CANADIAN THESES

THÈSES CANADIENNES

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

Enriching an ESL Core Curriculum: A Quebec Case Study

Anne Hetherington

A Thesis

in

The TESL Centre

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts at
Concordia University
Montréal, Québec, Canada

August 1986

ISBN 0-315-35531-X

ABSTRACT

Enriching an ESL Core Curriculum:
A Quebec Case Study

Anne Hetherington

In Quebec, a new ESL program for primary and secondary schools has recently been implemented. This core program specifies the minimum program for students in French-language schools in Quebec. Certain school boards, however, have students who require an enriched ESL program. For those who are not proficient enough in English to follow an English mother-tongue program, the Ministry of Education permits the implementation of a programme local, providing that it respects the orientation of the core program and that it does not follow an "immersion" format; that is, students may not receive subject-matter instruction through English.

In this thesis, program adaptations for enrichment are explored. Although the principles discussed apply to all three parts of the new program, the thesis focusses on the program for cycle one of secondary school. The core program is analyzed for specific contents as well as for the language-learning concepts, grading principles, and practical considerations underlying it. Five possible options for program adaptation are discussed:

writing a more challenging version of the core program; adding an explicit focus on grammatical accuracy; providing a completely different type of program; increasing the emphasis on production; and, using the cycle-two program in cycle one. The possible advantages and disadvantages of each are discussed and examples of how each might be implemented are given.

In conclusion, a combination of three of the options is recommended. These recommendations are based on recent findings in communicative language-teaching programs as well as current thinking in the field of language acquisition.

Acknowledgements

This thesis would not have been written without the help of a number of people. Jonathan Munro Jones and Hanns Tibblin provided the original impetus and inspiration for the project. Ron Mackay helped me to define the nature and scope of the project and commented on drafts. Palmer Acheson provided useful comments and excellent editing. Don, Craig and Erin displayed great patience with me and willingly cooperated when I claimed computer time. And Patsy Lightbown, my supervisor, helped not only with this specific project, but has constantly encouraged me throughout my time at the TESL Centre.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract

Acknowledgements

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

General Background 1
The New Program: Design Guidelines 4
1. A Uniform Program 4
2. A Feasible Program 5
3. An Effective Program 7

CHAPTER 2: ANALYSIS OF THE SC1 PROGRAM

General Format 14
Grading of Objectives 16
1. Grading of Information 18
2. Grading of Language 28
3. Grading by Task 38

CHAPTER 3: AN ENRICHED PROGRAM

The Need for Enrichment 43
Enrichment: Design Guidelines 44
1. A Local Program -- not a Uniform Program 44
2. A Feasible Program 45
3. An Effective Program 47

CHAPTER 4: OPTIONS FOR AN ENRICHED PROGRAM

Option 1: Make Core Objectives More Challenging 59
Option 2: Grammatical Accuracy Component 71
Option 3: Other types of Programs 82
Option 4: Increase Production 97
Option 5: Use SC2 Program 102

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

The Quebec Situation 107
Recommendations 112

Footnotes 120

References 123

Appendices 131

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

GENERAL BACKGROUND

In the late 1970's, the Ministry of Education of Quebec (MEQ) decided to revise all the curricula for the primary and secondary schools of the province. (1) In order to implement such a major revision, a subject-by-subject analysis of the existing situation had to be undertaken and new programs drawn up. It is within this framework that the new program in English as a Second Language (ESL) for students in the French-language schools of the province must be situated.

The investigation undertaken by those responsible for the ESL program revision (hereafter referred to as "the authors") included studies of the program and materials in use and the conditions under which ESL was being taught (Georgeault and Danan 1977), an analysis of the students' proficiency in English (Lussier 1978) and a analysis of both primary and secondary school students' needs for English (MEQ documents 16-2204-02 and 16-3224-09). There were two major findings from these studies. First of all, although there was a "programme-cadre" for ESL, and an accompanying breakdown of grammatical items to be covered (MEQ documents 16-3222 and 16-3202), the teaching of ESL varied greatly across the province. Secondly, although students indicated an interest in learning English and an appreciation for its

usefulness, many of them had difficulty applying the skills and knowledge acquired at school in situations outside the classroom. (MEQ document 16-3251, p.5)

With this information, the authors set out to design a program to be used across the province. It was anticipated that this new program would provide an integrated and continuous approach from the primary grades through to the end of the secondary school. It was to be realized in 3 distinct parts: the first for the second cycle of the primary school (PC2), grades 4 through 6; the second for the secondary school, cycle 1 (SC1), secondary 1 and 2 (S1 and S2); and the third for the second cycle of the secondary school (SC2), secondary 3,4 and 5 (S3, S4 and S5).

Although the principles and issues discussed throughout this thesis apply to all three parts of the new program, the thesis itself is concerned principally with the SC1 program. Therefore, unless otherwise stated, all future references to the new ESL program will be to the SC1 portion of the program.

The program as defined by the Ministry was to provide a minimum core program to be followed by all the school boards in the province. It was anticipated, however, that there would be school boards and individual schools in which students would be able to go beyond the minimum and follow an "enriched" program. As such programs would have to suit the particular needs of small

groups of students, the MEQ did not define what an enriched program or "programme local" would be. They did, however, set down guidelines for drawing up such a program. The two basic guidelines were that the program was to follow the spirit of the new core program and that it was to be submitted to the MEQ for approval. Today, a number of school boards in Quebec find that they have a substantial group of students who require such an enriched program. It is the aim of this thesis to explore the various types of program enrichment which those responsible for drawing up such a programme local might wish to adopt. In order to do this, however, it is first necessary to understand in detail the core program, both its basic philosophy and its actual content.

In this first chapter, therefore, I will outline the basic constraints and conditions under which the new core ESL program was drawn up. I will then analyze in depth general principles by which ESL material may be graded and examine how these principles have been applied to the MEQ program. Such an analysis is essential to the third and fourth chapters of the thesis. In the third chapter, I outline the present problem facing some school boards in the province: how to enrich the present program while still respecting the guidelines set out by the MEQ. In the fourth chapter, the various options for enrichment are presented and discussed in light of the principles of the present program, the MEQ guidelines, and new insights

into second language acquisition (SLA) research and language teaching methodology which have come about recently. In the final chapter, I will make recommendations concerning the enrichment options.

THE NEW PROGRAM: DESIGN GUIDELINES

The new program was designed to be uniform (so that evaluation could be consistent throughout the province), feasible (able to be used given actual teaching situations), and effective in preparing students to use everyday English outside the classroom. In this section, I will describe the conditions under which the new program had to operate, and the routes taken to achieve uniformity and effectiveness.

1. A Uniform Program

The need for uniformity was not unique to the ESL program and was met in a similar way by all departments within the MEQ. In keeping with prevailing thought in educational circles at the time (e.g. Mager 1975, Gagné and Briggs 1974), it was decided that teaching goals would be defined in terms of behavioural or performance objectives. These objectives are intended to define or describe, according to observable behaviour, the activity of the students. These descriptions serve as the basis for final objectives which can be broken down into intermediate objectives so that teaching can proceed in an orderly manner. This method allows for flexibility

within the actual teaching situation, and for uniform and fair evaluation, since the intended student behaviours are clearly established at the outset.

2. A Feasible Program

In order to draw up a realistic program, the authors had to take into account the teachers and students who would be using the program, and the physical and socio-cultural conditions under which it would be implemented.

The Students

Students in S1 and S2 are, generally, between 12 and 14 years old. They have received some ESL instruction, about 2 hours a week, for the final 2 or 3 years of primary school. There are wide individual and regional differences in the amount of contact which they have had with English outside the school.

Teaching Personnel

For the most part, ESL teachers in the public school system are not native speakers (NSs) of English. In fact, many are not proficient speakers of English. Furthermore, because few new teachers are being hired and because some teachers of other disciplines are being asked to teach ESL, the present population of ESL teachers either received training in second language teaching some time ago or has received no ESL training at all. Although some teachers have kept up-to-date with current trends in language teaching, many have not.

Time Allotment

Students receive 100 hours of ESL instruction in each of their two years in SCI. This instruction is usually given in 50-minute periods of time distributed throughout the week.

Class Size

Like classes in other subjects, ESL classes usually have between 25 and 30 students. Depending on the size of the school and the timetabling constraints of the other subjects, students may or may not be streamed according to their proficiency in English.

Space

ESL classes are usually held within a regular classroom in the secondary school. Although a special classroom may be set aside for all or most of the English classes, this room is used by many different groups of students and ongoing projects would need to be coordinated in such a way that a number of groups could use the same space.

Restrictions on Course Content

In Quebec, the language of education is French and only English language may be taught "through English" in the French-language schools (Law 101, Province of Quebec). This means that school boards are not permitted to offer courses such as Biology or Mathematics in English to francophone students. An English immersion program, the counterpart of French immersion in schools

in other parts of Canada, is not permitted.

English in the Environment

In almost all parts of the province and in the majority of homes, French-speaking students have access to the English media, principally through television, radio and movies. They may or may not have access to the printed media such as newspapers and magazines. Within the school itself, it is unlikely that there will be a significant number of library books available in English. However, this would obviously depend on the individual school.

3. An Effective Program

In order to meet the global objective of the program, that "at the end of the secondary level, students will get along in English in everyday situations" (MEQ document 16-3251, p.18), the authors based the ESL program on current theories and research both in education in general and in language learning and teaching in particular.

General pedagogical principles

Principles established in educational psychology influenced the revision of all the MEQ curricula. These principles put an emphasis on the individual learner and recognized the importance of motivation and attitude.(2) This student-centred approach stresses the active involvement of the learner in the learning task and takes as its point of departure the students' need for learning

a given subject. The authors, therefore, needed to consider the interests, needs and cognitive development of SC1 students when developing objectives. In order to identify these needs and establish a suitable framework for both the terminal and intermediate objectives, a needs analysis (MEQ document 16-3224-09) was carried out.

Language as a means of communication

In the field of applied linguistics, recent works had emphasized a view of language as a means of communication rather than as a formal code (e.g. Widdowson 1978). This led researchers to consider units other than grammatical structures as categories for analyzing language. The work done by the Council of Europe (e.g. Van Ek 1976) in specifying language functions and notions is an important example of the application of the principles of this movement. These categories offer an alternative type of language analysis to grammatical structures while stressing the importance of language for communication (as language is analyzed into the functions for which it is used) and the emphasis on meaning (the notions or units of meaning which are used to carry out these functions). The new program was strongly influenced by this movement as is reflected in the specification of functions and notions at all levels of the objectives.

Second language acquisition (SLA) research

Many changes in our understanding of how languages

are learned took place in the years between the writing of the programme-cadre (MEQ document 16-3202) and the new program. These changes account for many of the basic differences between the old and new programs. In order to understand the theoretical basis of the new program, a brief overview of these hypotheses and theories is necessary.

Conscious/subconscious learning processes Much recent writing and thinking in SLA has centred on the distinction between subconscious and conscious processes of learning or "acquisition" and "learning" (3). While in the past, the conscious learning of the formal properties of language was stressed, current SLA theories consider that the greater part of the language we learn is actually acquired through subconscious processes.

The creative-construction hypothesis Work in first language acquisition (FLA) (e.g. Brown 1973, de Villiers & de Villiers 1973) and SLA (e.g. Dulay and Burt 1977) indicates that, not only is language acquired through subconscious processes, but that learners seem to follow similar sequences of developmental stages (4). These findings support two conclusions which have come from work in error analysis. First of all, it appears that learners construct their knowledge of L2 through active learning processes. Secondly, learners are inclined to do this according to a natural "built-in or internal syllabus" (Corder 1967). That is, the order or

acquisition of the second language is not necessarily the same as the order of instruction.

The role of comprehension Studies in both FLA and natural SLA have also put new emphasis on the importance of comprehension skills in the language learning process. First of all, it has been recognized that learners must receive comprehensible input (utterances which are embedded in enough context that the learner can figure out their meaning) if language learning is to take place (Schachter 1983:180). Krashen (1981) has taken this idea one step further and claims that comprehensible input is the mechanism by which language is acquired. Through the provision of comprehensible input at a level of difficulty somewhat higher than the learners' present proficiency level, learners will progress to the next developmental stage.

Studies also showed that the learner's comprehension of language exceeded his/her production. Psychologists such as Asher (1977) and Postovsky (1974) made two pedagogical suggestions based on these findings. First of all, they suggested that beginners might need an initial silent period of comprehension before being required to produce language. Beyond the basic beginner stage, they suggested that production should not be forced but should occur when the students indicated their readiness. Although such psychologists expected students to produce more as they progressed in their language

development, they predicted that comprehension would exceed production throughout the language learning process.

Instructional approach

The influence of these theories and movements in applied linguistics is evident in the principles of the new program and the approach to instruction outlined in the guide pédagogique (MEQ document 16-3251-01) which accompanies it.

The emphasis on fluency Unlike the structural approach to language learning which stressed the importance of accuracy, the new program emphasizes the development of fluency in all four language skills. This shift of emphasis relates directly to the global objective of the program: to prepare students to get along in English in everyday situations. It is also a clear response to the concerns raised by the studies of students in the old structural program. The development of fluency is encouraged in a number of ways.

A favourable learning environment In keeping with the general pedagogical principles mentioned above, the authors have stressed the need to have activities and learning situations built around the interests and needs of the students in SC1. The sample units in the guide pédagogique (e.g. rock stars p. 70-75) and the fact that the objectives are situated in the immediate home and school environment of the students are evidence of

this.

A rich linguistic environment The authors emphasize the importance of providing students with a rich linguistic environment in which the focus is on communication and getting one's meaning across (MEQ document 16-3251-01: 12-13). This is to be done by creating realistic, meaningful and, as far as possible, actual situations and activities for language use. This attitude reflects the theoretical emphasis on language for communication mentioned earlier and is inspired by various writings on communicative methodology (e.g. Krashen 1981; Harmer 1982; Brumfit 1984) on how to simulate, within the classroom, conditions which resemble those of informal learning situations.

In order to cope with this rich linguistic environment, the authors emphasize that students must learn to take risks (MEQ document 16-3251-01: 15-17). They must have practice in using in English communication strategies which they already have in French. Through comprehension strategies such as prediction, and production strategies such as gestures, paraphrase and substitution, students can cope with situations for which their knowledge of language is inadequate and can compensate for the gaps in their knowledge.

Attitude to error The new emphasis on subconscious processes and developmental stages and the push to "get one's message across" has meant a major shift in the

attitude to error and error correction in the classroom. Errors are no longer seen as evidence of bad habits (as had been the case in the audio-lingual approach) but as evidence of learners' developing language. As in informal L1 and L2 learning situations, errors are to be expected and tolerated as long as they do not interfere with communication of meaning.(5)

CHAPTER 2: ANALYSIS OF THE SC1 PROGRAM

GENERAL FORMAT

The program consists of fourteen terminal objectives (see Appendix A). These are grouped around the poles of comprehension and production, and are subsequently divided into oral and written modes. These terminal objectives are broken down into intermediate objectives, which are classified under text types and accompanying notions. The text type specifies the context in which the language is presented and may vary in scope from a relatively limited text like a weather bulletin to a much broader text like a story (see Appendix B). The notions relevant to these texts are also specified. The number and type of notions varies somewhat between the two grade levels, S1 and S2, but the basic text types remain constant.

The linguistic and other characteristics of the text types are also specified. Linguistic characteristics involve such factors as the number of adjectives per noun, sentence complexity and length, and vocabulary redundancy or familiarity. Other characteristics generally concern speed of a recorded message, length of a passage and extra-textual support. These characteristics are prescriptive in nature and are intended to limit the complexity and difficulty of the texts. They are not intended to act as an inventory of

grammatical points to be taught and mastered. For each text type, one or more sample texts is given, in order to illustrate the authors' intentions.

Each objective is also given a code number indicating the degree of mastery which students are expected to demonstrate (see Appendix C). There are three levels of mastery for comprehension objectives. According to the level prescribed, students are expected to demonstrate partial, substantial or total comprehension of a text. There are five levels of mastery for production objectives. At the lowest level, students are required to communicate a message in spite of errors in syntax and pronunciation or spelling and may receive help throughout the communication. At the highest level, the student communicates without help and without formal errors. (See Appendix D for a sample objective as laid out in the program.)

In the guide pédagogique, the authors explain how these objectives are to be realized in the teaching materials. They are not to be taught in a sequential manner; rather, a "communicative approach" is to be adopted. Materials writers are required to organize teaching units around learning situations through which the students will encounter the various notions and functions specified in the objectives. Thus, although the actual layout of the program is given in what Allen (1983) would call functional-analytic terms, the approach

which is to be followed in teaching is more of what he calls an experiential approach since functions are not analyzed overtly in the texts.(6)

GRADING OF OBJECTIVES

In order to define the intermediate objectives of the new program, one of the first steps was the selection of text types and notions. In order to do this, the authors consulted teachers, conseillers pédagogiques, parents and other interested persons, as well as the needs analysis which had been conducted (MEQ document 16-3224-09). When the selection had been completed, it was then necessary to decide on criteria or guidelines which would ensure that the material to be used to realize the objectives, was at an appropriate level of difficulty for SC1 students. There are a number of different ways in which they could have proceeded at this point.

The method chosen by the authors was to divide into two groups. Two members of the team wrote what they considered to be suitable sample texts. Independently, the two other members of the team drew up sets of linguistic and other characteristics which they considered represented texts at the appropriate level of difficulty. The two groups then compared their work and came up with the characteristics which are presently outlined in the program.

This approach to selection and grading of materials differs significantly from the approach followed in traditional structural programs. Although it is obviously a thorough and considered approach to grading, in the resulting program it is not always clear why the authors have defined linguistic and other characteristics as they have. In order to clarify the principles on which the text characteristics are based, I will, in this section, outline a number of general principles to be considered when grading language teaching material. These principles have been drawn from a number of different sources, including both first and second language learning and can be applied to all four language skills. As noted above, these principles are not explicitly stated in the program, as the authors chose a somewhat different route for the definition of text characteristics. The authors did, however, discuss these principles and kept them in mind when defining the specifics of this program (J.Munro Jones, personal communication, 1986). (7)

I will show how these grading principles, which I have grouped under the headings of information, language and task, are supported in the literature. I will then show how the authors of the SC1 program have applied these principles. Such an analysis is useful for understanding the present program and essential to a comprehensive approach to adapting and enriching that

program.

1. Grading of Information

Familiarity of Information

The first criterion to be considered in assessing the difficulty of information is the extent to which students are already familiar with the subject matter. According to the psycholinguistic model of reading (Goodman 1967, Smith 1970), comprehension of written texts is an interactive process which involves texts and learners. In order to derive meaning from language the student must be able to provide semantic input from his previous experience, interests, background knowledge, etc. Although formulated to describe the reading process, it is appropriate to extend this model to cover listening comprehension as well (Brown and Yule 1984, Murphy 1985).

By choosing subjects which interest the students and which they perceive as meaningful, program planners can increase student motivation and maximize student input. In addition, the choice of topics which are familiar to students ensures that the student has the appropriate background knowledge to cope with the comprehension task. Studies by Hudson (1982) and P.Johnson (1982) have confirmed the importance of background knowledge as a facilitating factor in the reading process. Richards (1983) stresses the importance of this factor in listening tasks, and Brown and Yule (1984) point out that

background knowledge becomes especially important when listening to spontaneous spoken language. In this situation speakers tend to use very general, non-specific vocabulary (e.g. "something", "somehow", "like this", "sort of", "a bit") and if the listener is not familiar with the context of the situation, s/he will have greater difficulty interpreting the meaning of such general terms.

Because of the intimate connection between the content and the learner, this principle can also be applied to production tasks. If students are familiar with a topic and interested in it, they will have less difficulty deciding what to say or what to write about. We can, therefore, formulate a first principle of assessing content difficulty:

1. It is easier to understand and to produce texts about familiar subjects which learners perceive as meaningful and interesting and which draw on their background knowledge than texts about unfamiliar and/or uninteresting topics.

Principle 1: New Program The subjects dealt with are "close to home" and immediately relevant to the students. Indeed, the first "fundamental principle" outlined in the program is that materials must be appropriate to the interests and activities of this age group of students.

Concrete/Abstract Information

Information can also be assessed on a continuum of relative abstractness, from very concrete to very

abstract topics. Concrete subjects, those dealing with matters which are tangible, accessible through the senses or able to be visualized (e.g. facts and events) are easier to understand and express than abstract feelings like jealousy or concepts like liberty. The concrete/abstract continuum is one way of measuring how cognitively demanding a task is. Cummins (1983) points out that too often the cognitive demands of a task are not considered when assessing the proficiency of second language learners. We can then formulate a second principle:

2. It is easier to understand and produce texts about concrete subjects than texts about abstract subjects.

Principle 2: New Program The subject matter is primarily of a concrete nature, using such texts as catalogues, timetables, menus, etc. Although students are expected to understand and express feelings and attitudes (objective 7), the notions given are at a fairly basic level (e.g. likes/dislikes, preferences, certainty, agreement/disagreement) which can often be realized with formulae or patterns. Furthermore, these attitudes and feelings are expressed in relation to fairly concrete subject matter such as movies, rock stars, etc.

Quantity of Information

Another way of looking at the information load is in terms of the amount and diversity of information in a text. This can be measured roughly in terms of text

length. For comprehension skills, this is especially true if student activities with a text are done after the entire text has been read or heard. In the case of listening texts in particular, long texts may strain auditory memory. For production activities, length is probably an even more important measure of difficulty. Short speaking turns and short written responses can often be accomplished with relatively simple language, formulae or repetition/copying of given information. Sustained speaking turns and written texts make greater demands on the speaker/writer.

For comprehension skills, another factor must be kept in mind. Although shorter texts are usually easier, the important criterion is not number of words but amount of information. If "naturally-occurring" texts are used and natural redundancy of information is maintained, shorter texts will be easier to comprehend. However, it is unfortunately too often the case that authors "simplify" materials by deleting redundant information, a process which may produce texts densely packed with information and, therefore, more difficult than the original longer version (Honeyfield 1977). A third principle can be stated:

3. It is easier to produce short texts than long texts. It is also easier to understand short texts, providing that the natural redundancy of information is not altered.

Principle 3: New Program (a) Comprehension Partly because reading comprehension is being introduced as an

objective for the first time in SC1, there are more stringent limitations on text length for reading texts than for listening texts. The former are restricted to a maximum of 100 words in S1 (e.g. objective 8.1), while listening texts may be as long as 15 minutes in S1 (e.g. objective 4.1). The limits on text length, however, were determined largely as a reflection of the actual texts to which students would be exposed outside the classroom. Therefore, most of the written text types found in the program are short (e.g. notes, announcements, order forms). On the other hand, probably the greatest exposure which many francophone students have to English is through television. Therefore, the 15 or 20 minute listening text (supported by visual stimuli) reflects the length of the actual story time on a half-hour TV program.

(b) Production Production texts are similarly limited. Speaking objectives all concern conversational interaction with short turns taken by both participants. Although each interlocutor may be required to produce four or five "responses", each response is only one or two "sentences" in length. In written production, the longest texts are 50 words (objectives 9.4 and 11.4). Others are 10, 25 or 30 words or 3 or 4 sentences in length. Again, these lengths reflect the actual length of the text types which are required in the program.

It is important in assessing quantity of information

that the concept of measurement not be restricted to a word count. It is actually more important to consider the quantity of information, such as the number of people involved in an event or the number of different settings in a story, and how easily distinguishable these persons or settings are from one another. Brown and Yule (1984) give the example of a story involving three participants: a man, a woman and a dog. Because these participants are easily distinguished from each other (three different pronouns can be used, for example), it is easier to understand and tell this story than a similar one involving three men. This leads to a corollary to the third principle:

3a. The more elements, properties, relationships, characters or factors which may be difficult to distinguish from each other, the more difficult the information in a text.

Principle 3a: New Program This principle has not been overtly addressed by the program planners for three of the four skills. However, the length restrictions placed on the reading, writing and speaking texts serve to limit the complexity of the material. In short texts, there is simply not enough time for multiple characters, settings, etc. In the one mode which allows for long texts, listening, this principle is explicitly used to differentiate between the difficulty levels of S1 and S2. For example, weather reports (objective 1.1) are limited to one region and two-day forecasts in S1, while the same text type in S2 may compare 2 or 3 regions and cover

several days. For TV situation comedies and the like, it may be assumed that the familiarity of the characters and settings would help to lessen the burden of distinguishing between different persons and settings. Nevertheless, as is indicated in the mastery levels, only partial comprehension of such listening texts is expected.

Organization of Information

Another factor which must be considered, particularly for longer texts, is the organization of the information. Comprehension texts in which the author's plan and the development of the information are clear are easier to understand than those in which facts may be out of order or in which irrelevant information is included. For example, texts are easier to understand if they have identifiable topic sentences or introductions. Research has shown that topic sentences which express superordinate concepts help students to chunk information and anticipate what will follow (Rickards 1977). Titles and subtitles also may fill this function. On the other hand, one factor which contributes to the difficulty of many newspaper reports or magazine articles is the practice of attracting the reader/listener's attention by opening with a catchy anecdote or detail. This information may not be important to the development of the story, and is usually presented out of chronological

sequence.

Organizational factors apply very much to production objectives. Even if the information is easy according to principles 1, 2 and 3a above, when students are required to produce longer texts, organizing the information into a coherent text may cause problems. If a text has a pre-determined or built-in structure (either imposed by a task or by the nature of the text), however, the speaker/writer is not required to impose an organizational framework on it. Temporal structuring is one example of this: when narrating a past event, one usually follows a chronological ordering of events. Also, when giving directions on how to get to a certain place, one begins at the beginning. Such tasks may be contrasted with others in which the speaker/writer argues a point or, on a more concrete level, explains rules and regulations. There are several different ways in which a point or points could be classified, categorized and sequenced. Speaking or writing tasks which have built-in formats are easier than ones in which a variety of organizational formats is possible. The fourth principle, therefore, is:

4. It is easier to understand texts which are clearly organized according to an obvious plan and which contain only relevant information. Similarly, it is easier to produce texts which have a pre-determined and/or built-in organizational format than ones where a variety of formats is possible.

Principle 4: New Program This principle is not explicitly mentioned in any of the objectives. However,

the short length of written texts means that organization of such texts is unlikely to present a problem. For longer listening texts, the narrative form of TV programs and stories may be considered to provide a built-in form of organization. As teachers move on to longer written texts and non-narrative listening texts, this principle is an important one to keep in mind.

For production activities, there is little problem. As sustained speaking turns are not required, students cannot plan in advance the presentation of a body of information, but will have to react to input from their interlocutor and modify their production as the exchange develops. Although written production objectives are short, it might be argued that organizational decisions must be made. However, standard conventions dictate the appropriate format for the kind of business letters required and also, to a certain extent, for short friendly letters and postcards.

Context of the Information

Another important characteristic which affects the difficulty of the information in comprehension texts is the availability of extra-textual support. Such support serves as a form of redundancy. "Context-embedded" texts are easier to understand than those which are "context-reduced" (Faerch et al 1984, Cummins 1983). Although texts which make use of students' background

knowledge may be considered to be context-embedded, support may also take a number of other forms such as pictures, graphs, titles, background noises, and objects which can be manipulated. This principle applies equally to the comprehension and the production of written texts. Often, even in our first language, we supplement a written note with diagrams, charts, etc. to clarify our message. For the aural-oral skills, the presence of the speaker makes paralinguistic signals such as gestures, facial expressions and opportunities for feedback in the form of clarification requests and confirmation checks available to the interlocutors. This leads to a fifth principle:

5. It is easier to understand context-embedded texts than context-reduced texts. Similarly, it is easier to produce a text if it is possible to supplement the linguistic text with extra- or paralinguistic support.

Principle 5: New Program The texts in the MEQ program are definitely context-embedded. As students are principally dealing with familiar themes in school and the community, support is readily available. Furthermore, the concrete nature of the subject matter lends itself particularly well to the use of extra-textual aids, which are specifically called for in many of the objectives (e.g. 1.5 and 7.1). The written production activities are often done on a prepared questionnaire or form (e.g. objectives 9.1 and 10.1) and speaking objectives all concern conversational exchanges

where negotiation of meaning and paralinguistic gestures are available.

2. Grading of Language

Vocabulary

Perhaps the most obvious linguistic factor to assess and the one which many consider the most important factor contributing to language difficulty is vocabulary load. As a general rule of thumb, technical, specialized, infrequent vocabulary items are more difficult to understand than general, frequent terms (Brown and Yule 1984:84).

There are two mediating influences which must not be overlooked, however. First of all, if taken to the extreme, non-specificity of vocabulary (e.g. frequent use of "thing", "do", etc.) can actually make a passage more difficult because it is so general (Brown and Yule 1984, Rosenshine 1969). Secondly, technical or specialized words may have cognates in the learner's first language (L1) or may have been borrowed into that language, making them accessible to the L2 learner who has been sensitized to their usefulness. Frequency and relative difficulty of vocabulary items, therefore, may best be judged on an intuitive basis rather than on the basis of frequency lists or lists of "previously learned" words.(8) Although some researchers (e.g. P.Johnson 1982) claim that students can tolerate quite a high level of unknown

vocabulary, we can formulate a first principle of language difficulty:

6. Texts which contain many technical, specialized, infrequent vocabulary items (which are not L1 cognates or borrowings) are more difficult to understand and produce than texts containing frequently occurring, more general vocabulary.

Principle 6: New Program There is no specific mention of vocabulary load in this program. However, the concrete, familiar nature of the subject matter imposes a kind of vocabulary control on the texts so that it can be assumed that familiar, concrete and fairly general vocabulary will be used in the comprehension texts and will be sufficient for the production objectives.

Syntax

The second criterion to consider here is complexity of syntactic structures. The traditional grading for L2 texts proceeds from present tense through simple past and future to more complex conditional and compound tenses, mentioning various other structures such as prepositional phrases, noun clauses etc. along the way. This system is the one used by many of the traditional structurally-based series which presented certain structures and then wrote comprehension passages which employed only those structures which had been presented and supposedly "learned". (9) This system runs into difficulty because grammar is much more complex than a list of tenses. Depending on which criteria are applied, the same

sentence may be easy or quite difficult to understand. (10)

Another approach is to establish measures of syntactic complexity by assigning weights to syntactic elements based on language performance tests, grammatical theory and/or intuition. This has been done for L1 learners (Botel, Dawkins, Granowski 1973) and for L2 learners (Nigalupta 1978). These studies have identified features such as nominalization, modifier load, modals, negatives and passive voice as difficult to understand. There seem to be no strict guidelines by which to make judgements about syntactic complexity but this is more a comment on the complexity of the English grammatical system than a reflection of the importance of syntactic complexity in grading material. A very general second linguistic principle would, therefore, be:

7. Some syntactic structures are more difficult to understand than others.

Measures of syntactic complexity are difficult to apply not only to texts used for comprehension, but also to production objectives. The grading system used in a structural program specifies the syntactic structures to be produced. This would seem to be the method recommended by those authors (e.g. Brumfit) who suggest a spiralling of functions around a grammatical core. Another method would be to look at specific notions, such as time and aspect, which are usually conveyed by use of syntactic structures. Although there may be nothing

intrinsically more difficult about present time than past time, if a text concerns only one time it would be easier than one in which it is necessary to convey a variety of times, and thus to differentiate between times (Brown and Yule 1984). Although such differentiation could be conveyed by the use of adverbs (e.g. tomorrow, yesterday) rather than by verb tense, the task of differentiation still exists. The syntactic complexity principle applied to production objectives might be stated as:

7a. Texts which require differentiation between notions which are usually expressed using syntactic or morphological features are more difficult to produce than ones in which such differentiation is not required.

Principle 7: New Program Specific reference to the syntactic complexity of the comprehension objectives is made only regarding verb time and modifier load. Present, past and future times may be used (e.g. objective 4.1) and the number of adjectives used to modify nouns is limited (e.g. 1 or 2 adjectives per noun: objective 5.1).

The question of the syntactic complexity of student production is explicitly dealt with mainly by specifying the required degrees of formal accuracy. (This will be discussed under the heading of task difficulty). However, three points relating to this principle may be made.

First of all, it may be argued that the limited scope of the subject matter means that the general idea

of texts can be adequately conveyed without differentiation between times, persons, etc. Likewise, it may be that concrete subject matter requires less subtlety than abstract issues and, therefore, requires less precision.

Secondly, notions are specified rather than tenses or particular structures and there is often no need for differentiation as only one element per objective is required (e.g. past time: objective 11.3). In the case of letters and postcards, three times (past, present and future) are specified, although students could convey these concepts through correct use of adverbs rather than by marking verbs for tense.

Thirdly, in both writing and speaking objectives, many ideas are conveyed by patterns and formulaic language. Such expressions are treated as unanalyzed chunks and structural complexity is not a factor. For example, in speaking, students are required to be able to start and terminate a conversation; this is usually done using "gambits". They are also required to be able to ask whether someone knows something; this is usually accomplished with a pattern such as "do you know.....?" No great degree of syntactic complexity is called for. Similarly, in written work, those objectives which require a more formal tone and thus accuracy (e.g. asking for information in a letter) use standard opening and

closing conventions and patterns such as "Could you please send me .....".

Sentence Length

A third linguistic factor often considered as important is sentence length. This criterion is based on the premise that sentence length is an indicator of sentence complexity, a premise which has been supported in the research on reading (Glazer 1974). The formulae applied by Botel, Dawkins and Granowski and Nigalupta also identify embedding as a complexifying factor for reading. Although there are limitations to this approach to reduction of syntactic complexity (11), sentence length is valid as a rough measure of syntactic difficulty for reading passages. Listening passages are, however, somewhat different.

When assessing listening texts, it is necessary to distinguish between scripted and unscripted language. There is a tendency to think of spoken language either as that variety heard on tapes specifically prepared for use in teaching listening skills, or the kind of scripted material heard on news broadcasts. Because these texts are written and read, they tend to have the same characteristics as written language. Therefore, the foregoing comments on reduction of syntactic complexity are applicable. (In fact, such restrictions may be even more important in these cases as scripted materials are

often context-reduced and have little or no redundancy of information.)

Spontaneous spoken language is a different matter, however. Typical spoken language consists of unsubordinated phrases which are marked as related to each other not so much by the syntax as by the way the speaker says them. Typically, sentences are incomplete, few adjectives are used to modify nouns and information is much less densely packed than in written language (Brown and Yule 1984:4-7). It is, therefore, relatively unimportant to consider syntactic complexity for this language variety. We can formulate a third principle of language difficulty:

8. Sentence length is a rough indicator of sentence complexity in written and scripted listening texts.

When considering production objectives, length of individual utterances or sentences may vary -- from one-word responses through telegraphic speech/writing to full sentences. This principle, applied to production, could, therefore, be stated:

8a. Complete and/or complex sentences are more difficult to produce than partial or telegraphic utterances.

Principle 8: New Program Three measures are used to limit sentence complexity in comprehension texts: allowable sentence types are specified (e.g. simple or compound sentences only for objective 1.3); sentence length is limited (e.g. to a maximum of 7-10 words in objective 4.1); and, embedding is limited by restricting

the number of words which may separate the subject and verb (e.g. 0 words for all 51 objectives).

With reference to production, telegraphic language is acceptable in most written objectives and is often, in fact, the norm (e.g. notes: objective 9.3). For all the speaking objectives, telegraphic speech is acceptable. This is, of course, only reasonable as this is how native speakers converse.

Referents

The fourth language factor to be considered concerns relationships between parts of sentences and between sentences. Clarity is the important characteristic here. Within the sentence, deletions (of relative pronouns, for example) increase difficulty because relationships must be inferred. Likewise, ambiguous or vague referents for personal and relative pronouns increase the inferencing load. The principle of clarity also applies to inter-sentential relationships. The use of unambiguous pronoun referents and specific linking expressions (e.g. "therefore", "moreover", "finally") help clarify relationships between sentences (Blau 1982). As mentioned earlier, these principles apply particularly to written and scripted listening texts rather than to spontaneous speaking turns in which relationships are more often signalled by intonation and other non-linguistic features. The fourth language principle,

therefore, is:

9. Clearly marked relationships between parts of sentences and between sentences make texts easier to understand.

Principle 9: New Program

Clear relationships within and between sentences are required (e.g. clear links between referents and their antecedents: objective 1.2; adverbs indicating the sequence of actions: objective 2.1).

Speed of Delivery of Listening Texts

A final text characteristic which must be considered when assessing listening comprehension texts is the speed of delivery. There has been a growing recognition in recent writings on the subject (e.g. Brown 1977, Ur 1984) that learners must be exposed to normal or natural speech; that is, speech which contains reductions, elisions, false starts, etc. and which preserves the natural stress and intonation patterns of English. In the past, there was a tendency for spoken teaching materials to be delivered in an artificially articulated manner at a deliberately slow pace. This is a disservice to the learner.

> From the point of view of understanding ordinary spoken English the failure to move beyond the basic elementary pronunciation of spoken English must be regarded as disastrous for any student who wants to be able to cope with a native English situation. If, over a number of years, he has consistently been exposed to a form of spoken English in which the segments are explicitly articulated and the contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables thereby

> partially obscured, the student will have learnt to rely on acoustic signals which will be denied him when he encounters the normal English of native speakers. (Brown 1977:157)

Writers of listening comprehension texts must, therefore, ensure that listening texts are delivered in such a way that the normal features of everyday speech are retained. However, they must also keep in mind that there is a wide range in the tempo at which native speakers deliver speech. While students must gradually become accustomed to coping with native speakers who speak very quickly, it is probably wise to expose them first to native speaker speech at a somewhat slower speed without distortion of intonation, stress, etc. A simple principle regarding speed of delivery would, therefore, be:

10. Within the range of normal native speaker speech, speakers who speak very quickly will be more difficult to understand than those who speak somewhat more slowly.

Principle 10: New Program This problem has been very explicitly dealt with in the new program. There are specific references to the fact that hesitations, pauses, repetitions and corrections should characterize listening texts (e.g. objective 3.1). In addition, the authors have specified the approximate speed at which texts should be delivered (e.g. 35 words/15 seconds: objective 2.6). These speeds were determined on a trial and error basis and from long experience in making listening tapes for exam purposes. The authors decided that the given

speeds represented the slowest speed at which speech retained its naturalness. These speeds are, in fact, considerably slower than the speeds at which many recorded announcements are delivered; for example, news and sports bulletins recorded from the CBC ranged from 40 to 58 words/15 seconds (see Appendix E). Obviously, the authors' intention here was to expose the students to semi-authentic material as a necessary step to listening to the genuine texts.

3. Grading by Task

Explicit/Implicit Information

It is very difficult to specify the factors contributing to task difficulty independently of those already mentioned concerning information and language in the text. It is possible, however, to isolate three issues, the first of which applies only to comprehension tasks. If information is explicitly stated in a text, it is easier for the student to "locate" it than if the information is implicit, in which case the student must make inferences and draw conclusions. We are dealing here not so much with the nature of the information itself as with what the student is expected to do with it. Although advanced students are often given specific exercises in drawing conclusions and making inferences, the issue is often not overtly addressed at the lower levels. Unfortunately, the failure to address this issue overtly may mean that authors fail to recognize its

importance. Humorous anecdotes and mystery stories with an unexpected "twist" at the end (both of which require considerable inferencing) are sometimes used at the lower levels in an effort to create motivation through suspense. Often the students' reaction is one of frustration and confusion rather than increased interest. A first task principle would be:

11. Tasks which require students to locate explicit information are easier than those which require students to make inferences and draw conclusions.

Principle 11: New Program This principle is not specifically addressed in the MEQ program. However, as this program is at a fairly elementary or low-intermediate level, this is not surprising and its authors have perhaps assumed that all tasks will involve explicit information.

Expectancy Level

Another way of varying task difficulty is by altering expectancy levels. For comprehension tasks, such levels can be expressed in terms of the degree of accuracy or detail required. If students are only expected to understand a portion of a text, the task is easier than if they are required to understand all the details. For production tasks, errors in form, pronunciation and spelling may be tolerated and students may be expected to communicate only the main points of a message rather than all the details. A second task

principle, therefore, is:

12. Difficulty of comprehension tasks will vary depending on the level of comprehension (e.g., partial, complete) which is required. Difficulty of production tasks will vary according to the degree of accuracy of form, pronunciation, spelling and information which is required.

Principle 12: New Program This principle is explicitly incorporated into the program. Levels of mastery are stated explicitly for each of the comprehension and production objectives (see Appendix C).

Degree of Autonomy

A third factor which must be considered is the degree of autonomy with which students are expected to accomplish a task. This applies to both comprehension and production tasks. For the former, task difficulty is altered if students are allowed to work in groups, or to consult a dictionary, a teacher or fellow students. A comprehension task carried out in these circumstances would be easier than one in which the student is required to work completely alone, without notes or dictionary and without the possibility of interacting with an interlocutor. For production tasks, the same considerations of outside help also affect the degree of autonomy. Another factor here, however, is the degree to which a task is guided. An example can be taken from traditional approaches to written work. In the beginning stages, students copy or transfer information from one source to another. They then move on to more open-ended

tasks, such as "complete the sentence" and guided composition exercises. Finally, students become responsible for writing a composition independently. A third task principle can be stated as:

13. Task difficulty will vary with the degree of autonomy required of the learner.

Principle 13: New Program The question of autonomy during comprehension is not addressed in the program, but one might assume that full autonomy is required for evaluation purposes. In the production objectives, it is clear that there is a high degree of control on all aspects of student production. It is not necessary (although it is possible) to innovate. Many activities involve the transfer of information from one medium to another. Other objectives leave room for more innovation (i.e. writing a letter to a penpal) but as the information is so familiar and concrete, and is restricted by the facts of the situation (e.g. I have two brothers. We live in Lachine.), little creativity is called for.

The same comments apply to oral production objectives. Students converse about familiar topics (i.e. making suggestions about an activity), or give concrete information (e.g. directions) which is controlled by external factors (a map, diagram, etc.) In terms of "what to say", then, the student has little choice. The fact that the subject matter is highly

controlled means that the vocabulary is also largely pre-determined. Organization is controlled by convention and by the use of order forms, charts, etc. The frequent use of formulae, patterns, and conventional formal letters means that student production is, for the most part, guided rather than autonomous.

CHAPTER 3: AN ENRICHED PROGRAM

THE NEED FOR ENRICHMENT

At the time that the new program was written, the MEQ specified that it was to be a core program containing the minimum requirements for students at each level. It was expected, however, that there would be students who could go beyond the minimum. In such cases, the MEQ foresaw that individual school boards could design their own program (known as a programme local) to meet the needs of these students. There were two requirements made regarding the content of such programs: they had to follow the general communicative orientation and principles of the core program and they had to be approved by the MEQ (document 16-0059-01).

There are, in fact, a number of school boards which feel the need to implement such a programme local. In some cases these school boards must meet the needs of groups of students whose mother tongue is English, or who use English at a level of proficiency close to that of native speakers. For such groups of students, it is possible to implement an English language arts program such as that used for students in the English-language schools of the province. There are, however, other students for whom such a program would be too difficult but who are still considerably more advanced in their knowledge of English than the regular ESL group.

In the remainder of this thesis, I will consider the possible options open to school boards for adapting and enriching the existing core ESL program to meet the needs of such groups of students. I will begin with a description of the ways in which the situation facing these school boards differs from that which faced the authors of the original core program. I will also briefly describe recent research and thinking in SLA and in the area of communicative teaching. Insights from the experiences of other communicative programs, and rethinking of some of the general principles on which the core program was written are important when considering options for enrichment.

ENRICHMENT: DESIGN GUIDELINES

1. A Local Program -- not a Uniform Program

Unlike the situation facing the authors of the core program, an enriched program is one which is written specifically for a particular school board. There is, therefore, no requirement for uniformity across the province, the aim being rather to cater to the needs of a specific group. This is explicitly stated in the Guide pour un programme élaboré localement which states

> les personnes responsables (de l'élaboration d'un programme local) devraient laisser une large place dans l'élaboration du programme à la participation des élèves. Dans le cas où la chose n'est pas possible, il est recommandé de laisser une marge de manoeuvre afin de permettre aux élèves et aux maitres de l'adapter lors de sa mise en oeuvre. (MEQ document 16-0059-01: p. 5)

2. A Feasible Program

In many ways, the situation facing the authors of a programme local is the same as that which faced the authors of the core program. There are, however, important differences.

The Students

The students who require an enriched ESL program are obviously more proficient in English than those in the regular program. This may be due to a number of different factors. First of all, there is an increasing number of students in the French-language schools of the province who come from homes where English is spoken some of the time, either by a bilingual parent or an anglophone parent. For many immigrants to Canada, English rather than French is the second language (after Italian or Portuguese, for example). Secondly, in a number of school boards in the province (e.g. Greenfield Park, Mille-Iles), classes at grade 5 or 6 have taken part in intensive ESL programs in which five months of the school year are spent studying only ESL. Thirdly, some children live in areas where they have many opportunities to speak and use English outside of school. In areas such as the West Island of Montreal, children may participate in extra-curricular activities with English-speaking children and may take advantage of opportunities to learn English "on the street", opportunities not available to children in more uniformly

French-speaking areas such as Lac St. Jean. These factors may be enhanced by parents who are particularly interested in having their children learn English. In such families children may be sent to an English summer camp, or parents may make extra opportunities to expose their children to the English media or to English friends.

The general characteristic of the group is that they have received little or no formal schooling in English. Those children who come from anglophone homes, or who have attended English-language schools either in Quebec or elsewhere are not considered part of this group. It is possible, of course, that such children, if they are few in number, will find themselves in an enriched ESL program. However, for the purposes of this project, it will be considered that the needs of such students would be met in an English mother-tongue program.

Teaching Personnel

Just as the student population requiring enriched classes differs from the core group, so does the teaching personnel available to teach such programs. In areas where enriched programs are likely to be implemented, teachers are generally proficient in English.

ESL as a School Subject

All the restrictions on space, class size, time allotment and course content may be assumed to apply equally to a core and an enriched ESL program.

English in the environment

Enriched programs would only be implemented in areas in which a significant number of students require them. It is likely that such areas would be in more cosmopolitan sections of Quebec in which there is more English in the environment, that is, mostly in and around Montreal, the Eastern Townships and Hull. In such areas there are more opportunities for encountering English, and for exploiting the electronic and printed media, as well as resource persons in the community. There may also be English library facilities in the neighbourhood although it is unlikely that extensive English library facilities would be available in the school itself.

3. An Effective Program

The MEQ has specified quite clearly that an enriched program is to follow the same communicative orientation and principles as the core program. However, since that program was written, there have been a number of research studies and theoretical papers published which have relevance to the design of communicative programs. In this section, I will review current thinking in the areas discussed in chapter 2 (those areas which influenced the authors of that program) and will review in some depth three studies of communicative teaching programs which are presently in progress. Insights from these programs and the current literature on communicative competence may contribute to an understanding of ways in which the

core ESL program can be enriched.

Language as a Means of Communication

As outlined above, the core program was inspired to a large extent by the movement in applied linguistics away from viewing language mainly as a grammatical system to a view of language mainly as communication. Emphasis was to be put on language in use rather than on the rules for using language. This trend has been widely supported in the literature. It has also been "applied" in many "communicative" classrooms. In the wake of a proliferation of "communicative classes" and "communicative teaching", there have been several attempts to explore in depth just what is meant by communicative competence and to examine just what happens when students follow a communicative program.

One very interesting, and potentially very disturbing study has been carried out by Higgs and Clifford (1982). They have investigated the success of students in the U.S. foreign service language training programs, students who are expected to reach a very high level of language proficiency, equal to that of educated NSs. The study found that those students who began their training in a communicative program, where the emphasis was on getting one's message across rather than on formal accuracy, very often fossilized at a level "2" or "3" in a five-level program. Even intensive language exposure and practice for these intelligent and highly-motivated

individuals were unsuccessful in getting students past this point. Higgs and Clifford conclude that we may be condemning students to a less-than-NS level of proficiency by moving ahead so rapidly with communicative programs. Further research and investigation into what Higgs and Clifford call the "terminal 2" phenomenon are necessary to confirm or disconfirm their hypothesis. However, for the moment at least, their findings are thought-provoking and disturbing.

The study by Higgs and Clifford evaluates language competence in a number of different areas and this is a trend in the work of many applied linguists and researchers. In the early days of "communicative" language classes, the emphasis was on fluency and getting one's message across. One was considered to have been successful if one's interlocutor understood the message being conveyed. Since those days, there have been various attempts to define more precisely just what "communicative competence" is. Canale and Swain (1980) have proposed four components for communicative competence which have been accepted by many researchers as a valid description of what our goals as language teachers should be: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. With this breakdown, teachers and program authors should be in a better position to evaluate students' proficiency and the adequacy of ESL programs.

In a later section, I will discuss the findings of research with French-immersion students which has used these categories in evaluating L2 proficiency.

The Emphasis on Comprehension

As outlined earlier, research in informal SLA and FLA has indicated that language learners may go through a silent period of comprehension before producing language and that their comprehension almost always exceeds their productive skills. This has led many program authors and teachers to emphasize comprehension skills over production skills which, it is claimed, will develop when the student is ready to speak. In the literature on this approach to language learning, however, authors such as Winitz (1981) and Asher (1977) concentrate on the beginning stages of language learning and make almost no mention of what to do with students who have progressed beyond these early stages. It is assumed that production skills will develop naturally. The role of production is seen by at least one author (Krashen 1981) as serving only as a means of generating comprehensible input.

However, Brown and Yule (1984) in their book on teaching the spoken language would seem to disagree. They divide spoken production into interactional language (language for maintaining social relationships) and transactional language (language for transferring information). They also note that the ability to converse in short turns (in either type of these language

varieties) does not necessarily mean that students can speak for sustained periods of time. They point out that normal individuals in any culture easily acquire the ability to participate in interactional language and in short transactional speaking turns but that NSs do not always acquire the ability for sustained speaking.

> The ability to construct ... long turns appears to vary with individuals, in part, no doubt, depending on the opportunity they have had to produce long turns which other people bother to listen to. The ability to produce long transactional turns, in which clear information is transferred, is, we claim, not an ability which is automatically acquired by all native speakers of a language. It is an ability which appears to need adequate models, adequate practice and feedback.(p. 9)

Studies in Ontario with several types of French L2 programs, varying from core French to immersion classes, indicated that students in language classes rarely have opportunities to produce sustained speech (Allen, Frohlich & Spada 1984). This may be an important point, especially for the enriched classes being considered in this thesis. As many of these students have learned English through the media, through intensive ESL classes, or through informal contact with NSs, it is possible that they too have had few opportunities for sustained speaking and might benefit from increased opportunities in this area.

The Sufficiency of Comprehensible Input

As Schachter (1983) has pointed out, it is the consensus among those involved in the language teaching

and learning professions that comprehensible input is necessary for language learning to take place. There are, however, many who would challenge the sufficiency of comprehensible input as the mechanism for language acquisition (Krashen's position). Some linguists argue that other types of input may not only be useful, but may, in fact, be necessary for students to make progress in their language development. One such researcher is White (1985) who cites a number of instances where exposure to the target language would be insufficient to disprove certain hypotheses which learners are likely to make. For example, if the student's L1 and L2 resemble each other in four related ways, but not in a fifth, she contends that the student must be shown the discrepancy. The student's assumption that the two languages will be similar in the fifth way will not be disproved by the input available from normal speech. Unless a teacher or textbook explicitly points out the difference, the student will not be aware of the discrepancy. (12)

In her article on the "nutritional needs" of second language learners, Schachter (1983) contends that learners need not only comprehensible input, but they need negative input. She contends that unless students receive negative input to indicate that their utterances are incorrect, they may not make progress. Although others would argue that learners rarely incorporate corrections into their production, Schachter points out

that such corrections may not take place immediately (the only time when we can accurately assess the influence of the correction) but may occur over a period of time. She also refutes the argument that learners in L1 and informal L2 situations receive no negative input, claiming that our notion of negative input is too restricted. Rather than limiting the concept to overt correction of errors, she includes such devices as comprehension checks and clarification requests in her definition of negative input. Studies with pairs and groups of non-native speakers have indicated that the negative input provided by NNS interlocutors is important in leading learners to negotiate meaning, an essential part of the language learning process in the views of many language researchers (e.g. Varonis & Gass 1985; Pica and Doughty 1985).

Studies of Communicative Programs

1. French Immersion Studies

In Ontario, there has been considerable research into the second language proficiency of students enrolled in French immersion programs. In these programs, anglophone children begin their kindergarten schooling in French and continue for two or three years in French only. After this, classroom time is usually fairly equally shared between English and French instruction. Recent studies into the communicative competence of these

students, who have been studying the second language through a content-oriented program where the focus is on meaning, has produced some very interesting results (Harley 1985). When tested for discourse, grammatical, strategic, and sociolinguistic competence, the French immersion students were found to be equivalent in discourse and strategic competence to a NS control group. However, they were not native-like in their command of sociolinguistic aspects of French, particularly in differentiating formal and informal registers, and were considerably lower in grammatical competence. Students' grammatical errors occurred often in those relatively redundant rules of grammar that do not bear a heavy communicative load. The nature of the errors also indicated that the students' first language continued to influence their L2 performance. A significant lag in production skills for some structures was also noted. For example, although students could comprehend the conditional as early as grade one, they were still producing it with only 56% accuracy ten years later.

An analysis of teacher talk and classroom activities provided information which might help to explain some of these difficulties. The analysis of teacher talk indicated that students in such classes were not exposed to all varieties of the target language and that there was a low frequency of certain verb tenses in the oral input students received. The analysis of classroom

processes indicated that there was little negative input from teachers regarding the accuracy of student production and that there were few opportunities for sustained speaking turns on the part of the students. The author proposes the following hypothesis:

> that immersion students would benefit from a greater emphasis on the functional-analytic component of the curriculum. At the same time, there appears to be room for different second-language oriented activities at the structural-analytic level that are geared to specific needs of the immersion students with their English mother-tongue background (e.g. to help them in mastering grammatical gender) and more room at the experiential level for sustained oral and written production of the second language by the students and for increased exposure to extended written text. (p.14)

The Bangalore Project

Less extensive studies have been conducted on another communicative program, this one in Bangalore, India under the direction of Dr. N. Prabhu. Dr. Prabhu believes that structure can best be learned when attention is focussed on meaning and has replaced the traditional structural syllabus with what he calls a procedural syllabus, a syllabus of tasks graded conceptually and grouped by similarity (K.Johnson 1982).

This project has been in progress for a number of years with groups of students in their early teens who had already received three years of ESL instruction based on a structural syllabus. Recently, these students were compared with a control group who had continued to follow the structural syllabus (Beretta & Davies 1985). Five

tests were administered: a structure test (which resembled the program followed by the control group), a task-based test (which resembled the program followed by the experimental group), a contextualized grammar test, a dictation and a listening-reading test. These last three tests were designed to test students' ability to transfer and use language acquired in the classroom setting. As had been expected, each group had superior scores on the test which resembled their own program. On all three of the other tests, however, the experimental group did as well as or better than the control group.

These results would seem to indicate that the experimental program is at least as effective as the structural program. However, these findings must be viewed with caution. First of all, all of the students involved in the study had followed a structural syllabus for three years before they were divided into experimental and control groups. Secondly, very little hard factual information is available on just what goes on in the procedural classroom. In published data on the program, few examples of classroom materials are given. While the program is interesting, further studies and information are necessary before any firm conclusions about its effectiveness may be drawn.

Quebec Intensive ESL Programs

Recent and as yet unpublished research with students in intensive ESL programs in Quebec may also shed light

on the proficiency of students in communicative programs (Paris, in preparation). Studies have been conducted with grade five and six students who have followed an intensive version of the MEQ communicative program for 5 months of the school year, 5 hours a day. It is clear from these studies that the intensive students are more advanced in their English proficiency than students who have received only 2 hours a week of ESL instruction. They use a rich and varied vocabulary and are able to converse on everyday topics with considerable fluency. However, when these intensive students were compared with grade 10 students who had received the same number of hours of ESL instruction under the former structural program, it was found that the intensive students scored lower than the grade 10 students on some aspects of grammatical accuracy.

There are two possible interpretations which might be drawn from such findings. It is possible that after an initial period of greater fluency, these students will develop more accurate forms. It is also possible, however, that their level of grammatical competence may not progress very much. The fact that the French immersion students still fell far behind NSs in grammatical competence after several years of intensive exposure to the second language might lead one to suspect that the second of these two possibilities is the more likely outcome. Further studies are obviously necessary,

but in the meantime, the similarity between the immersion students and the students in the intensive ESL programs is worth noting.

CHAPTER 4: OPTIONS FOR AN ENRICHED PROGRAM

In this chapter, I will explore a number of options for enriching the SCI program. Some of these options were originally suggested by one of the authors of the new program and a conseiller pedagogique for one of Quebec's school boards.(13) These original suggestions have been expanded, reorganized and supplemented based on relevant readings and investigations into other ESL programs. They are all, therefore, feasible in some form, and reflect some of the concerns of local educators. An outline of each option is given, along with possible advantages, specific examples of how the program might be structured or developed, and discussion of its applicability in the present Quebec situation.

OPTION 1: Use the same objectives as the core program but make them more challenging.

In writing objectives for any particular group of students, the matters of the students' interests, their purpose in learning English and their level of cognitive development must be addressed. As these issues were addressed in the development of the core program, using the same objectives altered in one or more ways would seem a logical way to make the program more challenging but still suitable for the target group and still in keeping with the MEQ's guidelines. An obvious advantage of adopting such an option would be that rewriting the

program would probably be fairly straightforward, once guidelines had been established.

In this section, I will examine three ways in which the present objectives could be made more challenging. Although the three are discussed independently, a combination of them might well prove to be a desirable option. They are treated independently here in order to gain a clearer insight into just how such changes would affect not only the content of the program but its orientation as well.

Option 1:1 Alter the task: Maintain the same objectives but increase the difficulty of the tasks.

In the second chapter, it was shown that two principles of altering task difficulty had been built into the MEG program: degree of autonomy, and performance expectancy level. The mastery levels (Appendix C) address these principles by specifying the level of formal accuracy and the amount of help available for production objectives and the degree of understanding required for comprehension objectives. The most straightforward way in which to increase the difficulty of the tasks would be, therefore, to increase the mastery level.

Possible Advantages

1. Potentially, this option requires the least rewriting of the core program itself. The present objectives and texts remain unchanged but more time is spent on each activity so that greater mastery is achieved.

Evaluation materials, however, would change.

2. The texts in the commercially available materials which have been approved for the core program could be used, with possible alteration of the activities in the student workbook as these reflect core requirements.

Examples:

1. a) Aural Comprehension: Objective 2.5

   Present task: listen to short texts advertising articles for sale (e.g. records, clothes) and demonstrate a partial understanding of the message. (C1)

   New task: C2 or C3 (substantial or complete understanding)

   b) Written Production: Objective 11.4

   Present task: write short friendly letters (about 50 words) expressing interests and feelings with help throughout (P1)

   New task: P2 or P3 (reduced help or no external help; errors of form and spelling tolerated)

2. Connecting 1 (Tremblay et al 1985) is approved for use in SC1 but the language in many of the texts is very difficult. The corresponding workbook exercises do not, therefore, fully exploit the texts (see Appendix P for a sample text and workbook exercise). It would be possible, therefore, to write more demanding exercises to be done with the present texts.

Discussion

Although, at first glance, this option is appealing and would seem to fulfil the needs of the students and maintain the orientation of the core program, there are several problems with it.

1. Several objectives are already specified at the highest mastery level (e.g. 13 of 31 comprehension objectives). Only a portion of the program is, therefore, altered.
2. Performance levels have been assigned not only for the purposes of "simplifying" the students' task, but also to reflect students' needs and, in some cases, native speaker behaviour. Do students need to understand news broadcasts completely? Do NSs usually understand or attend to every detail? Such questions must be answered before adopting this option.
3. In the revised program described here, students would work with "restricted" texts just as students in the core program do. However, the activities which they would perform with the texts would be quite different as they would be expected to understand texts completely and to be able to produce texts with little or no outside help. This is a very different experience from that of students in the present program, who are exposed to materials and situations at a level of difficulty such that much of the time they are not expected to perform independently or to

understand completely. In the core program, students are encouraged to develop a tolerance for situations in which they can understand and/or produce only part of the message and to develop strategies for coping in such situations. The emphasis in the proposed revised program would be more on achieving complete mastery. Since it is the ultimate aim of the program to prepare students to cope with the real world, the experience offered in this option is not necessarily the most desirable one. This option, while not departing greatly from the content of the core program, deviates considerably from the intent of that program.

4. For production objectives there is another problem. In moving through levels P1, P2 and P3, there is a natural progression as student autonomy is increased. However, levels P4 and P5 are dramatically different as they require grammatical accuracy (P4 and P5) and accuracy of pronunciation or spelling (P5). While such levels may be desirable, they represent a significant change in program orientation. If students are expected to produce texts with no errors in form, pronunciation or spelling, formal accuracy may need to be explicitly taught and very different types of activities added to the program. This matter must be addressed directly, with specific suggestions on how to help students reach this level of accuracy. (Although bringing all production objectives up to

level P3 but no further would overcome this problem, only a portion of the objectives would be altered; for example, 7 of the 10 oral production objectives are already at P3.)

Option 1:2 Use actual texts: Maintain the same objectives and mastery levels, but use real (genuine) rather than restricted texts.

In the second chapter, it was shown that the authors of the MEQ program had placed restrictions on text length and on both syntactic and sentence complexity. They further restricted the complexity and amount of information in the texts by specifying the notions to be covered in each text type. By placing such limitations on notions and language, they eliminated certain authentic texts and altered others, their aim being to expose the students to semi-authentic materials as an interim stage between texts specifically written to teach language and authentic materials. A logical next step, therefore, would be to remove these restrictions and expose the students to the actual texts they will meet outside the classroom.

Possible Advantages

1. Actual texts dealing with the concrete, familiar topics given in the program are readily accessible in the immediate environment. Newspaper and magazine articles, and radio broadcasts relevant to the objectives could be collected and made available to participating teachers.

2. Because of the availability of materials, there would be numerous opportunities for students to gather materials themselves, to practise their skill and to do more individualized work outside the classroom.
3. Because students would be working with difficult texts and situations and would not be expected to demonstrate complete mastery, the development of strategic skills is encouraged as in the core program (see discussion point 3 above).
4. Because the orientation of the program is not changed, it is more likely that the new program will meet the needs of the students and that performance requirements will be realistic in relation to what NSs do (see discussion point 2 above).

Examples

1. Aural Comprehension: Objective 1:4

   When items in a CBC news broadcast were analyzed, it was noted that sentences were longer and more complex than in the program, that there were more modifiers per noun and that a greater variety of tenses was used. The speed of delivery was also faster. However, referents were clear and passages were relatively short. Considering that level C2 is required for this objective, it might be reasonable to use such authentic items. (See Appendix E for transcripts of news items.)

2. Written Comprehension: Objective 5.3

In the short biographical notes (50 words) described here, students read about personal information, physical characteristics, abilities, obligations and future plans of peers or media/sports stars. It is clear that in such short passages, only the most basic exponents of these notions can be included. It would be possible to discuss these notions in much greater detail in longer passages; fine points such as differences in colouring and hair and dress style could be included, for example. Longer texts with more vocabulary items would be more representative of the articles written about stars in popular magazines. (See Appendix G for sample magazine text)

3. Production: Objectives 12.2 and 9.4

These objectives cover the same notions as 5.3 above. With richer and more detailed input through comprehension activities in the same topic area, students could be expected to produce longer texts with more detail. This might lead to more creative use of language, less reliance on formulaic expressions and more differentiation in descriptions.

Discussion

This option seems to offer a more attractive alternative than the previous one. However, selection of materials may not be as straightforward as was suggested in points 1 and 2 above.

1. As students move along the continuum from restricted or semi-restricted texts to real texts, there is still a need for selection of texts. Within any one 10-minute newscast, for example, there are items which concern subject matter not covered in the program and which require background knowledge students do not possess (e.g. various items referring to international affairs and monetary matters). Therefore, newscasts would still need to be edited and brochures, newspapers and magazine articles thoroughly checked before presentation to a class. (The teacher could, however, also involve the students in editing and selecting themselves as this would prepare them for coping with the real world.)
2. Even when items conform to the topic areas of the program, other features of the texts, features which may not have been directly referred to in the core program may make texts difficult to understand. (See point 3 below.) The sample sportscast which was recorded (transcript: Appendix H) is an example of a text filled with jargon and infrequently-occurring vocabulary items which is directed at a well-informed audience of sports fans. Another example is frequently found in newspaper articles. Even though the information is concrete and the vocabulary not overly difficult, non-temporal ordering of events and complex inter-sentential and inter-paragraph relations

may confuse the less skilled reader. (See example: Appendix I)

3. Although the restrictions on language in the core program can be relaxed, it would be wise to draw up another set of guidelines for text selection. For example, planners would probably find it desirable to remove restrictions on sentence length and complexity but to specify rhetorical, discourse and organizational principles which go beyond the sentence level.

Option 1:3 Expand notions and topics: Maintain the same objectives, but expand the domains in which these objectives are explored.

In the core program, subject domains have been specified in two ways: by text type and by sample texts. For example:

Obj. 2: Inform oneself about instructions (6 text types)

Sample text type: orders

Suggested domains: activities, work, tests, daily tasks, road to follow, games.

Subject matter could be expanded by adding further domains for each text type and/or adding new text types to the objectives.

Possible Advantages

1. Students could deal with texts which are outside their own immediate environment. The less familiar subject matter would make the texts more challenging.
2. Students could learn something new through the medium of English rather than doing things in English which

they already do in French. As students can perform the core activities in French, they may perceive little need for performing them in English. It may be easier to focus on meaning when there is something new to learn.

3. Dealing with unfamiliar information may make it easier to create information gap activities since the students will not know the information beforehand. In the core program, the information gap must be artificially created, as students already know much of the information.

Examples

1. Comprehension: Objectives 1.3 and 5.5

   The domains suggested for these objectives (biographical notes) are peers and famous stars of sports, music, etc. These domains could be expanded to include historical figures, persons from other cultures, unusual personalities, etc.

2. Comprehension: Objectives 2 and 6

   Text types for these objectives (inform oneself about instructions) could be expanded to include instructions on assembling simple objects, or instructions on procedures to follow in an emergency.

3. Production: Objectives 10 and 13

   If comprehension text types and domains were expanded, the production objectives could be altered to require students to transfer such new information

to others. Students could be required to give orally and in writing simple instructions such as those suggested above. (At present there are no production objectives corresponding to comprehension objectives 2.1 and 6.1.)

Discussion

1. Although expansion of the domains of texts may be desirable, it is important to keep in mind students' needs and interests. Although one could expand the topic of weather to include information on cold and warm fronts, North American weather patterns, causes for changing weather, etc., such language and content may not be useful or interesting for the students. There may be a tendency in choosing areas of expansion to concentrate on intellectually challenging material which teachers find interesting rather than focussing on the needs identified by the program.
2. There is considerable scope here for filling in areas which may have been omitted in the original program. For example, the majority of listening texts in the program are of one variety: a prepared script read in a clearly enunciated style (e.g. various radio bulletins, transportation messages). This is only one of a number of speech varieties and styles with which students must learn to cope. This could be kept in mind when considering the expansion of text types and domains.

OPTION 2: Incorporate a more explicit emphasis on grammatical accuracy into the core program.

In the guide pedagogique, the authors express the communicative orientation of the program quite explicitly.

> The successful development of communication skill is ... believed to depend most heavily on unconscious processes that are activated when the learner is concentrating on understanding and expressing meaning. Concentration on form does not seem to sufficiently activate these processes. (MEQ document 16-3205-01: p.8)

Although most specialists in the language learning and teaching field would support the authors' emphasis on meaning and communication, there is increasing concern that such an emphasis, which is sometimes interpreted as excluding any focus on form, will not automatically or necessarily lead students to target-like proficiency or even ensure that they continue to progress toward accuracy once their basic communication needs are being met (see discussion of this point and research with communicative programs in chapter 3). Teachers and some program designers have been concerned with finding ways to enhance students' accuracy without detracting from their fluency.

In this section, I will look at four possible ways in which an emphasis on accuracy might be incorporated into the core program. In assessing these approaches, however, four major concerns must be kept in mind.

1. On what basis are grammatical features to be selected

and sequenced? Is there a provision for the spiralling and recycling of this input?

2. Can accuracy be fostered without inhibiting fluency?
3. How are accuracy objectives to be evaluated?
4. Can an accuracy component be designed so that teachers, schooled in and familiar with a structural tradition and an emphasis on accuracy, do not fall back on the old methodologies and techniques, ignoring the basic communicative orientation of the program?

Option 2i: Develop a set of grammatical accuracy objectives to be taught as a "mini grammar course" either as one unit or as modules to be covered at intervals throughout the school year.

Possible Advantages

1. Selection and sequencing of items in such a mini-course could follow the simple-to-complex format of the traditional structural approach. This would give the students a reasonably complete coverage of the basic rules and patterns governing English syntax.
2. If treated as a separate unit or units of grammar study, evaluation could be restricted to the unit itself. There need be no conflict with the other fluency-oriented activities. Although there might be some cross-over from the grammatical activities to more accuracy in fluency work, the separate treatment of the two areas in class would probably mean that fluency would not be inhibited.
3. An awareness of metalinguistic terminology would provide students and teachers with a common vocabulary

for discussing individual problems and would allow students access to more traditional grammar books if they wished to make use of them or if the teacher wished to refer students to them.

4. There is a wealth of material for the teaching of discrete points of grammar.
5. Most of the teachers in the Quebec school system are comfortable with a formal approach to grammar.

Examples

1. Teachers could either follow a traditional grammar book (e.g. Dart 1978, Praninskas 1975) or could use some of the materials they had found successful under the old program. A number of innovative and successful ESL teachers have used such books as the Lado series (1976) as a core and have supplemented it with their own teacher-made materials.
2. Even in strictly communicative programs, many teachers have taught a formal grammar component in their classes (Harley and Swain 1984:309-310). Workshops could be arranged where such teachers could discuss how they have integrated this formal component into a more communicative program.

Discussion

1. This approach may not provide for recycling and spiralling of grammatical points. In some versions of the structural syllabus, items are presented once and do not reappear. Such an approach raises a very real

concern that the grammatical points "taught" may have little or no relevance to the students' own "syllabus". (14)

A modification to the approach solves part of this problem. Different sections of the mini-course could be interspersed with the communicative units throughout the year. The teacher could, at certain given points, draw the students' attention to features in their texts which illustrate the grammatical points covered in the grammar course. Although such a modification allows for recycling, the possibility arises that the teacher's attention on form during the communicative portion of the course may result in reduced or inhibited fluency.

2. Although there is no reason to believe that such a mini-course would inhibit students' fluency in the regular communicative activities, as the course is separate and decontextualized, there may also be no reason to believe that there would be any transfer from the grammar course to the regular core program material.

3. The approach so closely resembles the traditional system of presenting structures that there might be a tendency for teachers to fall back on old ways and thus lose the communicative orientation of the program. This would be especially true of teachers who had never really abandoned the old grammar-based

approach.

4. Such an approach is almost totally decontextualized. Some students (and teachers) might find such a mini-course interesting as an intellectual challenge, but others would find it boring and irrelevant. Such a program does not take into account the interests of the students as defined in the first fundamental principle of the program. (15)

Option 2:2 Exercises with a grammatical focus could be written to supplement either the objectives in the current program or the specific materials (either commercial or teacher-prepared) which are being used in classrooms.

Possible Advantages.

1. The relevance of the grammatical points being dealt with would be immediately obvious to the students as they would be related directly to their communicative work.
2. Grammatical points would be contextualized and could be presented in communicative activities.
3. If graded and/or authentic materials were used, there would be many possibilities for recycling and spiralling of grammar points. There would be, therefore, an increased likelihood of providing students with input in keeping with their own internal syllabus.
4. Rather than attempting to cover the entire English grammar system (as many traditional texts and series

claim to do), an informed selection of items could be made. Items to be dealt with could be identified through contrastive analysis, SLA research or other linguistic descriptions (for examples see Pica 1984).

5. If a bank of exercises were assembled (something that would be easy to do considering that such exercises already exist), teachers could be given considerable flexibility in their use. They could choose those relevant to the needs of their own particular students and could choose to use them before, after, or during the regular lesson. Exercises could also be assigned for review or on an individual basis.

Examples

1. In supplementary material prepared for the Jerome-le Moyer School Commission, Johnson and Sanders (1985) identify the key structures which are used in each activity. Such an analysis helps the teacher to select those structures which students use in completing a task.

Discussion

1. It could be argued that this approach represents a non-systematic and somewhat "ad hoc" approach to grammar; there is no guarantee that all important grammatical structures will be covered. Such an argument might be countered in two ways. First of all, as long as sophisticated metalanguage is not used in explanations, it may not be necessary to follow a

systematic simple-to-complex sequence. Secondly, at this point in their language learning, students may only need to know those structures which arise from the current materials and/or objectives or those grammatical features which carry information.

2. Such an approach might inhibit fluency in regular classroom work. If integrative tasks are evaluated for formal accuracy, there is the possibility that students will concentrate on form and limit production to those forms with which they are most comfortable.

3. Evaluation could be a problem. Wesche (1981) and Morrow (1977 -- cited in Canale and Swain 1980) suggest that formal accuracy should not be evaluated as a separate skill but should be one of a number of criteria used in the evaluation of integrative tasks and such an evaluation scheme would be consistent with this approach. However, as grammatical errors are considerably easier to locate and evaluate than errors in the communication of meaning, such a system could only be implemented if fairly strict guidelines for the weighting of different criteria were established. There is no reason, however, why such guidelines could not be drawn up. Levels of correction could be established which, for example, considered word choice but not spelling at one stage, word order but not verb agreement at another, while at another point, spelling and verb agreement would be considered. Schemes

suggested in writing courses for more advanced students (e.g. Hughey et al 1983) could serve as a model for such guidelines.

4. As with the above points, clear guidelines and training would be necessary to prevent teachers from falling back into a traditional approach to accurate production.

Option 2:3 Have students participate in a number of "consciousness-raising" (CR) activities designed to draw attention to certain formal properties of the language which have been identified as causes of recurring difficulties.

Possible Advantages

1. Such input could be geared to the specific needs of SCI students in the communicative program.
2. A flexible approach to the inclusion of explicit grammatical explanations and degree of elaboration is possible. CR activities can be designed either to include metalinguistic explanations or to revolve entirely around either comprehension activities or communicative activities with no formal grammatical explanations.
3. In keeping with the core program's focus on comprehension before production, CR activities can be designed to focus only on comprehension or to emphasize comprehension in the early stages, to be followed later by opportunities for production.

Examples

1. In the studies of the competence of French immersion

students discussed earlier, certain areas of grammatical difficulty were identified. Materials focussing on one particular problem area were then developed and used in selected immersion classrooms. Although the materials include no explicit metalinguistic explanations, students are given many opportunities to encounter and produce the targetted forms. Very preliminary results of integrative tests (Harley 1986) indicate that the students who received focussed instruction performed better than a control group in production of the targetted forms.

2. Swaffar and Stephens (1981) have incorporated a grammatical focus into a comprehension-based German language program. Unlike the immersion study mentioned above, they employed metalinguistic discussion, but grammar was presented in terms of the comprehension of particular forms and structures before demands were made for production. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) also discuss the possibility of using comprehension-based exercises but their examples do not include metalinguistic discussion.
3. Allen and Waugh (1986), in a project developed for use with members of the RCMP, have successfully used a highly individualized program for sensitizing adult learners to their own inaccuracies. Through listening to tapes of second language learners of French (the students' first language), students become aware both

of different error types (e.g. semantic, grammatical) and the difficulties caused by such errors; for example, inaccuracies may result not only in communication breakdown or ambiguity, but may also cause irritation, impatience and an unwillingness on the listener's part to continue the conversation. In a self-assessment phase, each student then identifies his/her own errors and decides, in consultation with the teacher, which specific errors s/he is going to focus on, how s/he will go about working on them and what form of evaluation will be used to determine if the objectives have been met. The individualized program devised with a teacher may or may not include traditional structural drills and metalinguistic explanations, depending on the student's own needs and learning style. In the pilot classes where this technique has been used, improvement in a number of different problem areas has been demonstrated.

Discussion

1. Selection of the features to receive attention is a key element in any such program and may pose a formidable task. The immersion project mentioned above involved considerable time and research. Any project on such a scale is not feasible in the present setting in the near future. The RCMP project, on the other hand, is so highly individualized as to be unfeasible in the regular classroom setting. It might

be possible, however, to use tests such as those used in the Baldwin-Cartier School Board for student placement, as well as insights gained from contrastive analysis and SLA research to make an informed selection of items to be targetted. The sensitizing techniques of the RCMP project might also serve a useful purpose in motivating students to pay attention to form.

2. There is no explicit provision for recycling or spiralling in such an approach, but teachers and students, once sensitized to a particular area of difficulty, might be more likely to notice it in subsequent lessons and texts leading to a natural kind of recycling.
3. For the first two examples given, the focus of the grammatical instruction is sufficiently removed from the communicative activities of the regular program that the argument could be made that students' fluency would not be severely inhibited. A focussed instruction unit such as that used in the immersion setting could culminate in a test of the particular area treated. In the second example, comprehension is the prime focus and accurate production is never required. The authors of the RCMP project make no mention of this potential problem, but it must be noted that the students who participated in this project were advanced learners whose fluency was well

established.

4. This approach seems sufficiently different from the structural approach of the old program that there is less concern that teachers will revert to traditional exercises and teaching procedures, providing they receive explicit workshops and exercises illustrating the approach.

OPTION 3: In conjunction with, or following early completion of the existing SCI program, students could take part in another, quite different type of program

As the students in an intermediate program can do more challenging work than those in the core SCI program, it might be appropriate to have them pursue projects, either on a short- or long-term basis, which would give them the opportunity to explore a thematic unit or an individual interest in more depth. Many linguists recommend the teaching of content through the second language as a valid, effective and authentic means of providing comprehensible input and meaningful opportunities for interaction. Although programs designed specifically to provide English-language instruction in a content area are not permitted in Quebec's French-language schools, language work integrating all four skills could be developed around a thematic unit or project.

Pursuing a different type of program has three major advantages. First of all, it provides variety and a

change of pace for both students and teacher. Secondly, unlike option 1, which stays within the confines of the existing program, students have the opportunity to explore topics which are somewhat further removed from their immediate environment. This means that the subject matter is less familiar (and possibly less concrete) and will, therefore, be more challenging. Thirdly, the rich linguistic input of more varied topics will result in increased vocabulary, a key area to be developed in language learning.

In this option, I will look at two kinds of thematic units which might be used in the classroom either after completion of the core program, or at some intermediate point or points during the year. I will also discuss an ongoing extended reading program which could be introduced early in the year and continued throughout the year.

Option 3:1 Community-based project(s)/field trip(s): The class undertakes a project which involves one or more field trips into the community and extensive project work in the classroom both as preparation for and follow-up to the trip(s).

Possible Advantages

1. By being involved in a project which takes them out of the classroom, students will have real opportunities to interact with the English-speaking community. They will become familiar with some English-language institutions, with which they may maintain contact if they wish. This may help them overcome their shyness

about interacting in English outside the classroom.

2. During field trips, students are involved in a number of authentic listening situations and are exposed to persons with different speaking styles, accents, etc.
3. Interacting with English-speaking tour guides and resource persons during the information-gathering stage and during the trip itself could help students develop strategic and social skills in English.
4. The students actively participate in deciding on the project and in setting tasks to be completed. The students then have a real purpose in gathering the information and have the opportunity to experience English being used in meaningful and interesting activities.
5. The classroom work carried out prior to the trip would introduce the students to new language which would be recycled in the field trip and in follow-up activities. All four skills are integrated in a natural and meaningful context.
6. Activities outside the classroom can be fun and provide variety from the regular classroom routine.

Examples

1. Montgomery and Eisenstein (1985) describe an oral communication course (OCC) which was organized around a number of field trips into the local community. At the beginning of the course, the students and the teacher discussed topics of interest and possible

projects and trips. Before the outing, students listened to tapes, shared background information on the topic, decided what information they wanted to gather, set a specific task for the outing (e.g. test a hypothesis, diagram a floor plan) and made arrangements for the trip. The outing itself included a guided tour and a private meeting with one or more resource persons at the site. When possible, the tour and meetings were recorded on video or audio equipment. In class afterwards, students wrote thank-you letters, discussed and evaluated the trip and carried out various follow-up activities. The program was rated highly by the students and participants showed significant improvement in listening and speaking skills, as well as grammatical accuracy. Although this program was carried out with community college students, the authors suggest that a similar type of program might be tried with school-age children.

2. Gray and Gray (1983) describe a "mentor-assisted enrichment program" (MAEP) for gifted/talented ESL students in grades 6 and 7. Talented ESL students were paired with teacher trainees from a local college with whom they carried out a project of their own choosing. With their mentor they were responsible for setting up a plan, gathering information (through field trips, interviews in the community, etc.),

preparing and giving a presentation to their class. Although this project was carried out in an idealized setting, it might be feasible to pair ESL students with older anglophone students in the community, preferably in their own school, for a similar type of project.

3. In supplementary material for use in cycle 1 classes of the Jerôme-le Royer School Board, Johnson and Sanders (1985) have prepared a unit entitled "Pointe-aux-Trembles: Where we live, Where we work" (PAT) which includes information about the community of Point-aux-Trembles as well as many suggestions for activities in the community. They also give suggestions on how the unit was prepared and how teachers/materials writers could write similar units for other communities.
4. In some schools, classes are able to spend a number of days in a camp setting for a "classe verte" or "classe de neige". Such an activity could, perhaps, be conducted in English. This has been tried locally in a school in the La Prairie School Commission, as an enrichment project. Although not community-based in the same way as the preceding activities, the whole class would be involved in learning about nature, from different speakers and animators and could possibly make contacts which they could maintain.
5. Exchange visits with anglophone students in an

English-language school could be arranged. Students could be paired up for letter exchanges, and/or for projects or outings.

Discussion

Certain features of the first two of the foregoing examples differ dramatically from the regular high school setting in a number of important ways:

1. The student/teacher ratio was much smaller: the OCC project was conducted with a class of 13 adult learners; the MEAP project matched mentors with one or two students for highly individualized help. High school teachers usually deal with classes of 25 to 30 students.
2. The teacher in the OCC project and all the "experts" in the MAEP program (mentors, classroom teachers, ESL specialist, teacher trainee supervisors) were required to put in a great deal of extra work to organize appropriate trips, make contacts in the community, sensitize tour guides and mentors, etc. Given the workload of the regular high school teacher teaching a number of different classes at different levels, such programs are probably not feasible.
3. The students in both projects were minority- language learners who needed English in order to get along in and use the resources of the English-speaking community. Their situation is different from that of French-speaking Quebecers who are part of the

majority-language group.

There are other problems which may apply to all five of the above examples:

1. Traditional school timetables do not usually give the teacher the flexibility and blocks of time which would permit field trips and classes away from the school. Furthermore, there would likely be budget problems in carrying out field trips.
2. If such projects were carried out with large class groups, there might be a tendency for students to talk in their first language among themselves. This is, in fact, the reason given for discontinuing the "classe verte" project in the La Prairie Board. On the other hand, if the students were highly motivated, as many of the students eligible for an enriched program are, this might not pose a problem.
3. Because English is the second language in Quebec, there are many communities in which such field trips and information-gathering outside the classroom would not be possible in English. However, as noted above, enrichment programs are only likely to be implemented in areas where, in fact, it is the very presence of English in the environment which has contributed to the advanced English skills of the students.
4. Another potentially serious objection is that such out-of-class contact is just what these students have already had in many cases. Many of them have, in

fact, proven that they can take advantage of English in the community. They have made use of contacts in the English-speaking community and they have listened to the English media. They are often students who have learned to take risks in using their second language. What they are lacking is not exposure to informal English or to "the English-speaking community", but instruction in the language.

Option 3:2 Thematic units/projects are done in class: Working in groups, students explore a thematic unit in a content area.

Possible Advantages

1. Thematic units could focus on a topic which is dealt with superficially in the core program and which students wish to pursue, on a topic related to one of their subject area courses (e.g. geography or social science) or on any topic relevant to student interests and activities (e.g. lives of favourite English-speaking stars).
2. Students could work in groups exploring different aspects of a given theme. In this way, different interests and levels of proficiency could be accommodated.
3. Students could be exposed to a variety of authentic sources dealing with the topic and could possibly be encouraged to use library facilities. In this way they would be encouraged to develop skills for using

different types of resources and for independent learning.

4. All four skills could be integrated.
5. Unlike projects discussed in the previous section, these can be done within the confines of the traditional high school timetable, either devoting certain periods each week to project work and others to the core program, or by setting aside a block of time for project work only.
6. Some material of this nature which might be suitable for such projects is already available.

Examples

1. K.Johnson (1982:99-105) describes a thematic approach used in Yugoslavia. Associated with each theme are sets of teaching materials and source texts which utilize a variety of techniques. Language practice materials (e.g. exercises on structure and pronunciation) are also built into the unit as follow-ups to the source texts.
2. Brumfit (1984) suggests a project in which students prepare a radio program about their country, with different groups working on different areas of interest. (Of course, this would have to be adapted to the Quebec situation.) He considers such work to be fluency-oriented only and would not provide language-oriented exercises with the texts.
3. An interesting book by Fried-Booth (1986) gives

several ideas for project work both in and out of class. The book contains a variety of "bridging activities" to prepare students for project work, as well as suggestions for organizing and monitoring project work. Appendices and case studies of a variety of projects are included.

4. The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) has prepared four geography/social science modules for use by intermediate level ESL students at the secondary school level. These correspond in a number of ways to Johnson's Yugoslav example. One of these, Canada's Golden Horseshoe (Allen & Howard 1982), is a multimedia kit which teaches the history and geography of the Great Lakes lowland region. The kit is suitable for students in grades 7 through 10 and contains a variety of exercises and texts integrating the four skills. Getting There: Changing Modes of Transportation (Howard & Carver 1983), an introduction to Canadian geography, and Let's Go Riding in the Car (Carver & Howard 1984), an exploration of the history, importance and impact of the automobile, are also written for students at a secondary level.

4. Excellent suggestions for project work are given in some of the English Language Arts program guides prepared by the Ministry of Education of Quebec for English mother-tongue classes. Two examples are worth

mentioning. One involves a study of radio (or TV) commercials (MEQ document 16-3206-02A:18-20) and the other a survey of TV programming (MEQ document 16-3206-03A:11-14). Although these would require adaptation, as they were written for mother-tongue students, both would not only interest students at this level but would expose them to the English media. Unlike projects where they meet people in the community (with whom they may choose to speak French) these projects must be carried out in English.

Discussion

These projects may not be as "authentic" as those discussed under option 3:1 but they are much more feasible. This is of prime consideration for most school boards and teachers. Certain problems remain, however.

1. The gathering of appropriate source texts for the kinds of projects suggested by Johnson and Brumfit may be time-consuming and costly, although it need not necessarily be so.
2. Currently available published materials have been written for a somewhat different audience and may not be appropriate or may need extensive adaptation for use in Quebec schools. For example, the modules prepared by OISE were written for immigrants in the Ontario school system. Although, to a certain extent, their appeal is general, they were written partly to familiarize the learners with Canadian geography and

history (which secondary students here may think they already know or which resemble too closely their social sciences courses) and they tend to be Ontario-based. For example, the unit on the automobile has a lengthy section on how the building of highway 401 affected small communities in southern Ontario. Teachers and administrators may feel this is too far removed from Quebec students. The modules can be adapted, of course, but part of their appeal is that they are already prepared.

3. The approach tends to emphasize some activities more than others. Comprehension activities are largely based on reading texts and production activities tend to favour the language of reporting, rather than conversation skills.

Option 3:3 Extensive reading program: An extensive reading program is implemented in the classroom, preferably in an individualized format.

Possible Advantages

1. One way in which to improve students' reading, is to have them read more. The aim of an individualized reading program is to improve students' reading skills by encouraging them to read interesting materials of their own choosing, at their own pace, free from drills and exercises. Such programs have been widely used in first-language classrooms and have been successful in getting students interested in reading and in improving their reading.

2. An individualized program can accommodate students with different interests and at different proficiency levels.
3. There are many graded second language reading materials available for use in such a program, as well as first-language books written to appeal to mother-tongue students who are below level in their reading skills. If funds are insufficient, there are various ways to recycle old materials, collect books from students' own collections or borrow books from libraries on long-term loans (see Nuttall 1982:172-173 for suggestions).
4. Such a program may help develop a habit for reading in English, a habit which could help students continue their language learning on their own.
5. A teacher wishing to implement such a program would be able to get lots of advice from books written on the subject, as well as from librarians and first-language teachers who have already used such a program.
6. Once the initial organization has been determined, and the program initiated, students can help maintain the library and records.

Examples

1. The Ministry of Education of Quebec outlines the advantages of such a program and gives suggestions on its implementation in a Reading Guide (MEQ document 16-3207A). Although the guide is designed for

teachers of English as a mother tongue, it is relevant to ESL teachers, and contains suggestions of booklists and magazines which might be useful in the selection of materials.

2. Nuttall (1982) gives many practical suggestions on how to implement such a program in an ESL setting. She includes information on sources of reading material, physical set-up of a reading centre, evaluation, organization, record-keeping, etc.
3. Nuttall (1982) includes suggestions for adapting an individualized program, using reading cards or "labs" or a classroom reader. Although such materials are less suitable for encouraging students to read for enjoyment, reading cards are often popular with the students, and can be made by the teacher from a number of sources. A class reader is even less desirable but if used for out-of-class reading, class time can be spent in discussion.
4. Setting aside blocks of class time during which students and teacher read books silently, or during which the teacher reads a story to the class can help foster reading for enjoyment. These techniques are used extensively in first-language classes and the participation of the teacher in the reading activity, whether silently for his/her own enjoyment, or for sharing a story with the class, serves as a model for the students.

Discussion

1. Although many researchers agree that frequent and extensive reading in the second language is one of the best ways to acquire language, such a program deals directly only with the comprehension skills. It is claimed that such reading also enhances production skills (Smith 1983, Krashen 1984) but it is unlikely that such improvement in production would be obvious within the span of a year-long program unless other more directed activities were included.
2. Budget problems and logistical problems (e.g. where to store books, how to share books between several classes) may make such a program unfeasible.
3. There is some disagreement on the question of whether students should be required to demonstrate an understanding of the books which they have read. One school of thought holds that students should at least answer a few simple questions, and that doing so gives them satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment. The other opinion is that reading for enjoyment is essentially a private activity and should not be made into a school activity by requiring a demonstration of understanding. In any case, grading of students in such a program goes against its very purpose. Teachers and administrators may not feel comfortable devoting considerable class time to activities which are not used for purposes of evaluation.

OPTION 4: Change the emphasis of the program to provide more opportunities for students to engage in production activities.

As discussed earlier, the writings on the importance of comprehension skills have concentrated on the beginning stages of language learning. There has been, however, little written about the transition from a primarily comprehension-based introductory syllabus to a more balanced syllabus in which students are encouraged to produce as well as comprehend.

There may be a number of good reasons why so little has been written about the time or the need to make the switch to more productive practice. First of all, authors are concerned to show that comprehension is a key process throughout the language learning process and must continue to be stressed. Secondly, it is unlikely that one can specify the point at which such a transition should take place; it is really a matter of timing which must be left up to individual teachers. There may be other, more practical reasons for continuing the emphasis on comprehension activities. First of all, it is difficult to evaluate production on a communicative basis, as has been shown in the previous discussions on evaluation. Secondly, tests of spoken production are very difficult to administer because of the time factor involved in administering individualized exams. Thirdly, comprehension activities are more easily managed in the classroom. The teacher can more easily create situations

in which all students read or listen to a tape, than situations in which students are producing spoken language. Although much has been written about the advantages of group and pair work in the classroom, many teachers are still very uncomfortable with the noise level created and with their own new role as facilitators and animators rather than as instructors and managers.

It seems apparent, however, that the students in an intermediate language class are well beyond the beginning stages, and might benefit from increased opportunities for production. In this section, three possibilities for promoting production are discussed.

Option 4:1 Increase the level of performance required by the students on the present production tasks.

This option is the same as the one proposed under section 1:1.

Option 4:2 Require the production of all the comprehension objectives in the current program.

Possible Advantages

1. The present program is based on an analysis of the interests and needs of SC1 students. It can, therefore, be assumed that the students would find the topics interesting and relevant.
2. Although there is a correspondence between some of the text types given in the comprehension and production objectives, there are many more text types given for comprehension than production, and therefore, several which might be considered for production activities.

3. The new objectives would be in keeping with the communicative orientation of the core program as they stem from it.

Examples

1. Aural comprehension objectives 1.1 and 1.2 (weather and sports bulletins) have no counterparts in the oral production objectives. The teacher could have students prepare and present sportscasts and weather forecasts as part of a simulated newscast.
2. Written comprehension objectives 5.4 and 5.3 (catalogues and letters of reply) have no counterparts in the written production objectives. Students could prepare catalogue entries and respond to letters ordering an item, playing the role of the store owner or manager.

Discussion

1. The original objectives were drawn up with the real needs of the students in mind and it is for this reason that listening to recorded messages in the media and understanding catalogues and letters of response are included. Although the foregoing suggestions might be fun as extra activities, there is certainly no way they can be justified as relevant for the students' immediate or likely future needs. They should not, therefore, constitute objectives for the program. They could, however, be included in a methodological guide of the type proposed in section

4:3.

Option 4:3 Through a methodological guide and/or training sessions, provide teachers with practical examples and suggestions for increasing opportunities for production in the classroom.

Possible Advantages

1. Teachers accustomed to working in a teacher-centred classroom need concrete suggestions and examples of how classroom organization can be altered to allow for group and pair work and how their own role changes when such alterations are made.
2. Providing teachers with the methodology for and practice in increasing production rather than a set of specific exercises or objectives allows for more flexibility. Teachers who are comfortable with such techniques as role-playing and improvisation could then adapt and use such techniques in the classroom. For other teachers and other classes, small-group discussion might be more appropriate.
3. While activities of the type mentioned in section 4:2 could be used, there is ample opportunity for a much wider range of activities.
4. Realistic writing and speaking activities could be devised which expand on the students present and future needs.

Examples

1. Two excellent books on speaking activities in the EBL classroom could be consulted for suggestions. Brown and Yule (1984) deals with many different types of

speaking activities while Ur (1981) deals specifically with discussions for fluency practice.

2. Two books on writing activities could also be consulted for suggestions. Both Raimes (1983) and White (1983) include many writing activities suitable for this level.

Discussion

Although many communicative programs and materials presently in use do provide opportunities for production, a number of considerations should be kept in mind when assessing and adapting them for the present purposes.

1. As discussed above, there is often a lack of opportunity for L2 students to produce sustained speaking turns (Swain 1985; Allen et al 1984) which are more difficult than short turns and which they may need to practice in order to progress. Increased opportunities for production should, therefore, include opportunities for sustained production.
2. Even though there is a necessity to provide opportunities for students to go beyond short interactive speaking turns, sustained speaking need not be interpreted as public speaking or prepared presentations. Although it can certainly be argued that public speaking is a worthwhile activity and an objective which some schools might wish to adopt, it is presently not a goal of the ESL program. In considering adoption of such an objective, it should

be remembered that such presentations require a great deal of class time which might be better spent.

3. The role of input must not be overlooked when stressing production skills. Students cannot talk or write unless they have something to talk or write about. Materials and guidelines must go beyond the level of "let's talk about X rock star" and provide opportunities for students to gather information (e.g. through listening, reading, and/or discussion activities) which can then be used in production activities.

Evaluation remains a problem. Longer and more complex written tasks could be evaluated using the approach of Wesche and Morrow discussed earlier, but there is no provision for evaluating speaking. The administrative problems mentioned above apply here, and the unsuitability of the mastery levels of the core program have been discussed earlier (see option 1:1).

OPTION 5: Follow the SC2 program in SC1 and develop another program for SC2.

This option has an immediate intuitive appeal and is, in fact, the course which has been followed by the Baldwin-Cartier School Commission in its intermediate SC1 classes. Students in the intermediate program have used the next book in the series chosen for the basic class. This approach could be applied to the present situation by simply omitting the SC1 program, on the assumption

that the students already know most of the language involved, and following the SC2 program instead. This would mean that only one intermediate-level program would need to be developed, the one for use in SC2.

Possible Advantages

1. The obvious advantage is that the SC2 program has already been written and it meets the requirements of the Ministry of Education. SC1 intermediate classes would have a ready-made program, and possibly ready-made materials (those approved by the Ministry for use in SC2).
2. By administering the tests which would normally be given at the end of SC1, it would be fairly easy to determine if students were at a sufficiently advanced level to pursue the SC2 program. If certain weaknesses were noted, the appropriate parts of the SC1 program could be done before the SC2 program was begun.
3. The need for a new program would shift to the older age group, students in SC2 who are more advanced not only in their English, but also in their first language skills and in cognitive development. There might be, therefore, a broader range of alternative programs which could be suggested for the SC2 program. For example, the options discussed in sections 2:1 and 3:2 of this thesis could be applied to the SC2 program instead. In fact, the mini grammar course outlined in

2:1 might be more appropriate with more mature students. Another possibility would be to introduce to the program either a literature component or a more focussed reading/writing component which would prepare students to pursue academic or professional studies in English after secondary school. (These suggestions have not been explored for the SC1 program as the students are probably not advanced enough for the first, and the second is irrelevant at this stage in their schooling.) Finally, there is the possibility that the students might be proficient enough to follow a mother-tongue English program. If this were so, schools would be able to take advantage of ready-made programs and materials.

Discussion

1. The scope and nature of the SC2 objectives are significantly different from those in SC1. Although students could perhaps skip over all the SC1 objectives, it is not clear that this would be in their best interests. Unlike a structural program in which the less complex structures are incorporated into the more advanced books of a given series, there is no guarantee that students in SC2 will have opportunities to explore and produce the same types of texts in SC2 as are provided for in the existing SC1 program.
2. The SC2 program is organized around skills or

operations, rather than around text types as in SC1. Although many of the skills, such as deriving meaning from context and skimming and scanning are appropriate for students in SC1, there are others which are considered difficult even for S5 students in their first language; summarizing and distinguishing fact and opinion are skills which may be cognitively too demanding for many SC1 students. Although the students in the intermediate program have advanced English language proficiency, it cannot be assumed that they are advanced in their other skills.

3. Although the program itself might be able to be used in SC1, it is unlikely that the commercial materials approved for SC2 or the teacher-prepared materials developed for use at this level would be suitable for SC1 students. Such materials will be written (none are presently available) to reflect the interests and needs of an older age group. For example, materials for SC2 are likely to cover such topics as getting a driver's licence, career preparation, job hunting, etc., topics relevant to students in their final years of secondary school, but not to SC1 students. This would not be true of all the material, of course, but one of the chief advantages of adopting the SC2 program would be that it is ready-made.
4. Although it might seem appropriate to offer students an English mother-tongue program on completion of the

ESL program, teachers in French-language schools may not be prepared to teach such programs and it is unlikely that suitable resource materials will be readily available.

5. There seems no pressing necessity for adopting this option. The scope of the existing SC1 program is fairly narrow and there is ample room for broadening it, as well as broadening the existing SC2 program.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

THE QUEBEC SITUATION

As stated earlier, the enrichment options discussed in this thesis represent a variety of possible program adaptations and types. They are based either on suggestions from ESL specialists in Quebec, or on programs which have operated in other settings. In making final recommendations for the SC1 program adaptation in Quebec, however, a number of factors must be kept in mind. It has been necessary, first of all, to take into account a number of practical considerations.

Practical Considerations

The type of program being discussed in the present situation is, by definition, a small-scale program. There are only a few school commissions in the province where there are enough students to warrant drawing up such a program. Even if several school commissions did decide to offer enriched programs, there would be considerable variation among them. The writing of a programme local offers a unique opportunity to devise a program specifically adapted to a particular group of students. Recommendations in this thesis are, therefore, general enough to be adaptable to different situations.

The small scale of these programs means that it is unlikely that teachers or conseillers pédagogiques will be given a great deal of time to design them. This time

factor has been considered in the recommendations.

Likewise, budgetary constraints and the restrictions on space and timetable arrangements discussed in chapters 1 and 3 have been considered. It is unlikely that these would be altered for the purposes of a small enriched program.

The primary goal of the MEQ for the teaching of ESL in Quebec must also be kept in mind. At the present time, the stated goal is to prepare francophone students to live in a predominantly francophone environment in which it is more important to understand English than to speak and write it fluently (J. Munro Jones, personal communication). Although this goal may be questioned by some, and may change as the political and economic climate of the province changes, it has been respected in this thesis.

Program Content Considerations

In terms of program content and guidelines for language teaching and learning, four main concerns have provided the focus for these recommendations.

The first two concern the roles of accuracy and fluency in language teaching and learning. Most language teaching specialists would agree with Brumfit that, in formal language-learning situations, both accuracy and fluency work are important. The definition of these terms and the relationship between the two types of work is not always as clear. Brumfit defines accuracy work as

> any language activity which is not being carried on with the learners apparently operating in the same way as they do in natural, mother-tongue use. (Brumfit 1984: 52-53)

If this definition of accuracy work is accepted, it is clear that the core SC1 program provides ample opportunity for accuracy work. In fact, Brumfit goes on to state that

> the syllabus is always accuracy-based, for, while the syllabus is uppermost in the mind of teacher or learner, the emphasis will be on form or content as determined by an external specification of structure (p. 118).

Although many of the materials which have been prepared for use by SC1 students attempt to "disguise" accuracy work by practising language in communicative exercises and situations, the external specifications of the program still provide the underlying basis for them. It is important to remember here, however, that these specifications are made in terms of functions and notions, not in terms of grammatical structures. Thus, while the core program provides for accuracy activities within a functional-notional or functional-analytic framework, there is no provision for grammatical accuracy work.

According to the above definition, it would seem appropriate to define fluency activities as those in which learners operate as they would during natural mother-tongue use. During such activities, students have considerable freedom as to what to talk (or write) about,

and what language to use. There is some scope in the SC1 program for such work, but, generally speaking, students' language is restricted by the content of the materials being used.

In light of the fact that students in French-immersion programs and in intensive ESL programs are said to speak quite fluently (at least in comparison with their core-English or core-French counterparts), it is necessary to consider whether, in fact, there is a need for further fluency work. In attempting to answer this question, it is useful to go beyond the foregoing, simple definition of fluency and consider the four kinds of speaking fluency which Fillmore (1979) has distinguished. The first is "the ability to fill time with talk". This description refers more to the quantity and automaticity of speaking than to its quality and depth. This kind of fluency is displayed by many L2 speakers who make a favourable first impression but who, in fact, cannot proceed much beyond superficial chit-chat.(16) The second kind is "the ability to talk in coherent, reasoned and semantically dense sentences". The third is "the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts".(17) If the aim of language teaching is to develop all three kinds of fluency, rich and varied input must be made available to learners. An examination of the content of the core program indicates that students may have opportunities to interact in fairly open-ended

situations but that they do so within a narrow range of topics. In order to allow opportunities for the fluency work which Brumfit envisages, a wider range of topics is required.

A wider range of topics is also important for other reasons. Both Brumfit and Widdowson (1968) state that development of a new language should be associated with the development of new ideas and concepts. An important consideration in devising classroom work is that

> there should be material that learners should want to know about, information and ideas that they should want to obtain from teachers or one another, in the target language. This implies that such material should not be what is freely available in mother tongue but that it should be devised in direct response to the situation of the home culture. (Brumfit 1984:110)

Although I would not go as far as Brumfit in recommending cultural content (partly because French-Canadian and English-Canadian cultures are relatively close, and partly because the MEQ is unlikely to approve a course based heavily on English-Canadian culture), I think that it is important to move beyond the everyday interests and concerns of students into more information-rich topics. Most of the topics contained in the SC1 program are topics which students frequently hear and read about, and about which they converse. However, they can and do do this in French. In order to encourage student interaction with listening and reading texts, and with each other, it is important that such interaction be centred on interesting and challenging material which

contains new information and ideas. Only in this way can one ensure student-student interaction in English, and encourage students to go beyond their present French-language sources of information to the outside English-speaking world.

The fourth important consideration in these recommendations is one that is at the basis of much of the writing and thinking about communicative language teaching: that the language teacher's role is to facilitate language learning rather than to teach language. As pointed out in footnote 14, teachers can devise a syllabus for teaching but it is the student who determines the syllabus for learning.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Although any of the five options, or combinations of them, would provide feasible and suitable guidelines for program adaptation in certain settings, I would recommend that teachers or program designers focus on a combination of options 1, 2 and 3. In this section, I will briefly give reasons for rejecting options 4 and 5 as the main focus for program adaptation. I will then make more specific recommendations regarding program adaptation, focussing on the other options.

Option 4: Change the emphasis of the program to provide more opportunities for students to engage in production activities.

While there are good reasons for encouraging more

student production, this option should not form the focus of a program adaptation. First of all, fluent production is clearly not the goal of the MEQ. Nor is it its goal to produce students who can take sustained speaking turns. (As noted earlier on page 51, this is not a skill required of or mastered by all native speakers of a language.) Secondly, the problems of "classroom pidgin" which have arisen in other second-language classroom settings should not be ignored. Research with students in communicative programs indicates that students' production is reasonably fluent but inaccurate. Unless students are required to do more with language than is called for in the present program, there is little reason to believe that they will be pushed beyond a variety of English which is adequate for communication with their classmates but hardly the final goal of language learning.

It is expected that production activities of both accuracy and fluency types will be included in an enriched program. It would be wise for program designers to check through materials to ensure that such activities are provided for. They should not, however, provide the focus for the program.

Option 5: Follow the SC2 program in SC1 and develop another program for SC2.

Although this option seems appealing for practical reasons, there are valid pedagogical arguments against its adoption, as were discussed in the previous chapter.

In addition, the alternative programs suggested for students who finish the SC2 program early may not be as easy to implement as they might first appear. Setting up English mother-tongue or literature courses at this level may require library and other resources beyond the means of most schools. But perhaps the overriding reason for not adopting this option is that it seems a shame to lose the unique opportunity presented by an enriched program to respond to the specific needs of particular students. Experience gained from enriched programs might well prove useful for teachers in the regular program as well.

Option 1: Use the same objectives as the core program but make them more challenging.

Considering the time necessary to design an entirely new program, it would seem wise to consider use of the core program in a modified form for a portion of the school year. This could be done in two ways. The easiest way would be to adopt one of the four textbook series which have been approved for SC1 by the MEQ. The program designers could devise some more challenging exercises than those in the present series and could decide to use only some of the units provided. This would leave other time to pursue options 2 and 3.

The series Shaping Up! (Acheson et al. 1986) and Connecting (Tremblay et al. 1986) offer teachers the most scope in this regard. They both provide linguistically challenging material which could be exploited more fully than it is at present. Both are divided into modules,

three for the former and four for the latter series. They both include tables correlating objectives and activities so that teachers could choose two or three modules which would cover most of the objectives. Shaping Up!, in particular, offers information-rich content which should encourage students to interact in English. (18)

The second way would be to use some genuine materials such as radio and TV broadcasts and newspaper and magazine articles. These could be interspersed with the core material either to supplement information in the topics covered or to provide a somewhat different type of activity. This would be particularly important if Shaping Up! were used as the core material, as it is primarily a reading series and does not include a great deal of listening.

Option 2: Incorporate a more explicit emphasis on grammatical accuracy into the core program.

It would seem wise, in light of earlier comments, to incorporate a grammatical accuracy component into the program. Option 2:1, following a mini course in grammar, would constitute the most straightforward way to do this as the teacher could simply adopt a grammar book to be followed. I would argue against this on the grounds that I think there would be a temptation to try to move quickly through a large amount of material, especially since the early lessons would probably be fairly easy for the students.

> One of the major defects of almost all language syllabuses is the determination that a large body of linguistic content should be 'covered'. In practice, this usually means that it is presented -- more or less -- to everybody, but that few students have time to assimilate new material before they are exposed to the next chunk. Even if the material was carefully sequenced to be programmed logically and linearly (which it usually is not), the wish to incorporate more and more linguistic content would prevent effective learning for many learners. Our argument is that a limited system used flexibly will be more valuable than the unassimilated parts of an immense system presented rapidly and separately. (Brumfit 1984:143)

I would, therefore, recommend that teachers choose to work on a limited number of grammatical problems that regularly cause difficulties. These problems may be selected in a number of ways. First of all, although there is insufficient time and money for the kind of research done in the OISE studies of French immersion students, ongoing research with the intensive ESL classes in Quebec may help to identify areas of recurring difficulty. Secondly, tests such as those presently being used for placement purposes by the Baldwin-Cartier School Commission may provide insights into recurring problems. Results of these tests have already been analyzed in some detail and could provide an initial list to which program designers and/or teachers might react. Thirdly, and most importantly, teachers, either individually or in consultation with other professionals, could identify and select problem areas. Teachers' past experience gives them valuable insights into students'

weaknesses. The role of the conseiller pédagogique or other consultant in the selection procedure would be to help teachers draw up suitable priorities in light of the fact that certain morphemes and structures (e.g. the possessive "'s") are acquired late, and that some errors interfere more than others with the communication of meaning.

Work on selected grammatical areas could include or exclude metalinguistic explanation, depending on the students' learning styles, the materials available, and the teacher's preferred teaching style. I would recommend, however, that the program include some consciousness-raising activities in which students become "tuned in" to grammatical features. As production involves so many complex sub-skills, emphasis on comprehension first ensures that the production problem is in fact a problem in production, not in understanding.

Option 3: In conjunction with, or following early completion of the existing SC1 program, students could take part in another, quite different type of program.

In order to provide opportunities for real fluency work, I would recommend either project work or an extensive reading program be included in an enriched program. Large-scale projects of the type suggested by Johnson and Brumfit provide opportunities for students to pursue topics in depth and to determine, at least

partially, the direction and content of their learning. In keeping with the remarks made earlier regarding significant, worthwhile content, it is important that such projects be carried out in much the same way as they would be if they were conducted in the mother tongue. They should centre on interesting and new information set at a suitable level of abstraction. Kits or modules such as those put out by OISE could form the initial activity in such a project, to be followed by more independent work on the same theme. Or, in consultation with both the ESL teacher and other subject area teachers, projects related to the students' own interests and/or school subject areas could be set up. If topics are not too esoteric, resource materials should be available at local libraries, or at public and private institutions such as government offices and large companies.(19) The teacher would have to allow some lead time to gather the necessary resources, but projects on many topics should be feasible.

Extensive reading is also valuable and may form a part of project work. Extensive reading programs which focus on reading for pleasure may be more difficult to set up, depending on community facilities. It may be possible for students to borrow books from local libraries, although this is not always successful, as the teacher has less control over students. An in-school library or book collection is not essential, but is very

useful in initiating a program and in getting reluctant students started. If resources are available, such collections could be built up over the years. A portion of time could be allotted on a regular basis to extensive reading in class as this lends status to the program and ensures that everyone participates. Once habits have been established, a more informal approach could be followed.

Final remarks

The specifics of individual programs will differ with the needs and resources of each situation. However, the foregoing investigation should assist program designers in selecting a focus for program adaptation and provide references to possible sources of materials. It should be of assistance not only to persons setting up enriched programs but also to those involved with regular ESL core programs. Although a program such as that provided by the MEQ provides a framework on which to build, it should not be seen as a rigid document to be followed to the letter. Flexibility and student-centredness are at the basis of communicative language teaching and good teachers will always adapt and supplement the program to suit their own situation.

FOOTNOTES

1. The plan for this revision is published in The Schools of Quebec: Policy Statement and Plan of Action (1979). However, the preliminary plans for rewriting the ESL program were actually started earlier than this (e.g. Georgeault and Danan 1977).

2. Although this trend was felt throughout educational circles, its importance to second language learning was developed most explicitly by Gardner and Lambert (1972).

3. Writers such as Krashen (1978), Bialystok (1978) and McLaughlin (1978) all acknowledge two processes but they differ considerably on the connections between the two. Krashen, for example, sees subconscious and conscious learning as completely separate systems. Other authors consider that items learned consciously may transfer under certain conditions to the unconscious system.

4. There have, however, been some findings which question the universality of the sequence of developmental stages (e.g. Larsen-Freeman 1975).

5. This attitude to error correction is displayed by both adults in conversation with young children, and adults in casual conversation with less-than-competent speakers of English.

6. Some published materials, (e.g. Connecting (Tremblay et al 1985) and Take One (Banko et al 1985) do include a reference section at the back of the book which lists ways of realizing particular language functions.

7. Several of these principles are explicitly stated in the new program for cycle 2 of secondary school (MEQ document 16-3252), a program in which considerably more freedom is given to teachers and materials writers as to the choice of content.

8. Readers series put out by Newbury House and Collier Macmillan, for example, base their assessment of vocabulary on word frequency lists. Great care is taken in the reading portions of audio-lingual series like English 900 (1978) to use only those words which have been introduced and "learned" in the prior texts or grammar lessons.

9. For example, English 900 (1978) and the Lado series

(1976) which have been extensively used in Quebec.

10. For example, in a level one book of the Collier Macmillan Readers Series, the following sentence appears: "The music came from a violin for the most part, but if there was no one to play an instrument, clapping was used to produce the rhythm by which to dance". (The Love Letter 1981:51) If graded by the Bôtel, Dawkins and Granowski scheme, the sentence would be classified as very difficult.

11. For example, relative clauses and appositives may make sentences longer but they may also help to define new words and clarify concepts.

12. White uses as an example the question of adverb placement in French and English. Adverb placement is relatively free in both languages except that in English (unlike French) the adverb may not appear between the verb and direct object. "There is no obvious comprehensible input that can show this, and certainly nothing in the meaning or extra-linguistic context that will help the learner to get it right" (White 1985:12).

13. Options in skeletal form were proposed by Jonathan Munro Jones, the person responsible for the ESL programs at the Ministry of Education and were discussed at a meeting with myself, my supervisor (Patsy Lightbown), and Hanns Tibblin, conseiller pédagogique for the Baldwin-Cartier School Commission. This school commission, which is responsible for an area in the western part of Montreal, operates an enriched program based on the old programme-cadre and is interested in exploring options for enriching the new program.

14. "...the syllabus being developed is that of the learner, not the teacher: the syllabus designer provides and structures the major part of the input, but the learner structures all the learning". (Brumfit 1980:8)

15. It is possible, however, that with certain school populations, a formal grammar course might prove interesting to academically-oriented students.

16. Cummins (1980) characterizes this kind of fluency as basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and draws the distinction between it and cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). He found this distinction useful in explaining the academic difficulties experienced by minority language children in the regular school system.

Teachers and psychologists in these settings have sometimes failed to make the distinction between these types of proficiency, a failure which has led to the labelling of immigrant students as mentally retarded or learning disabled.

17. Fillmore's fourth kind of fluency is the ability to be "creative and imaginative in ... language use", including punning, joking, varying styles, etc. It is not the role of the SCI teacher to prepare students for this level of fluency.

18. The other two series, Take One (Banko et al. 1985) and What's On? (Bosquet 1985), are written in simpler language with less information content. They do not lend themselves as readily to the adaptation envisaged here.

19. Fried-Booth (1986: 77-82) provides a valuable list of possible sources of material for project work.

REFERENCES

Acheson, P., P.Brock, L. Jones, S.Axbey,& O.Johnston. 1985. Shaping Up! Montreal: Didacta.

Allen, J.P.B. 1983. A three-level curriculum model for second language education. The Canadian Modern Language Review 40:1, 23-43.

Allen, P., M. Fröhlich, & N. Spada. 1984. The communicative orientation of language teaching: an observation scheme. On TESOL '83. Washington, D.C.: TESOL. 231-250.

Allen, P. & J.Howard. 1982. Canada's Golden Horseshoe (kit). Toronto: OISE.

Allen, W. & S. Waugh. 1986. Dealing with accuracy in communicative language teaching. Paper delivered at the TESL Canada Convention, Toronto.

Asher, J.J. 1977. Learning another Language through Actions. Sky Oaks Productions: California.

Banko, R., J.Barlow & F.J.Bonkowski. 1985. Take One. Ottawa: Editions du Renouveau Pedagogique Inc.

Beretta, A. & A. Davies. 1985. Evaluation of the Bangalore project. ELT Journal 39:2, 121-127.

Bialystok, E. 1978. A theoretical model of second language learning. Language Learning 28:1, 69-84.

Blau, E.K. 1982. The effect of syntax on readability for ESL students in Puerto Rico. TESOL Quarterly 16:4, 517-528.

Bosquet, M. 1985. What's On? Montreal: Guerin.

Botel, M., J.Dawkins, & A. Granowsky. 1973. A syntactic complexity formula. In W.H.MacGinitie (Ed.) Assessment Problems in Reading. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association. 77-86.

Brown, G. 1977. Listening to Spoken English. Essex: Longman.

Brown, G. & Yule, G. 1984. Teaching the Spoken Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, R. 1973. A First Language. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Brumfit, C. 1980. From defining to designing: communicative specifications versus communicative methodology in foreign language teaching. Studies in Second Language Acquisition 3:1, 1-9.

Brumfit, C. 1984. Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching: The Roles of Fluency and Accuracy. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Canale, M. 1983. From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J.Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.) Language and Communication. London: Longman.

Canale, M. & M. Swain. 1980. Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Applied Linguistics 1:1, 1-47.

Carver, P. & J. Howard. 1984. Let's Go Riding in the Car (kit). Toronto: OISE.

Collier Macmillan English Readers Series. 1981. The Love Letter. New York: Collier Macmillan.

Corder, S.P. 1967. The significance of learners' errors. International Review of Applied Linguistics 5, 161-70.

Cummins, J. 1980. The entry and exit fallacy in bilingual education. National Association for Bilingual Education Journal IV:3, 25-59.

Cummins, J. 1983. Language proficiency and academic achievement. In J.Oller (Ed.) Issues in Language Testing Research. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House. 108-130.

Dart, A.K. 1978. ESL Grammar Workbook 1. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

de Villiers, J. & P. de Villiers. 1973. A cross-sectional study of the acquisition of grammatical morphemes in child speech. Journal of Psycholinguistic Research 2, 267-78.

Dulay, H. & M. Burt. 1977. Remarks on creativity in second language acquisition. In M. Burt, H. Dulay, & M. Finocchiaro (Eds.) Viewpoints on English as a Second language. New York: Regents. 95-126.

English 900 (revised Ed.) 1978. New York: Collier Macmillan.

Faerch, C., K. Haastrup & R. Phillipson. 1984. Learner Language and Language Learning. Cleveland, Avon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Fillmore, C.J. 1979. On fluency. In C.J.Fillmore, D. Kempler & W.S.-Y. Wang (Eds.). Individual Differences in Language Ability and Language Behaviour. New York: Academic Press.

Fried-Booth, D.L. 1986. Project Work. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gagné, R.M. & L.J.Briggs. 1974. Principles of Instructional Design. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Gardner, R. & W. Lambert. 1972. Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Glazer, S.M. 1974. Is sentence length a valid measure of difficulty in readability formulas? The Reading Teacher 27:5, 464-468.

Goodman, K. 1967. Reading: a psycholinguistic guessing game. Journal of the Reading Specialist 6:1, 126-135.

Gray, W.A. & M.E.Gray. 1983. An enrichment model for gifted/talented ESL pupils. In M.A.Clarke, & J. Handscombe (Eds.) On TESOL '82. Washington, D.C.: TESOL.

Harley, B. 1985. Second language proficiency and classroom treatment in early French immersion. Paper presented at the FIPLV/Eurocentres Symposium on Error in Foreign Language Learning, University of London.

Harley, B. 1986. National Core French Study: Research and Evaluation Task Force -- a preliminary report. Paper presented at the Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers, Moncton, New Brumswick.

Harley, B. & M. Swain. 1984. The interlanguage of immersion students and its implications for second language teaching. In A.Davies, C. Criper & A.P.R. Howatt (Eds.) Interlanguage. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Harmer, J. 1982. What is communicative? ELT Journal 36:3, 164-168.

Hetherington, A. 1985. Assessing the suitability of reading materials for ESL students. TESL Canada Journal 3:1. 37-52.

Higgs, T.V. & R.Clifford. 1982. The push toward communication. In T.V.Higgs (Ed.) Curriculum Competence and the Foreign Language Teacher. Skokie, Ill: ACTFL.

Honeyfield, J. 1977. Simplification. TESOL Quarterly 11:4, 431-440.

Howard, J. & P. Carver: 1983. Getting There: Changing Modes of Transportation (kit). Toronto: OISE.

Hudson, T. 1982. The effects of induced schemata on the "short circuit" in L2 reading: non-decoding factors in L2 reading performance. Language Learning 32:1, 1-31.

Hughey, J.B., D.R.Wormuth, V.F.Hartfield & H. L. Jacobs. 1983. Teaching ESL Composition: Principles and Techniques. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Johnson, K. 1982. Communicative Syllabus Design and Methodology. Oxford: Pergamon.

Johnson, P. 1982. Effects on reading comprehension of building background knowledge. TESOL Quarterly 16:4, 503-515.

Johnson, R. & D.Sanders. 1985. Materiel pédagogique d'appoint -- anglais, langue seconde -- premier cycle du secondaire. La Commission Scolaire Jérôme-le Royer.

Krashen, S. 1978. The monitor model for second language acquisition. In R.C. Gingras (Ed.) Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching. Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Krashen, S. 1981. Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. 1982. Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. New York: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. 1984. Writing: Research, Theory and Application. New York: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. & Terrell, T. 1983. The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom. Oxford: Pergamon.

Lado, R. 1976. Lado English Series. Montreal: Centre Educatif et Culturel.

Larsen-Freeman, D. 1975. The acquisition of grammatical morphemes by adult ESL students. TESOL Quarterly 9:4, 409-419.

Littlewood, W. 1984. Foreign and Second Language Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McLaughlin, B. 1978. The monitor model: some methodological considerations. Language Learning 28:2, 309-332.

Mager, R.F. 1975. Preparing Instructional Objectives (2nd ed.). Belmont, California: Fearon and Pitman.

Montgomery, C. & M. Eisenstein. 1985. Real reality revisited: an experimental communicative course in ESL. TESOL Quarterly 19:2, 317-334.

Murphy, J.M. 1985. Examining ESL listening as an interpretive language process. TESOL Newsletter 19:6, 23-24.

Nigalupta, S. 1978. The relationship of syntax to readability for ESL students in Thailand. In D. Feitelson (Ed.), Cross-cultural Perspectives in Reading and Reading Research. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association. 89-102.

Nuttall, C. 1982. Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language. London: Heinemann.

Paris, L. 1986. Some aspects of the English L2 of francophone learners in an intensive program in a Quebec elementary school. Unpublished M.A. thesis, Concordia University, Montreal.

Pica, T. 1984. L1 transfer and L2 complexity as factors in syllabus design. TESOL Quarterly 18:4, 689-704.

Pica, T. & C. Doughty. 1985. Input and interaction in the communicative language classroom: a comparison of teacher-fronted and group activities. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.) Input in Second Language Acquisition. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House. 149-161.

Postovsky, V.A. 1974. Effects of delay in oral practice at the beginning of second language learning. Modern Language Journal 63:5-6, 229-39.

Praninskas, J. 1975. Rapid Review of English Grammar. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Raimes, A. 1983. Techniques in Teaching Writing. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richards, J. 1983. Listening comprehension: approach,

design, procedure. TESOL Quarterly 17:2. 219-239.

Rickards, J. 1977. Effects of interspersed advanced organizers. Reading Research Quarterly 11:4, 598-622.

Rosenshine, B. 1969. New correlates of readability and listenability. In J.A.Figurel(Ed.), Reading and Realism. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Rutherford, W. & M. Sharwood Smith, 1985. Consciousness-raising and universal grammar. Applied Linguistics 6:3. 274-282.

Schachter, J. 1983. Nutritional needs of language learners. In On TESOL '82. 175-189.

Smith, F. 1970. Understanding Reading. Montreal: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Smith, F. 1983. Reading like a writer. Language Arts 60, 558-274.

Swaffar, J.K. & D.S.Stephens. 1981. What comprehension-based classes look and feel like in theory and practice. In H.Winitz (Ed.) The Comprehension Approach to Foreign Language Instruction. Rowley,Mass.: Newbury House. 254-274.

Swain, M. 1985. Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass and C. Madden (Eds.) Input in Second Language Acquisition. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House. 235-253.

Tremblay, R., M. Massey & S.Nutbrown Massey, 1985. Connecting. Montreal: Centre Educatif et Culturel inc.

Ur, P. 1981. Discussions that Work. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ur, P. 1984. Teaching Listening Comprehension. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Van Ek, J.A. 1976. The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools. London: Longman.

Varonis, E.M. & S.Gass. 1985. Non-native/non-native conversations: a model for negotiation of meaning. Applied Linguistics 6:1, 71-90.

Wesche, M.B. 1981. Communicative testing in a second language. Canadian Modern Language Review 37:3, 551-571.

White, L. 1985. Against Comprehensible Input: The Input

Hypothesis and the Development of L2 Competence. Paper presented At LARS, Utrecht, Netherlands.

White, R.V. 1983. Teaching Written English. London: Heinemann.

Widdowson, H.G. 1968. The teaching of English through science. In J. Dakin, B.Tiffen & H.G.Widdowson. Language in Education. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 115-175.

Widdowson, H.G. 1978. Teaching Language as Communication. London: Oxford University Press.

Winitz, H. 1981. The Comprehension Approach to Foreign Language Instruction. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Government of Quebec Documents

Georgeault, P. & M. Danan. 1977. Description de la situation de l'enseignement des langues secondes, anglais, langue seconde et français, language seconde, telle que perçue par les commissions scolaires, Etudes et documents, D.G.D.P.

Lussier, D. 1978. Modifications des conditions d'enseignement -- anglais, langue seconde, C.O.P.E.L.S., Dossier 3, S.R.E.P.

Malenfant-Loiselle, L., & J.M.Jones. 1978. Recherche des centres d'intérêts et des besoins langagiers des élèves de 9 à 11 ans en vue de l'élaboration du programme, langue seconde, niveau primaire. (16-2204-02)

O'Farrell-Gagnon, T. et al. 1980. Analyse des besoins langagiers en anglais, langue seconde, chez les élèves des quatrième et cinquième secondaires des écoles publiques du Quebec. (16-3224-09)

Ministère de l'Education du Québec. 1971. Programme d'études des écoles secondaires, anglais, langue seconde. (16-3222)

MEQ, 1976. Programme grammatical d'anglais, langue seconde, des secondaires I à IV. (16-3202)

MEQ, 1979. The Schools of Quebec: Policy Statement and Plan of Action.

MEQ, 1980. Program guide -- secondary -- English Language Arts. Communication Arts Guide Two - Radio. (16-3206-02A)

MEQ, 1980. Program guide -- secondary -- English Language Arts. Communication Arts Guide Three - Television. (16-3206-03A)

MEQ, 1980. Program guide -- secondary -- T.I.P.S. Reading Guide. (16-3207 A)

MEQ, 1981. Document d'information -- guide pour un programme élaboré localement. (16-0059-01)

MEQ, 1981. Programme d'études - secondaire - français, langue maternelle, 1e secondaire. (16-3412-01)

MEQ, 1983. Programme d'études - secondaire - anglais, langue seconde, premier cycle. (16-3251)

MEQ, 1984. Guide pédagogique -- secondaire -- anglais, langue seconde -- premier cycle. (16-3251-01)

MEQ, 1985. Programme d'études - secondaire - anglais, langue seconde, second cycle. (16-3252)

APPENDIX A
Summary of Terminal Objectives

Comprehension

At the end of the first cycle of the secondary program, the student will be able to:

1 & 5 demonstrate his comprehension of texts which he listens to or reads in order to inform himself about facts relating to persons, activities, objects or places;

2 & 6 demonstrate his comprehension of texts which he listens to or reads in order to inform himself about instructions;

3 & 7 demonstrate his comprehension of texts which he listens to or reads in order to inform himself about interests, attitudes and feelings;

4 & 8 demonstrate his comprehension of stories, true or fictional, which he listens to or reads to amuse himself, emphasizing the principal idea and main points.

Production

At the end of the first cycle of the secondary program, the student will be able to:

9 & 12 write texts about or exchange factual information concerning persons, activities, objects or places;

10 & 13 write texts about or exchange information about actions and instigating activities;

11 & 14 express in writing and exchange orally interests, attitudes and feelings.

APPENDIX B
Text Types

1. Aural comprehension
   - -weather forecasts
   - -sports news
   - -biographical accounts
   - -reports on various facts or incidents
   - -documentaries on places
   - -orders
   - -requests
   - -warnings
   - -messages about transportation
   - -oral advertisements regarding items for sale
   - -information about activities
   - -stories/oral accounts

2. Written comprehension
   - -menus
   - -timetables, schedules
   - -catalogues
   - -letters written as replies
   - -biographical notes
   - -summaries of films or TV programs
   - -articles from newspapers or magazines
   - -orders
   - -warnings
   - -announcements about items for sale or exchange
   - -announcements about activities
   - -announcements about lost articles*
   - -job offers
   - -tourist brochures
   - -greeting cards
   - -letters
   - -biographical notes
   - -stories/written accounts

3. Written production
   - -personal information
   - -post cards
   - +short notes
   - -letters
   - -invitations
   - -order forms
   - -letters ordering goods or services
   - -letters asking for information
   - -greeting cards
   - -thank-you letters
   - -letters

4. Oral production
   - exchange information
     - about a person, a past activity, an object, a place
     - in order to go somewhere, to participate in an activity, to obtain something, to communicate with someone
     - about interests, attitudes and feelings

APPENDIX C

Mastery Levels

Comprehension Objectives

C1 = the student demonstrates partial comprehension of a text;

C2 = the student demonstrates substantial but still incomplete comprehension of a text;

C3 = the student demonstrates total comprehension of a text.

Production Objectives

P1 = the student communicates a message with help throughout the communication and in spite of errors in syntax and pronunciation;

P2 = the student communicates a message with some help in spite of errors in syntax and pronunciation;

P3 = the student communicates a message without help but with errors of syntax and pronunciation;

P4 = the student communicates a message without help, without errors of syntax, but with errors of pronunciation;

P5 = the student communicates a message without help, and without errors of syntax or pronunciation.

Note: In the case of written production, the word pronunciation is replaced by the word spelling.

APPENDIX D

Sample Objective
(MEQ Document 16-3251: p. 30)

ORAL COMPREHENSION

TERMINAL OBJECTIVE 2

On completion of the first cycle of secondary school, the pupil should be able to demonstrate his understanding of the following types of texts that he listens to for the purpose of finding out what to do

LEVEL		MINIMUM CONTENT OF THE OBJECTIVE	CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEXTS		SAMPLE TEXTS
1	2	TEXTS AND NOTIONS	LINGUISTIC	OTHER	
		2.1 INSTRUCTIONS			**2.1 INSTRUCTIONS**
*		kind of action to be performed time place materials required	– once sentence at a time – length of sentences maximum of 10 words – no words between subject and verb no subordinate clauses – large number of verbs – few adjectives – different ways of expressing the imperative	– live – length to suit pupils needs – gestures should be included if necessary	[for an activity work an exam a daily chore games how to get somewhere] – Hand in your papers please – You have to do the dishes now – Turn right at the corner Go to the first traffic lights – You re supposed to give me two cards
	*	– kind of action to be performed – sequence – time – place – materials required	– single sentences or combinations of up to 3 sentences – length of sentences maximum of 10 words – no words between subject and verb – large number of verbs – few adjectives – adverbs indicating sequence in actions – coordinating conjunctions may be used – different ways of expressing the imperative	– live – length to suit pupils needs – gestures should be included if necessary	[for an activity work an exam a daily chore games how to get somewhere] – Today we re going to see a movie in the auditorium Leave your books and go down there now Please be quiet in the hall – Put your head down on your desk and close your eyes Now listen carefully to all the different noises you hear Try to remember as many as you can

APPENDIX E

Examples of CBC Newscasts
April 23, 1985

1. A marine rescue in the stormy north Pacific went smoothly today. All 23 crew members from a Japanese freighter were picked up by another vessel. They had abandoned ship early this morning after a load of logs shifted and their freighter began to list. A Canadian Coast Guard plane dropped a radio to their lifeboat and stayed in the area until the closest vessel arrived and the rescue was complete. It took place about 1000 km. west of Vancouver Island. The ship, the Garza Star, was carrying logs from Tacoma, Washington to Japan.

   93 words
   35 seconds
   rate : 40 words/15 seconds

2. Lindsay Eberhart, the three-year-old transplant patient, is in a Toronto hospital in critical condition. Lindsay, who suffered from a deadly liver disorder, underwent a liver transplant in Boston last February. When she returned home to Toronto at the beginning of April, doctors said she was making a speedy recovery.

   20 seconds
   51 words
   rate: 38 words/15 seconds

3. The Canadian Forces has cancelled all aerobatic demonstrations for the time being. The precision flying team, the Snowbirds, had planned to appear at 65 airshows this year, most of them in Canada. However, all close formation flying displays have been temporarily banned as a result of an accident last month at Edmonton. In that fly-past, two Hercules transport planes collided and crashed, killing ten men. The Defence Department says it was already reviewing the cost of the special air displays and that review has been speeded up because of the accident.

   35 seconds
   93 words
   rate: 40 words/15 seconds

4. Several families have been forced from their homes along the flooded Gooly River north of Sault Ste. Marie. However, several others are staying put and are using canoes to get around. The river began spilling over its banks earlier this week and at one point land is under about 2 metres of water. It's expected to be several days before the water subsides enough to allow the families to return to their homes. Meanwhile, a flood warning has been issued for the North Bay-Lake Nipissing area. Melting snow is expected to bring the lake to flood level by early next week.

102 words
27 seconds
rate: 51 words/15 seconds

APPENDIX F
Sample of Approved SCI Material

(Tremblay et al 1986. Connecting 1)
(Student Book pages 28,29)
(Workbook page 33)

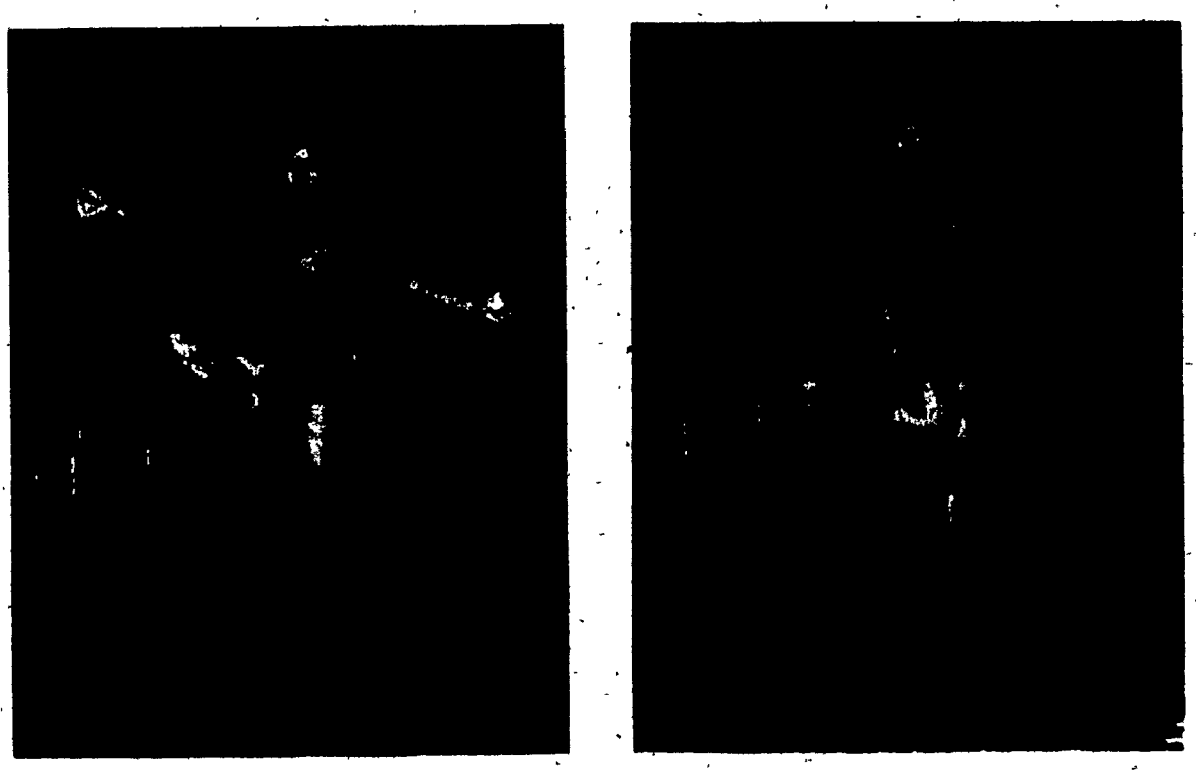
Read the article and find out if you were right about the game.

The object of most footbag play is simply to keep the little sack in the air using only legs and feet. The hands and upper body must not touch the ball, even for blocking. The result is an activity that really develops eye-foot coordination.

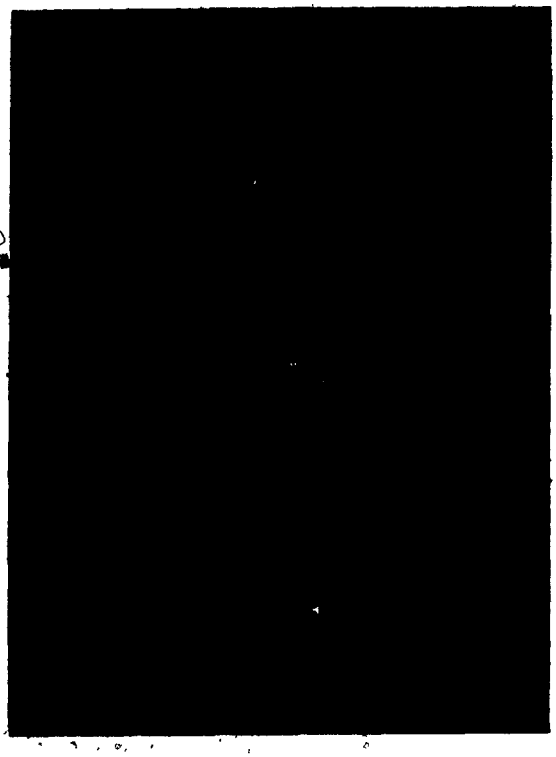
Basically the game requires five kicks. In order of importance and use, they are the inside and outside kicks, the back kick and the knee and toe kicks. In each of these manoeuvres, you'll soon discover that balance is the most important factor.

Inside kick Used whenever the bag is dropping directly in front of you. To perform it, rotate your ankle and point your toes. Then reach out and up with your foot so you can meet the pouch in the arch area.

Outside kick Put to use when the sack comes to your right or left. The kick involves turning your hips and shoulders parallel to the line of flight and sweeping your leg out from your hip and up to meet the little bag with the outside of your foot at about knee height.



28 GAMES

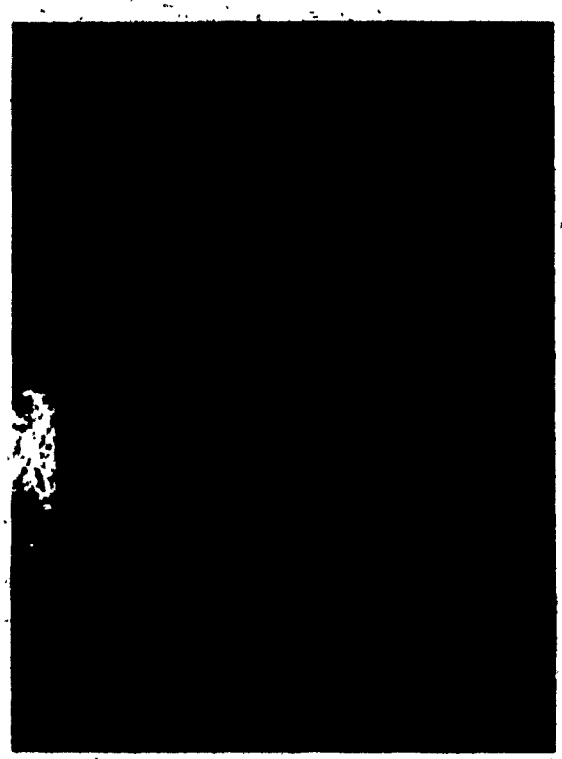


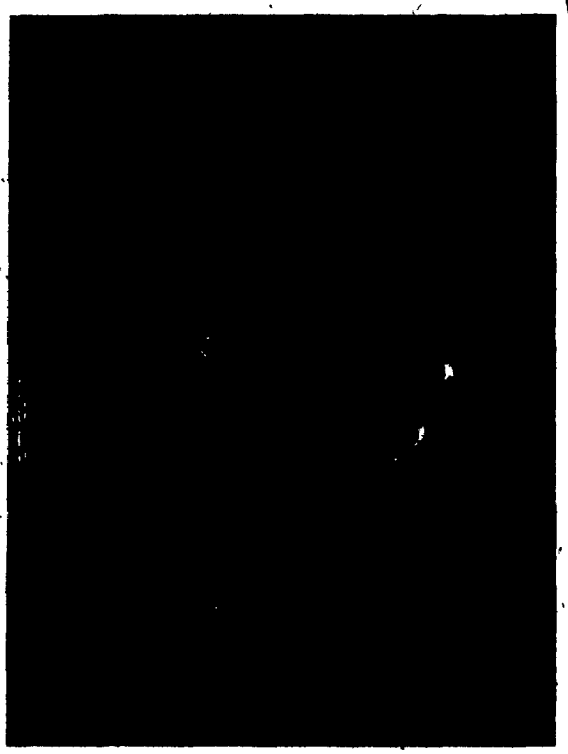
Back kick Pretty difficult to execute, but with practice it can be mastered. This tactic is called for when the pouch goes over your head. Lean forward (for balance) and contact the sack behind you with the outside of your foot.

The last two kicks, knee and toe, come into play less often. Use the **knee kick** — by raising your leg and stopping the sack with the top of your thigh — to block a footbag away from your midsection and probably set it up for either an inside or an outside kick.

The **toe kick,** which is notoriously hard to control, should be reserved for occasions when the pouch is directly in front of you and too low to manage with any other manoeuvre.

Don't worry about rules. You can pretty much make them up as you go along. Even the number of players is open. Four in a square will work though and may be the best formation to start with.





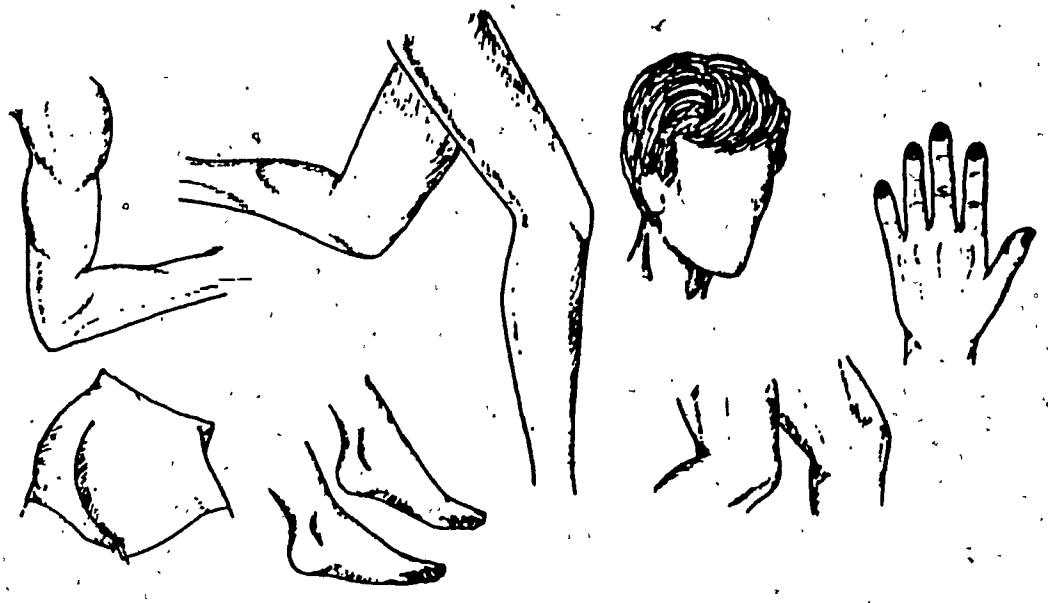
To learn how to make footbags, refer to page 14.

GAMES

Footnotes

1. Circle the names of the games and sports that you play regularly.

SOCCER HANDBALL VOLLEYBALL
BASEBALL
FOOTBALL TENNIS SQUASH
CARDS
SWIMMING FOOTBAG RACQUETBALL



Now match the part of the body which is most important in each activity.

2. What do you think the game "footbag" is? Read the following statements and guess whether they are true or false.

	(True)	(False)
a) You can use your hands and upper body to play.	T	F
b) The game develops hand-eye coordination.	T	F
c) The outside kick is more important than the knee kick.	T	F
d) Balance is an important factor in playing the game.	T	F
e) Any number of people can play the game.	T	F

Now read the article on p. 28 of the Textbook and find out if you are right. Correct any wrong answers.

APPENDIX G

Sample Magazine Text

Get the Facts on Nancy McKeon

At age 12, some girls haven't even begun to think about pursuing a career. But Nancy McKeon began working when she was still a diaper-clad toddler. And by the time she was 12, she was seriously thinking about giving up the lucrative acting and modeling career she'd pursued since early childhood.

Nancy was an adorable, outgoing 2-year-old when she got her first job modeling baby clothes for a Sears catalog. At the same time, her 4-year-old brother Phillip was making his career debut in a TV commercial for breakfast cereal. Both were rewarded with additional acting and modeling assignments and it wasn't long before the McKeon kids became frequent commuters between their Long Island home and the photo and film studios of Manhattan. Their father, Don, worked as a travel agent but their mother, Barbara, did most of the traveling as she constantly chauffeured her two kids to and from home, school and job locations. Both Nancy and her brother worked steadily throughout their grade school years -- appearing in a combined total of over 60 commercials.

Although her parents were initially responsible for putting her in front of the cameras, Nancy admits that she quickly grew to love her work as an actress and model. "Obviously," she says, "I didn't make the decision to be an actress at the beginning. When you're 2, you don't say, 'Hey, Mom, I'm packing up and going to Hollywood'. But I have decided since then that this is what I want to do. I really love it." But at one point, when she was in her preteens, Nancy was having serious doubts about the choice she'd made.

Nancy was 10 when her 12-year-old brother landed his first regular role in a TV series. Phillip joined the cast of "Alice" eight years ago in the role of Tommy, the son of series star Linda Lavin. But unfortunately, his success as a TV actor indirectly caused a major setback in his sister's acting career. Since the show was done at a Hollywood studio, the McKeons decided to pack up and move the entire family from their long-time New York residence to a new home based in Los Angeles.

Although Nancy was an established, sought-after performer in New York, she was just another unknown actress when she moved to Los Angeles. So while Phillip worked daily on the "Alice" set, she attended endless auditions and casting calls and worked only occasionally at acting jobs that were few and far between. When her brother's TV role prompted the family's cross-country move, Nancy recalls, "I was happy for Phillip, but I had

to start all over again. I was getting up at a quarter to 5, practicing singing and dancing before school and again when I came home, but nothing was happening." She spend several years trying to get reestablished, but as her 13th birthday approached, she admits, "I thought of quitting."

Luckily, she didn't give in to defeat. Instead, she reaped the rewards of her perseverance several months later when she became a series regular on the now-popular TV sitcom, "The Facts of Life". As one of the stars of the youth-oriented comedy about a group of teen girls who attend an all-girls, private boarding school, Nancy's gained fame as tough-talking Jo, the feisty, no-nonsense member of the group.

The 17-year-old TV star made her debut as the show's tomboy at age 13 and has continued to star in the role for over four years since. From the start, she's worked hard to make her character both interesting and realistic. Even when she was still a newly hired 13-year-old, she had definite ideas about how Jo should be portrayed and she wasn't shy about voicing her opinion. Explains Nancy, "Jo originally was a lot like the Fonz. Then they wanted to take away some of her dominance, which I didn't want to do. So we talked about it and came up with the way she is now. She's not the Fonz. She's not a wimp -- she stands out alone."

Linda E.Watson
'TEEN August 1983
p. 77-78

APPENDIX H

Sample CBC Sports Broadcast
April 25, 1985

In hockey last night in the Stanley Cup, let's catch you up to date if you went to bed a little bit early, Edmonton Oilers have swept the Winnipeg Jets. They defeated them last night 7 to 3 to win their series 4 games to nothing. Wayne Gretzky tied his own playoff record, 7 points in the game. The Oilers now await the winner of the Minnesota-Chicago series. Chicago won that game last night 7 to 6. Darrell Sutter scored the winner at 1.56 of the second overtime period. So, of course, Chicago leads that series now 3 to 1. The New York Islanders are still breathing. They trail in their series against Philadelphia 3 to 1 but last night their 6 to 2 win over the Flyers gave them at least one win in the series. They'll go to Philadelphia for a game on Sunday night. And finally the Montreal Canadians evened their series with the Quebec Nordiques. They defeated the Nordiques 3 to 1 last night in Quebec. That series now tied at 2. Well, good news and bad news for Canada. The good news being that they're into the medal round at the world hockey championships. The bad news is that they had to play the Soviets yesterday and they were trounced 9 to 1. If anyone ever doubted that the Soviets wanted revenge for what we did to them in the Canada Cup last year, they got their answer yesterday. The Soviets never let up and they loved running up the score, every second of it.

262 words
67 seconds
rate: 58 words/15 seconds

APPENDIX I
Sample Newspaper Article

Shipwrecked Sailor used Sleeping Bag as Sail

HONOLULU (AP) -- A sailor who abandoned a sinking ship spent 18 days on a five-metre skiff, using a compass, sextant, and sails made from a sleeping bag to guide him through rough seas to Hawaii.

The skiff, with no keel, drifted mostly sideways in the stiff winds and choppy water before depositing Thomas Jacobson, 43, of Brinnon, Wash., on the shores of the remote island of Niihau.

"It got me down here," said Jocobson, one of eight crew members of the West I, who abandoned ship June 21 when the fish-processing vessel sank en route to Honolulu from Seattle.

The other seven remained in two life rafts, while Jacobson took the skiff in hopes of finding help.

Six of the other crew members were rescued July 5 about 400 nautical miles from Hawaii by a passing U.S. navy ship. The captain died and was buried at sea.

Jacobson steered the skiff with a compass and sextant and also used the stars. He tore up a sleeping bag and made four triangular sails and found shelter under a tarpaulin from one of the life rafts. He fished with a hook and hand line until a dolphin yanked it away.

"I figured I'd arrive (on Oahu) around the fifth," Jacobson said Thursday. "I had no question I was going to be making it here."

He drifted helplessly by Oahu, however.

"I was really irritated because I couldn't tack toward shore," he said.

He landed on Niihau Tuesday. It took two days to get around steep cliffs and find any islanders, mostly native Hawaiians who speak Hawaiian.

Had Jocobson been unable to land the skiff on Niihau, he planned to jump overboard and swim for the island, said coast guard spokesman Lieut. Joe Cook. Had he drifted by the Hawaiian Islands, he would have faced thousands of nautical miles of open ocean before reaching another land mass.

The Gazette
Montreal, Sat. July 12, 1986.