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Report



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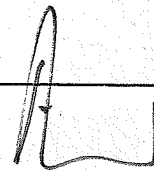
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9 MAY 1977

ADDRESS

by Mr J L M TRIM

Director of Department of Linguistics, Cambridge University

Some Problems in the Teaching of Pronunciation and Intonation to Groups of Mixed Nationality.

The last time I came here was indeed to talk to you about the project which I direct for the Council of Europe on the development of the Unit Credit Scheme for adult learners in Europe, and our attempts there to develop a systems analysis for language teaching, and of course in that respect it is always a very great pleasure to be in contact with specialists whose objectives are usually so clear, ie the situation within which you are operating is one in which it is much easier and straightforward to develop and apply systematic thinking than is often the case with general adult education, when the objectives which people obviously have are far from clear often to any of the parties in the undertaking.

Our task has been to try to replace that rather fuzzy situation by one in which people become used to examining their own situation, trying to understand what particular communicative needs lead them to a programme of language learning, and then to thinking how far the resources which they can command, organise and develop can be applied systematically to satisfying those communicative needs in the light of the responsibilities which all the parties to the undertaking have and the various motivations which drive them.

Well, quite a lot has happened over the last two years since I last had the privilege of speaking to you, in particular the threshold level concept, ie the attempt to define what it is that people ought to be able to do in order to function efficiently as members of another speech community in which they were not born, and what they ought to know in order to be able to do the things which they need to do with the language.

This concept has become very much more widely accepted; we have been able to apply it to a range of languages other than English, in particular French, Spanish, German and we are now beginning in Italian. We have been able to get rather further with means of evaluating and means of ascertaining needs, motivations and aptitudes, so that the whole system seems to be getting rather more substance as a result of the co-operation which we are receiving from people in many different parts of the continent of Europe. We are also getting to the stage where we can organise a certain number of pilot studies among groups of people responsible for language learning in particular fields. At Cologne earlier this year, we brought together representatives of a number of the in-Service training establishments in a number of multi-national companies and found that their inter-action was immediate and effective. We have a well marked planning development for that area now.

We are hoping to do something in the area of international administration in the next period and perhaps something also for the needs of migrant workers, ie how particularly to integrate immigrant families into host communities.

Well, that is a very brief updating of what has been happening in the Council of Europe project over the last two years and as our Chairman has said, I shall be very pleased later on in the afternoon to answer questions about those developments or, for the benefit of those people who were not at the earlier meeting, to answer questions about the fundamental principles which we have been trying to apply.

When I received the invitation to come and talk to you today, I was told that the subject of your meeting was particularly the problems of mixed nationality teaching and, I thought, what is it that I could say on this problem in the light of principles which have guided the Council of Europe project on the one hand and my own experience in the teaching of pronunciation and intonation since 1949, when I was first appointed as a lecturer in the Department of Phonetics in University College London.

The first thing is that the question of whether to organise in single mother tongue groups or whether to organise in mixed nationality groups is a question that will only arise in a certain institutional context. It is rather useless for me to stand here and say that it is better to do the one or better to do the other, because in most contexts there will be no choice, and where there is a choice then the various parameters of the organisational situation - the organisational learning situation - will usually determine, which we do in fact follow. So that really one can only get a solution to that problem out of a systems analysis of the learning situation that you are trying to organise, and here again that has got to be reduced back to the needs, motivations, resources and responsibilities of the parties concerned, and the kinds of objective which are appropriate to the different kinds of target audience which arise from that kind of analysis.

We take the needs first of all, ie needs viewed in terms of how the person is going to use the language concerned - communicative needs essentially - then clearly you will be confronted in different types of language groups that you are organising with a very wide range of extremely different needs. Are you, for example, training a group of soldiers for contact situations with local populations in a given operational area? Are you training people to participate in multi-national groups at various different levels with either a fairly closely restricted operational base or with social components? What kinds of relations do you want your learner to contract with the speakers of the language that he is acquiring. What are the criteria which you are going to apply when you are considering the pronunciation and intonation which he uses? Is it better communication? Is it that it is sufficient for him to be able to signal his meanings efficiently on the one hand and to understand the signals that he receives on the other? Or are they questions of acceptability? ie, has he got to fit into a particular society and is fitting into that society partly a question of conforming appropriately in a linguistic way, and does that affect the types of pronunciation, the types of intonation which are going to be acceptable? Are the kinds of meanings which he has got to convey and understand exclusively intellectual, or simply, say, technical information? Has he got to get people to work together on the other hand, or are they emotional components whereby he has to enter into relations which involve emotional adjustments.

According to these different kinds of requirement which are placed upon language then the way that these needs reflect themselves in the area of pronunciation and intonation are quite different and will require quite different biases.

I remember a contact situation that I was caught up in when I was in the Army in Greece shortly after the last war when I, knowing nothing whatsoever about anything technical, and being unable to drive, was the obvious candidate to become MTO for my battalion, and being MTO for my battalion meant not that I had really to do very much about transport at that time but I had to go around interviewing the relatives of all the Greeks that my lorries were killing on the roads.

In that kind of contact situation clearly there was nothing which I could say which would be committing in any way legally or otherwise, but it was very necessary that I should convey to them the proper sense of concern and condolence that is appropriate in those situations, that is to say that I was in a situation where, insofar as I used the language, then the emotional relation, as conveyed particularly in intonational terms, was most important. Naturally at that time in my career I totally lacked the equipment to do that at all. So I do not give this as a success story but only as a cautionary tale.

In addition to the question of needs, there is that of motivations which are distinct. It overlaps insofar as there is of course the well-known distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. There are strong intrinsic motivations being gained simply from an awareness on the part of the learner that what he is learning to do is useful to him and what he is acquiring is effective in actually meeting the needs which he has, whereas of course on the other hand one is very well aware of the power of extrinsic motivations which will determine whether somebody is going to learn effectively or not, quite often, but have nothing inherently to do with the activity concerned.

It is useful to distinguish between intellectual, emotional, moral and material motivations and satisfactions, and between personal, vocational and social satisfactions. One can make these into a grid and then examine it at any particular point to see whether a given learning programme and the way it is organised does correspond to or exploit the motivations of the learner in these different dimensions.

When we come to the resources themselves which the planner of any system has at his disposal, then these will determine very much what kinds of method can be used and also, through that, what kinds of objective can reasonably be pursued. For example, are language laboratories available, what kind of software is already available for use in language laboratories, what possibilities are there for the development of new software, what sort of human capabilities can you draw upon, what sort of qualifications do the teachers that you will be using have, do they have analytic skills, do they have in fact the abilities of native speakers? It is nice if they have both, of course; it is rather disastrous if they have neither. What is the size of the population that you are organising, what is their spread across mother tongue groups, what is their spread across different learner types within the group, what is their spread in terms of their previous educational experience, their established study skills. Is the population large enough for you to be able to make any meaningful divisions of the learner population even if you know this about them. Of course it is very nice for you to learn all sorts of things - all sorts of characteristics about the learner group and if then, at the end of the day, there are only six of them and you have got to pile them together into a single group, then there is only a limited amount of help in being able to see the dimensions which you might use for sub-divisions. But then

there is the question of whether you are in fact obliged to take the resources which you have and the target population that you have as given, or you are able to manipulate this in different ways? Are you free, in fact, to consider alternative forms of organisation according to the conclusions that your analysis leads you to? Are you already committed as to, say, intensive or extensive patterns of teaching, because again it seems that the kind of work which is appropriate in intensive courses is different in character from that which is appropriate for use in extensive courses.

Are the courses going to take place in the target environment or in the mother tongue environment because, again, if you are conducting courses of any kind within the target environment, then whatever formal teaching you do is best looked at as a structuration of an on-going experience which takes place as much or more outside the instructional situation as what takes place within it. On the other hand if you are conducting a course which is in the mother tongue environment then the experience of the language may be conterminous with what happens in the instructional period or what can be organised outside the instructional period is only a form of encapsulated self-instruction which is lacking in a social dimension unless you can particularly organise that through calling upon expatriates.

If I appear to have made heavy weather of this part of the treatment it is because one of the missions which I have set myself, to put it that way, is to try to get myself and if possible other people away from neuterphystic thinking, and from believing that there are some absolute solutions to these problems which are independent of the context in which they operate. It is only really by understanding more and more about the situations that we are responsible for that we can bring them under proper control and we should then spill no tears over what might have been but could not have been.

But let us say that one has a real choice to make between the single language group and the mixed language group. What are then the relative advantages of the two situations? I am sure you probably have more ideas about this than I have but of course the classic advantage of the segregated single language group is that it is based upon contrastive principles and general consequences of interference theory. Over the last ten years, I suppose, there has been a considerable move away from a faith in contrastive linguistics as a basis for the prediction of learner difficulties and learner errors. Error analysis has shown that the causes of error are rather complex and that the general principle that a foreign language is easy to learn where it is isomorphic with the mother tongue and difficult where it is not isomorphic and the difficulties can be predicted from a relative degree of isomorphism between the two structures has come under a great deal of attack. Fortunately in the area of pronunciation and intonation it has come under rather less effective attack than has come from many other directions, that is to say that there is still abundant evidence that the structures which we have developed in connection with the learning of our mother tongue and the way in which our perception has been controlled by the properties of the mother tongue so that it stands as a kind of harrier to the effective perception of differently organised sound systems, the evidence for that is so abundant, that I think it is largely uncontested.

We cannot, if we know that the person has a mother tongue (A) and is learning a language (B) deterministically predict what his pronunciation of that language is going to be like but we can predict on a teaching/group scale the universal problems that are going to crop up. Now if we have a group which is drawn entirely from speakers of one mother tongue learning one other target language, then we can make fairly strong predictions about what is the nature of the problems that are going to come up and we can be fairly clear in our minds that the problems that are going to occur are going to be relevant to a substantial proportion of the members of that group, so that it is easier to plan when one is dealing with the speakers of one particular mother tongue. The class is going to be more focused on the problems which are likely to be relevant, areas which are almost certain to be irrelevant can be under-planned and passed over with a minimum of screening. In particular if you have got to herd people into groups and if the nature of the teaching process requires you to organise into groups with a teacher - it is quite often difficult to avoid - then you have some kind of guarantee that whatever is happening between the teacher and member of Group A is relevant to most of the people who are necessarily in the position of observers at that particular point.

On the other hand it is not a set of unmixed blessings. The first thing is that bringing people of a single nationality together into a group makes the behaviour of that group with all its interferences a standard of reference for that group, ie the accent which shows the interference of that particular mother tongue appears to be a natural state of affairs for the members of the group as a whole. Sometimes if the group dynamics go slightly wrong it becomes a kind of group possession which it is disloyal of any particular member of the group to reject. You may be dealing with mature adults who never feel that way at all but you may not be. I came up against it in its most striking form with my children at school. I found that my eldest daughter came back from her French lesson on the first day able to imitate the tapes she had heard with a very considerable degree of mimicry and accuracy. I then found that a month later she had acquired from her class at school a very perfect English accent in French. So this was clearly not at all a result of her own individual psychophonetics - psycholinguistics but of a sociolinguistic problem, that is to say, in that period the group, which is an extremely powerful sociological group, had established its own identity and its own peculiar pronunciation of French, highly anglicised, was part of its group identity. Then there was some resentment of any individuals in the group who pursued exogenic norms. They were regarded as showing off. The ordinary behaviour of the ordinary group was not good enough for them. Now of course with maturity we no longer feel that way but I wonder whether perhaps it is familiar - it may strike some chords with some people nevertheless. It is particularly strong in a school situation where there is an enormous dependence of the learner group upon the teacher and from where the behaviour of the teacher is going to become something which is more important; - a loyalty to the teacher becomes much more important than loyalty to something which is rather abstract and represented only by mechanical devices.

Now, even if you do not have that kind of emotional and social difficulty, nevertheless it will in any single mother tongue group seem natural that one should have certain difficulties in pronouncing another language, that is, difficulties become projected on to the language itself. They are not seen as difficulties in the relation between the learner and the language but they are inherent difficulties in that language itself.

The difference between 's' and 'th' in English is a very subtle and difficult distinction which it is only natural that anybody should have difficulty in making. If they are Spanish, presumably they are not part of the ordinary words, because they do not have that difficulty. Nevertheless there are some things which are seen as naturally easy and some which are naturally difficult. Now that may be more easily overcome as soon as there is a mixed nationality group in which things which are found difficult by one member are found easy by another and vice versa. I remember when I was teaching German phonetics - German pronunciation - to a group of English students in London and we had on one occasion a Japanese student present doing German. The psychological effect upon my English girls of finding that for the Japanese, "f" was an impossibly difficult consonant to produce in German, and that for her to pronounce "fe" was an extremely difficult thing to do. This had an enormous psychological effect upon them because it had never occurred to them that "f" was anything but one of the natural God-given categories which all languages must have somehow or other as opposed to things like "kh" which are somehow inventions of the Devil. Of course there are some psychological advantages of having mixed nationality groups if, instead of the class degenerating into a series of ad hoc corrections between the teacher and a particular member of the group with the rest of the group acting as an audience, finding no relevance to their problems, the whole thing is contributing to an understanding of the nature of phonetic/phonological interference and an awareness within the members of the group of the kind of situation in which they find themselves. If it is building up a model of learning then it can be useful. If, on the other hand, you are dealing with a learner group which is not interested in the learning problem anyway and not interested in the development of self-awareness, then it could be extremely difficult to actually exploit this particular kind of advantage.

When I said that one had to look at needs in the first instance, then I must try to see what kinds of relations the people are going to develop with other speakers of the language later on, such as, for example, I mentioned contact situations with natives of that language on the one hand but participation in mixed nationality groups in which one or two languages were operating as lingua franca, then of course that in itself is extremely pertinent to this particular question of organisation because whereas, say, a language like English or French is acting as a natural lingua franca, it is largely being used for communication between non-native speakers. In that case it will be quite incorrect to make the speech of any one particular learner over-dependent upon native speakers. That is, he can reckon that a large part of his experience will not be talking to native speakers and certainly not native speakers speaking the standard form of language. He must therefore be weaned away from any perceptual dependence upon one particular form of that language and needs to have a good deal of experience in listening to the ways that that language is likely to be spoken by the range of speakers with whom he is going to come into contact, which may mean looking at certain varieties of the language, among native speakers certainly for dialect differences, but also among the international population of speakers at large. That means that one has to have a kind of model of speech perception and speech perception skills built up which are a long way away from identification of particular phonemes for example.

That does itself make the question of attachment to one particular single model within a target language a difficult question, because if you are going to try and get people to model themselves upon one particular form of the target language, then you do that most efficiently by exposing them to that a great deal, and making that particular form of the language part of the environment. On the other hand, in the international lingua franca situation, it is clearly no longer of any very great importance to attach oneself unambiguously to one particular model in such a way that one is identified as indistinguishable from it. That particular problem comes up on the other hand if your acceptance as a member of the speech community concerned becomes important.

So one can see in the case of English, for example, not necessarily one universally accepted model which is to be pursued by everybody but on the one hand a multiplicity of models which of course include different local situations but also an attitude towards a model which is very much looser and more approximative than would have been the case in the classical phonetic training.

On the other hand, where somebody is being trained to some role which brings him very close to one particular class of speakers, no matter who they are, then coming close to the understanding of the phonetics and the intonation of that group and the reproduction of the phonetics and intonation of that group, then it is of course of very great importance. But that cannot be effectively done within a group teaching framework because this will always disperse the model. Some very much more individual form of teaching, or in groups where the speakers of the target language are dominant is obviously indicated.

Getting down now to the fact that one is working with mixed nationality groups and coming down to the question of method, then the objective which is going to be appropriate in those circumstances is that of adequate communication. As one thinks about it the question of adequate communication is turning out to be an increasingly difficult one to understand and to apply. It is very easy to say that a learner should speak in a way which is understandable -- and readily understandable -- to his hearer, but communication, comprehension and understanding must always be a two-way affair. There is somebody who is speaking and somebody who is listening. Any act of communication and understanding involves an adjustment of these two people. So that there is no way at all in which one can speak which can be guaranteed to be comprehensible to any other listening human being. However well I speak English, if my listener does not speak English then I am not understood. But somehow I cannot be then criticised for speaking in a way which is incomprehensible. We then have an infinite gradation of listeners from those people who do not understand the language we are speaking at all to those who are fully competent native speakers. And the usual criteria to comprehensibility which are given are related to the fully competent native speaker; that we should teach people to be comprehensible to native speakers. Even so we still have native speakers who are patient and native speakers who are rather impatient, native speakers who have exceptionally good hearing and native speakers who are rather deaf, and so on. Native speaking in itself is not a terribly constant thing but when we are dealing with languages that are being used as instruments of international co-operation then the requirement that you are understood by a fully competent native speaker is far too weak because the native listener, let us put it that way, because of his knowledge of the language and all the constraints which operate in the situation, is capable of contributing a very high

proportion to the act of comprehension by the set of expectations that he brings to it and the very rich interpretation which he places upon what may be quite inadequate data.

But a speaker of a third language who is using target languages as a lingua franca can bring to it only a limited set of expectations, only a limited competence. He is not able to forecast the structures which are going to be used and therefore perceives them under very adverse circumstances. Much more the burden of communication has got to be taken on by the speaker if the listener has only a restricted knowledge of the language.

We have got to try to make a proper economic balance between the two parties. That principle is going to be the more true the more restricted the knowledge of the grammar and knowledge of the system of language as a whole is between the two parties concerned. So we get a paradoxical situation and I do not see an easy way out of it where the lower the level at which linguistic equipment which you are providing people with to enable them to communicate with each other in a third language, the more they require using the pronunciation which does not place too much difficulty in the way of the other person. All this has got me into a great deal of difficulty in thinking about the implications of the DLI level specifications in a form in which they are widely known, whereby a lot of other specifications - IBM specifications and others - whereby different levels are specified with simultaneous development in any definable language dimension, so that a person starts off with a very small vocabulary, a very small knowledge of structures. He is able only to communicate through a certain number of set phrases, he can understand only a native speaker speaking very slowly in a standard dialect, and he himself has very substantial mother tongue experience in pronunciation. This mother tongue experience diminishes as you go from level to level.

There is nothing necessary and inherent about that model of language progress. In fact it is not a model of the language objectives really so much as it is a model for language evaluation. It may be that you need to give people rather more a shared pronunciation basis if they are going to have only limited knowledge of the language than if they are going to have an extensive knowledge of the language. Now I am not at all sure that I like coming to that conclusion and if there is a flaw in the argument I should be very glad if somebody would expose it for me because naturally one thinks that if people have only a limited amount of time to give and a limited amount of the language that they can acquire, because of those constraints in the situation you do not want to be fussy about pronunciation. Being fussy about pronunciation is something that comes altogether at a higher level. Other cases are where there cannot be an easy adjustment between the two people and a great deal of paralinguistic communication, a great deal of question and answer and clarification, that if you are going to have small ritualised exchanges then getting those effective at the pronunciation level may be a matter of life and death.

Under those situations, then however arbitrary it is, it is going to be necessary to take a common model. It is probably not a bad thing if that common model is as close as is decently possible to a rather careful form of written English.

Where the training is for straightforward conversational inter-communication, then there is the possibility of the paralinguistic supplementation to and fro which I have spoken about, which then means that one wants somehow to get up to a level of approximation where a threshold of intelligibility is crossed, and on the whole the speech itself is intelligible, but a greater approximation than that to the native speech of the other community seems to be unnecessary as an explicit than an objective.

When it comes to training pronunciation to much closer limits, which may be required for some special purposes, and becomes in any case appropriate as somebody's general control of the language approaches more to the near native, then with adult speakers I think that a fully fledged phonetic method is entirely justified and economic, ie I think there is a great deal of correct disillusion with the ability of most people to overcome the problems that are involved simply on a basis of a naive imitative ability. There is every reason why a naive imitative ability should, generally speaking, not work because of the general heavy conditioning effect of the mother tongue in perception as well as in production. My experience over the years has tended to show to me that, to an extraordinary extent, the pronunciation errors which are made by speakers of a foreign language are directly represented in the phonetic transcription of that foreign language ie most of the errors which are made by semi-competent speakers, people who know another language quite well but who nevertheless speak it with a strongly detectable foreign accent, are simply mistaken targets, that their actual image of the sequences of phonemes which are involved, of the intonation patterns which are involved in the realisation of particular sentences, are simply wrong. Given that these images are wrong, then no amount of mechanistic imitative-type training will overcome them because people are still pursuing wrong objectives. However efficiently they do so they are still wrong.

For that reason, especially in the courses which are done for advanced learners in English phonetics, the disciplines of phonetic transcription have always seemed to me to be very well worthwhile, simply because they do ensure that the phonetic targets which are being set by the student are right, that the conscious decisions which can be made are correct. It then becomes only a question of meeting those targets. That is something which I have then found develops over a period of time in a positive way, even without continuous exposure to foreign models, once the set of targets and the understanding of the objectives is well understood. For that reason I have a great deal of respect for the classical method employed - and I use it, I do not just respect it - for phonetic transcriptions and for contrastive ear training.

What I have said is generally applicable, particularly for the phonetic realisation of sentences and the question of the succession of phonemes and allophones that are used in speech.

The question of intonation seems to me a question of a particularly difficult kind. Firstly, in none of our European languages is there anything like the direct representation of the intonational system in writing systems, just a series of informal cuing through punctuation conventions. The extent to which intonation is used to signal important differences of meaning seems to vary very considerably between one

language and another. It seems to be particularly highly developed in English and it seems to be very highly developed in middle class English and that not only British English but also in American English. The way in which intonation functions in a language in a specific way, which is not easily picked up by speakers of other languages, is in indirect speech acts, ie to say where a sentence of one certain kind is used to fulfil a speech function which is of a different kind. It seems to be strongly associated with notions of politeness, it often is associated with obliqueness, where people say not directly what it is that they mean but indirectly give information to the listener from which he is expected to be able to reconstruct what they mean. That is to say that at an elementary level you can get along very well without it but when it comes to the language of negotiation particularly then as used by native speakers of English it assumes an entirely different order of importance.

I have talked to some of my colleagues, people of great intellectual stature who have come from other countries to take up university appointments in this country and who find themselves totally at sea at meetings of faculty boards, Councils of the Senate, committee structures of all sorts in this country because somehow or other they say, everybody has come to a decision without saying anything and without giving you any opportunity for disagreeing with it because you don't even know that the process has taken place. This, it seems to me is done very largely by incomplete structures combined with particular intonation. In British English of course there is the tremendous importance attached to the falling, rising intonation which is what gives us our reputation for being total hypocrites, because if you say 'ye-es' you might possibly mean 'yes'. There was the case when a group of Swedish students were invited to a Cambridge home and asked whether they had enjoyed themselves during the afternoon. One of the group said 'ye-es', whereupon the face of the hostess fell and she said 'Oh I'm so sorry. What was the matter?' By use of intonation the remark 'it was very good' can mean 'it was very bad' and it is certainly possible for quite considerable misunderstandings on an international scale to occur in this respect. On one occasion in Hamburg when my young daughter would not go to sleep we ran her round the park for a whole afternoon. At the end of that time we were exhausted and she was very fresh. My wife said to our German hostess 'Ich bin mude' looking at Elizabeth. Now this was meant to introduce a conversation about our daughter. The fact that she was not tired and that we were going to have a difficult evening with her again. The answer was 'Ya, das kann ich mir vorstellen'. It was simply taken that my wife was talking about the fact that she was tired. So I said 'did you understand what Marianne said?' and the hostess replied 'Ya sie ist mude' and I said 'haben sie einen besonderen tontall bemerkt' 'Ya ein komischer englischer tonfall'. It was simply that the point of my wife's comment which was a direct translation of the German 'I am tired' was meant to indicate not the fact that she was tired, which was not of interest, but the fact that the child was not tired. This was lost in the tones. We then realised, that by altering the intonation of 'Ich bin mude' it was possible to convey the impression to the effect that 'I don't care what the rest of you feel like but I'm not going a step further'. You can therefore see the potentiality for misunderstanding and misassessment of national characters and individual characters that this involves. It tends to make English people in Germany appear indecisive, always very polite, rather mysterious but lacking in actual determination.

What does this mean, however, in the case of international groups? If we have English used as a lingua franca internationally, then for the most part this particular kind of specifically middle class English behaviour does not apply, except insofar as it is used by middle class English methods of those groups. That is then the whole of this particular kind of indirect and elusive kind of language behaviour, and the whole will not take place unless it is imported by English methods of planning, discussion, committee groups. They would be systematically misunderstood. The trouble is that I have found, certainly when English people are speaking other languages, that they attempt, as in the anecdote about my wife to do by intonation things which can be done by intonation in English but cannot be done so in other languages. When the English then act as members of multi-national groups, using English as a language of interaction, they are all the more likely to use this kind of behaviour without realising - and there is no reason why they should realise - that there is anything about it which is opaque or inaccessible to speakers of other languages. Now that brings up a great puzzle for language teaching, at that advanced stage where we are concerned with the language of negotiation and the language of international planning groups. Maybe one has got to wean the English away from it if it is very unlikely that one would be able to teach at that level an appropriate intonation behaviour in English for people who are using it as a language of communication between non-natives.

It is very well worthwhile for any advanced learner of English who has a great deal to do with the English themselves to acquire it and certainly to understand it. On the whole it is not always necessary to use it because alternative sentence forms are available and the displaced use of language can be avoided. On the other hand for the understanding of English it seems to be absolutely critical so that perhaps it is something which has to be introduced very much more receptively than actively.

ADDRESS BY PROFESSOR STREUVENS TO THE BILC CONFERENCE - 12 MAY 1977

I am going to concentrate on the special purpose language teaching topic and what I want to do is to try and say something about the general lines that underline special purpose language teaching to try and give you a sort of perspective if you like, and also to suggest to you that in the last few years so many different kinds of special purpose language teaching have been urged that we are beginning to see a pattern. We can perhaps suggest that there are different types of language teaching for these needs and that the different types require a different orientation in meeting the needs. The first point I would like to make is that special purpose language teaching represents a change in educational framework. Up to 15 years ago, with almost the single exception of the Services so that you or I in this respect are the exception to of what was almost a universal rule, the only framework that was available for learning foreign languages, or teaching them, was the framework of a general education. So language teaching for general educational purposes was the rule with the exception, almost the sole exception of the Services and allied institutions -- I think, for example, the Foreign Service Institute. The general idea the public have, and indeed the profession have, about language teaching was that you learnt a language because it was part of getting educated and there was the unspoken assumption that the best students went on to study literature. Well, about 15 years ago, in the wake of various educational, social and political changes for example in the wake of newly-gained independence for some of the African countries, about that time there began to grow up, certainly as far as English and French were concerned, a notion that possibly languages might be taught not just for general educational purposes but also for practical communication, for a practical command of the language separated for the first time from deliberate cultural content. In other words people in Ghana, where I was for some years, and in countries in East Africa, began to say, "We need English for all manner of sociolinguistic reasons but we don't want to learn it and we don't want to have it taught to our kids in order for them to be or even to know very much about being British or being American".

So that, if you like, the de-culturalisation of general educational purposes was the first change and the second change, which has been especially strong in the last three or four years, has been towards special purposes, not just practical command of the language but command of the language for special or specific purposes. So that is the first point I would make; it represents a change in the educational framework.

The second point I should like to make is that ^{this change is} [it represents it] in conformity with a world-wide educational trend. That is the trend towards learner-centred education. After a period of perhaps half a century -- a quarter of a century -- some long period at least, of developments where the attention of educators in every subject, in every country was focused above all on how to improve the teaching, how to improve the teacher, how to do the job of imparting information, knowledge, skill better, There is now a change in the tide and the focus is much more on the learner, and upon first of all to discover what the true needs of the learner are and secondly, how to concentrate our attention on meeting those needs. Not forgetting the teacher, obviously the teacher remains important, and it is rather a change in the centre of gravity of the education profession.

English for special purposes, languages for special purposes, are an example of this particular trend.

So much for, if you like, broad background, but at this stage one might say something about the kinds of advantages that are widely claimed for special purpose language teaching. The first and fairly obvious claim that is made for it is that it avoids unnecessary learning and teaching. In other words, by the sheer fact of specifying

purposes you are cutting out that which is not necessary, not relevant. This I think is a true claim. It is a claim which normally, if all goes well in the planning and execution of language courses, can be maintained and proved. There is no doubt at all that especially among those special purpose learners who are already specialists in the job or subject that they are using their language for, in other words especially those who are already professionals, this particular advantage is accepted. I make this distinction because, if you think about it, it is the people who are learning the language before learning a speciality, or even at the same time, who are not quite so clear about what is relevant and what is not relevant. But the man who is already a specialist in the job quickly knows or feels that something that he is being taught is irrelevant. For him the advantage of the ESP is that the amount of irrelevance is less.

The second advantage claimed for it is that morale is good, partly because of what I have just stated. The learner can see the relevance of ^{the} teaching and it is definitely that old label "motivation" that we all use. One of the components, one of the elements within "motivation" is that the learner should see and accept the relevance of what he is being taught in order to provide himself with a justification for giving his attention and energy to learning. This certainly seems to be very much an advantage of ESP that actually happens.

A third advantage claimed is that since the learners are usually adults, and since the special purposes are nearly always concerned with jobs that they have knowingly and deliberately embraced, the motivation is high. Learners, particularly learners with special purposes, tend to be much more willing learners than, let us say, school learners. When one is at school, one has had no say as a rule, or little say, in what it is one is having to learn. A further reason is a logical one and that is that since special purpose language teaching is usually, not always, intensive compared with non-special purpose teaching, [there is usually associated with it the advantages of intensive language learning and language teaching.] This is a separate lecture, if you like, and I will not get involved in the whole of it, but there is a fairly general agreement now among those teachers of languages who have actually tried it that increasing the intensity in rate of hours per week of language training has more than proportionally increased the yield per hour in learning. In other words, if you have 20 hours of learning and teaching and you put it in one week, more will be learned, it is claimed, than the same content of 20 hours spread over four weeks. Of course there are reasons why this may be so. Incidentally there is very little in the way of hard research evidence for this but then, alas, there is very little hard research evidence over the whole field of language teaching and language learning. I wish there was more. We all know how difficult it is to get really watertight experimental arrangements going. The history of language learning and language teaching research is punctuated with disasters of greater or lesser extent, such as the kind of project where you liven everything up and you start on a comparative study of, say two different methods, or the same method, one using language laboratories and the other not. Halfway through the course, one of your teachers gets pregnant and another teacher who does not believe in it comes in. Or, alternatively, the whole class goes down with measles and for six weeks you have not got your customers. That is one kind of problem. The other kind is that if you really spend the money and do a large-scale job screwing down every possible vent so that it is all exactly tied up, you then find at the end of it that you have got something so highly specialised that its relevance to the general public is almost nil. So there are problems about finding hard research backing for most of the assertions that I shall be making this morning. So I admit in advance that when I make these assertions I cannot, alas, come back to you and say, "Well, as so-and-so said in 1967". So, intensive teaching: there is nevertheless fair agreement among teachers who have tried it that the yield goes up with greater intensity, and greater intensity tends to be associated with special purpose teaching. It does not have to be, one is perfectly at liberty to do special purpose teaching one hour a week if one wants to, but I would not recommend it.

* [The advantages of intensive language learning and teaching are usually associated with it.]

A further advantage is that ESP being new, learner^s and teachers who are able to, or require to try it out, have very often been able to say to the authorities under whom they work that this is something special and different, and they have been allowed to do things in a new way, in other words the organisational tramlines upon which general purpose language teaching runs, are very often not there. We have trolleybuses rather than trams when we come to ESP. We are not totally without constraints but many of the constraints that we have had to work under before are no longer there. This is a great advantage.

Finally on this little list of claims, for these and similar reasons, the success rate claimed by teachers and generally popularly believed by learners tends to be rather high compared with conventional language teaching. You don't want me, I am sure, to run through very much of a list of special purpose teaching but just to make quite sure that we are on the same wavelength and that I am talking about what you think I am talking about, or not, as the case may be, let us examine some of the kinds of special purpose language teaching that exist.

The first example I ever heard about was a colleague of mine, a fellow student of mine at University College, London. In 1939 he joined the RAF and in fact did a Japanese course at the School of Oriental and African Studies. This was a course in which the special purposes were defined like this: They had to be able to understand spoken Japanese over ground-to-air radio links. They did not have to be able to read it, still less write it, and they had to be able to understand it only within the confines of standard fighter control language. This they learned quite adequately, certainly from the point of view of this friend of mine who did it, in a space of about [4/5/6] months. Now normally when one talks about "learning Japanese" when one means learning the whole of Japanese, one is thinking about the much bigger job of being able to actually produce some Japanese as well as being able to handle, at least in reading, the written language. So if you specialize that, if you reduce the content of what is to be learned, and if you cut out some of the so-called skills of language, you can in fact provide yourself with much more restricted aims and objectives. This is one obvious kind.

Outside the Services area there are other problems. There was mention on the radio news this morning of immigrant doctors and foreign nurses and the whole range of special medical courses. I have some colleagues who work at the Colchester English Study Centre, which is without doubt the senior and premier language training establishment that specializes in special purpose teaching. For some years they have been running courses for World Health Organisation doctors, doctors from Poland, Venezuela and various countries, who are going on World Health Organisation projects as doctors and will be operating in English, for example, in India or wherever it may be. They come in the middle of their careers, people of [40/50] very often, highly specialised people who have decided to give a few years to WHO work. They are not accustomed to going back to being students; they are certainly not accustomed to learning under the tutelage of young ladies with no specialist knowledge and it is really quite a difficult socialisation problem for them. So what some of these very bright girls and the Director of the Centre did was to devise a completely new way of working with students of this kind. I will take a moment to describe it because I think it illustrates a number of things about ESP and in fact special purpose language teaching generally.

What they did was this: they went up to the National Medical Lending Library - we have got a National Lending Library for medical matters - and they got a number of case histories and took these back to Colchester. They produced a whole dossier for every member of the group which included not the whole but a certain proportion of the total documents on the case history about particular patients. In fact what they set up was not a language classroom but a consultation between colleagues to diagnose a

* [four to six]

** forty to fifty

*** young women

particular patient. They were talking about the patient, describing their dossier in English and the teachers were obviously able to help them with their English, but at least these chaps were able to feel that they were doing their own professional job. Then, as the session wore on, new bits of evidence would come in and an X-ray would be brought in that had not been there previously. Then a haemoglobin count and so on; all these things came in. They were a bright pair of girls, the ones who ran this, and at one stage they managed to find a patient and produce the data about this patient such that this group of very experienced doctors finally, after about six hours of this kind of task, agreed that this chap was suffering from very advanced stages of a brain tumour. The girls then produced the last piece of evidence which was a test, after which it became clear that the patient was in fact dead drunk. I have always felt that there is a lesson to be learned here and I have approached my doctor with care ever since.

What this illustrates, I think, is that in special purpose language teaching anything goes. ESP is not a methodology and indeed since, as I said a moment ago, very often the sheer novelty and newness of special purpose language teaching enabled us to say to our masters, "Well I want to do this differently". One can rethink the whole job from scratch. Incidentally, not all their doctors' courses are like that; there are others done in equally innovative and original ways for other groups.

I was once approached by a man from the Shell Oil Co (this was at a conference on special purpose language teaching held in Beirut about six years ago) who said, "I am in charge of training at (I have forgotten which of the Gulf ports) and he said, "I can manage fairly well with the trades, the chaps who have to be pipe fitters, plumbers, welders and so on, but I have trouble with one particular group and that is the berthing masters, the chaps who have to go out in the middle of the night in a sandstorm and actually take the lines of the Japanese tankers with a Korean crew that is coming in, and they have to communicate. Indeed these tankers are so big that if they don't communicate properly, the pressures being exerted upon the jetties is such that I can easily get £100,000 damage each time a new ship comes in. How can I get the Berthing Master capable of understanding what a Korean is saying to him in English in the middle of the night?"

That is a special purpose job that I have not seen anybody even tackle but it is an example of what one might get one day.

In the meantime, air pilots, engineers from the motor factory, English engineers from the Concorde, German businessmen, Norwegian secretaries, Japanese airline pilots, Afghan firemen, these are examples of courses actually held recently at the Colchester English Study Centre. Afghan firemen - that used to be my favourite until recently when I heard that they now have two courses of Algerian artificial inseminators.

The point I would like to make out of this is that of course there is a whole range of different topics. This is obvious but also there is a whole range of different restrictions upon skill. For example, I mentioned the RAF Japanese course earlier where no reading and writing was involved and they were speaking in fact. The reading only course for the scientist who wishes to read papers in a foreign language in his own speciality is another example of a highly restricted kind of aim. I had an MA student at Essex not long ago, a man called Peter Rowe who at his dissertation took on a project which he had been thinking about for some years but had never had time in his job to follow up closely. He took on the task of saying to himself, "If I were a German low temperature physicist and I wanted to attend a conference on low temperature physics being held in Britain with English as the official language of the conference, how would I design a course which would enable me to do that and no more. He spent a lot of time on this and again, if I may digress for long enough to give you the bare bones of this, you may see the kind of lateral thinking which is possible

when one is freed from the normal expectations of an educational programme. He said, "I speak German, I want to learn English." He happens to be a fluent German speaker and has a German wife so he was in a good position to do this. He said, "Let us look at texts in English in low temperature physics" and in fact what he did was to take the actual proceedings of the papers from a conference on low temperature physics. So he had a concrete example of them. He took 16 texts of the papers printed in advance and he went through them and did a sort of 'idiot boy' analysis of each text in two ways.

First of all he looked at every single word separately and said, "Let us consider this word as a word in an unfamiliar language but German and English are related so perhaps not everything will be unfamiliar. Let us assign a degree of unfamiliarity to each item on a scale of 0 - 4, a 5-point scale. Let us take therefore a word like "temperature", German Temperatur virtually for these purposes an exact translation equivalent. Unfamiliarity? No, I am not used to an "e" on the end of "temperature" and I am not used to a small letter at the beginning. Is that a big unfamiliarity? Answer 'No'. Once you have noticed that this is the general rule, that nouns in English do not carry capital letters and in German they do, you can forget it. So let us give that a zero unfamiliarity. Then you get to a word like "oxygen" which is Sauerstoff in German. No visible familiarity there. That would cover the maximum score of 4, and so on."

He went through the whole text simply assigning in a strictly arbitrary way like that an unfamiliarity rating to every word in the text. He then looked at them and the first thing that shook him was to discover that in comparing German and English how very low the sum of unfamiliarity of a complete text was. In other words there was much less unfamiliarity than he had anticipated. Then he did the same thing again grammatically and he found, as you might expect, that with the possible exception of word order where there are once again fairly simple rules which enable one to sort out the differences, word order and word endings, to be simple about it, apart from those there was grammatically and structurally remarkably little unfamiliarity. He confirmed in this sort of way that the guessability of English for a German speaker and vice versa, is rather high; it is not total but it is rather high, so he then devised a strategy for teaching just this amount of unfamiliarity for these particular items. He said, "Let us take the actual words, the lexical items. Those which we have assigned an unfamiliarity rating of 4 to, the maximum, we will teach four times. Those we have assigned the rating of 3 to we will teach three times and so on, and those which have a rating of zero we will not bother to teach at all because they are not unfamiliar. With this kind of simplified approach he reckons that a reading only course could be designed for these kinds of purposes with a total learning time of about 24 hours. I am sure he is right. I mention it simply as another example of special purpose courses and an approach towards the teaching of special purposes."

What about the different kinds of special purpose language teaching? The first thing to mention is that ESP, or indeed special purpose teaching at all but let me stick to ESP for the moment (English for Special Purposes) because that is where the largest number of examples exist from which one can draw on this principle, in ESP there are two types and you can divide the whole of ESP really into two types. One is the type in which you have to include the discourse of Science and Technology. Let us call this EST, English for Science and Technology, for the moment. Then there are all the others. There is a very important distinction because there is no doubt that the language of Science, to use a rough phrase, constitutes an additional learning burden.

If you do not require it there is no need to teach it, if you require it it is indispensable. One really has to decide whether the language of Science is required by the learner or not. If it is what does it consist of? This question, "What is the language of Science?" represents, if you have an historical interest in these things, the way in which the ESP question first arose. Ten to fifteen years ago people were asking, "What is scientific English like, what is the nature of scientific English?" and all manner of studies of vocabulary and grammar were made to try and answer this question. What people were really doing was beginning to ask the question, "How can we teach special purpose English, included for those for whom Science and Technology is a relevant part?" What can one say about the nature of scientific language? EST courses as distinct from other ESP courses have to account for and include familiarity with a small number of features of scientific discourse.

First of all Quantification. I will just list them first of all and come back and say a word about them afterwards:-

- a. Quantification, Formulae and Symbols
- b. Very Long Nominal Groups
- c. A great many Passive Constructions

Those are probably the biggest groups of things. There are things like contractive relatives and very long sentences but let us stick to these for the moment. Let us say something then about quantification, formulae and symbols, aspects of scientific discourse, very long nominals and about passives. This will be enough perhaps to give you a flavour, although I am sure you are already familiar with the kind of additional chunk of learning that has to be incorporated in EST courses, indeed Science and Technology courses in any language.

So what can you say about it? The first thing to say about quantification is that it is a matter of being aware of English verbalisation, a whole range of needs - numbers, decimals, fractions, arithmetic algebraic expressions, how one talks about geometrical things, how one talks about the elements on the chemical table and so on. There is a whole range of ways in which scientists, technologists and technicians talk about quantities and dimensions. This includes being able to verbalise things like r^2 . The visual expression " r^2 " is familiar to scientists no matter what their backgrounds are but they verbalise them differently and if you have not heard how it is verbalised in the language you are learning, the first time you come to hear it said you may well be very surprised. To give you an example. 3.5 in English is the way we verbalise three point five. In French, German and indeed in a great many languages the visualisation is 3,5 and indeed the verbalisation is very often the word for comma as well. It is entirely true but it is an example of the kind of thing which the first time you hear it can throw you. Obviously the second time you know but this is simply a statement about the fact that we are learning and can and do learn. The main point I am making is that quantification carries a great many rather simple things that have to be learned. They can be learnt fairly easily and simply, there is no great bother about if they have to be. Right then, quantification, symbols and formulae are all part of the same thing.

What about long nominal groups? It happens to be part of the discourse of Science, particularly of written Science, that sentences very often use extremely long nominal groups.

Let me give you an example. I have a sentence here that I picked out more or less at random. This was from a treatise on navigation and it is talking about errors in linear distribution. "The 50% error of a linear distribution is defined by the limits of a central area equal to half the area in the distribution curve." It is a mathematical statement. What I want to point out to you is that this is a sentence of the type "x is y". Grammatically speaking it is a very simple sentence but 'x', the subject of the sentence, is this nominal group, the 50% error of a linear distribution. That is what goes before the verb. The verb is "is defined by" which is passive and then what is it defined by? It is defined by, and this is the next nominal, it is a one noun phrase, if you like "the limits of a central area equal to half the area of the distribution curve." There is nothing very complicated but it is complex in the sense of having many elements and part of the problem of scientific discourse is first of all being sensitised to the existence of long nominals and secondly getting used to sorting them out. This is quite easy to do once you have been shown the rules for doing it but it needs to be known and remembered. Another example that I took out of another book on navigation is all one sentence but, as you will see, it has two parts to it and they are separated in the text by a semi colon. "If one accelerometer is sited in the nose of the craft and a second accelerometer in the stern, each measuring accelerations at right angles to the line of the craft, the difference between the signals for the two pick-offs will be a measure of the angular acceleration of the craft; this signal will therefore have fade advance compared to the rate gyroscope." There is nothing difficult about that except that it is dense, that is to say there are a great many things closely linked together in ways which it is quite easy to teach the learner to sort out but it has to be taught. Right then, quantification, long nominal groups - what about Passives?

We all know that there are a great many passive constructions in scientific texts. I was brought up to believe - I am sure it is quite wrong - that the reason is because scientists are modest people and they do not like talking about "I". They like to have non-personal subjects. I think this is a lot of rubbish. There is another far stronger linguistic reason contained in the nature of the English language.

It happens to be a feature of English syntax that the strongest semantic weight known, the heaviest meaning, is normally placed in an early part of the sentence and if you have a passive you get the idea put early. Instead of saying "We boiled the mixture" you have "The mixture was boiled". In English this is something we are not normally taught but we have discovered it recently. A sentence like "We boiled the mixture" is a sentence basically about 'we', about 'us', whereas a sentence "The mixture was boiled" is a sentence about the mixture, and it is because of this, the placing in terms of word order of the semantic load in English that passives happen to be more appropriate and used more often in scientific language than in non-scientific language. That is only a statistical thing.

That was simply a brief excursion into scientific English and the nature of the discourse of Science to give you a flavour of what is extra in those courses in ESP which are EST course. That is just the first change. All the SP courses are one or the other, either they have or they have not got scientific language in them, roughly speaking.

Now let us go on to a different kind of network of distinctions. All ESP courses are one of two kinds, either occupational or educational, that is to say they are concerned either with the learner's job or with his study - again fairly obvious. Each of these has to be sub-divided as well because it makes a big difference. If you think, for example, of occupational job-oriented special purposes, whether the chap has already learned the job so that you are teaching the English of a job he knows or whether he is learning the English first, knowing that he is later to learn the job. Pre, simultaneous or post. In case you think that the second of these, learning the language at the same time as the job does not happen, there are regular groups of Japanese airline pilots who once they have been selected for pilot training at all, come to Britain for part of their initial air training, their flying training, and are learning English at the same

time. So they are not yet pilots and they are not yet speakers of English, the two are running side by side. Usually it is one or the other, either pre-job language training or else it is language training for someone who has already got the job. The same applies in educational cases too. You can have English for study purposes for people who are already at least partly trained in the study. For example I came across recently a man who was a German dye chemist and he was already a dye chemist. He was learning English because he was coming to work in an English factory for six months to see how the factory of the same group as his own operated. So he was learning the language of the job he knows. But a chemist, a young man who has decided that he wanted to go into dye chemistry and was learning English knowing that he was going to go into dye chemistry, would be in a very different position. There are various other distinctions one can make. Among the educational there is the difference between discipline-based and school-based but I do not think we need bother very much about them. Then of course all ESP courses are subject to the usual kinds of variable. There is a difference according to whether the learners are absolute beginners or whether they are non-beginners. This is not a question of whether they are beginner, intermediate or advanced which I take to be a technical language teaching professional judgment but really a simple statement that if you have not learned the language at all before, you are a different kind of learner for ESP from someone who has already got it. Let me give you an example. One of those areas where ESP courses have been most popular and yet where there has been in some ways the largest number of problems has been in English for business purposes. There have been enormous numbers of courses for businessmen, courses for English businessmen, French businessmen, German and so on. Many of them have been extremely successful and yet another sub-set of them have been unsuccessful. However, looking at the lack of success, it has emerged that the kinds of special purposes that many businessmen have, or think they have, concern negotiating, in other words being a businessman but in a foreign language. Now what has been partly forgotten is that if you are going to use your foreign language for purposes like negotiating contracts, arranging delivery dates, working out specifications, it is a very high level use of language indeed.

The standard of proficiency which you have got to reach in the foreign language has got to be commensurate with the intellectual demands upon you as a professional. Yet what in fact has been happening is that businessmen with those kinds of needs thought they could get them by rather small, short courses. Then there are some businessmen's purposes like simply getting yourself a hotel and finding a way to the place where you have got the meeting tomorrow with the people with whom you are negotiating, which can be met easily. So what has started to happen - I would not say it has been completed yet - is that business courses are now running two tiers and I suspect this has lessons for all of us. The first tier is the beginner's course which is not much more than a survival course, if you like, with a flavour of business in it. Then business courses at a much higher level for people who wish to be able to operate in their professional capacity in the foreign language, are a second stage. The two are being kept rather carefully apart now. You cannot do the second without the first; you can do the first without going on to the second as long you realise what the limitations of each are - and there quite a few - then this is something learned out of our experience of ESP classes. That is one kind of variable. Another kind of variable that applies to all of them concerns the quantity of instruction. ESP courses may have a large number of total hours or a smaller number. They may be highly intensive or less intensive; they may be of shorter or longer duration. These are parameters over which we have quite a lot of control these days and one of the problems in language learning and teaching is to know, to get a professional feel of just how many hundreds of hours can lead to what kind of control in the language in a particular special purpose.

I simply want to remind you that it is far too simplistic to say "Right, let us put on an ESP course for learners and then to assume that we know from that exactly how many hours such a course should be. It depends on a great many other questions as well. It could be more or less as you wish. It is like the Afghan fireman. If Afghan firemen coming for a course of English are simply wanting the English for playing their hoses

under an English foreman, or whatever the term is for a fireman, that is one thing but if, as was the case, they are senior firemen from Afghanistan coming to take the Home Officer Senior Officers' Fire Course then their requirements are different and the number of hours they will require to be taught is different again.

I want to say something about two kinds of problems. There are two kinds, as I am sure your own experience will confirm. The first concerns teachers. For many teachers of languages ESP or special purpose courses are a threat, they cause emotions of fear in a certain specialised sense. I suspect this may be true with some of your colleagues as well. It is certainly true outside the Services. There was a case last year you may have seen in the Press of an English as a foreign language teacher in one of the Bournemouth English language schools who was instructed by the management to teach a course in ESP, refused and was sacked, sued the employer for wrongful dismissal and won the case. The line that was taken was that this was something so special that a teacher could not expect to be required to do it unless he or she had been taken on and employed for the purpose. I mention this only because it is fairly common. A lot of teachers, not all, find anything different from their normal background of training is a problem to get used to. Yet at the other extreme, the other end of the spectrum, there are teachers who have had the experience of organising special purpose courses once, twice, three, five, ten times and who now regard every new ESP course as a challenge, something to provide them with professional satisfaction in meeting. This is, I think, the way we should go. I think we should assume that it is certainly unfamiliar, that it involves problems but that teachers should realise that the advantages I mentioned at the beginning of my talk, the kinds of high rates of success and satisfaction are real and that teachers should assume that every new ESP requirement is surmountable and achievable.

The second problem among teachers, however, is how much of a specialist should the teacher expect to be. I have heard teachers over and over again say to me "But how can I teach ESP? I am not a mathematician, I am not an engineer" and so on. Well, the answer is that those girls I mentioned with the WHO were not doctors. They were not nurses either, they had no specialist medical training but they were first-class teachers and they were prepared to treat this as a challenge. They have already cut their teeth, as you might say, on one or two perhaps less esoteric special purposes courses.

The answer is that of course the teacher has to come to terms with the special discourse of the learners, has to be able to accept that when electronics engineers talk to each other they do so using expressions and having purposes which are not those of the language teacher but that they are perfectly capable of being learned and accepted and worked with. So the teachers have to accept that people talk differently. One of the troubles is that when teachers are trained in the Humanities as is true of 99.9% of teachers outside the Services and some inside the Services, they are trained with such ideas as that scientists talk jargon. Jargon is a perjorative word, it means that when scientists talk, we do not like it, we think it is nasty. These kinds of attitudes die very hard but they do die and can be persuaded to die. Teachers who are not scientists or engineers can very easily learn to give good ESP courses. They can do so especially if they collaborate and the best of all is the collaboration between the subject specialist and the language specialist. Those two together can meet most of the problems.

The second problem, and the last but one I am going to mention, is Materials. The biggest problem of materials is that there are not enough of them. It is too early in ESP for there to be a sufficient range of published materials to cover all our requirements. There is a lot more one could say about materials but I will not say it now.

The final problem is Evaluation, Assessment, Testing - however you want to call it. The trouble is that special purpose language teaching requires specialised assessment procedures and they do not yet exist. The best example that I know of is the English

Language Teaching Development Unit of Oxford University Press, who have developed what they call "The Scale of Attainment Battery." They did this in fact originally under contract for Atlas Copco, the compressed air and compressors firm in Sweden, and they produced, I think, an absolutely excellent scheme of types of evaluation, types of assessment, of testing at different levels within this firm. They get down to considerable detail in what the job description is in terms of language of the various categories of people for whom courses have been offered. I think it is a very good way of looking at it and if you have not got it in your library or have not seen it, do let me commend it to you. It is "The Scale of Attainment Battery" of ELTDU -- It is well worth looking at.

I am going to stop there, ladies and gentlemen, and simply say that I think that ESP is one of the greatest challenges in language teaching. When it is properly met, learners learn well, fast and with satisfaction. In order to achieve that a high degree of professionalism is required for teachers but successful ESP is great fun for everyone including the teacher.

Question: When you were talking about intensive courses you were saying that the benefits to be gained by increasing the number of hours spent on language studies increases the effectiveness of the training proportionately. There was a report done by the CBI a few years ago which recommended that training ceases to be very effective at the bottom, at about 23 hours a week. Would you like to comment on that and say whether you agree with it. But my question really is 'where is the top end?'

Answer: I would make a distinction between the very bottom and what I regard as a normal range and then a super range above. Let me take the normal range of intensity to begin with, that is to say the range below which strange things happen and the range above which you have to take special precautions. I would regard these two points, the upper and lower limits of the normal range, as being about 5 hours a week to about 20. If you start with that for the moment, I would say that within that range, between 5 and 20, the higher the better. In other words the more the proportion of increase seems to operate within that range. Let us get rid of the bottom bit. I regard anything below about 5 hours as being a recipe, not for disaster, but not for very rapid learning.

There are too many opportunities for forgetting and so on; there is no momentum to the learning. It can be done but it is much more difficult proportionally than for higher. Above 20 the problem is different. It is not that you cannot have an increase in view, I think you can, but you have to allow for a number of special effects. You have to allow for fatigue -- for the teacher as well as the learner. You have got to allow for the psychological result of the learner being in contact with the same teacher for such a long period. There are a number of things like this.

Taking those into account and saying "OK, we will meet all those special requirements, you can go on in intensity up to, well certainly the highest I have ever encountered which was 72 hours a week. For this you really do have to take special precautions. The particular people I have first met, those I saw in some detail, were in fact Jesuit Fathers in East Africa. They had come out there to spend most of their lives in pastoral work in those parts of East Africa. They were brought first of all to a college where they were going to learn the local language and the idea was to spend 18 months learning the language. They had got together and said "No, we don't want to waste 18 months of our careers, we would like to work for 72 hours a week and go straight through the whole thing in 6 months", and they were doing so. Now we are not all Jesuit Fathers.

You can do it and indeed Berlitz laid on a special intensive scheme in New York about 4/5 years ago. I think that 72 hours was quoted there as well. It can be done but it requires a lot of special preparation on the part of the teachers as well to give up their time.

Question: Do you include private study in your figures.

Answer: The way I define it is: hours of organised instruction so the private study is organised first, in the sense that those who are in charge of teaching know what the learning is supposed to be while that is going on. Of course there are many learners who do themselves supplement the hours of organised instruction but one cannot allow for that, one doesn't know about it in making figures like this.

I think that is one of the most important developments going on in language teaching anywhere in the world today.

Question: In the development of ESP courses might there not be an inherent danger that we will be developing people who have language handicaps.

Answer: You mean, who cannot do anything outside the job? This is a question of definition. If the needs that they have really are those for the job, then the question does not arise. If, however, underlying your question is the assumption that although those may be the primary aims there may be other as well which we have not actually mentioned, then you have in fact put your finger on one of the things that can go wrong with ESP. They can go wrong for all sorts of unexpected reasons.

What can go wrong is that the customers can change their aims halfway through the course. That is the most frequent example of the manifestation of what you have just raised. There are two reasons why this happens in my experience and that of people I have talked to. The first is because they have not thought enough about it and the consequences of the restricted aims have not been clear to them until well into their actual learning course, when they start saying to themselves "If we can do this with only three weeks of learning, perhaps what we ought to be doing is something much broader, like general conversation". Secondly the other kind of reason for the same kind of doubts about whether the aims negotiated with their teachers are in fact the best ones is when the individuals, particularly the non-academic ones, find that contrary to their own expectations of their personal progress, they are actually learning. It is amazing to me always how often people come to a language course personally believing that they are not going to learn very much. Then the teachers are good and care, and they can in fact be shown that they can learn. When that happens they then start to say "Well perhaps I was too narrow in my specification. I was thinking that that was the most I would be able to learn".

Either of these two things may happen and you may then find yourself in a position in an ESP course starting to go towards one set of aims and the customers really wanting to go towards a broader set. I would not myself go so far as to say that there are always underlying greater aims which ought to be met. I do think that there is a real advantage in being able to specify for a specific case but then, what I want to do is say "Right, stick to this". You may change your feelings of what is possible for you, what is desirable, but stick to this because you are halfway there and to change it would make life too difficult, but make sure that you have another course for your wider aims later.

Question: Are you in fact as well as in principle following a systems approach or systems design in a total context. If so, then you are implying a needs analysis or test analysis. I would like to know more about how you do this, the actual techniques

used. Then related to that is the question of implementation of instruction. In an organisation where you have mixed nationalities you may have a number of specific objectives. Yet you still have to cluster these people in the same classroom or the same groups. How do you handle the general purpose language or common core build up versus the specialised aspects?

Answer: May I answer the second first. I will go back to the answer I gave about businessmen. There is a case for some kind of learners, particularly if you know that their eventual aims are going to be broader rather than more restricted, for saying "Let us teach them a certain amount of general here." It may be that they have a flavour, one Service or one job but then let us get on to something more specialised later. There is a case for doing that. There is equally a case in other individuals for going straight to a course which from the outset is highly specialised. I think you have got to see each lot separately, but to go back to your first question which is a very interesting one. I want to distinguish between the two groups of it. You said you distinguished between the job task analysis and a systems approach for the teaching. I heard the distinction in your question which I would keep apart because although I recognise, accept and approve of a systems approach in general - John Trim is working on a systems approach - I come to a very closely similar position but on a slightly different route. The route through which I have come has been through the construction of a model, for my own satisfaction, of the language learning-language teaching process. In fact I have fairly recently published the first part of that model in working papers in bilingualism. In order to do any job, in order to specify any particular language teaching course henceforth, what I personally feel able to do now which I could not do up to a year or two ago, is to see the process of learning and teaching a language as one reciprocal event as a whole, and trying to see within that what the various elements are that are operating, and what the relationship between them is. With a model of the process in mind then particular sets of learners with their particular requirements can be seen as having optimum part to learn. I don't know whether it is out of order but would you like me to say a brief word about what my model is like? For me total process of learning and teaching a language, that is to say not language acquisition - I am not talking about picking up a language or about a baby learning his mother tongue - I am talking about those cases where language is being learned with the mediation of a teacher. Of course this begs the whole question of 'Did he learn or was he taught' but that is a separate issue. Nevertheless the process as a whole seems to be if we think particularly of public language instruction, it begins first of all with the sociolinguistic facts of the matter, the public will. If in a given society, a given country, people feel that languages should be taught then let them be taught; and it also follows that administration is provided and money to train teachers, and buildings and pension schemes - the whole lot. The joined with that is the contribution of the various professional disciplines because language teaching does not exist in a vacuum in any given country. There is a worldwide profession of language teaching and that draws from linguistics, psychology, social theory, logics, method, educational philosophies and so on. So there are these sources of power, if you like, for the process of the whole. The process if you want to visualise it over here on the mythical chart shows the power focusing eventually on a learner down here because he is where the process takes place. A process is where something is changed over time and what is being changed is something in the learner. We have got a power focusing on the learner. After these two sources of power, the public will and the professional disciplines that help to make it up, there is a whole bunch of things connected with teaching. First of all there is the nature of the teacher, the whole business of ideas of what constitutes a good teacher. Minimum qualities like not having a discouraging personality, like having an adequate command of the language you are teaching, having adequate classroom skills. Secondly there is the whole business of approach, by which I mean the ideology of language teaching. Whether you regard yourself as an audiolingual man or as a cognitive code man and so on. Incidentally I personally would play approach down; it seems to me that the value of an Approach, with a capital 'A', has almost always been administrative in enabling

people to put across new ideas to a large population quickly rather than actually having much effect in the language classroom. But that is a side issue. So, teacher, approach, syllabus; the whole business of the principles of syllabus design has lately been in tremendous ferment. It includes things like John Trim's Council of Europe stuff. That is all part of the principles of syllabus design.

Next I would put materials construction, which is a bit like syllabus design but not identical. There are special criteria to apply. Then the last one in this group of things relevant to teaching is teacher training and there are all sorts of special points in the provision of professional training for teachers that one can say something about. So we have now got the process of beginning with the power of these two elements here, the public will and professional disciplines and the whole series of things that lead to teaching. Then there are two elements in the model which are, if you like, selective filters. So you have got teaching going, but for any given learner or class of learners the kind of learning teaching that is appropriate may be of several different types. For example it depends on the age group. Teaching adults is quite different from teaching small children; teaching adolescents is somewhere between the two. It depends on the level of proficiency; the kind of learning teaching that is appropriate to an advanced learner is subtly different but importantly different from the kind of learning-teaching that is appropriate to an absolute beginner and so on. There is a whole series of things so that the kind of process has to be selected according to the learner's needs.

Finally, there is another selective filter and that is the operation of unavoidable impediments. You know the kind of thing - fatigue, noise. I don't know if you have ever attended a language class during a monsoon in a school with a corrugated iron roof. It does not go very well. This is an unavoidable impediment. There are others. Exam neurosis is another; over-crowding - a classroom with 102 people trying to learn English. So there is a series of impediments which also operate to diminish the effect of the teacher.

We come to the learner himself and he too brings something to the process. He brings his own personal experience, what his own culture and language are, the distance between them and that of the language he is learning, his willingness to learn, whether he is a faster or slower learner, whether he has any preference in learning styles and so on. Now this is my model of the language learning-teaching process and you will see from that brief sketch that it has everything to say for me about how to define the specific language learning-teaching tasks for a particular set of learners. So I am not therefore directly in the systems approach line but I hope you would agree that it is parallel with it and certainly not against it.

Question: Many times one suspects that in the construction of this type of material there is a separation made between the people who design the course. They are the people who go and look at the on-the-job requirement and out of it they produce a whole lot of lexical items, construction of phrase, which they then pass to someone who does not have that knowledge to teach.

Answer: I am glad that the opportunity has come up to say something about this. The communicative purposes of the job, of what one is teaching is all too easy for the learner who does not understand our own professional knowledge of this to think that it is only a matter of learning a list of technical terms. Alas it is not. If it were the whole thing would be easy. In fact what we have got

to recognise is that every single job has its own array of communicative purposes. Somebody mentioned earlier the way in which communicative and functional syllabuses were coming in. The reason why they are coming in is that they enable us to add an extra dimension of reality, an extra dimension of our links with reality in our teaching because we are not saying "You have got to know the difference between port and starboard instead of left and right". You are also saying that there is a whole range of communicative requirements for someone doing this job in an aircraft or on a ship and that they are like and unlike the minimum requirements of this person who is in the engine room of a ship or who is a flight lieutenant or whatever, and that there are some things in common. Now you cannot list these easily therefore they cannot be very learned. I am sure however that one has to say that in the circumstances you are talking about the teacher has to be aware, even though the learner is not, not just of the structures and vocabulary but of the communicative purposes and how those purposes are in fact handled in language.

PRESENTATION BY BUNDES.SPRACHENAMT

THE PROBLEMS OF TERMINOLOGY, TRANSLATION
AND INTERPRETING IN THE BUNDES.SPRACHENAMT

Given by Herr K E Berner

I should like to begin by giving you a free translation of a quotation from Ortega y Gasset reading as follows:

"It is man's fate, privilege and honour to never quite achieve what he resolves to do and to be a mere claim to perfection, a living utopia ... This is also how the matter stands with the modest activity that we call translating. There is scarcely a more inferior kind of work in the intellectual hierarchy, but in the last analysis it proves to be extraordinary."

The words of the philosopher admonish us to be modest, but at the same time they are encouraging. They are, therefore, a fitting leitmotiv for the members of the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service working as translators and interpreters at the Federal Office of Languages, in the Language Service Sections of the Military District Administrative Offices and in the Language Service Groups of military agencies. The "extra-ordinariness" of translating information from one language into another - using a human "converter" connected between the "transmitter" and the "receiver" - has, in practice, been underlined to such a degree by ever increasing international interdependence that now it does not appear too daring to describe optimum worldwide communication without interpreters and translators as "utopian", to revert to Gasset. For this reason the Federal Armed Forces, which were and still are reliant on closely meshed cooperation with the allied armed forces of the NATO states for accomplishment of their defence mission, possess an autonomous organisation, which has evolved in the course of the past 20 years, for preparing and achieving communication in foreign languages - this is the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service. The Federal Office of Languages occupies a central position within this service. When, in the following, I refer to the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service I am speaking only of that sector which is tasked with translating or interpreting. The Language Section of the Federal Ministry of Defence - constituting the top level of this organization - is not included.

I should first like to describe tasks, staffing and equipment as well as fundamental organizational features of Language Service Groups, and then, using an example, give you a rough outline of appropriate functional processes.

Tasks

These are of two kinds:

1. The translation of manuals, regulations, reports, operation orders, etc.
2. Interpreting at meetings and discussions (actual conference interpreting is basically the responsibility of the Language Sections of the Federal Ministry of Defence or the Federal Office for Military Technology and Procurement).

For the accomplishment of the first task, the division of work between the Linguistic Services Division (Translating and Interpreting) of the Federal Office of Languages and the other Language Service Groups is

arranged in a practical way so that predominantly large-scale projects, such as those arising from weapon system-related documents, research and development documents and regulations are translated at the Federal Office of Languages. On the other hand, the work of the Language Service Section in one of the Military Districts or even in a language service group of a military agency (e.g. the General Air Force Office) or of a corps headquarters consists mainly in translating correspondence and documents such as those resulting from the preparation and performance of NATO exercises, for instance.

The second type of tasks related to multilingual communication which is accomplished by inserting "human converters" is limited mainly, as already mentioned, to the performance of interpreting missions in connection with exercises and/or training programmes (for example, for the Leopard weapon system).

Personnel

The performance of the above-mentioned tasks is the duty of approximately 620 civilian employees in the Federal Office of Languages and the other language service groups and sections. They are subdivided as follows into the various functional groups:

approximately 310 translators (who are also given interpreting assignments).
" 85 revisors (also occasionally employed as interpreters)
" 25 lexicographers/terminologists
" 200 foreign language secretaries (who occasionally perform easy interpreting assignments).

In addition, there are typists, who prepare the fair copies of texts that have been translated into German, and a proportionate number of management and administrative personnel

The translators form the nucleus. It is they who effect the actual translation process, the personified "converters", to use the terminology of a communication model.

The revisors act as the second and final linguistic and technical instance. They give the end product the finishing touch, so to speak.

The lexicographers/terminologists perform an auxiliary service within the translation process, in other words, they ensure the provision of terminology that has already been compiled in a form tailored to the needs of the respective user; in addition, they record new equivalent terms occurring in practically every translation and make them available for subsequent use as soon as possible and processed in lexicographic form.

The foreign language secretaries participate, on the one hand, in the actual translation process (e.g. by compiling text-related enquiry lists) and, later on, by writing the fair copies of texts that have been translated from German into the respective foreign language. On the other hand, they are also employed quite independently in translating simple texts and performing easy interpreting tasks.

Owing to the different structures of the public services within the NATO countries it is impossible to make a detailed and conclusive comparison of pay grades, but to give you an idea of the status of Federal Armed Forces civilian foreign language personnel in comparison

with other professional groups let me make a comparison with military ranks. The picture which results from such a simplified comparison is as follows:

Translators would hold the rank of lieutenant to - in a few isolated cases - major;

Revisors would be assigned the rank of major to lieutenant colonel;

Lexicographers/Terminologists would be placed in the range of lieutenant to captain;

Foreign language secretaries would be equivalent to sergeants or, at the most, first lieutenants (specialist officer).

The respective position held within this spectrum depends on educational background, activity and length of service in the particular profession.

If one considers the relatively high number of duty positions to be filled and the four functional groups within the Languages Service that must be clearly distinguished from one another, the question will probably soon arise as to how the recruitment and integration of suitable employees can be achieved. Thus to the high status given to the knowledge of foreign languages in the German citizen's view of the world, personnel available in the Federal Republic of Germany is structured relatively favourably compared with other countries. Thus, there are 3 university institutes alone which train translators and interpreters, and in addition to these, a corresponding faculty at the Cologne Technical College and a great number of private training institutes of varying quality. The fact that this wide reservoir is not adequate to cover the requirements for technical translators (meaning above all the translator who works on scientific or technical texts) can only be explained by the high standards of the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service. It is for this reason that an internal training scheme for technical translators was instituted some time ago at the Federal Office of Languages in order to provide an additional means of covering requirements. It has proved successful.

In view of the number of training alternatives I have indicated which are available to applicants in the field of linguistic professions in the Federal Republic of Germany it was absolutely necessary - as the standard of each training establishment naturally cannot be known - that the employment of language service personnel in the Federal Armed Forces sector be preceded by a centralized aptitude test held under conditions, which are specifically defined. This aptitude test is carried out for translators, revisors and lexicographers/terminologists at the Federal Office of Languages as a rule, whereas the responsibility for examining foreign language secretaries has been assigned to the Language Service Groups of the Military District Administrative Offices. Apart from purely professional considerations, the possible employment of personnel in billets to be filled in the military sector plays a considerable part in the selection of suitable applicants. Ladies, who make up a high proportion of the applicants, are often less suitable for duty of this kind since, if employed at a division headquarters for instance, they are likely to be less able to cope with the hardships and difficulties of a translating or interpreting assignment during a field exercise. However, this trend of giving preference to male applicants is due merely to given biological facts and not to the application of an antiquated, misogynic ideology.

Now I should like to move from a description of the craftsman to that of his tools.

Equipment

In the light of the imposing array of aids that the translators, interpreters, revisors, lexicographers and foreign language secretaries of the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service, particularly at the Federal Office of Languages, have at their disposal, the term tools is probably rather an understatement. The translator has the following, partly quite sophisticated means at his disposal for preparing and ultimately processing a translation:

- the centralized computer store with its vocabulary that is being continuously updated; the present overall number of entries is over 1 million,
- microfiches, which are distributed at approximately six-monthly intervals and contain a reasonably up-to-date number of computer entries, together with the appropriate readers,
- facilities for conversational communication (to date, limited to the Federal Office of Languages and the Federal Armed Forces Materiel Office) with the vocabulary storage.
- constantly updated editions of monolingual and multilingual conventional dictionaries,
- comprehensive literature for reference on scientific and scientific-technical subjects - including, of course, linguistic literature,
- technical publications on military affairs, technology and natural sciences.

Access to these computerized and/or conventional vocabulary compilations and reference material is, as far as the computer is concerned, possible by means of text-related and subject field-related enquiries or by using the microfiche readers; conventional dictionaries, technical books and publications are available in libraries for ready reference, group libraries or central libraries. This hierarchical access system is necessitated by the impossibility of comprehensively stocking ready reference libraries. For recording the target language version of the original text as produced by the translator using the aids I have just mentioned, the following equipment is available:

- typewriters (electric or mechanical)
- dictating machines
- composers
- duplicators.

It should be reiterated that the fair copies are written, by typists where texts translated into German are concerned, or by appropriately trained foreign language secretaries in the case of texts to be translated into the foreign language. The practical combination of man and material for the optimum accomplishment of the communication tasks set to the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service is organized as follows:

Allocation and Supervision of Work

Regulations, large-scale projects and particularly difficult or important translations as well as the preparation of translations of documents for weapon systems are dealt with at the Federal Office of Languages.

In addition, the Federal Office of Languages exercises technical supervision over all its subordinate agencies at home and abroad which includes a system for avoiding duplicate translations.

The Language Service Sections of the Military District Administrative Offices or the Federal Armed Forces Administrative Offices abroad are responsible for accomplishing the language service tasks resulting from regionally limited activities. These sections also exercise technical supervision over the language service groups in their district responsible for local affairs.

The lowest organizational level of language service groups is with the military offices and headquarters. They perform whatever linguistic work has to be done there.

Division into Subject Fields and/or Languages

The effect of the increasing number of difficult texts originating from scientific or scientific-technical subject fields has been that - as far as possible - even the smallest organizational elements of linguistic service are organized in accordance with a subdivision into subject fields instead of languages. Thus, if possible, a translator/revisor group will be formed as an "Electronics" or "Logistics" group with the necessary working languages being combined in this group.

By their very nature, very small language service groups are neither suited to such specialization on a subject field, nor a language.

Revision of Translations

Based on experience gained through years, the progress of activity in the fields of scientific or scientific-technical specialization to be mastered by translators necessitates a high degree of technical expertise and linguistic ability in the second instance in order to ensure quality of translation. Every single translation produced by the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service - and in particular by the Federal Office of Languages - is revised technically and linguistically as a matter of principle. Experience has shown that a group of three translators and one revisor is to be considered as the best possible combination at present. As already mentioned, these groups are established as subject field groups, if possible. Only where this is not possible are they formed on the basis of languages. A translator working independently without any form of quality control can only be accepted in cases where the formation of a revisor/translator group is ruled out for economic reasons. In this context, it should not be withheld that the close hierarchical relationship of highly qualified employees, which is what translators are, to a higher authority that is always intervening has occasionally produced conflicts for reasons of misconceived professional pride or also because of actual "transgressions" on the part of the revisor. It should be mentioned in passing that for this reason the selection of revisors must take into consideration not only their technical and linguistic qualifications, which are absolutely essential, but also qualities with regard to the leadership and guidance of personnel.

Provision of Terminology

The technical terminology gathered in the central storage is fed from many different sources which also include the translators and revisors who, in the translation process, acquire new vocabulary and sometimes

also create original terms. The technical vocabulary is processed in the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service by the organizational elements established especially for that purpose on the basis of linguistic and data processing considerations and made available for subsequent use. The uses of terminology in addition to its application in the translation process cannot be discussed in this context as this would exceed the limits of my presentation. A description of the essential aspects of the problem of terminology and of its solution would in any case require a presentation of its own. At this point it should only be stressed that the employment of personnel specifically for processing and providing terminology has shown itself to be indispensable in view of the size of our language service and has proved its worth.

Example of a Functional Process

Taking the execution of a translation order as an example, I would like to present a rough outline of the functional process, i.e., the cooperation of the various people I have mentioned before, considering the utilization of material resources within the given organization.

Once the order has been received, it is assigned to the group of translators/revisors responsible for the subject field and language concerned. There it is subjected to preparatory terminological scrutiny meaning - above all - that a foreign language secretary prepares a text-related inquiry listing the unknown terms in accordance with the translator's instructions. After the text has been prepared terminologically as far as possible, while resorting to the other facilities I have mentioned before, the actual translation process is started. The draft is dictated by the translator and then goes to the revisor, who examines it as to linguistic and factual accuracy and, if necessary, provides for terminological standardization and stylistic finishing touches. The draft thus processed is passed on to the foreign language secretary or to the typist, depending on its target language, to be written as a fair copy. The fair copy then is read once again jointly with the translator, who in this way can take note of the revisor's modifications and use them for his own benefit. Strictly speaking, however, translation work is finished only after the text-related enquiry has been completed, i.e., not until those terms, for which no translation is stored in the computer, have been translated by terms which translator and revisor consider suitable for all practical purposes. The new terms then are fed into the computer by the lexicographers/terminologists. Like a continuous cycle, this contributes to a permanent extension of the terminology base.

Results

Interaction of man and material within the organizational forms I have described produced the following results for 1976:

Pages translated	Federal Office of Languages	Subordinate Language Service	Total
English	73,926	126,019	199,945
French	16,665	29,025	45,690
Other Western Languages	3,106	9,817	12,923
Russian	11,848	3,499	15,347
Other Eastern Languages	2,774	898	3,672
Miscellaneous	2,626	264	2,890
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	110,945	169,522	280,467

Pages Revised	Federal Office of Languages	Subordinate Language Service	Total
English	73,926	48,892	122,818
French	16,648	14,209	30,857
Other Western Languages	3,036	3,740	6,776
Russian	11,824	136	11,960
Other Eastern Languages	2,768	-	2,768
Miscellaneous	2,626	60	2,686
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	110,828	67,037	177,865

Hours of Interpreting	Federal Office of Languages	Subordinate Language Service	Total
English	1,157	27,417	28,574
French	80	11,002	11,082
Other Western Languages	440	3,780	4,220
Russian	-	20	20
Other Eastern Languages	14	-	14
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	1,691	42,219	43,219

Conclusions

I am aware of the fact that by a short presentation, the tasks and activities of a modern language service could only be described incompletely. On the other hand, a more detailed description of an undertaking like the Federal Armed Forces Languages Service certainly would have overstrained your patience. The discussion

planned after the tea break will offer the opportunity to elaborate on one or the other aspect. If I may, however, I would like to add the following remarks. There are limits to the extension of any language service, which do not originate in economic considerations; to a certain degree, ladies and gentlemen, you are also responsible for these limitations.

For it is you who, by the increasingly sophisticated language training you are providing for officers, civil servants technicians, and scientists are causing a downward trend to develop as far as the requirements - in some areas - for full-time translators and interpreters are concerned. Above all, I am thinking of all kinds of translations of telex messages, conventional correspondence as well as easy texts or texts of medium difficulty which, in the past, frequently have been necessary.

Now, if the market for scientific-technical translations - translations characterized by increasing specialization and difficulty - would not simultaneously be expanding as rapidly as it does, then the translator's and interpreter's profession would soon have to be declared as lacking any future.

In conclusion, I would like to express my hopes that my presentation on translating and interpreting has been a contribution - to quote Ortega y Gasset once more - toward the renewal of "the prestige of this activity and its appraisal as first-rate intellectual work. Should that happen, then the result would be a transformation of translating into a science sui generis which, as long as it is maintained permanently, would develop a technique of its own for extending the network of paths followed by human thought which would prove to be excellent."

Thank you for your attention.

STUDY GROUP REPORT

THE PROBLEMS OF EMPLOYING NATIVE OR NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS AS LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS

Presented by: Lt Col O B Taylor

1. INTRODUCTION

The Study Group spent much of its time discussing the characteristics of the ideal native teacher, and commenting on factors which reduced the possibility of such a paragon being available for recruitment.

However, the Group also considered that the non-native teacher has certain positive assets, and accordingly suggested that a language faculty would ideally comprise native and non-native teachers. The proportion between the two would depend on a number of factors - the size of the faculty being a major one.

The Group found itself, inevitably, sometimes discussing the characteristics of the ideal teacher. It discussed for example, the need that the teacher should:

- a. have a background compatible with the technical objectives the student has for learning a foreign language,
- b. have a personality such that he would have an acceptable attitude to potentially controversial topics which might arise in discussion with students,
- c. have the energy and attitudes and flexibility to relate to the particular attitudes, views, problems and energy of the age group he is teaching.

2. The Ideal Native Teacher (INT)

The Study Group identified two sets of criteria - personal and professional.

a. Personal Criteria

- (1) The INT should have spoken the language as a child (although all members of his immediate family might not use the language).
- (2) The INT should have used the language for education up to and including secondary school (age 18 years). The school must have been in the country of the language - not a school in exile.
- (3) He must have used the language at work to a minimum of age 25 years. The working group must have been in the country of the language and not in exile.

It will be noted that these three criteria reflect the necessity that the teacher should be familiar with the culture as well as with the language. (In this respect, the Study Group heard that the US Foreign Service Institute refer to their teachers as "language and culture instructors").

(4) The INT must speak and control the standard language, and know something of the variants.

(5) The INT must have had recent contact with the mother language and culture. (The Group noted that some native teachers left their native country many years ago and are now unable or unwilling to return for refresher experience).

b. Professional Criteria

(1) Level of education. A university degree is desirable, to indicate that the teacher understands the educational process. This education beyond secondary level does not necessarily have to be acquired in the teacher's native language.

(2) A knowledge of linguistics as applied to language teaching is desirable, particularly when student groups are of mixed nationality. (The Study Group noted that teachers with these levels of professional training may be impossible to recruit for some languages, because of the small reservoir, and the competition of more attractive employments).

(3) A knowledge of the students' language is desirable. In the case of groups of mixed nationality, it is still desirable that the teacher should speak one of the languages. (It gives the teacher contrastive experience and improves his creditibility as a language teacher/learner with his students).

(4) A knowledge of the School Administration language will facilitate his conformity to school administration and routine.

3. Teaching Problems Encountered by Native Teachers

The Study Group, during the discussions about the ideal native teacher, identified a number of problems which may be encountered by the native teacher who is teaching his language outside his own linguistic and cultural environment. Some of these are listed below;

a. Methodological. The INT may not be accustomed to the methodology of the employing country or institute.

b. Attitudinal/motivational. The student-teacher relationship expected by the institute and its students may be different from that in the INT's own country.

The INT may have a different view of his own language from that of the institute, regarding, for example, the purity, sanctity or precedence among the variant forms of the language. He may

be unwilling to accept that changes and developments are taking place in his own language.

c. Socio-cultural. He may find it difficult to adapt to the host culture and to administrative or other changes in the institute.

d. Subject matter problems.

(1) He may not appreciate the student's problems when the student encounters structural or grammatical concepts which are alien to the student's experience.

(2) He may not have sufficient knowledge of the student's language to deal with translation work.

(3) He may be too willing to accept an imperfect performance by the student.

4. Administrative and Legal Problems in Employing Native Teachers

The Study Group noted a number of problems which affect the recruitment in some countries of native teachers. Some examples are:

a. Work permits. These are frequently required.

b. Some countries do not give permanent-employment status to foreigners, and they, lacking job security, are unwilling to take up jobs.

c. In some countries, security clearance of teachers from certain countries is so difficult to obtain that non-native teachers have to be employed.

d. The requirement in some countries to recruit from within the public service reduces the opportunities of recruiting native teachers with recent linguistic and cultural experience of the mother-tongue country.

e. The native/non-native distinction is illegal in some countries. Job descriptions must therefore be based on a hierarchy of skill levels.

5. Corrective Measures Available

The Study Group recognized that some of the problems associated with the recruitment of native teachers and the maintenance of their proficiency and knowledge can be overcome by pre-service and in-service training, by professional development training and by periodic visits to the mother-tongue environment.

6. Categories of Near-Native/Non-Native Teachers

Before considering the advantages of non-native teachers, the Study Group noted that there are infinite gradations from native through near-native to non-native teachers. Examples would be:

a. A family which some time in the past emigrated, would have had children who started life in the mother culture but who completed their education in the host country and were subsequently recruited as language teachers. Gradations would depend on the age of the teacher when the family emigrated, the size of the immigrant country, the closeness of family ties, the degree of assimilation etc.

b. A teacher who is born in one country, moves to a second and learns its language, then emigrates to the host country and is employed as a teacher of his second language. Gradations would depend on the relative lengths of time he had spent in the two countries, the recency of his experience, as well as many of the factors listed at a. above.

7. Advantages of Non-Native Teachers

The Study Group considered that the advantages of the non-native teacher would be in the domain of teaching; the non-native would never match the inherent linguistic and cultural background of the ideal native teacher. There is obviously, however, a minimum acceptable level of language proficiency which must be demanded of the non-native teacher and the Study Group put this at Stanag Level 4. Experience of the culture will also affect his efficiency and credibility.

8. Teaching Advantages

a. If the teachers are of the same language and culture as the student:

(1) He is more familiar with the student's learning problems and is more able to sense when a student does have such a problem.

(2) Students often relate better to a teacher who has had to master the language himself.

(3) Familiarity with the student's culture enables him to motivate the student more effectively - particularly the low-ability student.

b. If the teacher is of the same language and culture as the institute administration:

(1) He is more likely to be responsive to the system in which he works.

(2) He is more likely to accept change in the system.

NATIONAL REPORT - ITALY

(presented by Major Italo LOTTICI)

"TESTO UNIFICATO DI LINGUA INGLESE PER LE FF.AA."

(ENGLISH LANGUAGE STANDARDIZED TEST FOR ITALIAN ARMED FORCES)

1. PURPOSE OF TEST

The "Testo Unificato di lingua Inglese per le FF.AA." is designed to determine the English Language proficiency level of the Italian Armed Forces Officers and NCOs.

The proficiency levels are three and they are defined on the basis of the Test score as we shall see later.

This test provides:

- a. an objective judgement for all the examinees;
- b. the possibility to examine several students at the same time.

2. GENERALITIES OF TEST

The Test consists of four parts:

- Part A : listening comprehension, containing 4 exercises with a total of 85 items;
- Part B : speaking ability, containing 2 exercises with a total of 60 items;
- Part C : reading comprehension, containing 13 items;
- Part D : writing ability, containing 3 exercises with a total of 140 items.

Summing up there are 298 items.

All the items, but those belonging to the last exercise of the Part D, are of the multiple-choice type, with four possible answers to each one.

The maximum score is 100 when all the examinations are correct. Every exercise has its own score as we shall see later.

The following score limits define the proficiency levels :

- to 49.95 points no practical proficiency;
- from 50 to 64.95 : first level;
- from 65 to 85.95 : second level;
- from 86 to 100 : third level.

3. SPECIFICATION OF EXERCISES

Part A - It is recorded on tape and is designed to determine the student's ability to understand spoken English.

It consists of four exercises :

- the first one is on the phonetic discrimination.
The student has to select, among a group of 4 words written on the answer-sheet, the word he has heard on the tape-recorder. He indicates his choice by crossing the letter (a - b - c or d) put under each one of the above mentioned four written words. This exercise contains 50 items.
Time limit: for each answer 4 seconds are available.
Score : 0.05 per each correct item.
- The second exercise is on the comprehension of easy questions. On the tape-recorder a question is read to the student; after that, four possible answers are read. The student has to choose one of the four answers which he considers the most suitable for the question he has previously heard.
To indicate his choice the student must cross, on the answer-sheet, the corresponding letter a - b - c or d.
This exercise contains 15 items.
Time limit : for each answer 5 seconds are available.
Score : 0.50 per each correct item.
- The third and the fourth exercise are about the comprehension of short passages and every day conversations respectively. For both of them the solution is indicated as the previous exercise.
Both of them consist of 10 examinations.
Time limit : in both exercises 5 seconds are available for each item.
Score: 1.00 per each correct item.

Part B - It aims to check the oral expression (speaking ability). It consists of two sorts of 30 item exercises

- The first one is on the search of words containing the same sound.
In the test booklet 30 groups of 5 words are written. In each group the examinee must choose, by putting a cross on it, the word which contains the same sound indicated in the first of the five words.
Time limit : for each answer 16 seconds are available.
Score : 0.20 per each correct item.
- The second exercise is about the search of the stress.
In the booklet 30 words are reported.
In each word the student must put a cross on the syllable where it is stressed.
Time limit : for each answer 6 seconds are available.
Score: 0.20 per each correct item.

Part C - It is designed to test the student's ability to understand what he has read.

In the test-booklet there are 13 passages to be read.

Below each one of them four possible sentences related to the reading are written. They are marked respectively by the letters a - b - c and d.

The student, after reading, must select the correct sentence and indicate his choice by crossing the right letter.

Time limit : for the whole exercise 32 minutes, 30 seconds are available, that is, on an average 2 minutes and 30 seconds per passage.

Score : 1.00 per each correct answer.

Part D - The purpose of this part is to test the student's ability in writing.

It consists of 3 types of exercises. In each one there is a different problem to be solved.

Each exercise is written in the test-booklet.

- In the first exercise the student has to solve lexical problems, that is, he has to choose the right word, among four, suitable to fill a blank left in a sentence.

This exercise contains 50 sentences.

Time limit : for each answer 12 seconds are available.

Score : 0.20 per each correct answer.

- The second exercise concerns grammatical problems.

The examinee must select the grammatically correct single word or very short expression, of the four available, suitable to fill a blank left in each one of the 50 sentences of the exercise.

Time limit: for each answer 18 seconds are available.

Score : 0.30 per each correct answer.

In both these two previous exercises the four possible answers are written below the sentence to be completed.

In both of them the student indicates his choice in the same manner as he has done in Part C.

- The last examination is designed to display the nominee's knowledge of vocabulary and the language structures and his ability in carrying out mental processes.

As a matter of fact he has to complete a sentence by changing another one given to him.

This exercise consists of 40 two-sentence groups.

Time limit: for each examination 25 seconds are available.

Score : 0.50 per each correct answer.

4. MARKING

Students work is marked by the examiner with the aid of a marking key.

Credit is not given to the items marked by more than one cross or to those with scrawls.

5. MISCELLANEOUS

- a. The test will be used for 2 years. After that period it is down graded and filed: it can be used for training purposes.
- b. The test is a restricted document and it should be handled as such.
- c. Four auxiliary booklets go with the Test-Booklet. They are:
 - Administration manual (for the examiner);
 - Instructions for how to do the exercises (for the examinee);
 - Marking-key (for the examiner);
 - Marking instructions (for the examiner).

USA (DLIELC) REPORT

This Report was presented by Mr John Devine and was based upon the texts of the following reports.

DLIEL NACTEFL REPORT: 22 NOVEMBER 1976

INTRODUCTION

1. On 1 January 1976, the Defense Language Institute English Language Center (DLIEL) was detached as an activity under Headquarters, Defense Language Institute (DLI) and was established under the US Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) as a separate Center. The DLI headquarters element was disestablished and the DLI Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, California, also established as a separate activity under TRADOC.
2. Effective 1 October 1976, DLIEL came under the technical and operational control of the US Air Force (USAF). The Secretary of the Army remains the executive agent for foreign language training of US military personnel. The Secretary of the Air Force has been designated the executive agent for English language training of foreign military personnel, and US military personnel enrolled in English language training programs. Foreign military personnel are trained under the Security Assistance Training Program.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING ACTIVITIES

1. Continental United States (CONUS)
 - a. The mission of DLIEL is to provide foreign military trainees (FMT) with the functional language proficiency required for entry into follow-on technical and/or professional training programs in CONUS. During the period 1 July 1975 to 30 September 1976, approximately 6,000 FMT completed English language training at DLIEL. Approximately 5,500 FMT are scheduled for FY 77. The majority of these students are from the Middle East and are programmed for CONUS training by Foreign Military Sales (FMS) cases. Only a very small percentage of FMTs are now programmed by Grant Aid. Duration of English language training at DLIEL is based on FMT's prior knowledge of English (if any), and the English language proficiency level required to enter follow-on training.

b. DLIEL also conducts TEFL instructor training courses for FMT personnel who conduct English language training programs in their homelands. The basic instructor course is a 7-week program conducted eight times annually. The refresher course is a 13-week program conducted four times annually. The Advanced Program in English Language Training Systems (APELTS) is an 8-week course designed for FMT personnel who are (or will be) assigned to managerial and/or supervisory positions in their military English language training programs. Two sessions are scheduled annually.

c. DLIEL conducts On-the-Job Training (OJT) for FMT to be trained as language laboratory maintenance personnel.

d. A 4-week Language Training Detachment Management Orientation Course is conducted as required for DLIEL personnel who are selected for overseas assignments as DLI Language Training Detachments (LTD). This course familiarizes LTD personnel with their future responsibilities and the culture and customs of the country in which they will be working as Language advisors in military English language programs.

e. DLIEL continues to support English language training programs for non-native English-speaking US military personnel who require a functional proficiency in English. This support consists of technical advice and assistance and distribution of training materials.

2. Overseas Training Activities

a. DLIEL currently has Language Training Detachment (LTD) personnel in eight countries. With the reduction in Grant Aid programs, the number of LTDs have been reduced over the past several years.

b. DLIEL continues to provide Language Training Specialists as Mobile Training Teams (MTT) on temporary duty overseas. MTT personnel provide a variety of professional services to support in-country military English language training programs.

c. DLIEL serves as technical advisor and Contracting Office Representative (COR) in government-to-government FMS cases as required. It continues to serve as the COR for monitoring the contract-provided TEFL instructors who are teaching at the Imperial Iranian Navy (IIN) school in Rasht/Bandar Pahlavi, Iran.

The present contractor is the DATEX Corporation, California. These instructor personnel continue to meet or exceed the DLIEL specified professional qualifications. Both IIN and USN personnel have expressed their satisfaction.

3. American Language Curriculum and Testing Activities

- a. American Language Course (ALC) Pre-elementary materials have been developed during the past year. These materials are designed to meet the needs of students who are literate in their own language, but lack the basic English language skills necessary for entry into the ALC.
- b. Two volumes (Communication Phase I and II) have been formally integrated into the ALC. These are basically review texts designed to provide the student with the opportunity for additional intensive study of materials previously studied.
- c. DLIEL has a continuing requirement to develop specialized terminology texts to support special Foreign Military Sales (FMS) training requirements.
- d. DLIEL has continuing requirements to develop English Comprehension Level (ECL) tests as well as ALC Quizzes and Placement Tests.

4. Professional TESOL Activities

- a. DLIEL did not sponsor its Master Lecture Series during the past year; however, this series will be resumed in FY 77 with one professional speaker per quarter. In FY 76, DLIEL continued professional staff and faculty development by contracting for workshops, e.g., use of visual aids in TESOL; English language learning problems of Arabic-speaking students; intercultural problems encountered in teaching non-native English speakers; etc. Greater emphasis is being placed on formalizing and increasing formal in-service training programs for staff and faculty, making maximum use of both DLIEL and professional civilian resources.
- b. The basic DLIEL English language instructor course has been written in a self-paced instructional format. In conjunction with this activity, DLIEL has started to develop video-tape packages on TESOL teaching techniques; teaching problems of specific language groups, e.g., Arabic/Farsi-speakers studying English; etc.

c. DLIEL continues to support faculty requests for tuition assistance to attend local universities which conduct undergraduate/graduate ESL courses or other job-related courses. The University of Texas at San Antonio (UTSA) conducts an ESL course each semester at DLIEL. Approximately 40-50 DLIEL faculty are enrolled in UTSA each semester.

INTRODUCTION

1. The following report is an update of the DLIELC report submitted to NACTEFL 22 November 1976. This report includes the projected language training activities for CY 77 and an update of the 1976 report.
2. DLIELC is now in the transition phase from the Department of the Army to the Department of the Air Force and will remain as the DOD Defense Language Institute, English Language Center at Lackland AFB. As noted in the 1976 report, the Secretary of the Air Force has been designated the executive agent for the English language training of foreign military personnel, and US military personnel enrolled in the DOD Command English Language Program (CELP).

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING ACTIVITIES

1. Continental United States (CONUS)
 - a. The projected FY 77 student load of approximately 5,500 foreign military trainees entering DLIELC for English language training remains unchanged.
 - b. DLIELC has been and will continue hiring TEFL instructor personnel. Many individuals now being certified as applicants by the US Civil Service Commission have bachelor and master degrees in TEFL and/or applied linguistics. A number of individuals with doctorate degrees in linguistics, or related fields, have been hired.
 - c. DLIELC is continuing its efforts to support English language training programs for non-native English-speaking US military personnel. An extensive survey has been completed on these requirements. Several modified English language training programs are being designed to meet these needs. These efforts are in support of the Command English Language Program (CELP).
2. Overseas Training Activities
 - a. DLIELC Language Training Detachments are functioning in ten (10) countries. Several requirements for the temporary assistance of an English Language Specialist to assist host countries in improving their English language programs are also being met by the use of Mobile Training Teams.

NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

The National Advisory Council of the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (NACTEFL) was established in 1962 on the recommendations of a conference called in Washington by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) at the request of the United States International Cooperation Administration (now AID). The conference was attended by representatives of key universities, foundations, U.S. Government agencies with interests in the teaching of English overseas, and a number of other organizations. The Council has since then acted in an advisory capacity to government agencies and foundations, and has represented the academic community in relating university and other private resources to the national effort. Throughout its existence the Council has not only provided an informal, scholarly background for the exchange of information and ideas among these groups, but it has been influential in the field.

The Council has been composed of six to ten established scholars in this field. It meets at least once a year with representatives of government agencies, foundations, and other organizations. The TESOL Association (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) is always represented by its Executive Secretary. The Council hears reports on the activities of these agencies and organizations and issues its conclusions in Decisions which are submitted by the Center to the heads of various agencies.

DLIEL has been a member of NACTEFL since 1963. At each annual meeting, a DLIEL representative presents an informational report on the English language training activities of the past year.

b. DATEX Corporation, California, has had its contract to furnish qualified TEFL instructor personnel to the Imperial Iranian Navy in Iran renewed for one year. DLIELC will train replacements/additions as required.

3. American Language Curriculum and Testing Activities

a. The Pre-Elementary American Language Course (ALC) material developed especially for students with virtually no prior study of English and who also need basic language skills necessary for entry into the regular ALC curriculum has been implemented at DLIELC. Results to date are favorable.

b. Major projected curriculum activities concern the revision of the ALC specialized terminology texts. The ALC general language texts will also be in the process of revision.

4. Professional TESOL Activities

a. On 9 December 1976, Dr Ron Cowen presented the first presentation of the FY 77 Master TESOL Lecture Series. His paper entitled Analysis in EFL Teaching was very well received. Informal seminars on 10 December gave many instructors the opportunity to discuss specific teaching problems with Dr Cowen.

b. On 9 March 1977, Dr Donald Knapp presented the second of the four lectures in the current series. Dr Knapp's paper, entitled "Developing Reading Comprehension Skills with Particular Application to Arab Readers of English," provided many practical classroom techniques. On 10 March, Dr Knapp conducted informal seminar sessions with the instructors.

USA (DLI) Report

Presented by Dr J Hutchinson

About 5 years ago I had the opportunity of informing the BILC Conference about the status of the US Army Europe Command Language Program. Since then that program has doubled in size. There are now 25,000 students or 11% of the total military population in classes in 155 education centres in Belgium, Holland, Germany, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Saudi-Arabia and Iran. There are 425 instructors and 55 language laboratory monitors providing basic to advanced refresher maintenance, and specialised job-related training in the NATO and Warsaw Pact languages, and in key Middle Eastern, Far Eastern and African languages in Courses of 40 to 600 hours duration.

Since 1967, a series of 18 special purpose, job-connected and mission orientated programs have been developed in the host nation languages and in English as a second language. There are programs with specialised situational and terminology content prepared in the audio-lingual classroom/laboratory made and designed for

- a. Military policemen
- b. Customs policemen
- c. Border patrol units
- d. Division, Brigade and battalion Commanders
- e. Other officers and Senior non-commissioned officers
- f. Other enlisted personnel
- g. Special forces personnel
- h. Military intelligence and security personnel
- i. US soldiers in German prisons

In addition there are English as a second language programs for

- a. Non-English speaking US soldiers
- b. Italian Carabinieri assigned to US installations
- c. Indigenous personnel of US Forces warehouses, commissaries, motor pools and printing plants
- d. German City and State policemen

The latest special purpose project is rather ambitious. It is now in its final preparation stages and I shall give you a very brief description of its purpose and developments.

The purpose of this program is to foster something called 'interoperability' in NATO circles. This program is to foster the ability to function together by enhancing communication in US Army-allied army cross-attachment situations. A cross-attachment situation occurs when an allied battalion is assigned permanently to a US Brigade, a US Brigade to an allied division, an allied division to a US corps. At present we are concerning ourselves with US-German interoperability.

The joint beneficiaries of this program which starts next month are mechanised infantry, artillery, armour, air defense and anti-tank weapons systems commanders, at various command levels and their senior non-commissioned officers. Other branches of the service will receive similar attention next year. The 14 development stages in the preparation of the program are as follows:

Stage 1 The recognition of the need by the Commander in Chief US Army Europe last October and approval by him of our proposed approach.

Stage 2 Concurrently conducted research into situational and lexical references readily available from DLI, the Bundessprachenamt and US Army Europe, combat commands.

Stage 3 Initial on-site situation and task analyses by 6 of our field language coordinators/developers in the two US Corps with the intended beneficiaries of the program and their staffs and German counterparts. The methods used are examination and discussion of existing documentation. Interviews and tape recordings of actual exchanges (In English for lack of German proficiency at at point).

Stage 4 Analysis of the data thus obtained by our language Coordinators/Developers.

Stage 5 Second round of on-site situation and task analyses to sort out high, middle and low frequency situations and military terminology and to analyse and organise the component tasks of the highest frequency situations and the supporting lexical items for incorporation in the training modules. (Middle frequency situations and vocabulary will be included in alternate exercises. Low frequency situations will be ignored and low frequency terminology will be listed as such in the reference glossary.

Stage 6 Rewriting the basic general language US Army Europe "Gateway to German" program (A 120 hour, audio-lingual program in 3 40-hour phases, with NATO STANAG level 1 as the training objective). This writing was done to provide a streamlined, structural foundation with a gradual progression from the audio-lingual approach through the cognitive approach for a series of 40-hour blocks of self-paced instructional technology training.

Stage 7 Writing in draft form of 2 Common military terminology* 40-hour blocks (ie common to all 5 branches) and 2 specialised terminology 40-hour blocks for each of these target branches (mechanised infantry, artillery, armour, air defense and anti-tank weapons systems) NB Before the lesson units were written, the appropriate criterion referenced tests were developed based on the results of the task analyses and the derived training objectives.

Stage 8 Review of the drafts with the intended beneficiaries of the program and their German counterparts.

Stage 9 Writing of the first pilot edition.

Stage 10 Writing the pilot edition master recordings of all the materials developed (using stage actors) and developing the visual aids (posters, the cards, maps etc).

Stage 11 Field testing of the program over a 6 month period.

Stage 12 Joint evaluation of the field test with the users and their German counterparts.

Stage 13 Review of the field test by DLI.

Stage 14 Preparation of the first final edition of the tests, texts, tapes and visual aids.

The DLI self-paced "Gateway to German" materials will be substituted for portions of the structural foundation work that the commanders and their top sergeants cannot find time to do in an audio lingual classroom/laboratory basis.

The developers of this program, in addition to the US Army Europe, field language coordinators who provided the continuous technical guidance, and the military

personnel concerned, were a team of 10 top instructors. They will also conduct the pilot program and serve as models for other teams. Each of these instructors has as a minimum, a masters degree from Heidelberg, Mainz or Frankfurt Universities in German or English Studies and over 10 years of successful experience in various facets of the US Army Europe, Command Language Program.

Rapport National - France

Plan

4 points :

- 1) Réorganisation du Centre de Langues et Etudes Etrangères Militaires
- 2) Le nouveau cours d'arabe
- 3) Modification des Certificats Militaires de Langues
- 4) Visites du C.L.E.E.M. par autorités étrangères

I - Reorganisation du C.L.E.E.M.

Depuis le 25 octobre 76, la Direction des Etudes a été divisée en 2 organismes :

- Direction de l'Instruction
- Bureau Organisation et Emploi

a) Attributions de la Direction de l'Instruction

Toutes questions concernant l'enseignement linguistique des personnels d'active et de réserve, vues sous l'angle de la conception, l'étude et la mise au point, c'est à dire :

- programmes et méthodes d'enseignement
- élaboration de documentation écrite et enregistrée
- sujets d'examens, corrections des épreuves.

En outre :

- traductions
- réunions et rapports sur l'étude des langues
- relations avec l'extérieur (Ecoles et Universités, Armées étrangères)

b) Attributions du Bureau Organisation et Emploi

Organisation des activités du C.L.E.E.M., c'est-à-dire :

- planification générale
- organisation matérielle des cours, stages et périodes I.R.A.T.
- conduite et contrôle : impression, reproduction, enregistrements
- satisfaction des demandes extérieures de documentation
- organisation matérielle des examens et des réunions
- contrôle des laboratoires

En outre :

- fournitures d'interprètes au commandement
- examens C.M.L. de français
- administration des I.R.A.T.

II - Nouvelle méthode d'enseignement de l'Arabe

Méthode : "du Golfe à l'Océan", élaborée par le C.R.E.A. (Centre de Recherche et de Perfectionnement de l'enseignement de l'Arabe) fondé par l'institut Saint-Joseph de Beyrouth en 1945 (replié récemment en France sous le nom de C.R.E.A. - France - Centre de langue expérimental et de promotion).

Méthode structuro-globale audio-visuelle, s'adressant à des débutants.

Langue enseignée : arabe littéraire moderne des mass-média (utilisée dans 20 pays arabes). But : communiquer avec l'ensemble du monde arabe.

...../.....

Cette méthode a été élaborée par de jeunes arabophones, non marqués par les méthodes d'enseignement traditionnelles. Elle est accompagnée d'un lexique de 1200 mots extraits de 11 manuels d'arabe en fonction de leur fréquence.

Le cours met en scène des personnages dont les caractères et les traits ont été soigneusement choisis comme représentatif des arabes. Leurs noms et leur comportement deviennent très rapidement familiers aux élèves.

Dès la première leçon, seule la langue arabe est utilisée. Chaque élève reçoit un prénom arabe par lequel il sera appelé durant tout le cours.

L'apprentissage de la lecture et de l'écriture n'intervient qu'à la quatrième leçon. Il se fait sous une forme globale : les élèves apprennent à identifier par écrit les mots et expressions qu'ils entendent et s'exercent à les reproduire. Ce n'est que plus tard qu'ils découvrent par eux-mêmes, l'alphabet. Bien entendu, la transcription des mots arabes en caractères latins est formellement proscrite.

Le cours s'adresse à un effectif optimum de 12 élèves (actuellement 14). Sa durée totale est de 300 heures réparties sur 11 semaines. Un premier cours de ce type a eu lieu au C.L.E.E.M. du 10 janvier 1977 au 25 mars 1977. Un deuxième est en cours.

N.B. : Le C.R.E.A. France s'est aussi fixé comme tâche, la formation de professeurs d'arabe. Deux diplômes d'enseignement de l'Institut des lettres orientales ont été créés :

- diplôme d'utilisateur de la méthode du Golfe à l'Océan
- diplôme de formateur de formateurs

Les deux sous-officiers instructeurs du C.L.E.E.M. ont suivi ce stage de formateur et ont obtenu le 1er diplôme.

Ce cours, d'un caractère très original, intéresse vivement les élèves dont les progrès sont rapides. A l'issue du cours, les éléments les plus doués arrivent à s'exprimer aisément dans des situations simples de la vie courante.

III - Modifications des Certificats Militaires de Langues

Depuis la refonte en 1973 des C.M.L. (qui comportaient un examen écrit suivi d'un examen oral à 3 degrés différents) et qui a conduit à la création de :

- C.M.L.E. (1er, 2ème et 3ème degrés pour langues B, 2ème et 3ème degrés pour langues A et B)
- et C.M.L.P. (1er, 2ème et 3ème degrés pour les langues A et B),

examens dont les épreuves ont été décrites lors des précédentes conférences du BILC, quelques modifications aux épreuves ont été soit d'ores et déjà adoptées, soit proposées pour applications lors des examens de 1978.

Ces modifications sont les suivantes :

a) déjà adoptée pour examen C.M.L.E. 3 de 1977 :
Durée du thème (lettre officielle) : portée de 1 h à 1 h 30.

b) Proposées pour applications des 1978

C.M.L.E. 1 : remplacement d'une des 2 versions par un thème (traduction d'un extrait de presse quotidienne française non spécialisée).

C.M.L.E. 2 : remplacement d'une des 3 versions par un thème (épreuve no 1 qui devient : traduction d'un texte militaire français de caractère général Armée de Terre, niveau division inclus).

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D'autres modifications sont à l'étude, telles que l'obligation dans l'option US ou GB (2ème et 3ème degrés) d'avoir aussi des connaissances (moins étendues) sur l'autre pays. Ainsi :

- option US : connaissances approfondies sur US et US Army, mais connaissances générales sur UK et British Army ;

- option GB : connaissances approfondies sur UK et British Army, mais connaissances générales sur US et US Army.

IV - Visite du C.L.E.E.M. par autorités étrangères

Au cours de l'année 1977, le C.L.E.E.M. a été honoré par la visite des autorités suivantes :

- 1) Canada : Lieutenant Colonel FOREST, Directeur du Service de Traduction et de Terminologie des Forces Armées canadiennes, accompagné de son successeur, le Lieutenant Colonel BLAIS, le 22 mars.
2. R.F.A. : Monsieur MAUR, Président du Bundessprachenamt et le Colonel GRIM, Directeur des Etudes, les 28 et 29 mars.
3. U.S. : Le Colonel STAPLETON, commandant le DLI, accompagné de Monsieur de Lespinois, Directeur des études : visite prévue le 24 mars, reportée au 20 mai.

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CANADIAN NATIONAL REPORT

The Directorate of Language Training (DLT) for the Canadian Forces is the National Defence Headquarter's staff organization charged with the task of evolving training policies and tasking the Force's training systems command.

The latter organization manages language training operations as they do recruit and trades and classification training.

DLTs activities emanate largely from training needs identified by the Director General Bilingualism and Biculturalism on the one hand, and on the other by those headquarters directorates concerned with various aspects of training and development for the Forces.

Language Training, like basic training, and trades and classification training is centralized across the three elements that make up the Canadian Armed Forces - ie Land, Air and Naval. Since 1971 we have been at the drawing boards in revising plans approximately every two years as the Forces sought to keep pace with the rapidly evolving national sentiments in the language aspect of national unity.

The most conspicuous fruit of our planning efforts is the ultra-modern language training centre at St Jean - 20 miles south of the city of Montreal. This structure which will house 8 instructional units serving 200 students each, and 1600 rooms will now be available somewhere about Summer 1979.

We have already sat down at the drawing boards to see what it is we are going to put in there and we have plans before the Minister which call for the training of some 1400 English-speaking officers and men in the French language. These people will be on continuous language training for 10 months. Now these plans call for what we refer to as 'replacement men years' ie when this body of personnel are on language training for a year, the operational units will be provided with other people to do the jobs that obviously need doing.

Much of our plans for the school hinge on whether the powers that be who provided the money are willing to furnish us with necessary men years. If they do not we have contingency plans where we will be emphasising what has been done to renew the options, ie we will be looking at groups such as officers who have direct entry, to people who go to university on their own, complete their degrees and try for admission to the Forces. It so happens that because classification training is a different, schedules do not necessarily match the times. When these people come into the Forces. They would be available for training and we might be able to use some for the places we have waiting. Of course there is still the matter of extracting a certain number of men years out of the operational units.

We have also been successful during five or six years of planning and replanning in that we have now created a kind of pool of some 12,000 or so officers and men who have a reasonable smattering of French as a foreign language. You will note that I keep emphasising the English speaking. It so happens that almost of our French-speaking officers have learned English. They go through the military college using English, their classification training is in English and therefore there is hardly anyone who does not speak English although there are some who speak it badly.

In the past year we have also plunged into another programme which reflects this national orientation towards youth in that it is now our policy that all graduates in our three military colleges have to be bilingual by the time they have graduated from college. Now in order to promote this, we are giving them language training concurrent with academic training. We also have a 12 week intensive course during one summer, ie the summer of the first year. Hopefully, at the end of their four years' stint, we should have at least a majority of them qualifying as bilingual at Level 3.

We have also spent some time soul-searching in the area of trying to improve our batting average with respect to the numbers of graduates and in this direction we have at the moment a contract with Professor Cote, who was to have been here but unfortunately at the last minute could not come. He is conducting a search for us for some way whereby we can harness the time that these people have at their disposal during those 10 months where they do nothing else but language training. We hope that by this time next year we will be reporting some results.

During the past year we have joined the ranks of those who are enthusiasts of a systems approach to training and we are most grateful to DLI for all the assistance they have rendered in the training of our personnel.

Finally with regard to testing, should any BILC members wish to make use of any of our past tests which because of the possibility of compromise are no longer used they are invited to forward their requests to DLT.