instruction is available, how testing and grading are done, how much spoken Spanish is learned, and how to enroll in the program.

TA orientation materials

The slide/sound presentation is so complete and concise that we now also use it at the general orientation meeting as well as in orienting the teaching assistants assigned to the individualized program. In addition, we have put together a TA Orientation Packet for Spanish 1AT, 2AT and 3AT. This packet contains the written script of the "What is AT?" presentation as well as the following: detailed instructions on registration procedures for new and continuing students in the AT Program; copies of the student packet materials; aominstration materials including student record keeping forms, room use schedule, and a complete breakdown of course requirements for each two-unit segment; and testing and grading materials.

Student packet materials

Student Packet materials for Spanish 1AT, 2AT and 3AT consist of a first-year textbook and tape manual (Zenia Sacks Da Silva, Beginning Spanish: A Concept Approach) and an appropriate syllabus for Spanish 1AT, 2AT or 3AT. The textbook is divided into thirds: the first third is covered in Spanish 1AT, the second in 2AT, and the third in 3AT.

The syllabus, which we call Manual de Español 1AT, (2AT, 3AT) has a complete introduction to the AT Program, including materials needed, general procedures, credits and grading, important rules and regulations, and answers to questions such as "Is the Spanish AT Program best for me?", "Will I learn to speak Spanish?", and "How do I study alone?" It also contains our "Ten Commandments for Survival in the AT Program," the Spanish AT Center Activity Schedule, Spanish 1ATA, 1 ATB and 1ATC Course Requirements, and a Student Record sheet. The heart of the syllabus, however, is a series of step-by-step instructions on how to get through each of the six units of Spanish 1AT, 2AT and 3AT. Finally, the syllabus also includes a practice midcourse exam and a practice final exam as well as answers to all the textbook exercises and timely references to supplementary learning aids available in the language laboratory or in the AT Center.

Administrative materials

Record keeping for each individual student can easily become a very cumbersome, time consuming task. For this reason, a very conscious effort was made in our program to keep our Student Record forms as simple as possible. When a student enrolls in the AT Center a file is opened in his or her name. The file consists solely of a manila folder with the student's name and an appropriate Student Record Sheet for 1AT, 2AT and 3AT. On the Student Record Sheet we keep track of all the work the student completes, including the required conversations (graded as "bien," "muy bien," or "excelente"), all exams taken, the form (A,B,C,D) of the exams taken, whether or not an exam was repeated, the grade, grader and date the exams were taken, and finally the final course grade reported for each two-unit course completed.

Having all the information on this one page allows the student and instructor to see at a glance exactly how much work the student has completed and how much remains to be done. A copy of the Student Record Sheet appears in the student's Manual de Español 1AT so that the students can keep track of their own progress.

Every quarter, when a student enrolls in the AT Program he or she is required to read and sign a statement worded as follows: "Being of sound mind and body I indicate by my signature below that I am fully aware that I must complete ALL the units I sign up for (unless I drop the units, of course!). I understand that if I fail to do so, I will receive a grade of 'F'. I also recognize that by signing this form I no longer qualify for a grade of 'No Record' or 'No Show'." This policy is adhered to rather rigidly, and having students read and sign such a strongly worded statement helps make them recognize this.

When students come in to open up a file at the beginning of each quarter, they are asked to make an appointment for their first required student/teacher contact. This may be a written and oral test after having studied a given lesson, a conversation after having prepared a specific topic, or a pronunciation session for students taking Spanish for the very first time. The appointment book approach is kept up throughout the quarter and students must always sign up for whatever activity they are required to do next. We have found that by doing this the students are forced to set up short range goals for themselves which are much more meaningful than simply knowing that they are enrolled for 2, 4, 6, or 8 units of credit and that they must complete them in ten weeks. This appointment book approach has gone a long way to help us motivate students to start working right away rather than wait until the last weeks of the quarter.

Culture and conversation.

At the end of each lesson of the textbook, AT students are required to participate in a half-hour conversation session. Students prepare for these conversations by selecting topics from a variety presented in their syllabus. Included in these topics is a graded

series of slide/sound culture presentations prepared at U.C. Davis and available to the students in the language laboratory. Each presentation begins by telling the students what they will see, what they are expectd to learn from the presentation, and how they will demonstrate that they have met the stated objective(s). After this introduction, new vocabulary used in the presentation is presented with pauses for repetition practice. Immediately after the vocabulary, the culture narrative begins. The narratives are recorded entirely in Spanish and are illustrated with electronically synchronized slides. Since the narratives are not available to the students in writing, they must listen to the presentation several times until it is mastered. Topics for these culture units include such things as "Mesoamérica," "Semana Santa en Sevilla," "La tuna," and "Machu Picchu: la cuidad perdida de los Incas." In the conversation sessions students are expected to participate actively, showing that they have listened to the presentation and understand it fully.

Testing and grading materials.

For every unit of credit the student receives, a written and oral test must be passed with a grade of B- or better. Students who do poorly on a given test have an option to retest in order to achieve a higher level of proficiency. Four different versions of every test have been prepared and are handed out to students at random. Every test has a 25-point speaking part which must be done individually with an instructor. Topics for the speaking parts are given to the students while they take their exams; after five or ten minutes, the students are asked to converse on these topics with the instructor. Sample topics include:

> 1AT Test III: Imagine that it is 15 years from now and that you are very happily married. Tell us about your wife/husband. What is he/she like? What does he/she do? Why are you so happy together? etc.
>
> 2AT Test I: Imagine yourself a reporter for the Cal Aggie. Your current assignment is to interview UCD faculty members to find out how they spent the summer. Interview your AT instructor and find out as much as possible about what he/she did during the summer--where he/she spent it, with whom, what he/she did, etc.
>
> 3AT Test IV" Ayer por la mañana hubo una boda. ¿Quién se casó? ¡Pues Ud. mismo! Ahora Ud. está leyendo un artículo en el periódico sobre su propia boda. ¿Qué dice el artículo? (i.e., The bride was given away by... The guests were served... etc.)

As soon as the oral part of the exam is completed, the instructor tells the student exactly how he or she has done, using a scale of zero to five points, in each of the following

categories: grammatical correctness, pronunciation, fluency, self-correction, and communication. As soon as the student completes the written part of the exam, the exam is graded and the student is told whether he or she may go on or whether more work is needed on this lesson.

Supplementary learning material

To date four videotape presentations covering troublesome grammatical structures have been prepared and are available to the students in the language laboratory. The structures presented are: SER vs. ESTAR, DIRECT vs. INDIRECT OBJECT PRONOUNS, PRETERITE vs. IMPERFECT, and SUBJUNCTIVE THEORY AND NOUN CLAUSES. A brief description of each videotape is as follows:

SER vs. ESTAR - color - 18 minutes (1980)

A teenager's father explains the various uses of ser versus estar to his daughter as she frets over her homework. To make sure she has understood, he narrates a fairy tale in Spanish and then retells a good part of the story asking her (and through her, the students) to select between the use of ser and estar.

DIRECT vs INDIRECT OBJECT PRONOUNS - color - 19:30 minutes (1978)

In a court scene, the Direct Object Pronouns sue the Indirect Object Pronouns for violation of the Equal Parts of Speech Amendment by insisting that the Indirect Object Pronoun must always come first in the sentence. In the process of the trial each object pronoun explains fully its function in the Spanish sentence.

PRETERITE vs IMPERFECT - color - 25 minutes (1978)

Narrator on screen briefly explains in English the difference between the two past tenses. This explanation is then illustrated through various sketches in which the students are asked to participate by deciding whether particular actions are either preterite or imperfect.

SUBJUNCTIVE THEORY & NOUN CLAUSES - color - 15 minutes (1978)

Narrator off screen discusses, in English, the concept of subjunctive versus indicative. Dependent and independent clauses are illustrated as analogous to a truck and trailer. Illustrated exercises at the end allow the students to participate in deciding on the use and non-use of the subjunctive.

TAKING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TO THE BIG COMPANY: PROBLEMS, PROSPECTS, AND LESSONS LEARNED

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JUDGING FROM THE DEBATE ON individualized instruction in American journals, the emphasis during the past decade has been on individualized foreign language instruction in high school and college settings. A different form of individualizing foreign language instruction occurs when a traditional college course is taken to a big international company for college credit. The increasing number of foreign companies in this country; college courses and programs geared toward the practical use of foreign languages in business, and the projected declining numbers of traditional students in the eighties make it advisable for colleges and universities to explore other settings for language teaching. Quite apart from the increased visibility and reach of our language programs, these excursions into unknown territory may reveal to us some realistic aspects of practical language application in the U.S.A. The experience may help us in making adjustments in our college courses, our expectations of student performance, and our foreign language goals in general. At VW of America in Warren/Michigan I taught German to students who did not want to fulfill a language requirement, nor to become teachers or graduate students, nor make their transcripts look good for application to medical school.

Setting and conditions

VW of America in Warren/Michigan employs about 1000 people. Unlike other foreign businesses that have switched completely to English as the international language of commerce, at VW manuals, telexes, reports, telephone messages, etc., arrive in German. There is daily communication with VW headquarters in Germany. Contrary to my expectations, the company did not want an intensive beginning reading course in technical German, but a balanced approach to speaking, listening, and reading, with some emphasis on reading. Apparently they wanted to create a climate in which their American employees did not feel like complete strangers vis-à-vis the basically foreign product and the communication with the country of its origin.

For a company, the advantages of in-house instruction are obvious: hours relatively convenient for everybody interested in the course, considerable saving of employees' time spent on the way to the classroom, a familiar environment, and the increased motivation to take the course that results from all these factors. The officials at

VW were interested in establishing college credit for their employees, because they felt the incentive for students to finish the course would thus be greater. The employees would be reimbursed for tuition after successful completion of the course. A number of students could use credit for their continuing college education. Considering the circumstances (an eight-to-five day for most employees; the company was reluctant to schedule instruction during work hours), I found three hours per week a viable compromise in comparison to the four hours of a beginning German course at the college level. (Later experience confirmed that three hours were the maximum students could handle in order to complete their assignments, derive real benefit, and still enjoy the course.) My task was twofold: to individualize a four-hour college course to such a degree that it would still warrant three hours of credit at first-semester college level and to individualize instruction for students who had not been selected for this class by college criteria.

Pronunciation and grammar

Among the adjustments made in instruction, reduction and selection ranked very high, although they were not the only changes. I reduced grammatical materials to essentials, for example, taking into consideration the specific situation of the students. For instance, German sounds were exclusively taught in context (complete words, sentences) with very little of the analysis of individual sounds which tends to frustrate newcomers to a language and emphasizes the difficulties. Faster than usual I let the students compare the spoken word with the written in order to avoid the gap between hearing and reading German and to make their preparation at home more meaningful. I emphasized the formal "Sie" as the most likely and frequent address in business situations. (This helped to avoid a considerable number of difficult forms in the familiar imperative, which can be particularly confusing at this early stage of language acquisition.) I used a very low-key approach to exceptions to rules. I taught the German simple past tense for passive knowledge, favoring the predominant Perfekt for reporting past events.

In an attempt to leave students with something concrete and immediately useful, I developed 70 questions and answers beginning with the third week of an eleven-week instructional period. These questions and answers were geared toward the environment of the students: questions most likely to occur in an office or laboratory situation, questions about daily activities, hobbies, likes, dislikes, telephone situations, questions for potential visits to Germany, etc. The questions and answers reflected the actual progression of grammar studies during the course. With each new set of questions the previous answers were omitted so that students had to learn the answers or come up with meaningful variations. During each class period I split the class and had the two groups question each other. Toward the end of the course we worked completely without the question sheets, with the teacher occasionally cueing the questions.

Texts and conversations

I needed a text that was available immediately and conducive to independent study, and that would allow omissions. I chose Helbling, Gewehr, Jedan, von Schmidt, First-Year German, 2nd edition, which we use as our first-year German text at the University of Michigan-Dearborn. The texts and conversations, written for college students, were well received. Situations such as looking for a book in the library or a room to rent remained relevant and could easily be adapted. Often I had the impression that topics far removed from my students' experience (such as German students discussing politics) exercised a strange attraction and met with amused curiosity. The fact that some readings and conversations were not quite "their" texts seemed to have a pedagogical advantage: they required distancing from the text and immediate variation and adaption.

Accuracy

The principle of playing down mistakes in pronunciation--common practice in college classrooms by now--is even more valid in a business environment and should be applied to other areas of performance. Unlike any other group of adult learners that may attend evening classes at a university or college, these employees reflected in part the notorious hierarchy of big business. Most employees knew one another, probably knew their approximate salaries, performance level, general reputation, etc. There may exist secret rivalries between colleagues on the same employment level, male and female, black and white, high and low salaries. Any "defeats" or imagined humiliations in the language class are much more far-reaching in this environment that in a college situation where students tend to be in one age group and accept the inherently competitive situation. Therefore I tried to avoid belaboring apparent weaknesses, hoping that obstinate mistakes would wear off with tape practice. Grammar problems of this kind were dealt with in private conversations before and after class. Reading weaknesses (which often existed in English, too) could be compensated for by achievements in other areas, a principle that should be applied widely in such a situation.

(Another distinction between school and business environments is that there is no way of placing students in the business setting according to college standards and procedures. You may find, for example, the former GI who knows quite a few sentences in German but has never heard of an accusative or of prepositions. Later on in class there may be the "speaker," who does well in situations and with memorized sentences, but who is weak in grammatical accuracy. In such cases the need for recognizing individual achievement in certain areas--which some college programs accomplish through offering specialized sequences for reading and conversation--must take place within the given class.)

Preparation for independent study

Student absences can be frequent: they are unforeseen, most often unavoidable, and hence cannot be held against a student and his performance. Therefore, motivation and preparation for independent study are very important. A two-day contact situation reduces the normal four-day college contact by 50%. I supplemented William G. Moulton's very useful hints for language students with my own advice concerning using time, one's immediate environment, and one's colleagues at work for language practice.

There is no reason that a student cannot study form and function of new grammar topics on his own without previous introduction by the teacher. Most foreign language books today contain grammatical explanations in English. The books are usually written in such a way that they can be understood by an attentive reader who is willing to check the explanations against the examples given in the text. In fact, by calling attention to "new" grammar, teachers tend to discourage language students from solving problems that they are capable of mastering. We tend to exclude them from an area of language learning where their general intelligence and capability for abstraction can best be challenged and rewarded. Instead we leave to students mainly the tasks of memorization and imitation. The active involvement of the student is crucial for his insight into the language. While working on a new grammatical problem, the student analyzes and reviews contexts and grammatical relationships of previous lessons, thus reinforcing his command of the language. Very early during my teaching at VW, therefore, I made a point of assigning "new" grammar to the students, even when I planned to cover the material in class. The very uncertainty of continuing the instruction in a teacher-directed way makes it mandatory to teach such classes with emphasis on independent grammar study. If a student becomes confident that he can study grammar on his own, we have truly succeeded as teachers.[2]

Problems

a. Convenient time: VW preferred to see foreign language instruction take place before or after work. These are inconvenient hours for the college teacher who has to extend his day and gets caught in rush hour traffic. If, as in my case, the company is located some distance from the university, it means additional investment of time.

b. Finances: At the University of Michigan-Dearborn, courses offered off-campus for credit are administered through the Extension Service. A course has to enroll a minimum number of students (15 in my case) to make it financially acceptable to the University. This may become a barrier for smaller companies to have courses taught for credit. (VW was willing to pick up the difference for a second relatively low-enrollment intermediate course.)

c. Continuation: There may be considerable attrition during the drop-add period, because students discover too many conflicts with business assignments and family obligations or simply find themselves unable to cope with the work involved. This lowers the chances for a continuing course. If possible, one should always enroll a few more students than the class limit permits in order to allow for almost certain attrition.

d. Staffing: My experience with VW has been that the company likes to stay with the person who has proven himself an effective teacher. They refused to accept qualified part-time staff, for example, when it seemed unlikely that I could continue teaching. Unless a person is willing to commit himself over a long period of time or has colleagues willing to replace him and acceptable to the company, therefore, continuation of the courses may be in jeopardy.

Prospects

Considering the prospects for instruction and practical application of foreign languages in the U.S., it is important for teachers to take advantage of every opportunity outside the college environment. If our courses become preferred to the instruction of commercial institutions such as Berlitz, we will have demonstrated that we are able to teach languages effectively to a specific group of non-traditional students without giving up academic standards. We will also have demonstrated that a versatile, experienced instructor is a greater motivating force than instruction heavily based on recorded materials and memorization. Contrary to the notion that people in business and technical fields want strictly technical and business vocabulary and contexts, I experienced different attitudes. The students enjoyed playful situations that combined relevance with humor. In spite of a considerable investment of time and energy, the class seemed to welcome language instruction as a change from the daily routine. One result of our relationship with VW has been internships at VW for our students in International Studies. These internships allow students to practice and improve their foreign language skills in a business environment.

Of course, not every college town in the U.S. has an international company like VW that provides opportunities for foreign language application. But it is useful to check your vicinity for international companies, foreign and domestic. Usually consulates provide lists of foreign businesses in the area. Two or more companies may agree on pooling employees for language instruction on their premises. Although few will need language majors, they may want in-house foreign language instruction for various reasons: improvement of already existing language proficiency, acclimatization of employees to the foreign prooduct and foreign contacts, promotion opportunities, and continuing education for their employees (not just in languages). We should not leave some of the most apparent opportunities for foreign language application in this country untried.

Lessons learned

As a college teacher I gained new insight into the situation, needs, and problems of foreign language learners in the U.S. outside the college classroom. My experience helped me to reconsider some of my goals and reformulate previous questions about language learning at colleges in the U.S. For example: Are we trying to teach too much material in the first two or four semesters, instead of teaching less, but more meaningfully? Have we silently accepted the lie that a requirment fulfilled is the same as mastery? Have we encouraged students to expect mastery too soon by offering, for instance, so-called accelerated courses? (They may be fine for the few highly motivated and gifted students who want to become teachers, go to foreign countries, or need the language in other immediate ways. For the average student, however, accelerated courses may be deceitful and disappointing in the long run.)

I am an advocate of covering less material in favor of frequent, varied, and imaginative application of essentials in the classroom. We have to develop and exercise a certain mental agility in students that enables them to do a lot with less material, to use language joyfully with an uncluttered mind. Questions on who did what, where, when, and why are more important than the intricacies of the German subjunctive. A student with a limited, but real communicative ability after four semesters is more likely to be satisfied with his achievement and build on it than a student who sees his hastily acquired, shaky knowledge of a language crumble from day to day.

Dispite our heavy emphasis on speaking in the sixties and seventies, in most cases students were left without practice opportunities (apart from the small number that went abroad). Have we, for instance, tried hard enough to find speakers of foreign languages in our communities such as retired people, visitors, exchange students, etc., who would be natural communication partners for our learners? Too often we have dismissed students after, say, four semesters of college language with an attitude of "language is good for you" and left it at that. Straight A's in fulfillment of a language requirement frequently are merely the results of secondary motivation. They do not necessarily reflect positive student attitudes toward languages, nor are they reliable indicators of our success as teachers. Let us carefully nurture primary motivation where it exists, and try to create it where it does not.

We should have more pass/fail options, at least in second-year courses, to allow truly motivated students to continue (and these are not necessarily A-students). Our present system--with heavy emphasis on grade point average--discourages many motivated learners who major in different areas and do not have the time for straight A's in languages. Let us individualize our materials, giving political texts to political science majors, texts on music to music history majors, etc.[3] This requires initiative, versatility, and additional investment of time on the part of the instructor, because traditional readers will offer little help. Let us talk to colleagues in

political science and convince them that a student's ability to read a foreign newspaper is a more valuable tool than the most recent book on comparative government written in English.

In the past, we language teachers have often raised high expectations that could not be fulfilled. A realistic assessment of foreign language applications in the U.S. and more modest goals in our curricula may gain us new friends.

Notes

[1]For a realistic account of foreign languages and big business see Marianne Inman, "Foreign Languages and the U.S. Multinational Corporation," The Modern Language Journal, v. 64, n. 1 (Spring 1980), pp. 64-74.

[2]J. Jahn, "A Self-Motivated and Self-Directed Second Language Learner: Heinrich Schliemann," The Modern Language Journal, v. 63, n. 5-6 (September/October 1979), p. 275: "The sooner we give students the opportunity to become self-directed language learners who generate language according to their communicative needs, the sooner we can expect personal fulfillment and linguistic competence in the second language classroom."

[3]Howard B. Altman, "The Three R's of Individualization: Reeducation, Responsibility, and Relevance," Foreign Language Annals, v. 6, n. 2 (December 1972), p. 210: "To individualize instruction means to tailor instruction to the needs and interests of learners."

GROUP INTERACTION IN AN INDIVIDUALIZED LANGUAGE PROGRAM

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INDIVIDUALIZED LANGUAGE PROGRAMS TRAIN STUDENTS very effectively in specific skills, particularly in the areas of structure, reading, and writing. Students may also perform very well on achievement tests in the areas of listening and speaking, if they have been provided ample aural and oral activities. However, if a student in an individualized program is to bridge the gap between simply mastering performance objectives and using the language for its true purpose--the meaningful exchange of ideas and information--the instructor, in designing the program, must ensure that the student experiences actual communication in the target language extensively. One of the most dynamic resources available for this kind of experience is the student's interaction with his or her peer group. This paper will focus on three aspects of student interaction:

1. The appropriateness of incorporating group interaction in an individualized setting.
2. Techniques for augmenting students' sense of positive group identity in order to increase opportunities for interaction.
3. Essential concepts in the designing of group activities in an individualized program.

In a typical individualized program, the student progresses through all the required activities in a learning packet which has been designed to help him master specific objectives. Upon the completion of the learning packet, a student might attend a conversation session and take a test over the material. A student must usually pass the test by achieving 80% or better in order to proceed to the next unit. The student progresses at his or her own best rate. Usually the operational schedule is flexible. The classroom is open all day during the week, and the student comes into the room as little or as frequently as he needs to in order to complete his work. This rather standard organization of an individualized program can pose a threat to students' achievement of communicative competence. A further danger is that the student may perceive his success in the course to be nothing more than the completion of a series of academic hurdles.

Foreign languages are perhaps in a unique position among all the disciplines in which individualized instruction is an option. We can

certainly identify and set forth as goals particular objectives which students must master before successfully moving on to the next skill. Students need these objectives in order to understand, at any particular point in their instruction, what they must be able to do before proceeding. What must also be considered, however, is that each of these objectives is but one small part of the total aim--communication in another language and culture. The expression or understanding of a single message, whether simple or complex in content, may require the use of several specific skills at once. A particular performance objective is of importance, in the final analysis, only to the extent to which it contributes to effective communication: to ensure that our students "see the forest beyond the trees" we must constantly provide them with the opportunity for using the target language in actual communication with others. Incorporating extensive group interaction can be done successfully without sacrificing any of the essential aspects of individualized instruction. In fact, an individualized language program, because of its more flexible, less formal nature, can use group interaction even more effectively than a traditional classroom.

In tapping the resources of group interaction it is first essential to create a sense of group in our students. We cannot expect our students to express ideas effectively to others in a class if they do not feel a sense of positive identity with their peers and instructors. (It is difficult enough to communicate, even in one's native language, with those toward whom we do not feel comfortable. This problem of inhibition increases when speaking a second language.) Building a sense of group identity to foster interaction is important in any language instruction program, regardless of the philosophy or methodology involved.

In a traditional classroom, a strong group identity among class members is relatively easy to develop. Students all meet together in a group at the same time. They are generally surrounded by the same peers each class meeting. Much of the sense of unity may be provided by the instructor, particularly if he or she has a very strong personality. Due to the organization of the traditional class, a natural cohesiveness, which can increase students' willingness to interact, is developed.

In an individualized language program the building of a strong sense of positive group identity is frequently a more challenging project. Students may drift into the room at various times of the day. They may not be aware of who their classmates are. When they do come into the classroom, they may find different instructors to deal with, or even tutorial assistants. A student may write out his required exercises at home, complete the necessay oral work and "master" the material without ever thinking much about the language as a whole new avenue of communication.

However, if we analyze the problem carefully, we can actually build a stronger sense of involvement in the students than is feasible in a traditional class. Since we rarely meet with the entire group of

students at one time, we must encourage interaction in other ways. One possibility is the concept of community. A student in an individualized program can feel a sense of belonging and the necessity to communicate in the language if he perceives himself to be a member of a "community" in which Spanish is spoken and in which he must interact. The physical classroom itself might be thought of as the centro or center where the student comes to transact necessary business. It is important that students, from the beginning, regard the room as a place where they must use the target language in order to function effectively. To this end, a short compilation of phrases students are likely to use most often can be included in the first learning packet. To reinforce the notion of community, the compilation might be titled "Para comunicar en el centro." The student practices the phrases by listening to a tape which models correct pronunciation. Then the student must use these phrases to request the materials he needs to use or to check on his test scores. During the first week the student resembles a tourist carefully looking up the phrase he needs, practicing it somewhat nervously, and finally approaching an instructor with "¿Me permite escuchar la cinta para la lección primera?" His satisfaction is obvious as he receives not only verbal praise from the instructor but also the tape that he needed. Soon he is able to request material without the aid of the "dictionary." This kind of activity can be instrumental in establishing a positive feeling toward the student's experience. He is already communicating in Spanish for a practical purpose. He also begins to perceive that his experience is not going to be merely passive: he must often take the initiative in communication.

In order to strengthen students' interaction with peers, several of the activities in the learning packet should involve working with classmates. For example, in an introductory unit, students can be assigned to seek out classmates and introduce themselves to each other (in the target language, of course). Students enjoy this kind of activity because again they are using the language for a practical purpose: getting to know some of their peers. Frequent dialogues in small groups or pairs can be included as activities in subsequent learning packets to encourage interaction outside the confines of the "centro."

Interaction among students outside the classroom can be facilitated by preparing and issuing to each student a "guía telefónica" or telephone directory containing the names and telephone numbers of all the students in the program. A directory makes it much easier for students to contact one another about the preparation of a group assignment, and it also increases the notion that the student belongs to a cohesive group or community. Students can also use the guía to call classmates and practice telephone conversations in the target language.

Another instrument which may be useful is a periodic newsletter for students in the program. It can include some of the students' written work, cartoons or editorials contributed by students, and announcements about local events related to the culture. A "Noticias

de la semana" or similar publication can serve several functions: it is a positive reinforcement to those who see their work "in print." Also, the student is reading in the target language real information about real people; this can be more motivating than doing only assigned reading from a textbook. Finally, a newsletter augments the sense of community within the individual student.

Videotaping can be used effectively to increase students' active involvement with their new community. Skits and dialogues which are videotaped for later viewing are taken more seriously than merely reciting dialogues for the sole purpose of getting an activity checked off in a learning packet. Students enjoy watching themselves and others and are eager to perform well. Viewing of the videotaped presentations can be scheduled at regular times so that students can watch themselves on their favorite "TV show." Appropriate cultural materials can be taped also and made available for viewing.

An optional weekly conversational practice increases student interaction and proficiency in the target language. This practice is most successful if the students view it as a social event with no pressure to speak absolutely correctly. Therefore, it is preferable to hold the gathering away from the classroom if possible. If the students are at a beginning level, the conversations may need to be somewhat structured. However, the student should not be discouraged from attempting to say things he has not learned to say correctly. This kind of conversational practice would of course be in addition to any required conversation sessions.

Incorporating the concept of "community" and offering many opportunities for interaction in the community is one solution to the problem of communication in an individualized program. The specific techniques or activities we employ are not so important as the fact that through these and similar processes, we can increase the students' use of the language within the classroom and expand their experience well beyond the confines of the classroom.

If the student feels an affinity toward the program and at the same time perceives the importance of communication in the second language, there are innumerable possibilities for effective group activities to enhance the motivation to communicate. It is not my intent here to provide an all-inclusive list of such activities, but rather to suggest fundamental concepts in the designing and planning of those activities in an individualized setting. If one is interested in learning more about specific kinds of activities stressing real communication, such as values clarification, human dynamics and role-playing, Disick and Barbanel's article, "Affective Education and Foreign Language Learning,"[1] is an excellent starting point and provides a thorough bibliography of other sources.

In designing group activities for individualized programs we must first examine the objectives which we have established to determine whether or not an activity is appropriate to the level at which students are working at any particular point. Activities which are

too difficult will simply be frustrating, and those that are too easy may seem shallow. No matter how motivated our first semester students are, for example, they will not have the necessary skills to discuss the moral issues of who should be the sole survivors in the event of a nuclear war; but we might expect a lively, heated discussion on such a topic from students at a more advanced level. The distinct advantage in an individualized program is that we can tailor activities so that all members of the group, rather than just the best students, can participate.

Group activities must also be flexible in order to accommodate the varying numbers of students present. For example, if we plan for students to divide into pairs and interview one another, we must have an alternative in mind if only one student shows up for the session. (Often this particular problem can be solved by simply including the instructor or tutorial assistant in the group.)

Perhaps the most important requisite of the group activities we design is that they must generate real communication among our students. I do not mean to suggest that we eliminate pattern drills or other grammatical exercises. They serve an important purpose in establishing correct speech and writing habits. They cannot, however, be construed as communication, which is our concern here. If the student is ever to be able to claim that he speaks Spanish (or Chinese, or Arabic), he must be provided with frequent experience in translating his own thoughts into words.

Real communication is almost limitless in its aspects, and it is wise to include as many kinds of communication as possible in order to cater to varying individual personalities and interests. One current trend stresses values clarification and interpersonal growth, but communication also includes the simple exchange of information, the expression of emotion, the expression of one's imagination, and even gossip or small talk.

Whatever kind of communication we wish to elicit, the activity will be of optimum effectiveness only if the instructor is willing to perceive what the students are doing as authentic communication. We must learn to react to what the student is saying rather than how he says it. Correction during these activities should be minimal, and perhaps should be done by simply repeating correctly what the student has said. The student must also be encouraged to take more initiative than might be the case in a traditional classroom. If we teachers are always the ones who ask the questions and the students always answer the questions, for example, then even if the questions are about "real issues," we are still perpetuating the idea in the student that he is simply participating in a classroom exercise. The students must frequently ask the questions and they must feel the need to express ideas voluntarily. Communication is not an endless series of question, answer, question, answer; it is a dynamic, malleable exchange.

Recent concern has been expressed about our country's inadequacy in foreign languages. Our response as educators has been that we must be more effective in teaching our students to communicate in the target language. In order to improve our students' communicative competence, we must include frequent experiences in actual communication in the language. Individualized language programs can contribute significantly in the area. Students in an individualized program must frequently take the initiative in communication, and they routinely should use the language for practical purposes. They may thus come to feel less inhibited in the smaller groups than in a traditional class. Finally, the flexibility of organization in individualized programs means that interaction with instructors and peers, both inside the classroom and beyond, is limited only by our imagination.

Notes

[1]Renée S. Disick and Laura Barbanel., "Affective Education and Foreign Language Learning," pp. 185-222 in Gilbert A. Jarvis, ed. The Challenge of Communication. ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, Volume 6. Skokie, Illinois: National Textbook Company, 1974.

MAINTAINING AND DEVELOPING AN INDIVIDUALIZED PROGRAM IN INTERMEDIATE LATIN

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FOUR DECADES OR SO AGO an intelligent, 140-pound major league catcher was asked "How do you block a 220-pound base runner as he slides into home plate?" He replied, "When I can't stop 'em, I have to figure out how to ride in on top of 'em!" This situation embodies the predicament of the solitary teacher building and administering a self-paced, individualized language program. The personal goal of that teacher must be, as a practical matter, to accomplish what needs to be done (or at least what is most important to do) without being overwhelmed: modest success with survival gives greater opportunity for personal pleasure and satisfaction in the long run than does more spectacular success without survival.

No individualized instruction program can be built in a day, and certainly not by a single instructor who must create and administer all parts of a program that is equivalent to any (or all) divisions of both the elementary and intermediate years (i.e., six academic quarters). The first two or three years an individualized program is offered inevitably the instructor is barely one jump ahead of the several student wolf-packs that are ready to devour the instructional and testing materials under preparation. (Eager student energy is a joy, but as a compelling necessity it can bring great pressure in the first years.) It is what happens after the first two or three years, however, and especially at the intermediate level, that is my prime concern here today.

A brief description of the individualized Latin program, Latin A99, at Northwestern should come first. The first two quarters present the grammar chapters of Wheelock (grouped into, on average, three-chapter units). The second quarter normally involves Wheelock's Chapters 28-40 plus two testing units of prose selections like those in the back of the text. The third quarter offers Cicero's De Officiis (selections) for the better students, or Buehner's Comprehensive Second Year Latin for the less robust. The fourth quarter (officially the first intermediate quarter) varies according to the preparation and proficiency of the student. Students who have read Cicero and are ready to move on, in effect skip the fourth quarter and turn directly to Ovid or Vergil. (One of the two poets is normally read in the fifth quarter and the other in the sixth. A grade of C or better in the sixth quarter technically fulfills the Arts and Sciences foreign language reading requirement.) Students not ready for Ovid or Vergil, however, use the fourth quarter for review and readings (usually Cicero). Vergil or Ovid in the later quarters may be replaced by Lucretius (Book V) or by selected Epistulae Morales

from Seneca. Testing in the intermediate quarters consists of at least five sight passages (with dictionary); the student may, however, opt to take up to ten. Averaging grades on the entire set, or averaging the last two or three--whichever produces the more favorable result--determines the student's grade.

The enrollment in the individualized program (designated A99) for this fall is about forty-three (these are in addition to the sixty-four students in the three regular sections of elementary and intermediate Latin). Twenty-one of the forty-three in A99 are either pure virgines in the language, or relatively shorn lambs whose previous exposure involves a single year in high school, a pair of years in junior high school, a dropped fractional quarter at Northwestern, or some other background that calls for starting almost de novo. Four students have had a single quarter of Latin, hence are completing the grammar units based upon Wheelock. The remaining eighteen students are translating authors; they are effectively in intermediate Latin, where translation with some modicum of literary skill is the goal. They are scattered among four authors: three are reading from De Officiis; six, from the Metamorphoses (Dunmore selections); eight, from the Aeneid (Pharr edition; most are reading in Book II, but there is at least one each in Books IV and VI); and, finally, one student is translating from Seneca. (There are no "Lucretians" this quarter, and there were no requests for Mediaeval Latin--although two or three of the total virgines may be headed down that path.)

Time is ultimately the most precious and important commodity for us all--res omnium pretiosissima, as Seneca would say. An individualized program like the one just sketched can assuredly make serious demands upon the time available to the solitary instructor, for it is not a single lock-step course but rather a many-faceted curriculum. Where does the time go? It goes (1) to plan the program, (2) to select and order texts, (3) to prepare syllabi, tapes, handouts, and any other special instructional materials, (4) to teach through office conferences, (5) to prepare test materials, (6) to administer, grade, and discuss with students the individual tests, (7) to keep the records, and, one hopes, (8) to reflect on the appropriateness and validity of it all.

These eight items, admittedly, appear in teaching almost any course, but their emphases vary substantially when they are applied to the individualized program. Planning for that program and ordering its texts, however, must presuppose more student variation in needs and requests (not all of which can be anticipated) than for a regular course. The preparation of syllabi, handouts, etc., familiar ground from standard classes, needs to be perhaps a trifle more detailed when students are not going to be guided in daily class sessions. (This is a point at which one's students are the best guide: what they ask for regularly is likely what others also need most. If everyone to date mishandles the -is accusative plurals of i-stem nouns, for example, some special attention in a handout may be in order.)

Instruction by way of office conferences is the human heart of the program--and perhaps the most expensive procedure in terms of time. About three students an hour seems to work (the forty-three in A99 seem to do well on fifteen office hours this term, some rarely appearing except to take tests, others coming in for half an hour or so once or twice a week). Survival for the solitary instructor calls for getting the student to decide what actually needs asking about. The beginner, translating connected passages for the first time, may need quite a bit of help and reassurance. Unfamiliar forms, constructions, and word order in poetry can be very challenging, for example. Many bring in the first paragraphs written out and want them corrected in toto. (This is well and good at the start, but if all "intermediates" insisted upon it throughout the quarter, I should indeed be the 140-pound catcher blocking the 220-pound base runner!) Students can, instead, readily be persuaded to mark what they find troublesome. (It is one thing to help unravel Non est hortamine longo nunc utendum, and quite another to hold the student's hand through Ovid's entire Flood!) Judicious sampling must obtain when each student is a class. (But then, does one ever get more than a judicious sampling from any member of a regular class?) Time-consuming though they may be, these conferences, short or long, give wondrous insights into the mind of the student and often open wide doors of communication.

For the academic evaluation of the student's mastery of Latin, testing is manifestly crucial. For this reason substantial thought, care, and energy must go into the construction and physical preparation of tests. If a regular class has read the first Catilinarian and is to be tested on it, it is easy to type off Quo usque tandem abutere, Catilina?, etc. Many students will remember it well enough from class that even a "typo" will not slow them. Similarly, if you are going to give a sight passage from Aeneid VIII next Monday, and will be in the room as students take it, though your note on penatibus et magnis dis is obscure or confusing, somebody will put up a hand and ask, and you can correct the impression for everybody. But when preparing a test to be used in an individualized program (one that will be serviceable for more than one student and over more than a single academic term), the paramount obligation is to select, edit, and reproduce with meticulous care. This care takes time.

I usually select several possible passages from an author at a sitting. Test passages seem easier to find when one is in the mood to search for them, although occasionally in reading one comes upon something ideal. Also, I tend to edit two or three together--again it is easier to continue a process than to restart it ex nihilo. Editing, by the way, involves assigning an identifying number to a passage: the student, while told the author, is never told the precise location. The selection is then prefaced with an introduction to provide the essential background; notes point out unusual forms, constructions, word order, etc.; macrons may or may not be added in the typing (half the passages from Vergil and Seneca have them; two thirds from Ovid; most from Lucretius; all from Cicero and the authors found in Buehner). After a careful proofing and rereading, the test

is now ready for photocopying and use.

As in any methodology that uses any test more than once, security is inevitably a problem. Many students expend more energy trying to avoid the work of mastering a course's content than they would have expended on the actual mastery itself. "Security" implies not only the relatively simple matters of proctoring tests and keeping them in locked cabinets and locked offices when not in use, but also includes dealing with their compromise by students who have either photographic (or at least tenacious) memories, or who hold onto a phrase or two and know how to use an index verborum, or to leaf through the Aeneid until they find the proper names that appeared in the passage just taken. Such students then can share their knowledge with fiancé(e)s or roommates, or add the information to the house files. (The chairman of the Latin department at a distinguished Jesuit high school in Chicago told me, early in his tenure at the school, that he was already seeing more and more of his own rather personal and unusual interpretations of Cicero coming through in his students' class recitations and tests. He felt, with good reason, that his personal interpretations were now being built into the "received version" among his students--a version transmitted by older brother to younger, and friend to friend.)

Clearly, no limited set of tests can be adequate over any extended period of time (or even safely be used for all students taking tests during a single academic term). A bank of tests, therefore, is a necessity. The larger the bank, the better. Three versions of each test are a desirable minimum; five are preferable, with constant replacement once the bank has been filled. This dictates about twenty-five tests for a Cicero, Ovid, or Vergil. Random selection from the tests appropriate to any given level of proficiency also has merit (but complicates comparative grading). It at least guarantees, however, that a remembered test taken by Jack in the morning will not give Jill all the answers in the afternoon.

The actual testing is done either in my own office or in an adjacent "testing room." Although grammar tests at the elementary level are preferably graded while the student looks on, the intermediate translation tests are not assigned a final grade at that time (usually the student is in a hurry, or a line begins to form). But I do try to give a quick preliminary reading to the intermediate tests and point out any serious errors that might hamper further progress. When the grading is done, the student and I go over the paper in detail, discussing the phenomena or aspects that interest either of us. These, again, are often thoroughly enjoyable and informative sessions as students draw on parallels from other languages and literatures or bring up parallels from modern situations.

The record keeping, curiously, also needs some elaboration: while a lockstep class can be rostered on a graph sheet (the familiar grade book) with each column indicating a day's assignment, self-paced, individualized courses may have few vertical lines for cut-off dates except at the end of the term. I have, therefore, evolved a Record Sheet (see Figure 1), which is retained in a loose-leaf binder and

FIGURE 1

LATIN A99 Progress Sheet/Record NAME _____ Phone _____

Previous Latin: Grades 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 NU(etc.) _____

Other languages: French German Greek Hebrew Italian Russian Spanish _____ other

Objective in study of Latin:

"Wheelock" Units:

1		10/1
2		11/2
3		12/3
4		13/4
5		14/5
6		Translation I
7		II
8		III
9		IV

Quarter 3: Author(s):

Sights: I II III IV V VI

VII VIII IX X

Quarter 4: Author(s):

Sights: I II III IV V VI

VII VIII IX X

Quarter 5: Author(s):

Sights: I II III IV V VI

VII VIII IX X

Quarter 6: Author(s):

Sights: I II III IV V VI

VII VIII IX X

Language Requirement: (Date) _____

Sent to Registrar? Yes ___ No ___

used for as many quarters as the student is enrolled. The spaces are admittedly small, but they allow recording the identifying number of each test taken and the grade achieved. In addition to the Record Sheet, a gradeless scorecard is useful. This scorecard is simply an alphabetical checklist of students enrolled each quarter in the program. It makes it easy to see who is building a record by taking successive tests. For example, entries at mid-quarter might look like this:

Student Name	Progress
Anacharsis	6, 8, 9, 12, 3Ci-p 1
Bias	1
Chilon	(5) Ov-2, 3
Cleobulus	3Ci-p 2, 3
Diogenes	
Periander	(6) Ve-8, 21
Pittacus	(6) Ov-3, 7, 13
Solon	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
Thales	10, 11, 12, 13
Zeno	Sen-2

The scorecard suggests that student Bias, if a freshman, be called in for a conference; Diogenes, however, if an upperclassman who had been in the program before, might well be allowed to take the consequences of his inaction. (As for the others, Anacharsis has completed four review units from Wheelock and is now reading Cicero; Chilon is a fifth-quarter student reading Ovid; Cleobulus, reading Cicero, may be either a third- or a fourth-quarter student; Periander and Pittacus are sixth-quarter students, one reading Vergil and the other Ovid for the language requirement; Solon is making rapid progress through the first quarter of Wheelock; Thales, in second quarter, has one grammar unit left, then will read, e.g., Cicero; Zeno is finding Seneca's Stoic epistles rather slow going.)

These two records, the one to reveal who is working, the other to record grades as well as what has been covered, are really all that need be kept. (Scored tests, by the way, are all retained in an envelope under lock and key for as long as the student is active or potentially so in A99.)

One further comment about the progress of students and the survival of the teacher: Parkinson's Law, of course, applies to schedules and terminal dates. When tests were allowed through the last day of final examination week, Saturday of that week was hectic. When the Ides of March fell on a Thursday, hence that Thursday seemed an appropriate terminal date, the Ides were hectic (but the rest of the week serene). When my son got married on the Saturday of finals week, the preceding Tuesday that was designated as the cutoff day was hectic (but the rest of the week was available for preparations and the ceremony). In most cases we find that 90-95% of the students finish.

This now brings us to the "time to reflect." My plans for the intermediate level include improving and refining: to fill out the

bank of tests and begin to upgrade it; to complete more of those unfinished, rough-draft introductory handouts for students beginning authors like Vergil and Ovid; to prepare some mediaeval Latin materials for the English and history majors who often ask for them. I'd like to do an Erasmus unit. One or two other projects might develop, especially if some textbook ceases to be available (I am, however, reasonably happy with what has been assembled: it does work).

The solitary teacher of individualized language courses must individualize according to his or her own talents, interests, and preoccupations as well as those of the students. The essential matter is not to try to do everything for everybody that would be done in a classroom. Most students don't need it: most can teach themselves, if we show them how to do it. If they do most of the work in their individual directions, you and I, indeed, like the 140-pound catcher, can ride safely in atop the 220-pound base runner.

INDIVIDUALIZED SPANISH INSTRUCTION, SYLVANIA NORTHVIEW HIGH SCHOOL

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AT THE CONFERENCE ON INDIVIDUALIZING Foreign Language Instruction held at Stanford University, May 6-8, 1971, I reported on the findings of my doctoral dissertation entitled, "A Feasibility Study of Individualized Foreign Language Programs in the High Schools of the United States."[1] At that time thirty-three individualized foreign language programs were identified. Today it would be difficult to identify all of the programs in existence, since this approach to teaching-learning has increased so extensively at all levels and in all disciplines. At that time all of the people questioned who were involved in individualized instruction were extremely enthusiastic. It did indeed appear to be an approach to learning that benefited students, that aided them in becoming better learners. After eight years of observing good students become better students and average students become very good students, and even poor students being successful learners, it is difficult for me not to accept individualized instruction as an excellent means of transmitting information and facilitating learning. Other means of presentation almost seem unfair to the students by comparison. Not all students progress at the same rate, nor does the individual student progress at the same rate all of the time. Learning under conditions of individualized instruction accommodates the learners' attitudes, approaches to learning, aptitudes, abilities, ambitions, as well as their lack of any of the above.

Increasingly it seems individualized instruction might better be called continuous progress, as it seems to describe more accurately what really takes place with the student. Students rarely work as individuals, but are frequently consulting with other students, studying together, grouping and re-grouping as their needs arise. The "individualization" rests in the fact that the student makes his own progress at his own rate and ability, and, as he proceeds through the program, following his own interests. It is a continuous progress program in that the student makes continuous progress towards improving his own language and study skills. It is this continuous mastery, and thus true progress, that makes individualized instruction successful. To me, after more than ten years of researching and studying programs and conducting individualized classes, "Individualized instruction would smell as sweet by any other name."

Most students like learning in an individualized program. They like the informality of the class, arranging their homework schedule,

taking tests when they feel competent, working with their friends, and most of all their own success. Most students seem to want an A or B and will strive extra hard to achieve their goal. If a student is having difficulty, the teacher has more time for individual help, or can take advantage of the informal atmosphere and assign another student to help him. (This reinforces the student-tutor's learning as well.) High levels of achievment can be expected from the students in an individualized program, and the teacher no longer needs to feel guilty about the individual differences that are so difficult to deal with in the traditional classroom setting. Since all students must pass each evaluation with a score of 80% or better and since each step is carefully designed to further the students' progress, regardless of the number of steps taken, all of the building blocks for future learning are firmly in place and each student makes progress. Admittedly some make more progress than others; however, no student is left behind because he failed the test and the class went on to the next concept based on what was supposedly previously learned. (There is little possibility of that student ever passing the course: failure often is followed by more failure and eventually the student drops the course.) Some students who have experienced a degree of failure, perhaps having passed with a C, but continued with the course, may be slow when they first begin an individualized program, but after a few months of learning each concept before continuing they begin to make steady progress towards acceptable standards. Students are pleased to find that they can achieve. Often these students will choose to stay in foreign language for several years and eventually achieve a reasonable degree of competence. It is curious to note that few students fall into the "C" range when instructed under conditions of individualized instruction. The classic bell curve vanishes completely.

History of the Program

In 1972 I began teaching at Sylvania-South, now Sylvania Northview High School. At that time there were two junior high schools, where it was possible to begin language study by taking 1/2 credit in the seventh grade and 1/2 credit in the 8th grade. There was also a 9th grade school offering Spanish I and Spanish II. Thus, students enrolling at Sylvania-South in the upper levels of foreign language study came from a variety of teachers, backgrounds and experiences. At Sylvania there also are numerous transfer students from outside the state, as well as from other local schools, and there are students who have lived in Spanish-speaking countries. Adding these differences of student characteristics to the usual student differences one expects to find in any classroom (e.g., ability, aptitude, learning styles, goals, and interests), the problem of providing a continuous, beneficial, and meaningful education to the individual is heightened. Individualizing Spanish instruction seemed a possible means of providing continuity with the student's past experiences and of achieving goals mutually acceptable to the teacher and the student.

The program began operation during the spring of 1972. The following year enrollment at Level III doubled. Levels IV and V followed the next year. In 1976 a new high school was constructed and the 9th grade school eliminated. The new high school became known as Southview and the older high school, Northview. Since the division, Spanish at Northview has continued to have gradual growth. This gradual increase in enrollment indicates student satisfaction and is confirmed by a questionnaire administered yearly asking for student reactions to the course.

Program description

Students at Levels I and II are taught primarily in a regular classroom setting. There are two reasons for this: first of all, many begin language study in the junior high schools; second, the vast majority of students bring little previous knowledge or experience to the foreign language classroom. Students need to develop good pronunciation habits, to be exposed to varied study techniques, and to be given help in contrastive analysis of grammatical features. During the beginning levels students are also prepared for assuming more and more responsibility for their own education. They are given an assignment sheet for each chapter that also lists the subject matter to be covered the next day in class. Students are expected to preview the next day's lesson as well as to prepare written homework. Students are further encouraged to develop leadership and independence by participation in small groups. Students who score less than 80% on any evaluation are permitted and expected to re-take another form of the evaluation. Tutors from the advanced classes are available every period to assist lower level students during their study time. With almost immediate remedial measures taken, lower level students achieve a high degree of mastery.

Level III students proceed at their own rate through materials and evaluations developed following a standard text. Each chapter has four written evaluations (a vocabulary quiz, two grammar quizzes, and a composition) and three oral evaluations (questions concerning the reading selection, manipulation of the oral structure drills, and questions and adaptation of the conversation). Students may take the seven evaluations in any order they choose; however, a chapter must be completed before they can receive credit for work done in the next chapter. This limitation prevents students from skipping any of the evaluations they may dislike or find difficult.

Although the evaluation techniques closely resemble those used in a traditional classroom, the student must pass all evaluations with a score of 80% or higher, or re-test using a different form of the test. Tests are always handed back the following day, the student's errors are reviewed, and remedial measures are suggested, if needed. In preparation for these tests students may use teacher-prepared study sheets and pre-tests (including answer sheets), their book, their friends, the teacher, advanced students, the tapes which accompany the text, or their own previous knowledge.

During the oral tests the student not only must demonstrate the ability to answer the questions following the readings and conversations, but also must use the new vocabulary and grammar in unstructured conversation. He must be able to manipulate the oral structure drills quickly and accurately. Since oral testing is done in small groups of no more than seven students, each student is required to be better prepared than if he were in a self-contained classroom. The oral tests further serve the purpose of developing all language skills simultaneously: the vocabulary and grammar are evaluated in both written tests and oral tests.

Although the one written evaluation is called a composition, it may or may not be a traditional composition. Starting with students suggesting alternatives, "composition" has grown to mean using Spanish in a way that is creative and meaningful to the student. The composition may still be a theme based on the text, or the students' lives; but it may also be a translated popular song, a poem, an advertisement, a story, or a translated newspaper article; it may be a drawing or a picture cut from a magazine and labeled. Frequently students write original poems, stories, and essays (one even wrote a forty-six page novelette!) Students may work with a partner and do an imaginative bulletin board, memorize a skit and videotape it, or present it to a lower level class. The composition is meant to be a fun assignment that utilizes the newly acquired skills in a personal application; it is limited only by the students' imaginations.

For each quarter students are told the number of evaluations required for an A, B, C, etc. Most students want an A and are able to achieve it. At first the requirement was based on the amount of work accomplished in a regular class. The requirement has been increased twice and possibly could be further increased. Some students choose to do more work than required. Students who accomplish more evaluations than required have a letter sent to their parents commending the students. Some students work through the materials very fast and complete Spanish III some time before the end of the year. These students can continue into Spanish IV work; their efforts are rewarded with the extra knowledge they have acquired and their scores on college placement tests.

Level IV students are individualized by interest as well as ability. Students have an elaborate array of materials from which to choose. All major textbooks are available, and in addition students may choose to read Spanish-language comic books, magazines from Spanish-speaking countries, books on sociology, geography, history, biographies, and literary texts often used by universities, classics of Spanish literature from Spanish publishers (these are without student aids), or travel materials. Career opportunities are discussed on a regular basis: materials and guides that explain the language levels required, expected salary, and duties are available. Specialized books on Spanish for policemen, social agencies, hospitals, and business are also available. Reference materials such as dictionaries (English-Spanish, Spanish-Spanish, thesauri, synonym-antonym, rhyming, and pictorial), verb glossaries, and

correspondence manuals are in the room for the students' use. The theory is that as long as students read they will be using the language in a natural situation--learning vocabulary, observing structure, and enjoying every minute of their study time. As new vocabulary is met, it is learned easily and quickly because the student is probably saying to himself, "I always wondered how to say that in Spanish."

Each week students must prepare a written assignment. In it they must report on their reading, and may also include original compositions or other creative projects. If a student is working on an assignment that takes more than a week to complete, he simply needs to write a brief report on his activity and progress, and may postpone evaluations. For example, a student reading a novel may choose to write about a section individually, or read the entire novel before reporting. A list of each student's written errors is kept, and discussed with the student individually, with suggestions on how to correct making that type of error. It is not long before students are asking for a grammar review. We have two series, complete with appropriate tests. Students may take all of the units or may choose to study only a particular concept that is causing them problems. During the last half of the year, all students take a series of grammar and verb tests, which they may or may not need to study for--depending on the individual's retention.

In order to provide practice in listening comprehension, we have a well-developed tape collection. In addition to the tapes that accompany the texts, there are tapes of classical, folk, and popular music. We have recordings of poetry, short stories, plays, and short-wave broadcasts.

Each student is scheduled for a conversation group at least once a week for formal evaluation, but students are also expected to use Spanish in the classroom. The composition of the conversation groups is varied in order that students will know one another well and will mix across ability levels. Students take turns being group leaders and suggesting topics for conversation.

On Mondays some type of media is presented. We have just completed, for example, an in-depth series on Mexico, and now are studying the political situation in the Caribbean. Arrangements have been made for a social studies teacher and a Cuban refugee to talk to the students as soon as the students' oackground is adequate. Our next unit will be on Spanish art and will culminate with a trip to the Toledo Art Museum, which contains a number of examples of Spanish art.

Other activities

During the spring the fourth- and fifth-year students prepare and publish a booklet containing the best original or translated works of the year from all levels. Students select their own editor and staff to bear the prime responsibility, but all students contribute to the

finished booklet. There is an art competition for the cover and illustrations. The student staff selects the materials to be included; it is then typed and sent to the printer's.

Also in the spring we have a Spanish Fiesta, which includes all students of Spanish in the school system. Mexican food is available in our community, but Spanish food is not. The fiesta is catered, but the students choose the menu, decorate the cafeteria, and arrange and present the program. It is open to the first 300 persons who purchase tickets, with Spanish students and their families being given the first opportunity. For several years we have had a rock band. They play both currently popular Spanish songs and some of their own favorites they have translated into Spanish.

Throughout the year students at all levels are exposed as much as possible to the people and their culture. This varies from year to year depending on availability. People who are visiting the community as well as foreign exchange students are brought into the classroom for formal or informal presentations. We also invite people who use the language in their business or profession. Currently we have a student working at a hospital as an interpreter in the admitting and emergency room who has described her work to the lower level classes. Students participate in oratorical contests and language days at the universities. Students may prepare and serve a continental breakfast, or prepare and sell tacos in the cafeteria. Any activity that makes the language "real" and interesting to the students is considered: virtually every day there is something relevant on the news or in the newspaper that can be used in the classroom.

Program evaluation

At the beginning of the year a questionnaire is administered to the Spanish classes eliciting students' reasons for studying Spanish. All express a desire to utilize Spanish in some practical way--travel, getting to know people who speak Spanish, corresponding with people who live in Spanish-speaking countries, reading current periodicals, etc. A few may indicate the hope to use the language in conjunction with a career, and even fewer want to study great works of literature. After administering such a questionnaire, a teacher has the responsibility to teach in such a way that the students are realizing their goals. Teachers later can lead students gently and gradually towards art and literary appreciation as the students mature emotionally and academically.

After the first quarter the students talk as a group about their experiences with a continuous progress program. It is evident that they have learned a great deal about themselves as learners. They know which materials and approaches have helped them to learn the easiest. They know which evaluations are best for them to take first, the oral or the written. Students usually understand how to schedule their time in order not to be pushed at the last minute. The question, "Why were you able to achieve a better grade in this class

than in your other subjects?" followed by "How can you apply some of these learning concepts to your other classes?" usually brings out some astute observations and evidence of student insight into their own study habits. Students show that they have learned how to learn, be it Spanish or anything else they might like to know.

Mid-term and final examinations are also given. Students are so accustomed to achieving either an A or B on each evaluation that there are very few C's. Students also note that they do not have to study so hard for their exams in this course as in other classes. This is, of course, due to their thorough understanding of each lesson during the semester.

The MLA language exam is administered on an irregular basis. (It must be done during class time and takes four days--plus the scoring time.) Two years ago all of the students took the test and placed above average in reading or writing, and some were off the scale according to the national norms. Most individualized students are successful on the exam if they try it. Since the program is open to all students, and not all the students are academically talented, this is indicative that the design of the program is basically sound and conducive to a high level of learning.

At the end of the year students are given a questionnaire to evaluate their experiences in the program. Their suggestions for improvement have been taken into consideration and have helped to strengthen the program each year. With very few exceptions, the questionnaires reflect a high degree of satisfaction.

The continued growth of enrollment is further indicative of this personal satisfaction. More and more students are choosing to continue at least through Level III and many are completing four and five years. Some of these students are placing in the colleges as though they had had seven to nine years of school language study. (One student placed so high that a university recommended that only one more Spanish course would be necessary to make the student eligible to teach Spanish.)

Student advantages

The program offers a great deal of flexibility within the framework of an ordinary class period. Time is used very economically. Students are free to spend time only on concepts they do not know and can move on towards further study as soon as they have mastered the concept. If more time is needed for a particular concept, it is available. The program can compensate for unevenness of preparation. It has a place for students who need more basic work, as well as for students who have had outside class learning experiences in Spanish such as living in a Spanish-speaking country, having native parents, or a Spanish-speaking friend. Students are free to learn according to their own rates, abilities, and interests and may continue to learn as much as they desire.

Students can schedule the class when it is most convenient. It makes little difference if all of the students in the room are at the same level. It is preferable, of course, for several students of the same level to be in class together, since most students prefer to work with their friends; but it is not necessary.

Students can choose when to take an evaluation and which evaluation to take first. If a student has several tests in other subjects on a particular day he does not need to take any in Spanish. If a student is ill or on a vacation he will not miss a particular concept completely; but rather may continue to work where he left off when he returns. Surprisingly, the day after a vacation is one of the busiest: other teachers frequently do not make assignments, and students may decide to do as much Spanish as possible during vacation in order to be able to devote time to their other courses or visit with their friends when classes resume. It is not unusual for a student to return from vacation ready for three to five evaluations in one day. (Imagine how popular a teacher would be who announced three to five tests for the day after vacation!)

There are opportunities for personalizing the language at all levels, and this gradually increases as students become more accustomed to making their own choices and become sufficiently mature to assume more responsibility for their own education. Students who select their own materials and topics are at least partially self-motivated. Thus, students continually see the relevance and know the practical use of the language.

By requiring near mastery, the program helps students build a firm foundation for further language study. The individual student's progress is constantly monitored. The personal contact with the teacher and the high level of student achievement help the student develop positive attitudes toward language study as well as improve his own self image and self esteem. Feelings of success encourage students to stay in the program longer and their enthusiam towards the course attracts other students to the program.

Students in an individualized program have an ever-increasing number of choices concerning what materials to study and which means of learning are best for them. Students learn how to learn, using resources such as the text, the tapes, study sheets, and people (the teacher, advanced students, and one another). Students learn which mode of instruction is most suitable for them: some students learn best in a group, some in tutorial settings, and some need to sit down in a quiet corner to figure thoughts out for themselves. Others find they learn best by listening to the tapes; some prefer to read or write the material.

By learning the material in small learning steps, most students can be successful. This is true even for students who previously appeared to have learning problems, since study time can be varied by individual needs. All students learn the materials to near mastery, by re-testing over concepts not thoroughly learned; therefore, each

student builds a firm foundation on which to base his continued language study. There is little partial learning for failure. Students who are not academically talented may not learn as much material as other students, but they have a better chance for success than they would in the regular classroom because each student receives immediate and personal feedback on his mistakes and problems; plus remedial suggestions on other sources or approaches to try.

Frequently competition among the students develops, not only to see who can complete the most evaluations per quarter, but also to see who can receive the most A+'s. Although a B counts for having completed the evaluations, it is little consolation when one's best friend makes an A.

Because all students are evaluated through reading, writing, and orally, the basic skills of language are developed and coordinated almost equally. It is impossible for a student to "hide" in class. Some students may cheat on the written quiz (although a number of precautions are taken), but they also will have an oral test over the same material.

Student disadvantages

Most students find individual instruction advantageous, but there are a few students who are not able to cope with the increased freedom and responsibility it implies. A few are inclined to waste time and eventually will find they are too far behind to achieve a passing grade (0.5% of our students would be an average in this category in the Sylvania Northview program).

Some students want more structure than an indivioualized program offers. However, high school students are about to leave the protection of the school and their homes and will be expected to make intelligent and productive decisions in the near future. It seems suitable to ask them to begin to make some of their decisions given only minimal protection and guidance by the teacher.

Teacher advantages

After the initial program is prepared and lesson planning is completed, teacher time is spent entirely with students and their evaluations. Students also do many tasks for themselves (e.g., getting their own study sheets, drilling with the tape or friends) ordinarily done by teachers. Student contact hours are increased, making it possible for the teacher to know each student well and make lasting friendships.

Teacher disadvantages

The preparation of the program is a lot of work, a lot of typing, and takes much careful planning. The program that on the surface may look less structured is actually more rigidly constructed. Each step has been carefully considered. There are papers to grade daily. Teachers must change levels, concepts, and materials, and be ready to answer different questions with each student contact. Teachers need to know all of the materials, as well as all of the students and their personalities and abilities, exceptionally well.

Since students use the file cabinet and form small groups to work together, there is almost constant movement and noise. This can be distracting to both students and the teacher if it is allowed to become more than a murmur. A small bell or a flick of the light switch by either the students or the teacher can serve as a reminder to the students that the noise level is increasing. Learning to work in a bustling classroom can be justified, however, since few adults are able to find quiet while performimg the daily decisions and duties in the work world.

A movie, an outside speaker, or even a fire drill may be regarded as an interruption. Students get used to planning their own time and object by saying, "But I was planning on taking a test today. Can't I just go in the back and take it?" (This reaction is hard to imagine in a traditional classroom.)

One final disadvantage is also an advantage: the teacher may earn the reputation of being easy, since the students are working "less" and learning more. But the students are learning so painlessly and gradually that they scarcely realize their progress. Satisfaction comes when exams are graded, retention is noted, or the standardized tests scored; it is also felt as the students enter the classroom with a smile that seems to say, "We're glad it is time for Spanish."

Notes

[1]Donna Sutton, A Feasibility Study of Individualized Foreign Language Programs in the High Schools of the United States. Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1971.

AN APPROACH TO INDIVIDUALIZATION

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THE INDIVIDUALIZED SPANISH PROGRAM AT Emory started in the fall of 1976 with 24 students and one professor. At the end of four years we have now grown to 125 students, two professors and three teaching assistants. We have individualized the first year of language learning and are now making plans for three different advanced tracks: business, medical and legal courses in Spanish.

The Emory program, however, is not so much individualized study (as exemplified by the program at OSU) as independent study, since we do not meet regularly as a group and our loose guidelines cannot be said to serve as covert attempts at motivating students to do the work. The key to our success, in my opinion, is a restricted flexibility which allows the students varied options without becoming overly cumbersome for the faculty and staff involved in the project.

The following are some considerations fundamental to setting up and administering any individualized or independent program:

Text

The first question is undoubtedly that of choosing an appropriate textbook according to the very specific demands of the program. This suggests the following criteria:

A. It must have grammar explanations in English.

B. It must be prepared for individualized study, meaning it must consist of:

1. workbook;
2. laboratory exercises;
3. individualized manual with practice tests and answers for all the work; and
4. at least two sets of final tests.

C. It must be divisible into credit units fitting whatever system is used at one's particular institution.

For our individualized program we chose Turk, Espinosa and Solés Foundation Course in Spanish (4th edition) because it met all of the

above prerequisites. Although by no means perfect, this text has worked well. However, we have had to develop a whole program of exercises and hand out materials to supplement the book in areas where it is weak or ambiguous. Furthermore, this book does not appear to be satisfactory for use in a classroom setting that is orally oriented, due to the inadequacy of its dialogues. Thus there is a certain lack of coherence between the two tracks (classroom and individualized), for which we attempt to compensate in order to maintain an overall pattern of communication in the total Spanish language program.

Credits

In the individualized program we offer the first three quarters of language (fifteen credit hours), which can be completed in one quarter or in as many as the student needs. (There is, however, a minimum completion requirement of two credits any given quarter. Completion of any fewer credits results in a grade of F.) As the individualized program is geared to mastery, we demand a grade of B or above for passing. Thus, students have three possible grades: A, B, and F.

The completion of one credit hour usually entails doing all the work for two lessons, plus one cultural reading, plus attendance at one conversation session. Most students finish an average of three or four credits, though some do only the minimum two, while others do five or more. For students completing more than 5 credit hours in any given quarter grades are reported in 5 hour sets, or in such a way as to give the student the benefit of the higher grade.

We have occasionally had difficulty in getting students motivated to do the work. We have no contracts which would add to the already substantial bureaucratic work involved. Rather, we operate by something akin to natural selection: only the fit survive. This means that at times we give a substantial number of F's--occasionally as high as 10%--and let word-of-mouth do the rest. We are now considering a new and perhaps more humane approach to the problem of motivation: having names of procrastinators dropped from the roll at midterm if by then they have not completed the required two credits or at the very least given evidence of work in progress.

Another problem we have faced is that by requiring attendance at conversation sessions to match each credit earned we sometimes end up in an awkward position. For example:

1. Students may do more conversations than tests, in which case extra conversations do not count.

2. Students may do more tests than conversations, in which case we withhold credit until they have a chance to attend the required session(s) during the following quarter. (We do not accept such "layaways" during spring quarter, however.)

Tests

Tests can be taken only after all preliminary work has been completed, and the student must perform at the B level or above in order for a test to count. The tests are administered individually in the professor's office and consist of both oral and written components. Our testing program has shown us that while students acquire the reading and writing skills well, developing the aural-oral skills is the true Achilles' heel of the individualized program. We have developed several ways to deal with this problem. First, there are the laboratory and conversation sessions, during which intense practice takes place. Second, all students, particularly those with no background in the language, are strongly encouraged to spend one of the three quarters in the regular classroom. This multi-frontal approach seems to produce adequate familiarity with the spoken language as well as to provide plenty of opportunity for practice.

Scheduling

Basically we try to be available 4 times a week between 10:00 a.m. and 2:00 p.m. on class days, except that Wednesday is free (we use it to schedule one of the conversation sessions). We hold consultations during those hours by appointment on a time-slot basis: the person who signs up first indicates the unit he/she is working on; thereafter, only people working on the same unit can sign up at the same time. Thus we avoid the end-of-quarter mobs when 25 people want to sign up for appointments during a given hour. Students meet with us either for tests or for specific questions regarding any of the material. We used to have many more office hours, but we discovered that student requests for help tend to go in inverse proportion to instructor availability: for some reason, when the instructors are available all day the students get a false sense of security and delay coming in. Because of that, and due to limits in personnel, we offer no evening or weekend meetings such as OSU has.

The conversation sessions are held twice a week on Wednesday and one other day. They are conducted by two student assistants, with either of the instructors present. That way we can work in small groups roughly equivalent to 101-102-103, or any combination thereof depending on the nature of the group. We basically go over the material in the text until everyone knows it and then have free conversation around relevant topics, sometimes stimulated by the use of visual materials (pictures, scenes, etc.). In order to allow additional flexibility we also permit the conversation requirement to be fulfilled by attending a regular class at the student's own level. This serves yet another purpose: by familiarizing 100R (individualized) students with the workings of a regular class we hope to encourage traffic between these two tracks. We also have an extended drop-add period between Spanish language classes and the individualized program. For example, in case a student finds himself misplaced in a class, he can move to 100R even after the regular drop-add period is over.

Getting student evaluations of our program has been a problem. We tend to get feedback only from the poorer students who wait until the last minute to complete the work: those who finish early very seldom fill out evaluations, since it doesn't occur to us to offer them during the early part of the quarter.

Conclusions

Basically the program runs very well in spite of the inevitable presence of procrastinators. We are gratified at the following signs, for example:

A) Our enrollment keeps increasing and not at the expense of the classroom.

B) We function very effectively with a minimum of bureaucracy and a maximum of flexibility given our limited resources.

C) About half of our students do more than the minimum 2 hours per quarter.

D) About half of our beginning students complete through 103 either in 100R (individualized) or in the classroom track.

E) The quality of learning seems to be very good, particularly for people who finish the sequence and particularly in the areas of reading and writing. The 100R students seem to exhibit an intimacy of involvement with the language not seen in the classroom in general.

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