Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

84–340　Hammerly, Hector (Simon Fraser U.) Teaching L1 and L2. *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), **5**, 1 (1983), 65–85.

L1 and L2 teaching are more different than they are similar. The discussion of the differences and similarities is related here to (1) the age and corresponding characteristics of the learners: flexibility of the brain and memory, general study skills, attitudes, motivation, other emotions, personality characteristics, social characteristics; (2) what the learners know and its effects: knowledge of the L1, illiteracy/literacy, communicative competence; (3) what the learners have to learn: the components of language, language skills, ability to communicate; (4) the teaching processes: methods and transferable procedures; (5) outcomes; (6) L2 as a subject in the elementary school; (7) French immersion (learners have all the disadvantages of L1 acquisition and none of the advantages of adult L2 acquisition).

The solution to the problem of L2 teaching proposed here is that programmes should progress through four stages: (i) an extended exploratory course (grades 3 to 5) aimed at providing insights into the nature of language and language learning and creating a desire to learn other languages; (ii) semi-intensive courses (beginning in grade 6 or age 11/12) of two or three hours per day for three years; (iii) partial immersion, i.e. several school subjects taught in the L2 for several years; (iv) extensive exposure and/or submersion.

84–341　Hulshof, H. (Rijksuniversiteit, Leiden). Benaderingen van het taal gebruik in schoolboeken; mogelijkheden en beperkingen. [Approaches to the use of language in school books; possibilities and limitations.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **15**, 1 (1983), 7–30.

Research into the use of language in schoolbooks can be done from several angles: theory of verbal communication, teaching methodology, psychology (of education, of reading, of the reader). Being at the crossroads of so many different disciplines makes research difficult, and this is not conducive to ready application of any results in practice. In the border area between linguistics (in its wider sense) and educational science, publications with a practical dimension are few and far between, most of these resorting to generalities. The perennial problem is: should we opt for adaptation of schoolbook texts, in other words for 'availability', or rather for training pupils in reading comprehension (in which case texts may well be difficult)? To complicate matters, the place and function of the schoolbook within the teaching and learning process are under discussion. The place and function of the schoolbook are again strongly determined by the phasing of communicative situations or language learning situations. Thus the wheel has come full circle. The question remains, however, where all this leaves the use of language in schoolbooks. In this context the interplay between

reader and text could be declared to be the object. The text-approaching skills of the reader and any text processing could be viewed as an integrated approach to text comprehension and text 'availability'. This means that the focus is on the interaction between reader and text, on mobilising meta-cognitive skills and on the improvement of reading for comprehension at primary school level. In the Netherlands this view is represented by such people as Hennephof, Westhoff and Bol; in the Federal Republic of Germany by Groeben. A situationally determined and multilateral approach to the use of language in schoolbooks seems the only sensible one.

84–342 Jacobs-Hessing, Noortje and Maleville, Mireille. A la recherche d'un apprentissage d'orientation. [Language teaching orientation.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **179** (1983), 30–6.

In the Netherlands, students study English throughout secondary school, taking German or French as their second language. Attempts are now being made, following proposals put forward by the association of teachers of modern languages, to construct a common core for all modern languages instead of treating English, German and French as separate subjects. The first years of secondary school (12–15 years) are seen as a period of orientation, the aims of the joint language programme being: to impart a minimum of basic knowledge and communicative competence; to develop language awareness; to help pupils acquire learning strategies; to enable an informed choice to be made after one year between German and French as second language; to acquaint learners with the cultures represented by the languages studied; to foster a positive attitude towards the language; to give an understanding of the importance of English, German and French in the Netherlands.

84–343 Long, Michael H. (U. of Hawaii at Manoa). Does second language instruction make a difference? A review of research. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 3 (1983), 359–82.

Does second language instruction promote second language acquisition? Some studies conclude that instruction does not help (or even that it is counter-productive); others find it beneficial. The picture becomes clearer if two distinctions are made. First, researchers may address one or both of two issues: the absolute effect of instruction, on the one hand, and its relative utility, on the other. Second, studies need to be subclassified according to whether or not the comparisons they make involve controlling for the total amount of instruction, exposure, or instruction plus exposure – that is, for the total opportunity to acquire the second language.

A review of research findings concludes that there is considerable (although not overwhelming) evidence that instruction is beneficial (1) for children as well as adults, (2) for beginning, intermediate, and advanced students, (3) on integrative as well as discrete-point tests, and (4) in acquisition-rich as well as acquisition-poor environments. These findings have implications for theories of second language acquisition, such as Krashen's Monitor Theory, which make predictions about second language acquisition with and without instruction, and also for those involved in educational administration, programme design, and classroom teaching.

84–344   Powell, Bob (U. of Bath). Developing language teaching: report on the work of the National Congress on Languages in Education. *Multiracial Education*, **11**, 3 (1983), 23–30.

The NCLE (National Congress on Languages in Education) brings together the views of the major language associations and organisations in the UK, at all levels of education, with the object of formulating recommendations for policy and action by central government, local authorities, the constituent organisations and other appropriate bodies. It was established in 1976 and currently involves over 40 associations. Its work is mainly carried on by working parties which present reports at biennial assemblies.

The two years leading up to 1982 were dominated by two important issues: the languages of minority communities and 16 + examination criteria. The working party on the languages of minority communities examined the implications for schools and LEAs of the range of languages at present in use among members of ethnic and cultural minorities. Their report, published by CILT in 1983, outlines principles and priorities and makes recommendations concerning the teaching of community languages, provision of teachers who are speakers of those languages, etc. The working party on the 16 + examinations produced a model examination as well as investigating teachers' attitudes to the new proposals on graded objectives.

A working party on language awareness is reviewing developments and will report in 1984; case studies are being produced of schools which are introducing language awareness courses. A working party on language and languages 16–19 is to survey traditional and innovative schemes in all sectors of education. CILT can provide further information.

84–345   Radovanović, Milorad (Inst. for South Slavic Languages, Novi Sad). Linguistic theory and sociolinguistics in Yugoslavia. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* (Amsterdam), **44** (1983), 55–69.

A plan for interdisciplinary sociolinguistic study in Yugoslavia is presented. This should begin with a testing and synthesising of hypotheses, methods, techniques, definitions and terminology of available sociolinguistic theories which would, in addition, have to reflect the specific language, social and cultural conditions which obtain in the country. A number of specific priorities for Yugoslav linguistics are outlined, viz. language standardisation, general language planning and policy; an investigation of how particular languages are stratified; research on language contact, bilingualism/multilingualism and diglossia; and work on verbal interactions and applied sociolinguistics.

84–346   Rampillon, Ute. Fremdsprachenunterricht und Elternarbeit. [Foreign language teaching and co-operation with parents.] *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund, FRG), **30**, 3 (1983), 280–9.

It is a great advantage for schoolchildren learning a foreign language to have the support and understanding of their parents. However, many parents have had little

or no contact with foreign languages at all while others who have learnt them have done so by traditional, grammatically oriented methods and have little understanding of today's communicative teaching methods.

By changing the character of such established events as parents' evenings and by adding more such events for parents, they may be brought into contact with the methods and principles by which their children are being taught. This should enable them to help their children more.

84–347 Shaw, A. M. (U. Nacional Autonoma de Mexico). Strategies for oral interaction and learning. *MEXTESOL Journal* (Mexico), **7**, 1 (1983), 58–74.

Communicative strategies are an essential part of what we need to learn when we learn a language. The development of strategies of learning is coming to be seen as almost the most important objective of a course. Much of the research has focused on processes which are probably not normally conscious, such as 'simplification', 'overgeneralisation' and 'avoidance'; another approach is to restrict them entirely to the conscious strategies. There is a problem in distinguishing between strategies and objectives, e.g. many reading strategies (skimming, reading for gist) are also the objectives of reading activities. Strategies vary between groups and between individuals in a given group.

Five categories of strategies are reviewed (including attitudes, since adopting an attitude is itself a form of strategy): (1) awareness, formulation and review of objectives; (2) organisation of exposure and practice (both formal 'linguistic' practice and functional 'communicative' practice); (3) observation, i.e. the use of the 'Monitor', observing the language one hears, reads, speaks or writes; (4) processing, i.e. awareness of language, getting meaning, getting structure, system and vocabulary; (5) attitudes – studies of the 'good language learner' speak of a characteristic 'drive to communicate', 'readiness to practice', 'lack of inhibition' and 'readiness to live with uncertainty'.

Strategies of oral interaction are (A) listening: (i) formulation of questions and hypotheses; prediction; (ii) hypothesis testing; (iii) inferencing; (iv) organisation of information and ideas received; (v) extraction of the main information required; (vi) active checking; (vii) direct request for specific information. (B) Speaking: (i) use of the Monitor; (ii) relative lack of inhibition; (iii) 'formal reduction'; (iv) functional reduction; (v) accomplishment (linguistic or non-linguistic ways of getting the message across).

In the teaching/learning process, strategies may be developed in various ways, such as evaluation/negotiation sessions, special activities to 'sensitise' students to how the language works (e.g. dictionary exercises), and incidental reinforcement (drawing attention to strategies in class).

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

84–348 Benton, Stephen L. and others (U. of Nebraska). Levels of processing: effect of number of decisions on prose recall. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **75**, 3 (1983), 382–90.

The current research examined differential recall of prose materials as a function of the number of decisions made about the content during reading. Specifically, it was hypothesised that number of decisions would provide a means of enhancing recall and of operationally defining levels of processing. Experiment 1 varied the number of decisions made about a prose passage. Experiment 2 attempted to resolve alternative explanations to numbers of decisions (i.e. redundancy of processing and time differences spent by readers with each question). Experiment 3 investigated the effect of decisions upon recall according to where in the passage decisions were based. The results indicated that (*a*) recall is increased as the number of decisions is increased, (*b*) the effects on recall are noted only in conditions requiring decisions, and (*c*) recall of superordinate information, along with associated subordinate information, is enhanced beyond what is obtained by decisions based upon subordinate information.

84–349 Bibeau, Gilles (U. of Montreal). Les rapports L1/L2 dans l'acquisition de L2. [L1–L2 links in the acquisition of L2]. *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), **5**, 1 (1983), 41–64.

A review is made of three factors claimed to throw light on this subject, viz.: interference/transfer from mother tongue; interlanguage; order of acquisition.

We are still far from understanding the relative importance of errors induced by L1 and a learner's developing view of L2. Interlanguage allegedly showed learners' errors to be systematic, but if they are, the interlanguage should be susceptible to the same analysis as any other language system. No such analysis has been made. At the same time it is claimed to be person-specific, which throws doubt on its status as an intermediate language system. The developmental order of acquiring structures, deduced from studies of child language, seems reasonably well established as the studies tend to confirm each other. However, they are usually transversal studies without explanatory power and rest on questionable test instruments. No claims for an innate or universal order can be made. Indeed, such order as is observed is best explained by frequency of input from parents and teachers.

84–350 Bongaerts, Theo (U. of Nijmegen). The comprehension of three complex English structures by Dutch learners. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **33**, 2 (1983), 159–82.

This study investigated the comprehension of three complex English structures by Dutch learners at different levels of proficiency. The research was inspired by Carol Chomsky's investigations (1969, 1972) of English-speaking children's acquisition of complex English structures and by studies by d'Anglejan and Tucker (1975) and Cooper, Olshtain, Tucker and Waterbury (1979) of the acquisition of such structures by adult learners with different backgrounds and at different levels of proficiency. For

the present study, the research instruments developed by d'Anglejan and Tucker and used by Cooper *et al.* were adopted, and in part, adapted. The responses of the Dutch learners were in many ways similar to those of the French Canadians studied by d'Anglejan and Tucker and the Egyptians and Israelis in Cooper *et al.*'s study, but there was also an important difference: the Dutch learners had fewer problems with the *easy to see* structure. It is argued that this difference can be accounted for by differences in L1 learning experiences. Dutch learners of English have already been confronted with the problem of surface structure similarity between *eager to see* and *easy to see* sentences in the course of learning their L1, whereas French, Arabic and Hebrew-speaking learners have not.

84–351 Carrell, Patricia L. (Southern Illinois U. at Carbondale). Some issues in studying the role of schemata, or background knowledge, in second language comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Birmingham), **1**, 2 (1983), 81–91.

Several recent studies have examined the effects of schemata, or background knowledge, in second language comprehension, specifically ESL reading comprehension. This research has been based on earlier research into the role of schemata in first language comprehension. In some cases, this first language research has been cross-cultural in the sense of studying the effects of different origins on subjects who read or heard them in their native language. In this first language research, both the cross-cultural as well as the remainer, a theoretical distinction is often drawn between 'content' schemata (background knowledge of the content area of the test) and 'formal' schemata (background knowledge of the rhetorical structures of different types of texts). This paper raises and discusses two unresolved issues found in both the first-language and the second-language ESL research: (1) the extent to which the previous research has either maintained or has confounded the theoretical distinction between 'content' and 'formal' schemata, and the general nature of the relationship and interaction of these two types of schemata in naturally occurring texts; and (2) the extent to which the effects measured by the cross-cultural research are related to more general situations of the presence or absence of appropriate background knowledge which may not be culture-specific.

84–352 Carr Payne, M., Jr. (Georgia Inst. of Tech.) **and Holzman, Thomas G.** (Georgia State U.). Auditory short-term memory and digit span: normal versus poor readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **75**, 3 (1983), 424–30.

These experiments were conducted to investigate the relationship between reading comprehension level, digit span, and short-term memory for Morse code-like temporal patterns. Consistent with previous research on children, Experiment 1 demonstrated that college students performed better when the first pattern was auditory than when it was visual or tactile. Experiments 2 and 3 found no relationship for either college or fifth-grade students between digit span and accuracy in comparing patterns of tones presented a few seconds apart. However, both tasks discriminated

between children with normal and poor reading comprehension scores on a standard-ised test. It appears that these two tasks index fundamental processes that underlie reading comprehension. Digit span seems to assess an individual's ability to rapidly develop meaningful codes in memory for incoming verbal stimuli. The auditory pattern comparison procedure appears to measure ability to maintain information in short-term memory.

84–353 Chaudron, Craig (U. of Hawaii at Manoa). Simplification of input: topic reinstatements and their effects on L2 learners' recognition and recall. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 3 (1983), 437–58.

An experiment was designed to investigate how different types of topic reinstatements affected second language learners' recognition and recall of sentence topics in lectures. The variant reinstatement structures tested were repetition of the noun topic, rhetorical questions, synonyms, conditional clauses, and simple noun reiteration. The research question was whether syntactic simplicity or elaboration and redundancy would be more effective in promoting retention of the topic. Findings indicated that the redundant repeated noun was signifcantly better recognised than the simple noun, and was better recalled than the conditional or synonym. Learners with relatively low English proficiency tended to have poorer recall ability on the syntactically more complex structures.

84–354 Cross, David (British Council, Cairo). Sex differences in achievement. *System* (Oxford), **11**, 2 (1983), 159–62.

In Britain, but not universally, girls are seen as superior language learners. In two large, mixed-sex comprehensive schools in London, a sequence of wide ranging tests was given. Contrary to expectations, the boys were not weaker in any of the tests. Any significant differences in results were in favour of the boys. A possible explanation is offered. The teaching of modern languages in Britain is largely in the hands of female teachers. In the schools investigated here, the language departments enjoyed a more balanced staffing, with comparatively young male teachers in evidence. Future research into differences between the performance of boys and girls should take into account the sex and the image of the teachers.

84–355 Fass, Warren and Schumacher, Gary M. (Ohio U.). Schema theory and prose retention: boundary conditions for encoding and retrieval effects. *Discourse Processes* (Norwood, NJ), **4**, 1 (1981), 17–26.

This study was performed to determine the boundary conditions under which schemata influence the encoding and retrieval of prose. Subjects read a passage containing information important to burglars and homebuyers. Subjects were given either a burglar, homebuyer, or no perspective during reading, and either a burglar or homebuyer perspective during recall. Subjects were required to recall the passage either immediately after reading or 24 hours later. The results indicated that during immediate recall, either an encoding or retrieval perspective influenced recall. However, when recall was delayed, only the encoding perspective influenced recall.

The results were interpreted in terms of schema theory and the encoding specificity principle.

84–356 Gaies, Stephen J. (U. of Northern Iowa). Learner feedback and its effects in communication tasks: a pilot study. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), **4**, 1 (1981), 46–59.

This article reports on a pilot investigation of learner feedback and its effects on teacher/learner interactions in second-language learning. In twelve ESL (English as a Second Language) dyads and triads, tapes were made of the performance by the participants of a pair of tasks in referential communication. In these tasks, the teacher described verbally a series of six graphic designs in such a way that the learner(s), who had the designs reproduced on a sheet of paper, could determine the order in which the designs were described. Data analysis involved classification of both learner feedback and teachers' post-feedback responses.

84–357 Gardner, R. C. (U. of Western Ontario) **and others**. The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: an investigation using LISREL causal modelling. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* (Clevedon, Avon), **2**, 1 (1983), 1–15.

Linear Structural Relations analysis (LISREL) was used to examine the adequacy of a causal model of second language acquisition. A total of 18 variables were investigated using 140 students enrolled in one of two first year university French courses in a unilingual anglophone city. The model under investigation linked cultural beliefs, attitudes, motivation, situational anxiety, and prior achievement to proficiency in a second language. The results supported a socio-educational model of second language acquisition where proficiency in a second language was seen to be caused directly by prior achievement and motivation. Motivation was found to be caused by attitudinal variables which, in turn, were influenced by cultural beliefs. Individual differences in situational anxiety were determined by both prior achievement and motivation.

84–358 Gass, Susan (U. of Michigan). The development of L2 intuitions. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 2 (1983), 273–91.

Intuitions, particularly judgments of grammaticality, have played an important role in theoretical linguistics, but the nature of grammaticality judgments by second language learners has not received adequate attention. This study is an investigation of the function of grammaticality judgments in second language acquisition. Two groups of learners of different proficiency levels were asked to give grammaticality judgments of sentences they had written and of sentences other students had written. The results were analysed in terms of the subjects' ability to make the appropriate grammaticality judgments and to correct those sentences they had judged to be ungrammatical. The results indicate that with increased proficiency in English, learners move from an overall ability to make general assessments of grammaticality to an ability to identify and/or correct particular details. The results of this study are also discussed in terms of Bialystok's (1979, 1981) notion of implicit/explicit

knowledge and the general function of metalinguistic awareness in second language acquisition.

84–359   Genesee, Fred and others (McGill U.). The social psychology of second language learning: another point of view. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **33**, 2 (1983), 209–24.

The present research tested the hypothesis that predictions concerning second language (SL) achievement and use would be improved by considering the motivational support the learner expects from the target language group (TL) in addition to considering the learner's own motivations for learning the language. The hypothesis was tested by asking adolescent English-speaking Canadian students why they were learning French as a second language and why French-speaking Canadians wanted them to learn French. Regression analyses were used to examine the relationships between the motivational predictors and the respondents' SL proficiency and use. In support of the hypothesis, it was found that the respondents' expectations of motivational support from the TL group emerged as significant and in some cases unique predictors of SL performance. It is concluded that social psychological models of SL learning need to consider the role of intergroup factors more seriously.

84–360   Glinz, Hans. Grammatische Erfahrungen in der Erstprache als Starthilfe beim Erlernen der Zweitsprache. [Native-language grammatical experience as an aid to learning a second language.] *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), **38** (1983), 109–20.

First language acquisition progresses from the simple coupling of meanings and sounds to increasingly complex grammatical structures. At early stages, 'grammar' in a second sense, i.e. 'knowledge about' rather than 'knowledge of' the language, hardly plays a role. Later, when correct writing skills are to be developed, objective knowledge of the grammatical system is encouraged. In second language learning, we should expect the application of previously acquired skills; 'grammar' in this second sense gains further importance, enabling teacher and learner to make explicit comparisons and contrasts between the first and second language. This is presented as part of a more general didactic philosophy which advocates more active involvement of the pupils in the structure and development of teaching schedules, making them more objectively aware of what they are learning.

84–361   Hirst, Graeme (Brown U., Providence, Rhode Island). An evaluation of evidence for innate sex differences in linguistic ability. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **11**, 2 (1982), 95–113.

A female superiority in verbal ability is reported on many tests. It has been hypothesised that the female brain is more functionally symmetrical for language than the male, and that this is the cause of the alleged superiority. Recent research has suggested that factors other than sex are involved: handedness, age of maturity, and endocrine influences. It is not yet clear whether, despite its biological correlates, the female superiority is innate.

84–362 Hüllen, Werner. Uber das allmähliche Verfertigen von Sprachregeln. [The gradual fabrication of linguistic rules.] *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart, FRG), **67** (1983), 164–73.

How language is learnt depends very much on the way in which it is taught. This article discusses and compares the ways in which language rules are learnt in second language acquisition and foreign language learning. In second language acquisition, the situation is one of genuine communication. Rules are acquired through experience and practice in language situations and success is measured by the ability to communicate. Success in communication shows whether the rules developed are right or wrong. Foreign language learners, on the other hand, learn their rules in a formal and artificial communicative situation where they are equipped with the right rules from the start and use them to judge whether their formulations are correct or not.

Despite the trial and error involved in second language acquisition, it nevertheless proves to be more effective than foreign language learning. It is recommended that the assets of second language acquisition be brought to bear in foreign language learning to make the learning process more effective. These are discussed in detail.

84–363 Kemper, Susan (U. of Kansas). Measuring the inference load of a text. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **75**, 3 (1983, 391–401.

Readability formulas are criticised because they do not consider the contributions of the readers' background knowledge or expertise and ignore the meaning and content of texts. A new approach is proposed based on the analysis of texts as causally connected chains of actions, physical states, and mental states. A formula for measuring the inference load of texts is developed using multiple regression techniques. The inference load of texts reflects the difficulty readers have in inferring the causal connections necessary to recover the event chains underlying the texts. Using the inference load formula, the difficulty of texts can be adjusted for readers differing in skill or knowledge.

84–364 Kieras, David E. (U. of Arizona). The role of major referents and sentence topics in the construction of passage macro-structure. *Discourse Processes* (Norwood, NJ), **4**, 1 (1981), 1–15.

Two experiments are reported on the nature of global coherence in technical passages. Subjects were asked to state the topic of presented passages in the form of a noun phrase that designated a single object. The first experiment shows that whether the passage is organised around a single major referent has a powerful effect on the difficulty of identifying the topic. The second experiment shows that which referent appears as the surface subject of individual passage sentences is also a powerful determinant of the perceived passage topic. The results are discussed in terms of the reader's constructing a macrostructure for the passage, and selecting the central referent of the macrostructure for the statement of the topic. If a global topic cannot be selected on the basis of the immediate propositional content or the surface structure of the passage, the reader must engage in time-consuming inferential processes to construct a suitable macrostructure for the passage.

84–365 Littlewood, William T. (University Coll. of Swansea, Wales). Contrastive pragmatics and the foreign language learner's personality. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **4**, 3 (1983), 200–6.

Contrastive studies have shown that different speech communities prefer different strategies for 'doing things' with language; these differences may lead learners to produce inappropriate speech behaviour. because they transfer their mother tongue conventions into their use of the foreign language [examples]. Two main problem areas concern (1) norms and individual choice (for example, how wide is the range of permissible variation), and (2) learners' 'external' and 'internal' needs: the learner should be able to identify with the language he uses and invest his own personality in it. Some psychologists stress that an individual's behaviour is less consistent than is usually supposed, and different patterns of behaviour can be associated with situations if the individual's perception of that situation changes (as in the foreign-language context). The dictates of the learner's personality may often conflict with the expectations of the foreign community.

84–366 Loman, Nancy Lockitch and Mayer, Richard E. (U. of California, Santa Barbara). Signalling techniques that increase the understandability of expository prose. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **75**, 3 (1983), 402–12.

In two experiments, high school students read and listened to either a signalled or non-signalled expository passage. The signals consisted of preview sentences, underlined headings, and logical connective phrases. The results indicated a pattern in which the signalled groups performed better on recall of conceptual information and on generating high quality problem solutions, whereas the non-signalled groups excelled on recall of information from the beginning and end of the passage and on generating low quality problem solutions. These results suggest that signalling was effective in modifying students' reading strategies.

84–367 Long, Michael H. (U. of Hawaii at Manoa). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **4**, 2 (1983), 126–41.

Linguistic input probably has to be comprehensible to the learner if it is to serve as data for second language acquisition. It is widely assumed that input becomes comprehensible through the speech modifications of native speakers addressing non-native speakers of the target language. Recent research on native speaker/non-native speaker conversation suggests, however, that modifications of the interactional structure of conversation are more important in this regard. They are more extensive and more consistently observed than input modifications, and often occur when the latter do not. Fifteen devices for the modification of interaction are described. They are of three kinds: strategies, which serve to avoid conversational trouble, tactics, which are used to repair the discourse when trouble occurs, and strategies and tactics, devices which serve both functions.

84–368 Mackey, William F. (U. Laval). Six questions sur la valeur d'une dichotomie L1/L2. [Six questions about the value of a dichotomy between L1 and L2.] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), **5**, 1 (1983), 9–40.

The six questions asked refer to: who is learning the language (native child or outsider); when it is learnt (childhood or maturity); how it is learnt (informal acquisition or formal learning); why it is learnt (motivation and attitude); where (at home or in the school); and what it consists of (a national language, dialect, neutral code, proximate or distant variety).

Each is examined in detail and the relevant research is briefly reviewed. It emerges that to each question such a diversity of answers is possible that the distinction between L1 and L2 is blurred. The two elements in the dichotomy are so ill defined that they could be interchanged. Therefore the relationship between L1 and L2 should be seen not as the coexistence of two rival codes in the one mind, nor as two cognitive structures juxtaposed, but as two symbolic systems available for different ends and continually changing in time and space.

84–369 McLaughlin, Barry (U. of California, Santa Cruz) **and others.** Second language learning: an information-processing perspective. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **33**, 2 (1983), 135–58.

Humans are limited-capacity information processors, both in terms of what they can attend to at a given time and of what they can handle on the basis of knowledge and expectations. Certain mental operations require greater processing capacity than others. 'Automatic processing' involves the activation of certain nodes in memory when the appropriate inputs are present (a learned response). 'Controlled processing' is a temporary activation of nodes in a sequence, under attentional control of the subject – only one such sequence can normally be controlled at a time. Learning involves time, but once automatic processes are set up, controlled processes are free to be allocated to higher levels of processing. The controlled/automatic distinction is not based on conscious/subconscious awareness but relates to the degree to which the skills in question have been routinised and established in long-term memory. Optimal performance requires a flexible blend of the two types of processing.

Complex tasks are characterised by a hierarchical structure, consisting of subtasks and their components. To attain a higher-order goal, the learner needs a 'plan', whereby the selection of subactivities is regulated according to overriding goals. For a beginning second-language learner, there are many component skills needed to realise an adequate expression of individual words. Less work is needed if the component is well learned. Because of the complexity of the task, the learner falls back on old skills. Failure to utilise what is known in class in an outside situation, a common experience for most language learners, is because the workload involved in maintaining conversational interaction has overloaded the individual's capacity for information handling. [Some research studies are reviewed which relate to automaticity in lexical retrieval, in syntactic processing, and in reading.]

84-370   Meisel, Jürgen M. Transfer as a second-language strategy. *Language and Communication* (Oxford), **3**, 1 (1983), 11–44.

Transfer – the strategic incorporation of L1 features into L2 – is more likely if the learner is aware of his lack of knowledge in L2, perceives L1 and L2 to be sufficiently similar, and judges the item in question to be readily transferable (e.g. it is not an idiom). Different learning orientations determine the choice made by the learner from a set of strategies including simplification, over-generalisation and transfer, the last being most likely to be adopted by the structurally oriented learner. The best evidence for transfer comes not from missing elements (such as 'empty subjects' or articles) but from constructions such as possessives and underlying aspects of L1 such as word order.

84-371   Simons, P. R. J. (Katholieke Hogeschool, Tilburg). Functies van beeldspraak in studieteksten. [Functions of concrete analogies in instructional texts.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **13**, 2 (1982), 81–97.

Various theorists have proposed different reasons for the usefulness of concrete analogies in written texts. Some stress a concretising function, others a structuring function, and still others suggest that analogies induce a more active processing of the text. The main question which the author tried to answer in a series of six experiments were: (*a*) Does the addition of concrete analogies lead to higher performances and longer reading-times in subjects of different ages? (*b*) What are the effects under restricted time conditions? (*c*) Why are concrete analogies effective? (*d*) Are there aptitude–treatment interactions? In general, the results showed that subjects, when confronted with analogies, not only studied longer, but learned more and different things. However, if the study time was limited, these effects disappeared. Furthermore, some aptitude–treatment interactions were found, especially in the case of the visualiser–verbaliser dimension. All three of the above-mentioned functions of analogies were supported by the data.

84-372   Stedje, Astrid (U. of Stockholm). Sprechabsicht und Lückenindikatoren. [Speech intention and gap indicators.] *Zeitschrift für Germanistische Linguistik* (Berlin, FRG), **10**, 2 (1982), 156–72.

It is a common experience not to be able to find the right word or expression on occasion. The strategies people employ in such cases to fill or to cover up the gap are universal and mostly unconscious. Which of the possible options we choose depends on socio-cultural, personality or situational factors. This study considers the strategies employed by Swedish adults and children to fill or cover up gaps when speaking a second language – German. The difficulties of drawing up a taxonomy are discussed and the problems involved in interpreting the data are raised.

Gap indicators provide information about word gaps and the various communication strategies of a speaker. There are three major kinds: (1) hestiation phenomena, (2) embarrassment and distancing indicators and (3) deceptive indicators. The different

types are illustrated by means of performance data from Swedish learners of English describing pictures. Deceptive indicators are used to distract the listener's attention from what has just been said. This may be achieved by stressing or increasing the relative loudness of the following segment of the utterance. Hesitation phenomena are very complex and may accompany the other two types of gap indicators.

84–373 Street, Richard L. Jr. (Texas Tech U.) **and others.** The influence of speech rate stereotypes and rate similarity on listeners' evaluations of speakers. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* (Clevedon, Avon), **2**, 1 (1983), 37–56.

In this study, the effects of speaker speech rate level, the degree of similarity between listener and speaker rates, and context on listeners' evaluative judgments of speakers were examined. After their own speech rates were assessed, subjects listened to passages of a male speaker, using a fast, moderate or slow speech rate. Also, subjects were told the passages were excerpts from either an informal conversation or an employment interview. After listening to the speech sample, subjects evaluated the speaker on competence and social attractiveness measures. Results indicated that listeners found a speaker with moderate to relative faster rates (actual and perceived) more competent and socially attractive than a speaker with slower rates. Listeners also preferred speakers with rates similar to or marginally faster than their own. The results regarding context were equivocal. Neither main nor interaction effects involving context emerged on either the competence or social attractiveness measures. However, on separate rate acceptability and speech rate perception measures, listeners found slower rates more acceptable and were more aware of the slow and fast rate extremes in the employment interview than in the conversation setting.

84–374 Strong, Michael (U. of California, San Francisco). Social styles and the second language acquisition of Spanish-speaking kindergarteners. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 2 (1983), 241–58.

Previous studies that have examined the relationship between personality factors and second language acquisition have yielded contradictory findings. However, when these studies are divided according to whether they examined natural communicative language as compared with formal tested language, it becomes clear that certain personal characteristics are consistently related to successful language learning. The present study examines seven such characteristics in connection with success at acquiring certain communicative language skills among thirteen Spanish-speaking kindergarteners who began the school year with almost no English. The question of motivation to be a part of the target language group and preference for English speakers as playmates and friends is also discussed on the basis of sociometric evidence. Contrary to previous conclusions (e.g. Wong-Fillmore, 1976), the faster learners did not seek to befriend or identify more with English speakers than did the slower learners. Faster learners, however, were more talkative, responsive, and gregarious than slower learners. Implications of these findings for teachers and researchers are discussed.

84–375   Tarone, Elaine (U. of Minnesota). On the variability of interlanguage systems. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **4**, 2 (1983), 142–64.

This paper examines the way in which three different paradigms for the study of interlanguage handle the phenomenon of variability in interlanguage systems: a Chomskyan paradigm proposed by Adjemian; the Monitor Theory proposed by Krashen and the Continuum paradigm proposed by Tarone. The paper presents data from several studies showing that interlanguage speech production varies systematically with elicitation task; it compares the fundamental assumptions of each of these three paradigms with regard to their views of the nature of the system which underlies learner utterances and of the methodology appropriate to the study of this system; and it concludes that the Continuum paradigm accounts for the data better than the other two paradigms, because of its underlying assumptions.

84–376   Tyler, Sherman W. and others. Specifying the nature of reading ability differences and advance organiser effects. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **75**, 3 (1983), 359–73.

Three experiments examined the nature of individual differences and the role of advanced information in reading comprehension. Subjects read short passages, in some cases preceded by a given type of advance organiser, then recalled the information therein, and finally sorted ideas from the passage into groups of similar ideas. Parameter estimates for the Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) model, together with a derived measure for the idea-sorting task, showed that good readers were better at recalling propositions and organising ideas than poorer readers. When the effects of different types of advance organisers were considered, it was found that good readers usually showed greater recall of detail when given either type of advance organiser, whereas poorer readers displayed enhanced recall of detail only for a particular type of advance organiser.

84–377   Warren-Leubecker, Amye and Bohannon, John Neil III. The effects of expectation and feedback on speech to foreigners. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **11**, 3 (1982), 207–15.

The effects of speaker expectation of listener competence and the feedback indicative of the listener's comprehension were compared on their power to elicit simplified speech. The experiment used 2 × 2 design and a 'foreigner' accomplice as a listener in an interview situation. Expectation was varied by having the accomplice introduce herself using either highly accented, dysfluent English or slightly accented, fluent English. The verbal feedback was varied by having the accomplice signal comprehension success (*yeah*, *Ok*, or nods) or comprehension failure (*what? huh?* or frowns and quizzical looks). Forty adult subjects spoke to the accomplice in one of the four conditions. The interviews were taped, transcribed, and scored for measures of mean length of utterance (MLU), false starts/dysfluencies, repetitions/rephrasals, and questions. Analyses revealed that the subjects used shorter MLUs, more repetitions/rephrasals, and more questions when the accomplice signalled compre-

hension difficulty. When the subjects expected the listener to be linguistically incompetent, they tended to repeat and rephrase more often than when they expected listener competence. It was clear that regardless of the speaker's initial expectation of the listener's linguistic competence, verbal feedback during conversation will elicit simplified speech.

84–378   Wixson, Karen K. (U. of Michigan). Postreading question–answer interactions and children's learning from text. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **75**, 3 (1983), 413–23.

One hundred and eleven average and above-average fifth-grade students read one of seven short, non-narrative passages and wrote answers to a set of either textually explicit (TE), textually implicit (TI), schema-based (SB), or text irrelevant (control) questions. One week later subjects were given a written free-recall test. The results of the analysis of the children's responses to the treatment questions indicate that TE and TI questions promoted text-based question–answer interactions, whereas SB questions promoted both text-based and schema-based interactions. The results of the analysis of the recall data indicate that TI question–answer interaction resulted in the generation of larger proportions of text-based inferences than the other types of interactions, without any loss in the amount of explicit information produced. In contrast, TE question–answer interactions resulted in the production of equal amounts of explicit information, text-based inferences, and schema-based inferences. Finally, SB question–answer interactions and interactions with text-irrelevant questions both resulted in larger proportions of schema-based inferences than either TE or TI interactions. These results are consistent with a schema-theoretic view of reading comprehension.

84–379   Wode, Henning. Neue Wege zur Sprachlehrforschung und Fremdsprachendidaktik. [New approaches to language teaching research and methodology.] *Englisch Amerikanische Studien* (Köln, FRG), **4** (1981), 509–25.

This paper summarises recent psycholinguistic research relating to foreign-language teaching which is focused on the learner. The assumption is that the learning process itself must be central to any theory of learning and teaching a language in the classroom. The paper starts with an evaluation of three approaches; the interlanguage hypothesis, the creative construction hypothesis, and the psycholinguistic approach. The interlanguage as well as the creative construction hypothesis have so far failed to clarify and/or specify the mechanisms which enable people to learn languages; only the psycholinguistic approach(es) has/have produced enough empirical studies to be helpful in this respect. Next is a brief review of recent reorientations to the effect that foreign-language teaching is no longer treated as a separate phenomenon; that is, as if it were unrelated to other types of language acquisition. The goal now common to these efforts is to characterise people's language-learning abilities as a unified cognitive learning system flexible enough to cope with the differences in the external learning situations. No learning theory is currently available which adequately characterises this language learning system. On the other hand, it seems clear that the

9

psycholinguistic abilities inherent in this system constitute the learner's major contribution towards learning a language and towards being taught one in the classroom. These conclusions are based on a review of extensive research findings from Germany, Sweden, Canada, the USA, and elsewhere. Drastic revisions of various aspects of foreign-language teaching methodology and teacher-training programmes are necessary.

RESEARCH METHODS

84–380   Allwright, Dick (U. of Lancaster). Classroom-centred research on language teaching and learning: a brief historical overview. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 2 (1983), 191–204.

Classroom-centred research tries to investigate what happens inside the classroom when learners and teachers come together. It can be done by observation or by introspection, or (most commonly) by a combination of the two. Observation entails keeping a record of what goes on in the classrooms observed, with the use of an audio-cassette recorder, field notes or a system of predetermined categories to classify events as they occur. A recording will need to be transcribed and analysed. Data can be interpreted quantitatively and/or qualitatively. Introspection involves asking people to answer questions by means of interviews or questionnaires or a structured interview technique, and also diary-keeping (learner or teacher keeps a personal record of each lesson). Multiple viewpoints ('triangulation') are possible.

Classroom-centred research began in the 1950s among teacher trainers. When major experiments on methodology carried out in the '60s proved inconclusive, it seemed useful to do small-scale research at the level of technique instead; later, researchers retreated still further to study classroom processes. Two viewpoints which emerged are the sociological (looking at the language lesson as a 'socially constructed event', i.e. how people interact in the classroom) and the language-oriented (looking at the classroom as a setting for classroom language acquisition and learning in terms of the language input provided by the teacher's talk). The two approaches are complementary.

The tools of classroom-centred research have been refined from techniques used in general educational research, such as observation schedules, modified by Moskowitz and called FLint (foreign language interaction system), likewise Fanselow's FOCUS.

84–381   Gaies, Stephen J. (U. of Northern Iowa). The investigation of language classroom processes. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 2 (1983), 205–17.

Classroom process research is based on direct observation of second-language classroom activity. Research studies in three areas are reviewed.

(1) The linguistic environment of second language teaching: research shows that the teacher is an important source of linguistic input, and his/her language is highly tuned to the learners' level of proficiency, thus presumably facilitating learning. The production of particular features of speech by learners is related to the frequency with which those features occur in linguistic input.

9-2

(2) Patterns of classroom interaction: the focus of research has shifted to this area from (1), in the hope that interactional patterns may indicate how learners internalise input. Research on questions in and out of the classroom shows that more than half of teachers' questions were of the 'display' type (intended to elicit information already known to the questioner), whereas outside the classroom referential questions predominated, display questions hardly ever occurring. Because the latter do not invite lengthy replies or sustained interaction they do not provide optimal input. Research on interaction analysis shows that learners' participation in class is highly variable – learners fall into two main categories, high input generators and low input generators. The former are more active in class, more field-independent, and generate more input in out-of-class contact with native speakers. This indicates important differences in learning experience, as does research on turn-taking and research on learners with limited English proficiency (LEP). LEP learners have significantly fewer interactions with their teachers than do their native-speaker counterparts, and those they have tend to involve classroom management more than actual teaching.

(3) Error treatment: research reveals that errors are not treated at all systematically by teachers; in one study, 22 per cent of errors went without treatment, either not noticed or ignored. Explicit correction occurred less frequently than indirect or implicit feedback. In one study, students expressed a wish to be corrected more frequently. Variables influencing the type of error treatment are type of class activity during which the error occurs, level of instruction, style of teacher. Error treatment is often inconsistent and ambiguous, but is central to the effectiveness of the teaching. This is an area which perfectly illustrates the complexity of the classroom process. Some recent alternative approaches to classroom research include the anthropological, qualitative and mentalistic, including diary studies of learner and teacher, and other introspective and retrospective studies.

84–382 Leech, Geoffrey and others (U. of Lancaster). Recent developments in the use of computer corpora in English research. *Transactions of the Philological Society* (Oxford), 1983, 23–40.

Three main levels in the automatic processing of an English corpus by computer are distinguished, viz. (i) sorting and quantifying processes, (ii) processes involving more complex programming which recognises abstract features of tests like idioms or word senses and (iii) processes which take a 'raw' unanalysed corpus as input.

The grammatical tagging system of the Lancaster, Oslo and Bergen corpus is outlined and subdivided into two procedures, (*a*) tag assignment, in which each word taken is given one or more potential tags, and (*b*) tag selection, where the correct tag is chosen on the basis of context (in cases where more than one tag has been assigned). The authors show how corpus research is cumulative in making use of feedback – the end-product of analysis is capable of being recycled into the improvement of the system and the success of future analyses. Possible future developments are discussed.

ERROR/CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

84–383   Davies, Eirlys E. (Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah U., Morocco). Error evaluation: the importance of viewpoint. *ELT Journal* (Oxford), **37**, 4 (1983), 304–11.

A study was carried out of the ways in which a judge's viewpoint may affect the way in which he/she evaluates learners' errors. A set of 82 sentences, most containing errors typical of the work of Moroccan secondary school learners of English, was presented in written form to the judges, who had to grade them on a scale from 0 to 5 (0 = no error, 5 = very serious error). There were two sets of judges; Moroccan teachers of English, and native speakers of English, resident in Britain, with no experience of teaching languages or having contact with non-native speakers.

Results showed that native speakers are more lenient in their marking than non-native speakers, probably because of their superior knowledge of the wide-ranging norms of English and their familiarity with some of the ungrammatical utterances, which are used by many English speakers. The teachers were obviously resigned to these kinds of error, and probably regarded them as a mark of failure on their own part. Teachers attached greater importance than native speakers to errors of tense and morphology, perhaps because these points are introduced relatively early in English courses and are much practised, whereas to native speakers such errors are relatively unobtrusive. Teachers may imagine that their feeling that certain errors are more serious is based on purely linguistic intuitions about the deviance of the resulting structures, but it is more likely that their view is coloured by the positions that certain grammatical points typically occupy in a syllabus. Another factor is the influence of the judges' own language background, which may affect their understanding of the learner's strategies, e.g. Moroccan teachers ranked errors due to interference lower than did the native speakers, to whom these errors seemed much more strange. Judgements of intelligibility are likewise very much a function of the assessor's viewpoint. It is difficult for non-native-speaking teachers to assess how intelligible an utterance may be to an 'ordinary' native speaker. Context also affects evaluations: the test situation might give teachers the sense of being tested themselves, or their knowledge of a particular learner affect their view of the gravity of an error. Task also influences the teacher's view: an error in a free composition will be seen as less serious than in some more structured activity.

84–384   Mereu, Lunella (U. of Rome). A contrastive study of verbal aspect in Italian and English. *ITL* (Louvain), **54** (1981), 3–26 (pt 1) and **58** (1982), 29–44 (pt 2).

Verbal aspect as expressed in Italian and English is explored, both with respect to notions which are marked in both languages and those which are marked in only one. Part I consists of a statement of aspect features and categories in each language separately, using the definitions of aspect – perfective and imperfective – given by Comrie (1976). Semantically, situations can be studied (*a*) dynamically – moving on the time line while we are fixed, or (*b*) statically – not situated on the time line, while

we move through them, or (*c*) relational – in a state of completion or non-completion relative to points on the time line. Grammatically, these semantic notions will be more or less marked by the lexis and morphosyntactic systems of particular languages. In Italian all three are marked but in English only (*c*) is marked. The imperfective embraces four notions presented as two dichotomies, viz. habitual *v*. continuous, and non-progressive *v*. progressive, with a strong link between continuous and progressive. English only partly grammaticalises the semantic opposition between perfective and imperfective. It expresses imperfective meaning in situations of type (*a*) described as being progressive, but not for type (*b*). It has a distinct form for habituality (*used to*). Italian, on the other hand, grammaticalises the distinction between perfective and imperfective meaning, but does not necessarily distinguish between habitual and progressive meaning.

Part II takes 21 sample sentences in Italian and English and sets out their contrasting features in a grid representing the semantic categories mentioned above, showing the possible permutations. Then an account is given of a study of errors by six students of Italian. The results support the claim that errors stem not so much from the formal differences between languages but from the network of different semantic distinctions which each language makes, since the different forms express a series of functions which are not marked in whichever happens to be the mother tongue.

84–385 Morrissey, Michael D. Towards a grammar of learners' errors. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **21**, 3 (1983), 193–207.

Grammar can be conceived as something different from what perhaps the majority of linguistic theorists would like it to be. Chomsky states that traditional grammatical rules are imprecise; they should be understandable by robots (i.e. computers). 'Linguistic' grammar is inaccessible to the average language-teaching professional because it is dominated by machine grammar. If linguistics is the study of language rather than the study of linguistics, theory and research should not be divorced from practice and application.

Machine grammar was never intended as a model of performance; 'competence' was invented to represent this aspect. The distinction between competence and performance is artificial; its transparency becomes obvious in Corder's attempt to apply it to second-language learners. If competence is what the native speaker knows about his language, second-language learners can hardly be in a state of transition (Corder's 'transitional competence') to becoming native speakers. Perhaps competence in this case should be interpreted as what the L2 learner knows intuitively about his interlanguage, but how valid can such self-judgements be when by definition the rules of the interlanguage are constantly in flux?

Although ungrammatical utterances are primary data for machine grammatical theory, L2 learners' errors have not been included for study, though there could be no better grammar-testing device. As the learner's speech becomes more complex, errors become both more difficult and more interesting to describe. It should be the business of linguistics to attempt this, but the answers would have to be of some use to people teaching or learning a language.

Another facile terminological distinction is the assumption that L2 acquisition studies (i.e. L2 learned in a natural environment) are more relevant to L1 acquisition than are studies of L2 learning (in the classroom). No environment is comparable with that in which one learns one's mother tongue. L2 learners' errors have tended to be displaced into the realm of psychology. For teacher and learner to be aware of various aspects of the learner's interlanguage may be useful and interesting, but it is useless unless the rules of the target language are also known. The job of linguistics is to elucidate such rules. If it cannot yet do so, the learner can still learn them inductively with proper exposure to the target language. Rule-based error description focuses on specific problems (errors). Ideally, the description of an error should also explain it, in terms of the L2 grammatical rule/s that make it an error.

A first step in identifying significant linguistic problems for a 'people grammar' is to collect and analyse the ungrammatical or unacceptable utterances of various groups of speakers [the author's own work on errors made by advanced German learners of English is described briefly].

TESTING
84–386   Bernhardt, Elizabeth B. (U. of Minnesota). Testing foreign language reading comprehension: the immediate recall protocol. *Unterrichtspraxis* (Philadelphia, PA), **16**, 1 (1983), 27–33.

Traditional methods of testing reading comprehension are problematic. True/false and multiple-choice tests are often not passage-dependent (i.e. random answers score as well as considered ones). In any case, it is difficult to know what prior knowledge the reader already has. Designing comprehension questions is a subjective matter. Perhaps the only true test of reading a foreign language is a translation test, since it staves off the problems of test construction. Teachers working within a communicative syllabus, however, defeat their own purpose if they test with translation or cloze, since these demand explicit grammatical competence.

The immediate-recall protocol procedure tests students' abilities to understand written foreign language texts without the help of outside materials. Students read a passage silently as often as they like, surrender the text and write down in English everything they remember from the text. [Sample passage and three protocols from college level students of German; sample scoring instrument.] A recall protocol reflects process rather than product, and shows how the subjects' cognitive processes work. Without testing for grammar it shows where a lack of grammar is interfering with the communication which should be going on between students and text. It in no way influences the students' understanding of the text, and it stresses the importance of understanding the material. This encourages students to monitor themselves. It is easy to construct and administer.

84–387 Davies, Alan (U. of Edinburgh). Criteria for evaluation of tests of English as a foreign language. *Views on Language and Language Teaching* (Athens), **8**, 1 (1982), 7–16.

The paper makes general comments about test choice and test construction, then discusses six examples of British EFL tests currently published, widely used, and emanating from the following examination boards: RSA; Cambridge; Trinity College, Oxford; ARELS; the Panhellenic Association of Foreign Language School Owners (PALSO). They are assessed against six basic maxims and a tripartite definition of validity. The maxims assert that most linguistics is normative, language teaching samples by guesswork, language testing levels are intuitive, criterion and norm-referenced tests are the same thing, teaching needs systems of language levels which in turn need external validation. $Validity_1$ concerns the internal logic and interdependence of the test; $validity_2$ is the acceptance of a test as equivalent to an existing measure; while $validity_3$ is that established statistically, subsuming concurrent and predictive validity.

Selections from the publications of the boards are reviewed and their respective merits and shortcomings assessed. All fail by the criterion of $validity_3$ though ARELS is honourably mentioned as having at least attempted it. It is concluded that all tests have to be assessed in terms of their purpose. They must be locally useful and globally accepted.

84–388 Liski, Erkki and Puntanen, Simo (U. of Tampere, Finland). A study of the statistical foundations of group conversation tests in spoken English. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **33**, 2 (1983), 225–46.

This paper is intended as one statistical step towards achieving objectivity in group oral testing in English. The test and the marking system adopted were developed by Folland and Robertson (1976). The data under study comprise sample results from tests taken by 698 Finnish university students at the University of Tampere. The testees' performance was evaluated by noting errors under four categories – pronunciation, grammatical structure, lexis, and use – and 'pluses' under use and lexis. The primary aim of this research was to bring out statistical factors which may be useful in developing tests of spoken English. Distributions of errors are shown and studied in relation to variables such as number of utterances spoken by the testee, sex, mark in a matriculation examination, and group factors. The results show that most errors were made in grammatical structure and fewest in use. More talkative students showed better proficiency than less talkative when compared on the basis of the number of errors per ten utterances. Generally considered, the girls' proficiency was better than the boys', but this difference disappeared when the mark in the matriculation examination was taken into account. The mark was positively correlated with language proficiency and the girls' marks were significantly higher than those of the boys.

84–389   Rea, Pauline M. (U. of Dar es Salaam). Formative assessment of student performance: the role of self-appraisal. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), **7**, 1/2 (1981), 66–88.

It is commonly assumed that information on students' language abilities can be elicited only through some type of formal examination. This is not the case. It has been found that students can usefully supplement the information normally derived from conventional sources, and that the technique of student self-appraisal can assist the language teacher in identifying students' strengths and weaknesses, interests and emerging needs. The time has come to take a serious look at the alternative available for purposes of student assessment. The technique of self-appraisal reported in this paper focuses on one approach to the appraisal of student performance in a language training curriculum in which the need for a formative measurement instrument has been established.

84–390   Skehan, Peter (Inst. of Ed., University Coll., London). Issues in the testing of ESP. *MALS Journal* (Birmingham), **8** (1983), 61–85.

The case made by Oller for the unitary competence hypothesis is set in contrast to the subdivision of language into discrete skills, particularly that proposed by Munby and exemplified by Carroll in the ESP sections of the English Language Testing Service (ELTS).

Whereas the strong form of the hypothesis is now discredited, a weaker form survives in the consensus that there is something approaching a general factor in language competence which accounts for some of the variance in language tests. This is certainly preferable to the conceptualisation of language as some 54 separate skills/functions or 238 subskills proposed, somewhat arbitrarily, by Munby without empirical justification. Even supposing they are correct, the problems of sampling all of them evenly in a test are enormous – and they can be still further subdivided, for instance, to allow for differences in individual lecturing styles and the accompanying intonation patterns. Practicality aside, however, the ELTS construct validity is questionable because of both its unsound theoretical base and its disregard of validatory statistics.

While the Munby model has ostensibly made 'criterion-referencing' feasible by closely defining target behaviour, its purely linguistic definition fails to account for the complexity of real language behaviour; so the best we can hope for is 'criterion-related' testing suited to each particular ESP situation.

84–391   Swales, John (U. of Aston in Birmingham). Examining examination papers. *English Language Research Journal* (Birmingham), **3** (1982), 9–25.

Instructional verbs acquire specialised meanings in the context of examination papers, e.g. 'calculate' implies that graphical methods are not acceptable. Overseas students need attuning to the hazards of written examinations, as they tend to answer questions which were not set, on the basis of recognising one or two words on the exam paper. They will avoid questions containing words or sentences they do not understand, thus their choice may well be much more limited than that of their British counterparts.

A pilot study of six examination papers in chemistry, made by the author, found seven categories of question-types, the most popular being 'describe', followed by 'define' and 'explain'. Each question has an average of three parts and each part has a single or double instruction ('describe...and illustrate...'), i.e. there are 15–20 part answers to complete. About 25 per cent of these can be answered at the word or phrase level, another 15–20 per cent are definitions; about 50 per cent are the 'describe'/'explain' types requiring the capacity to construct short but adequate descriptive/explanatory paragraphs; the remaining 10 per cent or so will involve argumentation and evaluation at a higher cognitive level. The overseas student thus cannot avoid coming up against 'describe'/'discuss' questions. A profile of exam writing tasks should therefore be established.

SYLLABUS/COURSE DESIGN

84–392 Fish, Harold and Dudley-Evans, Tony (U. of Birmingham). Problems of communicative syllabuses. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), **13**, 2 (1982), 1–8.

An examination of textbooks based on a 'grammatical syllabus' would reveal considerable consensus about order and contents. An examination of textbooks following a 'communicative' approach, however, does not reveal any comparable consensus about what should be included in a communicative syllabus. Certain functions tend to appear, for example 'requesting', 'apologising' and 'suggesting' but there is no agreed order of presentation. This is probably because the courses were originally designed for a variety of different situations.

This article suggests that there is perhaps greater potential in basing communicative syllabuses on a common core of 'notions' (Wilkins semantico-grammatical categories) such as 'location', 'cause and effect' and 'quantity'. Such notions have a more predictable relationship with sentence grammar than, say, functions which are essentially features of discourse and should be treated as such. A communicative syllabus cannot just be an inventory of notions and their formal representations, but must include methodological guidelines that avoid any contradiction between the aims of the syllabus and the means by which these aims are achieved. Suggestions are made as to the type of communicative methodology that can be exploited even from the earliest stages, e.g. guessing games.

84–393 Klein, J. (U. of Mons, Belgium). Le niveau 2: réflexions méthodologiques sur l'objectif et le matériel d'un cours de langue pour étudiants avancés. [Level 2: methodological reflections on objectives and pedagogical materials in a language course for advanced students.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons, Belgium), **65** (1983), 1–11.

A language course for advanced learners needs to do more than fill out and enlarge the learner's linguistic competence. It must enable him to become autonomous. He must not settle just for knowledge of the language, but must learn to use the language. To that end, he should go beyond a simple group approach in order to promote an individual approach that can enable him to operate within a group. Such an objective

assumes an adequate pedagogical organisation in three phases: perceiving and understanding, analysing and appraising, acting in and on reality in the foreign language. This pedagogy involves individual work coupled with small groups, larger groups and/or large groups. The pedagogical material must take into account the language needs for both oral and written language. It is necessary to constantly update the course with authentic oral, written and visual materials. Finally, activities like role playing and simulations make up an exceptionally dynamic element for level 2 language courses.

84–394   Welsing, W. P. B. M. In, spin... [Dutch skipping rhyme.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **12**, 1 (1982), 32–57.

Suggestions are made for explicit, communicative and differentiated objectives for the teaching of foreign languages to adults, based on an analysis of the needs of a great number of adult learners who followed courses in Dutch schools for intermediate and higher general education, courses organised by the Bond van Nederlandse Volks-universiteiten and preparing for an internationally recognised certificate (Deutsche Volkshochschule Verband) and courses organised by the BNVU and other institutions not preparing for any particular certificate but with an emphasis on the spoken language.

Although the objectives suggested are presented as a whole, the learner-centred approach enables teachers to plan syllabuses for almost any kind or level of course, as exemplified by the choices made for the groups mentioned above. The model used was based on the 'cube-model' developed by Welsing and Van Bommel (1977), who were greatly influenced by the Council of Europe activities (J. v. Ek, 1975).

The questionnaire used for the needs analysis focused on the personal data of those investigated, the circumstances in which they were to use the foreign language, expected roles, modes and channels of communication, motivation, appreciation of the way in which they had been taught so far, interests and command of the foreign language.

TEACHER TRAINING

84–395   Bakker, A. J. J. (Rijksuniversiteit, Leiden) **and others.** Kijken naar (eigen) begeleidersgedrag een verslag van de workshop 'de taaldocent als begeleider van lerende volwassenen in groepsverband'. [Looking at teacher behaviour: a report on a workshop on 'Looking at tutor behaviour as a teacher of adults'.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **12**, 1 (1982), 58–71.

The workshop consisted of looking at a video-tape with scenes from adult classes, small-group discussions and a plenary session on 'differences and correspondences between the teacher styles shown and my own'. One of the conclusions drawn by the authors is that teachers are very eager to look at and learn from teaching behaviour of colleagues and that this may be the necessary condition for changing their own behaviour.

84–396   Ewer, J. R. Teacher training for EST: problems and methods. *ESP Journal* (Oxford), **2**, 1 (1983), 9–31.

For over a decade the EST teacher-training course at the University of Chile at Santiago has been a part of the regular undergraduate programme in English language for teacher-trainees. Concentrating at first on scientific and technological English, in later years the course has also included English for vocational purposes. The students in the course, like most potential and practising EFL/ESL teachers, have a humanities background; further, they have learned their English according to the traditional, 'general' English system. Accordingly, they come to the EST teacher-training course with five main types of problem: attitudinal, conceptual, linguistic, methodological and organisational. A combination of theoretical and practical classes has been designed to overcome these problems. By careful planning and patient teaching the course builds an entirely new, integrated conceptual network for the students. Not only the content of the course, but also the methodology used in its presentation can serve as a frame of reference for other institutions planning pre-service or in-service teacher training in EST/ESP.

84–397   Kennedy, Chris. An ESP approach to EFL/ESL teacher training. *ESP Journal* (Oxford), **2**, 1 (1983), 73–85.

The concentration on learner needs in ESP programmes has led to the neglect of teacher needs, particularly in the case of teacher-training courses. A solution to the problem is to apply ESP principles to the design of teacher-training courses for 'general English' teachers. The language needs of EFL/ESL teachers, both those required to complete courses successfully (course needs/study skills) and to operate in a full professional role (teaching needs/activities) are described. By integrating training course content with teachers' language requirements we can develop ESP courses for teachers. A multilevel mode of course design is presented, each level moving from content, through format and methodology, to the language required to understand content. The syllabus can be adjusted to suit the conceptual and linguistic requirements of teachers on particular courses, while maintaining the subject-language link at all times. The concept of ESP for teachers reveals the need for research into (*a*) the language difficulties experienced by teachers on English language-teaching training courses, (*b*) the language of EFL/ESL teaching, and (*c*) the structure of both spoken and written academic English language teaching and applied linguistics texts.

84–398   Strevens, Peter (Bell Educational Trust). Teacher training and the curriculum. *Échanges Pédagogiques* (Paris), **1** (1983), 11–28.

The term 'communicative curriculum' is to be understood here as: 'a family of elements, comprising syllabus, methodology and materials, in which the dominant methodology is communicative in type, and in which the syllabus and materials are specifically adapted in the light of the choice of communicative methodology'. Although it is central to organised EFL, few people ever see a syllabus. It contains four sets of elements relating to (1) the learners, (2) the content, (3) the methodology, and (4) examinations, other educational levels and teacher training.

A particular curriculum is only effective if the teachers available can actually teach to it. What can be achieved in EFL is almost totally constrained by the social and economic background in any country, and particularly the stage of educational development reached. Beeby's notions of such stages (1973) are briefly summarised. Stages of development cannot be leapfrogged. Educational change takes a long time, and cannot be handed over from the outside as a simple package, distributed by an 'expert' from an 'advanced' country. The EFL specialist can make a worthwhile contribution if he/she seeks a balance between the needs of the country, EFL professional expertise as practised in Britain, and what the country can absorb at a given time. He is privileged but also vulnerable.

Teacher training is not a single homogeneous activity: it has organisational as well as educational elements. The latter comprise skills, information and theory. When considering in-service training course, it should be noted that new possibilities now exist which bridge the gap between a one-year university course and a four-week course: there are one-term and 'sandwich' courses, various RSA (Royal Society of Arts) Certificate courses – these shorter, more practical courses may be more suitable forms of training than more academic courses.

TEACHING METHODS

84–399   Alexander, Loren (Kansas State U.) **and Butzkamm, Wolfgang** (Technische Hochschule Aachen). Progressing from imitative to creative exercises: a presentation of the bilingual method. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **21**, 1 (1983), 27–33.

Although translation and drilling are involved, the bilingual method fits into a modern communicative approach. In the bilingual method, a lesson cycle (2–4 lessons) starts with the presentation of a basic dialogue containing the new learning material and ends up with groups of learners acting out their own dialogues and discussing them with the rest of the class. The method is characterised by this overall movement from an input text presented by teacher/textbook to several learner-produced output texts. The aim is, then, to lead the learners from understanding new words, structures and routine phrases to using them creatively in their own texts and, finally, for their own communicative needs.

Two examples of input and output texts are given. Every input text is the point of departure for several output texts. The method involves three phases: (1) presentation, (2) from syntactic to semantic manipulation, and (3) original role-play. In phase (2), use is made of sentence frames to produce new sentences from the original dialogue, and varied teacher-developed activities are introduced, to bridge the gap between medium- and message-oriented communication. The mother tongue is used for cueing responses, and in the early stages of each phase.

84–400 Burling, Robbins (U. of Michigan). A proposal for computer-assisted instruction in vocabulary. *System* (Oxford), **11**, 2 (1983), 181–90.

When reading, students are pulled between three unhappy choices: if they resist looking up words they may miss a good deal of the meaning; if they look up unknown words without memorising them they will read slowly and their vocabulary will not expand rapidly; if they try to memorise many of the words they look up, they will have little time left for reading.

A technique for helping students to understand both aural and written language is proposed. Every text is accompanied by a taped version; listening to this as well as reading the text helps to fix pronunciation, and forces students to try to comprehend at something like normal speed. The spoken version with its normal intonation and emphases provides important clues to the structure. Recordings of rapid natural conversation should also be helpful, but should preferably take the form of minimally rehearsed conversations of which a good quality recording can be made. An accompanying written transcript will be helpful for understanding.

A more radical proposal involves the use of a computer terminal (or a personal computer). The text to be studied is on the screen, and an aural version accompanies it. The student reads and listens and tries to understand as much as possible. Then he/she works through the passage more carefully, asking the computer for a short translation of any important words which cannot be guessed by means of a cursor (e.g. an underline which can be moved by a control to the desired location). Following the translation would be a number indicating the word's frequency. In most cases the short translation would suffice. If not, a fuller treatment could be asked for. Any words chosen for memorisation could be entered into a computer file for later reference. This method avoids interrupting reading more than the minimum amount. Various alternative procedures would also be possible.

84–401 Carrell, Patricia L. (Southern Illinois U.). Three components of background knowledge in reading comprehension. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **33**, 2 (1983), 183–207.

Research in native (English) and non-native (ESL) reading comprehension has shown that the ability to understand texts is based not only on the comprehender's linguistic knowledge, but also on general knowledge of the world and the extent to which that knowledge is activated during processing. Separate components of background knowledge which have been identified in the literature are: (1) prior knowledge in the content area of the text (familiar *v.* novel); (2) prior knowledge that the text is about a particular content area (context *v.* no context); and (3) degree to which the lexical items in the text reveal the content area (transparent *v.* opaque). This paper reports a study which shows the individual and interactive effects of these three separate variables on the reading comprehension of both native (English) and non-native (ESL) readers.

Results indicate that, unlike native speakers for whom all three components of background knowledge play a significant role in reading, understanding, and recalling

a text, non-native readers show virtually no significant effects of background know-ledge. Further, also unlike native readers, non-native readers appear not to have a good sense of how easy or difficult a text is for them to understand. These findings are discussed in relation to schema-theoretical views of reading as an interactive process between the text and the reader, and in relation to their implications for ESL reading pedagogy.

84–402   Carton, Dana (American U., Washington, DC]. Using forms as springboards for conversation in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **16**, 5 (1983), 355–60.

Standardised target language forms that require the furnishing of biographical information can be used as springboards for personalised conversation in the foreign language classroom. They encourage the immediate and meaningful employment of language between two class members in a directly personalised context. A sampling of forms is accompanied by guidelines for their productive classroom employment. These activities are characterised by total student involvement, with all class members participating simultaneously. Such forms may be used in a variety of instructional settings: from high school to university or adult education. They may be employed at any level of language instruction, and with any target language, including ESL. These lessons can be used independently at any time to complement a textbook or curriculum, or to introduce or review some practical target language vocabulary, while providing a stimulating and motivational change of pace.

84–403   Crawshaw, Robert (U. of Lancaster). The exploitation of the media and the changing role of the foreign language teacher. *Échanges Pédagogiques* (Paris), **1** (1983), 31–40.

Teachers are under pressure to integrate 'the media' into their teaching though they may well be confused about what is involved. A practical model is proposed which is based on the principle of integrating activities round a given theme and on a more flexible interpretation of the traditional progression in audio-visual language learning from analysis to exploitation. The approach has three stages: the first covers selection and analysis – the teacher's role is to set the document in context. A-V analysis can take place at three levels, sociological, media production and linguistic. Instead of the teacher 'explaining' the film, it is best if students use video equipment outside class time and cover the three levels on their own with the help of a comprehensive questionnaire. Class time is then spent going over the questionnaire.

The second stage is 'enaction' and is creative in its orientation. Pupils are divided into small groups and are provided with, or have access to, a wide range of material, out of which they create an entity for themselves, e.g. an exchange of letters leading to an interview, making a presentation to the board, organising the sales network, etc., working in unsupervised groups. The enaction should ideally take place in a television studio or be video-recorded in the classroom; the students should aim at a balance between formal presentation and personal interaction. The teacher's role comes later as viewer and editorial adviser. Although this stage is mainly oral in orientation,

preparation involves writing and discussion. Some of the language used will be based on written documents which are read out. Evaluation of the work produced is encouraged by the teacher's producing 'correction tapes' which match the image on the screen; students can work on these in their own time, correcting and editing their original texts at their own individual pace.

The third and final stage is exploitation in the form of written exercises in the form of essays, reports, memoranda, etc., or a written summary of the scenario. The amount of time devoted to a complete cycle would be a month in the context of a university course involving two language classes per week, or less under more intensive conditions. Students need a month's 'build-up' before they are ready to take on the demands this approach places on them.

84–404 Deering, Joke (Rijksuniversiteit, Utrecht). Leessnelheid in de moedertaal (Nederlands) en in een vreemde taal (Frans). [Reading speed in a first language (Dutch) and in a foreign language (French).] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **13**, 2 (1982), 182–201.

This research focuses on the comparative speed of reading in a first and in a foreign language. Dutch-speaking subjects with varying degrees of command in French were set to read a number of informative texts in Dutch and French. They were instructed to read through these texts as quickly as they could, and to summarise them directly afterwards in a few lines each.

When dealing with Dutch texts, subjects were found to read an average of 165 words per minute. When reading the French texts, the speed of reading dropped by 20% for subjects with a completed University education in French. For third-year students of French a slow-down of 25% was found. A third group of subjects – students of various disciplines who had studied French up to A-level only – needed as much as 150% more time for the French texts.

The texts used fell into one of three categories, viz. reports (newspaper items covering everyday events), opinionating texts (newspaper items expressing point of view), and academic texts (passages from introductory academic textbooks on various subjects). When the language was Dutch, reports allowed an average reading speed of 182 words per minute, opinionating texts of 171 words per minute, and academic texts of 141 words per minute. When the results obtained on the French texts were differentiated according to text type a similar pattern emerged.

As a further outcome of the experiment the assumption was confirmed that the correlation between word recognition speed – as measured by a lexical decision task – and reading speed will be lower when the medium in both tasks is a foreign rather than the subjects' own language. This is especially the case with subjects whose command of the foreign language is relatively low.

These data are in keeping with recent psycholinguistic views on the reading process, and with other experimental findings as to the differences between good readers and poor readers reported from investigations into the initial stages of mother tongue reading.

84–405   Drop, W. (Rijksuniversiteit, Utrecht). Een leertekst toegankelijker maken. [Making a text more accessible.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **15**, 1 (1983), 31–47.

Study texts may give problems to learners because the content is not presented clearly enough. In order to understand a text one should be able to regard it as a complex of parts, interrelated by specific links. Parts the size of simple sentences may be understood 'in one go', i.e. one may grasp them in an internal representation. Larger parts may be understood in abbreviated form, in a representative statement. A complex of larger parts may be understood in their representative statements and the specific relations between them. For the recognition of parts in a text and the recognition of the specific relations between them (which very often are not formulated explicitly or specifically) one requires anticipation based on knowledge, on schemes.

For a text to be clear, it must not only be formulated in such a way that the elements at sentence level may be grasped in an internal representation by the reader, and in such a way that the links are easily identifiable. The text must also mark its larger parts and make the representative statements easily recognisable, for instance through front-positioning in the unit. In addition, the text must contain signals which enable the reader to anticipate on the larger parts and their links, thus promoting the identification of the markings and enabling the reader to recognise unmarked parts and their links as well.

It is demonstrated how a history text may be made more accessible without affecting the contents. Changes in formulation have only been made in so far as they are necessary for increasing the possibilities of identifying the structure.

84–406   Early, Patrick. The foreign-language language game: towards a methodology of classroom conversation for foreign learners. *Anglo-American Studies* (Madrid), **3**, 1 (1983), 59–78.

Levinson's term 'activity type' refers to 'any culturally recognised activity whether or not that activity is co-extensive with a period of speech or indeed whether any talk takes place in it at all'. It is recognisable as such by its participants. Ideally, the foreign language classroom would not merely model the speech routines the learner needs, but would actually prepare him for the task of 'making sense' in a real-life situation. Many language games follow rigid patterns of classroom interaction and conventional notions of roles, responses, etc.; they provide only 'pretend-talk', and little opportunity actually to converse. The classroom needs to become transformed into a 'talking shop', like a pub or café, where friends or strangers converse. Conversation is a 'largely unscripted event'. Learners would acquire speaker's rights and prerogatives to engage in focused interaction with one another, rather than with the teacher alone; these interactions should be initiated and sustained in the target language. The pedagogical purpose would be secondary to the interest of the human material. Teachers may find it harder than learners to adapt when the rules of classroom discourse are radically changed.

Curran's Counselling Learning/Community Language Learning is considered as

an alternative 'language game'. Discourse is student-initiated; no tasks are set; teachers are non-directive; the mother tongue is tolerated as a facilitator of conversational performance. The method sets out to foster conversation; the onus of making conversation is on the learner, though a climate of security is established first.

84–407   Edge, Julian (Istanbul U., Turkey). Reading to take notes and to summarise: a classroom procedure. *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Birmingham), **1**, 2 (1983), 93–8.

A communicative classroom procedure is described (arising out of work done at Istanbul and Boğazici Universities), designed to give students initial practice in the skill of extracting points from a written text in order to make notes on and to summarise that text. Using various modes of classroom interaction, the procedure gives the students practice in the recognition, production and evaluation of paragraph summaries in note form. As well as describing the procedure, the article presents a piece of material that has been used with several groups of undergraduate and adult students.

84–408   Ehnert, Rolf (U. of Bielefeld). Tonträger im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Tape machines in language teaching.] *Bielefelder Beiträge zur Sprachlehrforschung* (Bielefeld, FRG), **1** (1982), 78–95.

The areas of use of tape and cassette machines in teaching foreign languages are described. Applications include listening comprehension – for learning the phonetic and intonational components of the language as well as for becoming acquainted with situational, regional and individual variation; pronunciation training; pattern and vocabulary drills, and the acquisition of cultural knowledge. Usage in various contexts is described, ranging from the classroom through the language laboratory to the use of materials recorded in class for home practice. Emphasis is placed on guided self-instruction to make full use of the medium. [An example of a text and the suggested accompanying exercises is appended.]

84–409   Gentilhomme, Yves (U. of Besançon). Dictionnaires à finalité didactique: problématique et compromis. [Teaching dictionaries: the problems and some compromise solutions.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **49** (1983), 192–207.

A teaching dictionary has to be assessed in the light of its professed aims, the public it addresses, and how, where and by whom it is intended to be used. Five dictionaries of different types, none designed as an aid to language teaching but all capable of being so used, are studied and compared.

A teaching dictionary constitutes an intermediate lexical system and consequently imposes certain constraints on the lexicographer. Not only must circular definitions and misleading, incomplete or superfluous definitions be avoided, but a possible superabundance of information has to be eliminated, the dictionary humanised and made accessible to the user, and the lexical information imparted systematised in such a way as to render it consistent and readily comprehensible, thus facilitating learning.

84–410 Hartl, Barbara (Leipzig). Behalten und Reproduzieren eines Fach-textes in Abhängigkeit vom Grad der Sprachbeherrschung und der Art der Text-arbeitung unter unterschiedlichen Reproduktionsbedingungen. [Retention and reproduction of a specialised text and its dependency on the degree of language mastery and the manner of text presentation under differing conditions of reproduction.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig, GDR), **20**, 4 (1983), 209–13.

A report of an experiment in which 175 foreign learners of German and 61 German native speakers – all students of mathematics and physics – simultaneously read and listened to a physics text. Half the subjects had a supporting illustration. The text was reproduced after the first presentation and after a second presentation. It was reproduced a third time a fortnight later without further presentation. The foreign learners with the supporting illustration were able to reproduce more of the text than those without. The amounts reproduced correlated with degree of proficiency in German. For native speakers of German there was no significant difference. It is suggested that instructional texts for foreign language teaching be provided with appropriate illustrations where possible. The findings are interpreted as providing support for a 'story grammar' model of text interpretation.

84–411 Ilyin, Donna (Alemany Community Coll. Center, San Francisco). What can be done to help the low-ability student? *System* (Oxford), **11**, 2 (1983), 163–79.

Ways of helping adult low-ability students at three levels are discussed: (i) the beginner, (ii) the student at other levels, and (iii) the static student. (i) Beginners are here divided into those who are unschooled with no English, the semi-educated or educated with no English and the unschooled with oral English skills only. Classes should be small (15–20 maximum). Teachers should begin with real-life experiences and use concrete objects and people, then move to representations, then pictures, and finally to abstract symbols. Everything should be done in small parts, each related to the other, and presented slowly, step by step. Constant feedback from the teacher encourages each small success: self-image is important. (ii) Some materials for this group are discussed. (iii) Literacy students understand a great deal and have developed survival methods. Short-term memory problems require that selections for reading and writing are kept as short as possible. Those who are not beginners may be helped by learning very basic things like how to organise and categorise. Materials used should take the focus away from the language and help the students to be more relaxed. Static students are found at all levels. Frequently, they have given up trying to learn. The teacher might try to find out what these students really want to do instead of studying language, and begin by insisting on only a few minutes' language study, gradually increasing this and decreasing the time spent on the preferred activity. The teacher's continued belief in such a student can be the most motivating factor.

84–412 Nord, James R. (Michigan State U.). Developing listening fluency before speaking: an alternative paradigm. *Views on Language and Language Teaching* (Athens), **17**, 1 (1980), 21–31 (pt. I) *and* **17**, 2 (1980) [publ. 1983], 59–75 (pt. II).

Part I. The 'comprehension approach' to foreign language teaching is more than a simple switch from an emphasis on speaking to an emphasis on listening. Audio-lingual methodology continually stressed the lingual at the expense of the audio. It assumed that the nature of language was basically 'talk'. It was not successful: the stress on speaking in the early stages caused anxiety, and repetition of meaningless phases caused boredom. The cognitive theory of language acquisition also regards language as talk though defining it as 'communicative competence and performance'.

Listening fluency may be a more promising avenue of approach, or an 'alternative paradigm'. The assertion is that listening should be taught first and foremost, and that oral response should be delayed until listening fluency is well started. Language acquisition can and does take place without any overt performance. Indeed, performance before learning may be detrimental to listening fluency, pronunciation and grammatical control.

Part II. If pupils become task-overloaded by trying to speak and say more than they are able to, they will revert to the habits they know best, i.e. those of their native tongue. The new paradigm focuses attention on language acquisition by the central nervous system, acquiring competence rather than learning performance. Language is viewed as an internal cognitive structure, a symbolic system, which both aids thinking within the individual and acts as the guidance system in interpersonal communication. The initial focus on listening comprehension is to provide a source of 'primary linguistic data'.

Comprehension is controlled by the part of the brain known as 'Wernicke's area'. Research indicates that some different mechanisms of the brain are involved in learning to speak. One of the advantages of Asher's 'total physical response' strategy may be its development of multiple associational cortex interactions with Wernick's area. Luria sees three levels of language development, which occur at three separate levels of brain integration. Conditions for comprehension are (i) retention of all the elements of an expression in the speech memory (left temporal cortex); (ii) the simultaneous synthesis of the elements of the expression, and surveying the elements and forming them into a simultaneously perceived logical scheme (parieto-occipital zones of the left hemisphere); (iii) active analysis of the most significant elements (frontal lobes) – this is the most important stage. Damage to the frontal lobes will not prevent understanding of words and simple sentences but will completely prevent understanding of complex forms.

Implications of brain research for speech performance problems are that mimicry drills may activate certain brain functions but not usually the abstract frontal lobe function. Active and prolonged listening over an extended period can be considered an abstract modelling process which will later enable students to express their thoughts spontaneously. Once competence has been acquired through the development of listening fluency, transfer to the other performance skills is rapid. Discrimination

training can be used in place of response practice to help shorten the total learning time.

84–413   Richards, Jack C. (U. of Hawaii at Manoa). Listening comprehension: approach, design, procedure. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 2 (1983), 219–40.

Three dimensions of conceptualisation, planning and performance involved in the teaching of listening comprehension are considered. These are referred to as 'approach', 'design' and 'procedure'. Under 'approach', research on the nature of spoken discourse is considered for its relevance to listening comprehension, particularly concerning the nature of the units listeners make use of in understanding language, i.e. the propositions being expressed (the semantic approach), and what an utterance means to a person in a particular speech situation (the pragmatic approach). 'Medium factors' are another dimension of listening comprehension: they vary according to the nature of the discourse, speaker's attitude, and the situation [nine such factors are considered].

The 'design' phase in curriculum development consists of the assessment of learner needs, isolation of micro-skills, diagnostic testing and formulation of instructional objectives.

'Procedure' refers to the instructional procedures and activities which enable the objectives to be realised. In teaching listening, the variables which can be manipulated are the input (the language) or the tasks set for the learner. A checklist for evaluating activities and exercises is offered and exercise types briefly enumerated.

84–414   Sadow, Stephen A. (Northeastern U.) Creative problem-solving for the foreign language class. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **16**, 2 (1983), 115–20.

Small-group activities which require problem-solving allow students to practise creative thinking and foreign language skills simultaneously. Known techniques for stimulating creativity can be adapted to the language class. In the model suggested, creative problem-solving activities are built around problems that are clearly defined, admit many possible solutions, and entail a situation in which reality is slightly skewed. While working in small groups, students practise role-play by becoming 'experts' in the matter at hand. Through the use of a recording secretary, the group is held accountable for its time. The teacher prepares the activity beforehand, tells the class the problem, checks comprehension, elicits questions that will help the students structure their discussion, divides the class, and withdraws from the scene. When enough time has elapsed, discussion is halted and the secretaries read their reports. [Three sample activities are included.]

84–415   Short, M. H. (U. of Lancaster). Stylistics and the teaching of literature. *ELT Documents* (London), **115** (1983), 67–84.

Sensitivity to literature can be taught by providing the student (or critic) with a descriptive tool applicable to any literary passage, by means of which he can assess

the deviance and richness of the text against the norms of 'everyday' language. This is valuable to the foreign learner in particular because it enhances his appreciation by reinforcing knowledge of the regularities he will meet in non-literary language.

Instead of leaping into interpretation and then to evaluation, as now happens, the student and critic are urged to devote more time to explicit description, over which they are more likely to agree. They will then disagree less at the interpretation stage. An example is given of such description, by which it is demonstrated that a passage from Joyce's *A portrait of the artist as a young man* will count as an 'epiphany' when its structure is assessed in the light of the options available to an author of representing speech and thought. Hence stylistic analysis should be central to criticism and the teaching of literature, since it is only by demonstrating the explicit link between linguistic structure and meaning/effect that we will understand how literature works.

84–416 Smithies, Michael (Nanyang Technological Inst., Singapore). Reading habits at a third world technological university. *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Birmingham), **1**, 2 (1983), 111–18.

In common with all categories of student and professional, technologists need to keep up to date in their areas of specialisation by reading. A study was made of reading habits of students at a technological institution in Papua New Guinea to see what the extent of student reading was. It emerged that little was read in the professional areas unless lecturers tested students on required reading, and preferred reading was comics and fiction. The need to establish and encourage a reading habit in a country with only a recent written tradition is clearly essential, and some suggestions are given for ways to improve the situation.

84–417 Stevens, Florence (Concordia U.). Activities to promote learning and communication in the second language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 2 (1983), 259–72.

This article examines a teaching methodology based on activity-centred learning, which is applicable to ESL or FSL classes as well as to immersion programmes. Examples are given of activities which foster second-language learning both in the classroom and on out-of-school excursions, together with the psycholinguistic principles on which they are based. The activities described are suitable for 11- to 12-year-olds and may be adapted for younger or older learners.

An activity-centred (AC) class is one in which subject matter is presented using a thematic approach and where students are involved in real-life experiences, exploring topics at their level. Teachers make language correction indirectly except in specific language periods. Students choose their own areas of study within a theme suggested by the teacher, find the necessary information in whatever way is required, and present their findings in a form they have selected. They have opportunities to initiate discourse on several levels: decision making, information seeking, presentation of facts and ideas, and informal exchanges. A study in the Montreal area showed that students who spent 50% of their instructional time in an AC immersion programme showed skills comparable with those of students who had spent 80% of their time in a

teacher-centred programme, despite the time difference. Suggested reasons for this are the motivation provided by the use of language in real situations and the opportunities for extended discourse among peers.

Examples of activities are grouped into: school events (science fair, winter carnival), academic themes (colour, birds), developing personal skills (sewing project, cooking), out-of-school activities (visits, shopping, special local events).

84–418   van Esch, C. J. M. (Kathölieke U., Nijmegen). Individualisering van leesonderwijs aan volwassenen. Een verkenning van mogelijkheden. [Individualisation of the teaching of reading. An exploration of the possibilities.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **12**, 1 (1982), 106–21.

The possibilities of individualisation in general and of the teaching of foreign languages in particular are discussed. Of the four areas of individualisation (objectives of learning, rate of learning, method or style of learning and content of learning), the second is the most commonly used. The theory of Mastery Learning (Bloom, 1971), which distinguishes between basic tasks and additional tasks, is an elaboration of Carroll's theory (1963) of differences in rate and learning. Since learning foreign languages consists of the acquisition of communicative skills and problem-solving strategies, more is needed than a classification of learning-content in basic tasks and additional tasks (Welsing, 1978; Papen, 1980). The differences in learning outcomes are not only caused by differences in learning rate, but above all by differences in learning strategies and methods. Therefore, we must know about individual learning strategies and methods, before we can improve them and thus also the result of the learning. This implies an investigation of the interaction between the individual learner and his/her teaching environment. Applied to the reading process: reading is a function of individual characteristics and task characteristics; to comprehend the interplay of these two kinds of characteristics of the reading of foreign languages, we have to investigate them in specific situations and for specific groups, as for example the group of adult language learners (Hunt, 1972, 1979).

In reading a foreign language, three strategies are very important: (1) to eliminate irrelevant alternatives by using one's own knowledge; (2) to use as efficiently as possible the visual information of a text; and (3) to take calculated risks. Related to strategies (1) and (2) are individual styles of information-processing or cognitive styles. One aspect of the cognitive style of information-processing which is assumed to be important for reading a foreign language is field-dependency/field-independency. Related to strategy 3 is the sense of personal control of learning which deals with the dimension of locus of control. Task-characteristics of reading are the degrees of structure, feedback and challenge in both text and teaching environment and the evaluation of the reading task.

To improve the teaching of reading by adapting to individual differences we must investigate the interactions between the above-mentioned task characteristics and individual reading styles that are based on cognitive styles. A research project is being planned for German language learners (13 to 15 years old) and Spanish language learners (adults) in order to find out about these interactions. Meanwhile, the only recommendations for the teaching of reading are (1) much more attention to the

reading process, (2) more exercises to optimalise the three reading strategies (Westhoff, 1981; Neuner, 1981), (3) adaptation of the choice of texts to the interests and present knowledge of the language learner and (4) not only evaluation of the product of reading but also of the process.

84–419 van Uden, A. J. M. (Inst. voor Doven Sint Michielsgestel). Enkele psychologische aspecten bij het beginnend lezen van prelinguaal dove kinderen. [Some psychological aspects of the initial reading by prelingually profoundly deaf children.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **13**, 2 (1982), 168–81.

'Reading' can be described as a process that derives concepts from visual codes. These codes can be pictorial or non-pictorial. Non-pictorial codes can have graphic–verbal–dialogic backgrounds. The initial reading process by prelingually profoundly deaf toddlers can be developed as 'ideo-visual reading', i.e. without any phonological en- and de-coding. This can be worked out in such a way that communicative interactions can be represented and read in 'visualised conversations'.

84–420 Wade, Barrie and Dewhirst, Wendy (U. of Birmingham). Reading comprehension revisited. *Educational Research* (Birmingham), **25**, 3 (1983), 171–6.

Five different notions of reading comprehension are reviewed and compared. (1) The Gray–Robinson model (1966) concentrates on a skills approach with progress through four main areas: word perception, comprehension (grasping the meaning), reaction and evaluation, and assimilation. Some teachers have interpreted this model in a narrow, mechanical way instead of treating the areas as being interdependent. (2) The Language Experience/Breakthrough to Literacy model (1970) sees reading linked to the child's spoken language and experience, and as one of the four elements of communication. Both teacher and child are active participants in the learning process. (3) The Goodman model (1973) views the reading process as a three-cue system using sight, sound and experience. The child's reading behaviour is analysed through reading miscues, and instruction targets are set individually. The child is involved at every stage in the process. (4) Guildford's model (1959) was translated by Spache (1973) into five specific skills areas: cognition, memory, divergent skill area, convergent skill area, and evaluation. The model highlights the reader's purpose in reading. (5) The Barrett Taxonomy, used as a framework by the Bullock Committee (1975), presents a model in terms of assessing the cognitive and effective domains of presentation. It sees the reading process as a thoughtful dialogue between reader and print.

Each of these models draws attention to an important aspect of the reading process. Comprehension can be seen as a group of processes working simultaneously but intermingled. The attitude of the teacher and the motivation of pupils are important aspects. Tests and assessment schedules are constrained by the difficulties of measuring the often indefinable open-ended response. Some skills are only measured in a few tests. The three main categories measured are word meanings, relationships among

ideas, and reasoning processes. Comprehension tests do not measure mental processes, only end results. Low scores may not equate with lack of understanding, or high scores indicate high comprehension. An over-reliance on test results by teachers can limit pupils' performance. Competence is developed when materials are within the pupils' experience and significant to them. Other ways of assessing reading comprehension include sentence completion and cloze procedure. Informal assessment will always be regarded as one of the important forms of assessment. Three ways of assessing comprehension without tests are (1) gaining an overview of the reading progress of a whole class; (2) miscue analysis on texts tested by readability formulae, and (3) using prepared texts.

84–421 Wells, Irene (Thames Poly.). **The advanced learner and the language laboratory.** *Modern Languages* (London), **64**, 1 (1983), 23–7.

Language laboratory exercises for post-A-level first- and second-year students are outlined, with suggestions as to how to adapt well-known drills for advanced learners. With transformation drills, sentences can be made longer, and the vocabulary more demanding, a context can be provided and encouragement offered to counter the loneliness of working in a booth. With pronunciation and intonation exercises, students should be given the freedom to do the work when and as they wish. With *Nacherzählung* or textual paraphrase, the teacher can get various foreign-language speakers to record the text. With summarising, a text is played and students write a short version. Possibilities for comprehension exercises involve note-taking followed by: answers recorded by students on tape, questions from the teacher, written answers, and a multiple choice test. Transcription of a short piece of authentic speech is a useful exercise in close listening. If a collection of suitable tapes is built up, students can have practice in listening in their own time, particularly to drama, readings from prose works or radio plays. Language laboratories are ideal for practising consecutive or even simultaneous interpreting. Students of business and secretarial studies can use the lab console for practice in telephoning.

84–422 Weinrich, Harold. Literatur im Fremdsprachenunterricht – ja, aber mit Phantasie. [Literature in foreign language teaching – Yes, but imaginatively.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **82**, 3 (1983), 200–16.

If literature is not included in initial lessons in a foreign language, one can certainly get wonderfully gentle progressions, but the complexity of the real language and real life cannot be done away with in this way. The literary component in foreign language lessons is therefore a suitable form for encountering the complexity of life with controllable methods. This must already be happening in beginners' classes, so as to avoid the notorious literature shock on introducing literary texts at a later stage in the language course. Particularly appropriate as a literary component in initial foreign language lessons is concrete poetry, with the aid of which the learners' interest can be aroused regarding the linguistic form. In the further course of the language lessons increasing use should be made of literary texts, written by experts in foreign language didactics in co-operation with authors, expressly for the purpose of language

instruction. Such texts already exist in the spheres of German as a foreign language and French as a foreign language (Ionesco, Robbe-Grillet). Various examples are presented and analysed in this context; they show that foreign language instruction can be made more lively and interesting by working with texts of this nature. Of further significance for foreign language instruction is the existence of some remarkable literature written by foreigners. Literary texts written by foreigners are particularly suitable for use in lessons as the learner can be motivated by the fact that he can easily identify with the author, who likewise has at some stage had difficulties in learning the foreign language.

84–423 Westhoff, G. J. (Rijksuniversiteit, Utrecht). Enkele didaktische impl-ikaties van een perceptiepsychologische theorie van het lezen in een vreemde taal. [Some didactic implications of a theory of reading a foreign language, based on perception psychology.] *Toegepaste Taalwetenschap in Artikelen* (Amsterdam), **13**, 2 (1982), 112–27.

This paper presents an approach to training foreign language reading based on the theory that reading can be described as a cybernetic process of 'bottom up' and 'top down' processing. In this framework five fields of knowledge can be distinguished which the reader can use for 'top down' processing: (1) knowledge about the probability of letter combinations; (2) knowledge about sentence structures; (3) knowledge about the probability of word combinations; (4) knowledge about logical structures; (5) knowledge about the world.

Knowledge in fields 1, 2 and 3 is language-bound. Therefore, for most foreign language readers, the ratio between the visual information needed and the knowledge already possessed will be more adverse than in the mother tongue. This lack of knowledge can be compensated for by optimalising knowledge in fields 4 and 5, which are only slightly language-bound.

To enlarge the readers' knowledge in fields 1, 2 and 3, the authors developed a reading programme, providing the student with a rich learning environment in the form of much reading material of an adequate level. Cloze procedure was used to grade the reading material and to determine the appropriate level.

To extend the students' ability to use knowledge from fields 4 and 5, a training programme was developed partly based on Gal'perin's theory of the stagewise development of mental activities. One of the most important stages to be completed is the so-called 'verbal stage', in which the prediction strategies used by the reader had to be expressed in words.

After eight months (one hour a week) a qualitative and a quantitative evaluation were completed. In respect of the latter, the most significant effect found ($P < 0.01$) was an increased ability to predict meaning on the basis of a relatively incomplete foreign language knowledge.

84–424   Whitaker, S. F. (University Coll. of N. Wales, Bangor). Comprehension questions: about face! *ELT Journal* (London), **37**, 4 (1983), 329–34.

The standard comprehension question is inherently malignant rather than maligned. Learner-initiated language use is what is wanted; many interactive techniques, however, preclude adequate feedback from the teacher. The answer is for comprehension questions to come from the learners instead of being directed at them. With the existing procedures, the learner must get in step with the predetermined answers. Learners will need encouragement from the teacher to retain their natural enquiring attitude. Many of the questions they ask will be silent ones. Working informally and privately in groups, they can put together tentative data about a passage, allowing for disagreement and uncertainty, but coming to some consensus. Having collectively looked for clues they will try to add some precision to their reading. They will have more success in clarifying unfamiliar vocabulary if they pool their guesses. Many of their questions will be unforeseeable but most will be profitable. The teacher may have to re-think his own interpretation of a text. With this method, the pupils' confidence in tackling a text increases. One group can set questions for another group, based on what they have learned – these will be at a level and of a kind which have proved significant for them. Real comprehension can only gain if the resources of the mother tongue are admitted in class. It will almost certainly be necessary to provide some kind of structured guidance for learners, perhaps in the form of an outline 'map' of the key information or themes in the text. Pupils collaborate by filling in the map or framework.

84–425   Zamel, Vivian (U. of Massachusetts, Boston). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, **17**, 2 (1983), 165–87.

The most recent research in composition has provided insights into the composing process. This research has revealed that composing is a non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning. A study of the composing processes of advanced ESL students was undertaken to investigate the extent to which these students experience writing as a process of discovering and creating meaning and the extent to which second-language factors affect this process. The findings indicate that skilled ESL writers explore and clarify ideas and attend to language-related concerns primarily after their ideas have been delineated.

Since it is believed that the teaching of composition should be informed by and based upon what writing actually entails, an understanding of the composing process calls into question approaches that are prescriptive, formulaic, and overly concerned with correctness. Instead, it suggests the importance of instruction that gives students direct experiences with the composing process, that establishes a dynamic teaching/learning relationship between writers and their readers, and that enhances further linguistic development in the context of making and communicating meaning.