# Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

## Theory and principles

**88–385  Brewer, William Benjamin** (Memphis State U.). Are foreign language requirements defensible in the light of recent research findings in SLA? *Hispania* (Worcester, MA), **71**, 1 (1988), 155–9.

Current writings on SLA (second-language acquisition) are in line with what many teachers have long realised – that error correction is usually futile, students who can drill perfectly are unable to transfer the knowledge to a real situation, students are more interested when having a discussion about what interests them than when forced to discuss characters in a text book. Successful FL acquisition is embarrassingly rare; indeed, many students have acquired FLs in spite of being taught them. Though this much is admitted, it is still taboo to go on to question FL requirements themselves. Writers on SLA skirt round the issue without stating openly that only the intrinsically motivated learner will be successful, whereas the FL requirement means that most learners are only in the FL classroom because they have to be. High enrolment figures at elementary and intermediate level are needed to fund research into, for example, Hispanic studies,

but enrolments are currently falling because the initial experience with a language fails to create the motivation to continue beyond the bare requirement.

The initiative to combat FL requirements will have to come from teachers, but it is difficult for FL professionals to suggest improving by reducing their own profession. The main needs are (1) to educate all students in the important areas of world culture and the phenomenon of human language and (2) to produce from among willing and able students a cadre of citizens proficient in FLs. The first of these interests can be served by the creation of appropriate alternatives to FL skills courses, such as cultural studies, area studies, linguistics and literature in English translation. The second aim can be facilitated by the removal of uninterested students from the classroom.

**88–386  Brumfit, Christopher** (U. of Southampton). Problems and prospects in communicative language teaching. *Journal of Applied Linguistics* (Thessaloniki, Greece), **2** (1986), 15–25.

The theory and practice of communicative language teaching involves a shift from linguistics as a prime source of insight to language in use. There are, however, several problems which result from communicative assumptions. For example, there are the questions of determining objectively learners' needs, of defining authenticity in terms of classroom materials, and of establishing a syllabus appropriate

to local conditions. In addition, there is the problem of reconciling conversational, literary, and intellectual objectives.

Language policy, incorporating mother tongue teaching, foreign languages, and second and classical languages, should perhaps be considered in a global context and should examine the role of language in education generally.

**88–387  Corder, S. Pit.** (U. of Edinburgh), Second language acquisition research and second language teaching. *Journal of Applied Linguistics* (Thessaloniki, Greece), **1** (1985), 7–21.

Language learning is an organic process which involves the simultaneous acquisition of various elements. It is a progression from simple to complex – a process of elaboration. Teachers are required to use the second language and create in the classroom learning conditions which, by the introduction of increasingly complex tasks, motivate the learner to communicate in the language. Partici-

pation must be receptive as well as productive. There is evidence of mother tongue influence, which is helpful provided the mother tongue and the second language are similar.

Procedural syllabuses are being developed which involve graded activities, group work and problem solving.

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**88-388  Ho, David Y. F.** (U. of Hong Kong). Intralingual and interlingual factors in language learning difficulty. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **16,** 5 (1987), 399–416.

A distinction between behavioural and linguistic measures of difficulty in language learning is made explicit. It is argued that behavioural measures must be regarded as primary and linguistic measures as secondary, the latter being only a component of the former. An evaluation of the evidence leads to the following conclusions: (*a*) No unequivocal answer can be given to the question of whether some languges are intrinsically more difficullt to learn than others; (*b*) second-language learning is more difficult than first-language learning, to the extent that native-speaker competence is a very difficult goal to achieve for adult second-language learners; and (*c*) interlingual distance is a determinant of difficulty, but simple, linear relations between them or between linguistic and behavioural measures of difficulty can hardly be expected.

**88-389  Holec, Henri** (CRAPEL, U. of Nancy II). L'acquisition de compétence culturelle. Quoi? Pourquoi? Comment? [Acquiring cultural competence. What is it? Why is it needed? How is it to be acquired?] *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **69** (1988), 101–10.

There are two kinds of culture. There is the system of values and attitudes shared by those belonging to a cultural community. There is also an individual culture which each person constructs from the experience of a lifetime. It is the former which is the subject of this article and which is properly the concern of language teaching and learning, since linguistic competence is incomplete without cultural competence. The acquisition of such competence is more appropriately linked to strategies focusing on learner autonomy than to traditional teaching methods.

**88-390  Lister, Roy** (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). Speaking immersion. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **43,** 4 (1987), 701–17.

This article deals with the fossilised interlanguage spoken by French immersion students. The author attributes the persistence of this interlanguage to the erroneous assumption on which immersion methodology has been based: that immersion students acquire the language in the same way the native language was acquired without explicit emphasis on form. French immersion in fact represents learning rather than acquisition conditions simply because of its academic nature. An analysis of errors consistently detected in the immersion interlanguage reveals that language transfer is an overwhelming cause of errors. A change in immersion methodology is therefore proposed, together with the development of a linguistic syllabus designed for immersion students as second-language learners, based on contrastive analysis and presented in a graded progression. An examination of pedagogical materials designed for native speakers of French and currently implemented in immersion programmes reveals their inappropriateness since they do not meet the needs of immersion students. The absence of a systematic linguistic syllabus aimed at second-language learners can impede rather than encourage real communication by reinforcing the early fossilisation of the immersion interlanguage.

**88-391  Porcher, Louis** (U. de la Sorbonne Nouvelle, Paris). Programme, progrès, progressions, projets dans l'enseignement/apprentissage d'une culture étrangère. [Programme, progress, progression, projects in the teaching/learning of a foreign culture.] *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **69** (1988), 91–100.

Numerous works on the teaching of civilisation have (1) failed to clarify the fundamental point of progression, and (2) have analysed the unbreakable links between language and civilisation, which teaching purposes have separated. The concept of progression is discussed – the way in which one lesson builds on previous lessons, has links with future lessons and is not just a random selection of

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ideas. Previous works have ascribed a minor role to the concept of progression because the purpose of teaching a foreign culture has not been clearly defined.

Recognising the essential nature of a culture is necessary to avoid teaching concepts which quickly become obsolete and to enable a foreigner to anticipate the behaviour expected from a particular situation. Sociology plays an important part in this process. Society must be analysed objectively. A society's basic concepts, and the way its members put them into practice, must be understood. Problems such as the temptation to teach only 'interesting themes' are discussed. Phenomena which exist in all cultures, although often interpreted differently in each, could form the basis of teaching. This concept could be allied to a selection of practices whereby cultural functioning and characteristics could be observed.

**88–392  Rutherford, William E.** (U. of Southern California). The meaning of grammatical consciousness-raising. *World Englishes* (Oxford), **6**, 3 (1987), 209–16.

The pros and cons of grammatical consciousness-raising (C-R) in pedagogy are still very much a part of current discussion on the proper relations between theories of second-language acquisition and classroom learning and teaching. While it seems clear from these studies that grammatical C-R should be given a place in the language-teaching curriculum, it by no means follows that we have a clear idea of what that role ought to be. There would presumably be little dispute with the notion that whatever it is that is raised to consiousness should be maximally consistent both with what we presently know of the nature of language and its organising principles and with how all of that gets absorbed by the learner – i.e. the nature of language acquisition. Yet it can easily be argued that what has invariably been singled out for pedagogical attention, even over the many centuries of documented language teaching, amounts at best to a misrepresentation of these priciples – where it seems to have been widely assumed that the essence of language is the sum total of its putative combinatorial units and that the task of the teacher is to 'impart' these units directly to the learner. This is essentially a 'product approach' to grammatical C-R, and one in which the learner is presumed to be a *tabula rasa*. It will be argued, however, that meaningful research on the issue of whether or not formal instruction makes a difference will need to abandon notions of language learning as the accumulation of language entities and consider C-R with regard to grammatical processes and the learner's progressive restructuring of prior knowledge.

**88–393  Tabouret-Keller, Andrée** (U. Louis Pasteur, Strasbourg). Les difficultés de la notion de simplicité en matière de langue et de culture. [Problems with the concept of simplicity in relation to language and culture.] *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), **47** (1988), 36–41.

The contributions of anthropology, linguistics and psychoanalysis have made us more aware of the great complexity of language and culture. No longer can primary schools aim to proceed from the simple to the complex. Indeed many European primary schools try to do far too much. Given the complexity of the issues, a clear-cut choice between diametrically opposed approaches to language teaching (between learning about language and culture and learning through the language) is not possible; a mixed approach is to be preferred.

It should not be forgotten that simplicity is not the same as simplification (or over-simplification) and that true simplicity is often the result of a high degree of abstraction.

**88–394  Worrall, Norman and Tsarna, Helen** (U. of London Inst. of Education). Teachers' reported practices towards girls and boys in science and languages. *British Journal of Educational Psychology (London)*, **57**, 3 (1987), 300–12.

Fifty-three science and 55 language teachers, male and female, were asked about their classroom practices with respect to a typical or average ability 14-year-old, either a girl or boy. Questions ranged from the broad, e.g. amount of quality work expected, through the more specific, e.g. waiting

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time on difficult questions, to the very specific, e.g. frequency of smiling or eye contact. Up to eight of the 11 items showed a pattern where girls were relatively 'favoured' in languages, and boys in science, though less markedly. The pattern generally held for both male and female teachers, and there was no evidence for boys or girls being favoured either overall or selectively by male or female teachers. Although science teachers expected lower achievement from girls, this appeared not to influence their teaching disposition adversely. Both the situation for girls in science and the less understood situation for boys in languages seem usefully elaborated by such classroom practice indicators.

# Psychology of language learning

**88-395** Bardovi-Harlig, Kathleen (Indiana U.). Markedness and salience in second-language acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 3 (1987), 385–407.

This paper examines the acquisition of a typologically marked construction, preposition stranding, and its unmarked counterpart, preposition pied piping, by learners of English as a second language. Acquisition data from 95 college-age learners show unequivocally that preposition stranding (the marked form) is acquired before preposition pied piping (the unmarked form). This apparent counter-example to the markedness hypothesis, which predicts that unmarked forms should be acquired before marked forms, suggests that a second factor, salience, also plays a role in determining acquisition order.

**88-396 Bialystok, Ellen** (York U, Ontario). Influences of bilingualism on metalinguistic development. *Second Language Research* (Utrecht, The Netherlands), **3,** 2 (1987), 154–66.

The relationship between metalinguistic awareness and bilingualism is interpreted in terms of a framework which defines metalinguistic awareness as consisting of two processing components: analysis of linguistic knowledge, and control of linguistic processes. It is argued that bilingualism enhances only the latter of these processing components, so global assessments of metalinguistic ability by bilingual subjects are bound to lead to inconsistent results. Some studies are reported in which these two processing components are separated. Bilingual children are shown to be superior to monolingual children on measures of control of linguistic processes.

**88-397 Collier, Virginia P.** (George Mason U.). Age and rate of acquisition of second language for academic purposes. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21,** 4 (1987), 617–41.

The study reported in this article analysed the length of time required for 1,548 advantaged limited-English-proficient (LEP) students to become proficient in English for academic purposes while receiving instruction in English in all subject areas. Variables included were age on arrival, English proficiency level upon arrival, basic literacy and maths skills in the native language upon arrival, and number of years of schooling in English. Second language and content-area achievement were measured by students' performance on the Science Research Associates tests in reading, language arts, mathematics, science, and socal studies. The results indicated that LEP students who entered the ESL programme at ages 8–11 were the fastest achievers, requiring two to five years to reach the 50th percentile on national norms in all the subject areas tested. LEP students who entered the programme at ages five to seven were one to three years behind the performance level of their LEP peers who entered the programme at ages 8–11, when both groups had the same length of residence. Arrivals at ages 12–15 experienced the greatest difficulty and were projected to require as much as six to eight years to reach grade-level norms in academic achievement when schooled all in the second language. Whereas

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some groups may reach proficiency in some subjects in as little as two years, it is projected that at least four to eight years may be required for all ages of LEP students to reach national grade-level norms of native speakers in all subject areas of language and academic achievement, as measured on standardised tests.

**88–398  Coppieters, René** (Pomona Coll.). Competence differences between native and near-native speakers. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **63**, 3 (1987), 544–73.

Do native and native-like non-native (i.e. near-native) speakers develop essentially identical underlying grammars of the same language? Results of extensive interviews indicate that native and near-native speakers of French have strikingly different intuitions on French sentences. In particular, the two groups have markedly divergent interpretations of sentences involving basic grammatical contrasts such as the two past tenses (*imparfait* and *passé composé*), the 3rd person pronouns *il* and *ce*, and the placement of the adjective before or after the noun. This is so in spite of the fact that the two groups appear to be equivalent at the level of language use and proficiency. These results provide a clear illustration of the relative independence of the two levels of language: on the one hand, language use, and on the other hand, underlying grammar as reflected by speakers' intuitions. It is suggested that the specific nature of the divergences between native and near-native speakers' underlying grammars also provides clues to the internal organisation of language: in particular, the data indicate that near-native speakers diverge less from native speakers in formal features, such as those currently covered by studies in Universal Grammar, than in 'functional' or 'cognitive' aspects of grammar.

**88–399  de Guerrero, Maria C. M.** (Inter American U. of Puerto Rico). The din phenomenon: mental rehearsal in the second language. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **20**, 6 (1987), 537–45.

The din phenomenon, first discussed in the literature of second-language acquisition by Krashen, is a form of mental rehearsal in which words, sounds, and phrases of the second language are spontaneously replayed in the mind. This paper reports the results of a survey on the din phenomenon in which 52 Spanish-speaking ESL college students participated. The researcher was able to determine that the din was a very common phenomenon among the participants, to gain new insights into the nature of the din, and to establish that the din is present at almost all stages of acquisition. An important discovery was that mental rehearsal may be voluntary as well as spontaneous, voluntary rehearsal appearing as a way of monitoring language. The pedagogical implications and research possibilities of the din phenomenon and mental rehearsal are examined.

**88–400  Eckman, Fred R. and others** (U. of Wisconsin, Milwaukee). On the generalisation of relative clause instruction in the acquisition of English as a second language. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **9**, 1 (1988), 1–20.

This paper reports on an experimental study intended to test the generalisation of instruction in second language learning. A group of students in an English as a second language programme served as subjects for special instruction in relative clause formation. The subjects were given a pre-test on combining two sentences into one sentence containing a relative clause where either the subject, object, or object of a preposition was the relativised noun phrase. Based on the pre-test results, four equal groups were formed, three of which served as experimental groups and one as the control group. Each experimental group was given instruction on the formation of only one type of relative clause. The subjects were then given a post test. From the results of the experiment, it is argued that maximal generalisation of learning takes place from structures which are typologically more marked to those structures which are typologically less marked, and not the reverse. Some implications of this interpretation are discussed.

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**88–401  Ely, Christopher M.** (Ball State U.). Personality: its impact on attitudes toward classroom activities. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **21,** 1 (1988), 25–32.

This study investigated the degree to which students' personality characteristics influence their attitudes towards various learning activities in the language classroom. The research study was conducted with a group of 125 students of Spanish at the university level. The hypotheses of the study were that: (1) language class risktaking positively affects attitudes toward activities involving relatively free language use; (2) language class sociability positively affects attitudes towards activities involving the sharing of ideas or 'performing'; and (3) language class risktaking and language class sociability negatively affect attitudes toward highly-structured grammar practice. Multiple regression analysis provided partial confirmation of the hypotheses. The findings suggest the importance of taking personality into consideration in language instruction.

**88–402  Fayer, Joan M. and Krasinski, Emily** (U. of Puerto Rico). Native and non-native judgements of intelligibility and irritation. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 3 (1987), 313–26.

This study compares the reactions of native English speakers and native Spanish speakers who listened to tapes of Puerto Rican learners of English of various levels of proficiency. The listeners completed a questionnaire that examines the following variables: intelligibility, grammar, pronunciation, intonation, wrong words, voice, hesitations, distraction and annoyance. It was found that the English and Spanish listeners differed principally in how they rated the linguistic form of the speakers and in the annoyance reported. The Spanish listeners rated the linguistic form much lower than did the English listeners and also reported more annoyance. This indicates that the Spanish listeners were less tolerant toward non-native speech than were the English listeners. In addition, pronunciation and hesitations were reported by both groups of listeners to be, overall, the features most distracting from the message.

**88–403  Fitzgerald, Jill and Teasley, Alan B.** (U. of North Carolina at Chapel Hill). Effects of instruction in narrative structure on children's writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **78,** 6 (1986), 424–32.

The main goal of the present study was to investigate the possibility that direct instruction in story constituents and their interrelations could enhance fourth-grade children's organisation in story writing. The authors also investigated whether the special instruction might affect quality, coherence, use of temporal and causal relations, and creativity in writing. Fourth graders ($N = 19$) who scored at a low level on measures of knowledge of narrative structure were randomly assigned to one of two treatments, instruction in knowledge of story structure or instruction in dictionary-word study. The instruction included a short-term, intensive phase with 6 sessions during 2 weeks and a long-term, intermittent phase with 10 sessions during 5 weeks. Instruction in narrative structure had a strong positive effect on organisation in storywriting and also enhanced quality. There were no differential effects of the two treatments on coherence, use of temporal or causal links in writing, or creativity.

**88–404  Flynn, Suzanne** (Massachussetts Inst. of Tech.). Contrast and construction in a parameter-setting model of L2 acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 1 (1987), 19–62.

There is an emerging awareness in the field of L2 acquisition regarding the contributions made by both contrastive analysis (CA) and creative construction (CC) theories of L2 acquisition. CA theories indicate that the L1 experience is important in L2 acquisition, and CC theories indicate that principles of acquisition independent of this experience are also integral to L2 learning. Reconciliation of these two aspects within a principled, empirically-based theory of L2 acquisition has been difficult.

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This paper argues that the parameter-setting model of universal grammar (UG) proposed by Flynn for L2 acquisition provides the scaffolding necessary for an integration of these two components within one explanatory account. Consistent with CC, L2 learners within this model use principles of UG isolated in L1 acquisition in the construction of the L2 grammar; however, when values of parameters associated with these principles differ between the L1 and the L2, learners assign a new value to cohere with the values for the new target language. The L1 experience counts in determining whether such a new assignment of a parametric value is necessary. This aspect of the model is consistent with a traditional CA theory of L2 learning.

Empirical support for this model is provided by a study that investigates the role of the head-initial/head-final parameter in adult L2 acquisition of pronoun anaphora. Two groups of adults – L1 speakers of Spanish, a head-initial language and L1 speakers of Japanese, a head-final language – were studied in their elicited production of English, a head-initial language. Results indicate that both groups of learners use the head-initial/head-final parameter as a source of structural organisation for the L2. Results also indicate that Japanese speakers (L1 ≠ L2) are sensitive, from early stages of acquisition, to the mismatch in head-direction in English and Japanese, and that they assign new values to this parameter to cohere with the target L2 value. These speakers are thus argued to have the head-initial/head-final parameter set in two different ways.

Parameters of acquisition in the two cases correspond to those isolated for L1 acquisition of English; however, the point at which this similarity is observed depends upon the degree of correspondence between the two languages.

**88-405  Gantier, Hélène** (U. of Paris VIII). Etude de l'anglais et formation de la personalité. [Study of English and formation of personality.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **82,** 2 (1988), 35–44.

The study investigates how learning English can affect the formation of an adolescent's personality. Personality is examined in a social context. Adolescent personality is analysed: it lacks an adult's rationality, is more impulsive, and foreign influences can affect its formation. Learning another language exposes students to different types of understanding and behaviour, which, if adopted, can modify, or contribute to, their personality formation. Two sorts of learning motivation are described: (*a*) instrumental, in which the student learns for utilitarian purposes, such as improving job prospects, and (*b*) integrative, in which the student wants to learn more of, and be able to participate in, another culture.

French adolescents' attitude and motivation towards British people, their language and culture, was examined in interviews and a questionnaire given to 435 students. Only the questionnaire is described. French adolescents felt solidarity in age with British youth, but recognised negative traits, such as aggression. Adults were seen as calm and phlegmatic.

An integrative approach results in a more positive perception of the British, while an instrumental approach results in a more negative perception. A double system of cultural values does not result in a situation of conflict for the student.

**88-406  Green, David** (University Coll., London) **and Meara, Paul** (Birkbeck Coll., London). The effects of script on visual search. *Second Language Research* (Utrecht, The Netherlands), **3,** 2 (1987), 102–13.

Native English speakers search short strings of letters differently from the way they search strings of nonalphanumeric symbols. Experiment 1 demonstrates the same contrast for native Spanish speakers. Letter search, therefore, is not a result of the peculiarities of English orthography. Since visual search is sensitive to the nature of the symbols being processed, different scripts should produce different effects. Experiments 2 and 3 confirmed such differences for Arabic and Chinese scripts. Furthermore, these experiments showed no evidence that native Arabic and native Chinese speakers adapt their search strategy when dealing with letters. Implications of these findings are considered.

**88–407  Jonz, Jon** (East Texas State U.). Textual cohesion and second-language comprehension. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 3 (1987), 409–35.

Two cloze tests were administered to native ($n = 199$) and non-native ($n = 230$) speakers of English at three universities in northeastern Texas. One test was based on an analysis of the lexical and referential cohesion in the passage while the other was a standard fixed-ratio test. Prior to the administration of the tests, half the subjects were allowed to read the whole text from which the cloze tests were derived. Non-native scores on the fixed-ratio format reflect approximately the same effect as native scores from having had prior access to the whole context. Scores on the cohesion-based test, however, demonstrate that non-natives are far less capable of coping with the loss of redundant cohesive data than are natives. When these data are available, however, non-natives employ them in comprehension to a comparatively greater extent than do native speakers. Non-native speakers appear to be far more reliant on text in comprehension processes (text-bound) than are native speakers.

**88–408  Lasisi, M. J. and others** (Obafemi Awolowo U., Nigeria). The comprehension of first and second-language prose. *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), **11,** 1 (1988), 26–35.

How does national culture interact with second-language reading comprehension? This study investigated the effect of cultural medium of presentation, language, and sequence of cultural/foreign and first-language/second-language presentation on the literal and interpretative comprehension of Form I (seventh grade) bilingual Nigerian students. Data were analysed using ANOVA. Previous studies concerning schema theories were upheld in that the present results for Experiment 1 revealed significantly superior scores for culturally related English language text when compared with scores for foreign-based passages written in English. The data from Experiment 2 also revealed similar results when the subjects were presented with the same Experiment 1 foreign-based passages written in English and with translations of these English passages to the mother tongue. In spite of sequencing, scores were higher for the first-language passages. For both experiments, scores were higher at the literal level and sequencing was found to have little effect in enhancing comprehension of culturally unfamiliar material.

**88–409  Lynch, A. J.** (Edinburgh U.). Speaking up or talking down: foreign learners' reactions to teacher talk. *ELT Journal* (London), **42,** 2 (1988), 109–16.

Most of the published studies of interaction between native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) have concentrated on the actions taken by the NS partners, rather than on the effects of those actions on the NNS partner, though there has been some work on how modifications affect comprehensibility for the non-native listener. This article presents the results of a small-scale study intended to assess the reactions of EFL students to recordings of language addressed to non-native listeners. A video-tape was made of 24 EFL teachers telling stories to a series of four listeners, in turn: a native speaker and three EFL learners at advanced, intermediate and elementary levels of English proficiency. The listener had to match three series of six pictures to three stories told by the narrator. The narrators made the kind of input adjustments reported in the research literature, involving aspects of lexis, syntax and phonology (the avoidance of idioms is illustrated here). The NS structured the action to allow the NNS to participate in the talk and to make the exchange more comprehensible, using comprehension checks and pauses with greatest frequency with their elementary listener and with least frequency with their native partner.

A third type of adjustment was found, though not reported in earlier studies, that of 'selection of information'. Some speakers geared their selection of information to the level of the listener in any of three ways: (1) providing more detail (even though the pictures provided the same visual information to all the listeners), (2) making the logical links underlying the behaviour of characters in the story most explicit as the listeners' likely level of comprehension decreased, and (3) filling in assumed socio-cultural gaps for the lower-level partners, such as explaining gestures like fist shaking which is probably international.

A follow-up experiment was designed to find out what the cumulative effect of the more marked modifications might be on the NNSs, and whether they felt they were being talked down to. Two

taped versions of a story told to a native speaker and an elementary level learner by an EFL teacher who had adopted an 'overkill strategy' in the previous experiment, were played to a group of foreign students of varying levels of proficiency. The students were not told that the speaker was an EFL teacher or that either of the listeners might not be a native speaker. The students had a questionnaire and were asked to mark their impressions – if any – of the speaker and listener. None of the students realised that the speaker was the same in the two recordings, so great was the difference they per-

ceived in her delivery and voice quality. She was thought to be more friendly, clearer and slower in the NNS version, and perhaps a teenager. The NNS listener was felt to be both younger (between 3 and 12) and less intelligent than the native listener in the first version.

Teachers need to be aware of listeners' potential perceptions of their modifications or there might be a risk, in a few cases, that they may seem to be making intellectual adjustments as well as adjustments to language or discourse.

**88–410 Maxwell, Dan** (Buro voor Systeemontwikkeling, Utrecht). On the acquisition of Esperanto. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* ((Bloomington, Ind), **10**, 1 (1988), 51–61.

The claim of Esperantists that their language is easier to learn than natural languages has seldom been subjected to an empirical test, and the few tests that have been carried out are not widely known outside the Esperanto community. After an introduction to the Esperanto movement and other experiments based on the teaching of Esperanto, the two 'Five-country Experiments' carried out in the 1970s are

described and evaluated here. The findings of these tests support the claim of Esperantists but could be challenged mainly because of the wide range of variable factors involved in language learning. These experiments are nevertheless valuable as an attempt to measure some of these variables in a very precise way.

**88–411 Moorcroft, R. and Gardner, R. C.** (U. of Western Ontario). *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37**, 3 (1987), 327–40.

This study investigated the nature of the linguistic features lost in oral French over the summer vacation period by 89 English-speaking Grade 9 students. These students had been studying French in a regular second-language programme since Grade 6 and had completed an average of 120 hours of instruction. Global analyses revealed significant reductions in total time, speaking time, number of pauses, quantity of production and grammatical accuracy on tasks requiring production of discourse, suggesting a general deterioration in language proficiency. There was, however, no significant

reduction on tasks requiring production of individual vocabulary items. A more molecular analysis focused on the use of various grammatical structures and specific parts of speech. The results of this latter analysis indicated that losses take place in most grammatical elements, but that effects were most pronounced for those elements that were learned most recently. These results were discussed and contrasted with first-language loss where vocabulary elements appear to suffer loss before grammatical forms.

**88–412 Parrish, Betsy** (U. of Minnesota). A new look at methodologies in the study of article acquisition for learners of ESL. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37**, 3 (1987), 361–83.

In order to have a greater understanding of the processes underlying interlanguage development, it is essential to use methods of analysis that can adequately uncover those processes. The current study attempts to demonstrate how an analysis based on suppliance of morphemes in obligatory contexts alone cannot account for the systematic

nature of interlanguage variability. A longitudinal study of one Japanese learner of ESL was conducted and the learner's article system was analysed using three systems of analysis: Huebner's system of analysis based on semantic types, an adaptation of his system, and an analysis based on suppliance of morphemes in obligatory contexts. By using a

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combination of methods of analysis, it is found that, although this learner's use of articles is not target-like, it is not totally random. Systematicity in the article system is found to be governed by the semantic function of noun phrases, lexical categories of NPs and attempts to keep linguistically related forms consistent with one another.

**88–413 Pica, Teresa and others** (U. of Pennsylvania). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21,** 4 (1987), 737–58.

The study reported in this article compared the comprehension of 16 non-native speakers (NNSs) of English on directions to a task presented by a native speaker (NS) under two input conditions: premodified input, in the form of a NS baseline lecturette modified by decreased complexity and increased quantity and redundancy, and interaction-ally modified input, consisting of the NS baseline lecturette without linguistic premodification, but with opportunities for interaction with the NS. It was found that comprehension was best assisted when the content of the directions was repeated and rephrased in interaction; however, reduction in linguistic complexity in the premodified input was not a significant factor in NNSs' comprehension. It was also found that NS–NNS interactional modifications in the form of comprehension and confirmation checks and clarification requests served as a mechanism for NS modification of input, either by encoding or, more frequently, by trigger-ing repetition and rephrasing of input content, and thus played a critical role in comprehension. Results of the study support current theoretical claims regarding the role played by interactional modifica-tions in facilitating second language comprehension. These results also provide guidelines for restructur-ing interaction in the classroom to serve learners' needs for comprehensible input.

**88–414 Purcell-Gates, Victoria** (U. of Cincinnati). Lexical and syntactic knowledge of written narrative held by well-read-to kindergartners and second graders. *Research in the Teaching of English* (Urbana, Ill), **22,** 2 (1988), 128–60.

This study investigates the claim that well-read-to children begin formal instruction in reading and writing with a linguistic knowledge of the lexical and syntactic features typical of written narrative. The goal was to identify this written-narrative register in the oral language of preliterate children and to describe it. The written-narrative registers of literate second graders was also examined to ascertain growth in knowledge of lexical and syntactic features of written narrative. Twenty kindergartners and 20 second graders (a) told the researcher about their birthday parties (oral narrative) and (b) pretended to read a story to a doll from a wordless book (written narrative). The two narrative registers were com-pared within subject for significant differences along 16 dimensions representing lexical and syntactic features found to differentiate oral and written narrative in previous research. The analysis revealed that children who have been read to prior to formal literacy instruction have abstracted identifiable lexical and syntactic expectations of written narra-tive. Specifically they expect the language of written narrative to be (*a*) integrated, (*b*) involving, (*c*) literary, and (*d*) decontextualised. No significant differences between the grades were found.

**88–415 Rosenman, Alba A.** (Ball State U., Ind). The relationship between auditory discrimination and oral production of Spanish sounds in children and adults. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **16,** 6 (1987), 517–34.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the question of age in relation to second-language learning. Specific variables investigated were the auditory discrimination and oral production of Spanish sounds. Two tests were constructed: (1) the auditory discrimination test used minimal pairs of Spanish sounds, and (2) the oral production test used words that differed in only one sound. Both tests were given individually to a group of randomly chosen English monolingual speakers. A group of children (1st-graders) and a group of adults (12th-graders) were tested to determine if both tests taken together would show one group to have a higher foreign language aptitude than the other group. While it was hypothesised that children would perform better than adults, the multivariate analysis

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of variance indicated that, with both tests taken together, adults were superior in auditory discrimination and oral production, supporting the idea that adults because of their cognitive advantage and maturity are more efficient and successful in these two aspects of foreign-language learning. Children did not exhibit the facility that advocates of early foreign-language learning have postulated.

**88–416 Svanes, Bjorg** (U. of Bergen). Motivation and cultural distance in second-language acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 3 (1987), 341–59.

Previous studies have found that motivation, and in particular integrative motivation, is an essential factor in the acquisition of a second language. In this study of the acquisition of Norwegian by foreign students at the University of Bergen, Norway, a questionnaire assessing motivation was presented to 167 foreign students enrolled in classes of Norwegian for foreign students, a short time before the examination in Norwegian, Level 2. European and American students were found to be more integratively motivated than the Middle Eastern, African and Asian students, who were found to be more instrumentally motivated than the Western students. Moreover, a significant difference in means of grades was recorded; Europeans having the best and Asian students the poorest grades. In the total group a weak positive correlation between integrative motivation and language proficiency, and a negative correlation between instrumental motivation and grades were found. However, when motivation and grades were analysed within each group, no positive correlation between grades and integrative motivation was found. When 'cultural distance' was entered into a multiple regression analysis, in addition to the two motivation variables, the results indicated that the motivation variables explained very little of the variance in language proficiency. The best predictor of variance in groups of students with various language and cultural backgrounds was 'cultural distance'.

**88–417 Zuengler, Jane** (U. of Wisconsin, Madison). Identity markers and L2 pronunciation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington,Ind), **10,** 1 (1988), 33–49.

This is a report of a study of social marking in second-language pronunciation. In particular, it tested out Trudgill's (1981) suggestion that sounds that are most likely to undergo sociolinguistic variation, that is, that may become social markers, are those that Labov calls 'stereotypes'. This study sought to determine whether there were certain aspects of English pronunciation that native Spanish speakers would, at some level of awareness, associate with American English/American identity. The speakers were asked to perform several tasks, including a mimic of an American speaking Spanish with an American accent (following Flege & Hammond, 1982). Among the results, speakers displayed a tacit awareness of English–Spanish sound distinctions (in particular, allophonic differences) in performing the mimic (supporting Flege & Hammond). Additionally, some of the alterations they were very conscious of held as stereotypes of American English. Support was found for Trudgill's suggestion.

# Research methods

**88–418 Connor, Ulla** (Indiana U. in Indianapolis). Research frontiers in writing analysis. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21,** 4 (1987), 677–96.

The article describes recent advances in writing analysis. The emphasis has moved from the product to the process of writing. The process-centred paradigm focuses on writing processes, teaches strategies for invention and discovery, considers audience, purpose and context of writing, emphasises recursiveness in the writing process, and distinguishes between aims and modes of discourse. Text analysis of written products complements process-centred research and is needed for an integrated theory of writing. Reseachers have used a variety of text-linguistic approaches to writing: sentence-based, prediction-based, cognitive-based, and interactive.

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The author and colleagues have used topical structure analysis to teach students to revise for coherence in their writing. Three principles which students must grasp are (a) identifying several topics, (b) determining sentence progression, and (c) 'charting' the progress of sentence topics [discussion of teaching method]. Student response has been positive and writing has improved.

The process-centred approach is concerned with the production and comprehension of texts. Unlike the sentence-based approach, sentences are typically reduced to prepositions and the approach emphasises superstructures of texts over a linear representation of sentences. [Discussion of approaches to the semantic representations of texts, including Meyer's (1975) semantic content structure analysis]. Both sentence-based and process centred approaches are necessary for a comprehensive theory of writing.

**88–419  Crystal, David.** Meeting the need for case studies. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy* (London), **3,** 3 (1987), 305–10.

Child language teaching and therapy should use case studies as medical science has done to build up a body of data. There is a desperate shortage of case studies in the field of language handicap. A programme is needed to provide teachers and therapists with a standard procedure for writing up and disseminating case-study information. Such information could be catalogued and kept centrally, much as the Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research in London provides centralised data on all aspects of foreign-language teaching. The task of writing a case study needs to be made sufficiently practicable to encourage more people to undertake it. An intervention case study (ICS) selects a single, small topic and describes how it was taught over a specified period, and what effect the teaching had. It is essentially no more than a fuller and more systematic writing up of what would normally be recorded in the clinic or classroom. It is normally essential to have recorded the session on audio or video tape, to enable an accurate description to be made. It is necessary to give some case history information about the child, to enable other professionals to see how the child relates to those they know. The core of a case study is a step-by-step account of how a topic was introduced to a child and how he/she reacted in the session(s). There is only one essential guideline: to give enough information to enable the reader to replicate the ICS. In case studies, a negative outcome is just as valuable as a positive one. Choosing a limited time-scale makes planning and carrying out an ICS more feasible. There are many models for the writing up of case studies; one relatively simple procedure is outlined by the author.

# Testing

**88–420  Alexander, Richard** (U. of Trier, FRG). Examining the spoken English of students of European Business Studies: purposes, problems and perspectives. *System* (Oxford), **16,** 1 (1988), 41–8.

This article describes the oral testing procedures used on a sandwich degree programme jointly run by the Osnabrück Polytechnic and the Buckinghamshire College of Higher Education. The course designers have developed English for Economics modules linked to the specialist subject part of the training, and accommodating two main areas of perceived linguistic need: academic study and survival during work placement. The main objectives of the modules include such elements as consolidation/expansion of specialist lexical knowledge, increased fluency and detailed knowledge of the EEC in economically relevant areas.

The author details the concomitant two-part examinations, wherein linguistic skills are assessed side by side with 'intellectual' skills (e.g. the effective structuring of argument) and specialist factual knowledge. It is assumed that the ability to talk face to face in a foreign language is the crucial skill to be sampled.

The criterion-referenced examination procedure described, and its array of factors, demonstrates both face and construct validity; such an integrative approach cannot appropriately be judged by means of the statistical methods deployed for analysing the results of discrete point tests. Inter-examiner reliability is particularly good in the context outlined.

**88–421 Boyle, Joseph P.** Intelligence, reasoning and language proficiency. *Modern Language Journal* (Madison, Wis), **71,** 3 (1987), 277–88.

This article begins by reviewing different opinions on the connection between intelligence and language proficiency, particularly those expressed by Oller (i.e. that the two are virtually equivalent) and Carroll (that they correlate highly, but not exactly). Some of the recognised defects of intelligence testing are discussed, for example the cultural/social class biases purportedly evinced by IQ tests; however, it is concluded from an overview of factor-referenced tests that induction would seem to occupy a central role in the assessment of reasoning ability. An examination of 'reasoning' (when the latter is defined in terms of problem-solving and the ability to generate system hypotheses) can shed useful light on the connections between proficiency and 'g' (general intelligence).

Factor-referenced tests are believed here to be an effective tool, since all variables (e.g. scores, test items, questionnnaire responses, etc.) are simultaneously considered; in the study described here, a battery of 12 language proficiency and four inductive reasoning tests [extracts] were administered to 205 Hong Kong students, and the results scrutinised by the Varimax factor analysis computer program.

The computations [tabular data] are felt to provide evidence that inductive reasoning, if tested with symbols rather than words (to avoid 'vocabulary interference' problems), is clearly distinguishable from language proficiency.

**88–422 Byrnes, Heidi** (Georgetown U.). Speech as process. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **20,** 4 (1987), 301–10.

This article maintains that the ACTFL oral proficiency assessment procedure (OPI) is a valuable research tool potentially capable of showing how learners actually handle dynamic conversational tasks by employing diverse pragmatic, strategic, syntactic and lexical devices; such concern with speech as an on-line, interactive process is in contrast to the orthodox attitude to OPI, which emphasises a static, product-based exploitation of the rating scales, particularly at the Advanced and Superior levels. Five prominent issues in the current debate are discussed, i.e. the role of text linguistics/discourse analysis, interlanguage, expectancy, negotiation/ interaction, and communication strategies. With

regard to discourse, for example, analysis of a speaker's 'propositional' skill in weaving a pattern of old/new information from sentence to sentence provides a better clue to his/her fundamental linguistic ability than any lexical or functional checklist.

Microanalysis of the OPI could also uncover the most telling relationships between native listener 'expectancies' and non-native 'fluency' ratings, particularly with regard to 'chunked forms' and the negative connotations surrounding hesitation phenomena. It could also give the Proficiency Movement a basis for investigating how L2 'processing' might actually be taught explicitly.

**88–423 Calderbank, Mark and Awwad, Muhammad** (Yarmouk U., Jordan). Testing oral communication: why and how? *System* (Oxford), **16,** 1 (1988), 49–59.

This paper discusses the issue of oral communication tests and gives an acount of an oral test administered at Yarmouk University Language Centre to nearly one thousand students on average. The widespread neglect of oral testing as a component of formal course evaluation forms the background against which the authors explain the decision to test, the design of the test, the methods employed to standardise assessment, and the results of test validation. Special prominence is attached to the washback effect on classroom teaching and learning. The authors maintain the view that if the ability to

converse in English is an aim of the teaching, it should form part of the assessment. They suggest that reliability can be raised to acceptable levels without trading off content and construct validity. Of special relevance here are the methods of training interviewers and the development of a clear and usable assessment instrument for evaluating level of student performance, based on appropriate and clear-cut communicative criteria. The paper thus aims to provide one institution's attempt to overcome the problems of feasiblity, validity and reliability in communicative oral testing.

**88–424 Connors, Kathleen.** La loquacité, la variété et la grammaticalité dans l'acquisition d'une langue seconde. [Loquacity, variety and well-formedness measures in second language acquisition.] *Revue Québécoise de Linguistique* (Montreal), **16,** 2 (1987), 11–28.

This article discusses three types of measures of L2 acquisition, used in the analyses of spontaneous speech: loquacity, variety and well-formedness measures. In particular, it is argued that well-formedness measures are the better indicators of distinct levels of competence specific to the L2. Loquacity and variety measures are interesting in themselves, show interesting relations to each other, and reflect characteristics of speakers which differentiate their linguistic profiles. The authors claim, however, that well-formedness measures are necessary to determine the extent to which the learner has acquired the rules and rule conditions specific to the second language, i.e. the extent to which he approaches native speech.

**88–425 Froese, Victor.** A comparison of ESL students' ability in four language modes: oral composing, independent writing, story retelling and reading. *TESL Canada Journal* (Montreal, Canada), **4,** 2 (1987), 59–72.

Thirty-nine students (aged 10–14) were drawn from classrooms containing ESL students in three schools in one Winnipeg school division and comparisons were made for three ethnolinguistic groups – Filipino, Vietnamese, and Chinese. For each of the four language modes – oral composing, independent writing, reading, and retelling – a number of language units were compared: number of words produced, number of t-units produced, average number of words per t-unit, and number of dependent clauses produced. The answers to the following four questions are discussed: (1) In terms of language units, how do the modes compare across language groups? (2) How do oral reading miscues compare? (3) How does reading comprehension and listening comprehension compare?

For question (1), the most consistent measure for differentiating among the language groups was the number of dependent clauses, but only in the oral composing and writing modes. The number of words per t-unit differentiates only in the oral composing model. For question (2), in terms of miscues, accuracy in all language groups was relatively high, with the Filipino group scoring highest, then the Chinese, closely followed by the Vietnamese. For question (3), the Filipino group averaged 73 % on total comprehension, the Chinese language group 49 % and the Vietnamese language group 57 %.

It is concluded that there are modal differences, i.e. in rank order of production, writing produces the greatest quantity, with oral composing second, retelling third, and recalling information for reading coming last. This is not the expected order in L1 learning, so teachers should perhaps organise for teaching in a differentiated way for ESL students.

**88–426 Green, Peter S.** (U. of York) **and Hecht, Karlheinz** (U. of Munich). The sympathetic native speaker – a GCSE role-play for the teacher. *Modern Languages* (London), **69,** 1 (1988), 3–10.

Teachers conducting GCSE oral exams are exhorted to adopt 'the role of a sympathetic native speaker', judging primarily how effectively the learners convey an intended message, rather than how linguistically accurate they are. Some teachers may feel unhappy with this role: do native speakers agree on what constitutes communicative effectiveness? Are they 'sympathetic' in their reactions? And how well can non-native teachers match their judgements? A test was carried out to try to shed light on these questions. A group of native and a group of non-native teachers or trainee teachers of English were asked to judge the comprehensibility of some erroneous utterances produced by German learners of English performing communicative speaking tasks.

Results showed that the native speakers concurred very well in their judgements, and were certainly 'sympathetic'. Only 11 % of items were judged 'unclear'. The non-native teachers matched the judgements of the native speakers quite well, agreeing with them in 58 % of cases and disagreeing in 31 %. Disagreement was always in the same direction: native speakers judged 'clear', non-natives 'unclear'. If non-native teachers understood Germanisms, they nevertheless judged that natives would not. A revised test asked native judges actually to state what they thought the learners

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meant by their erroneous utterances. The results showed that native speakers are not only very good at understanding what learners are trying to say, they are in fact better at it than they think they are.

**88–427 Jafarpur, Abdoljavad** (Shiraz U., Iran). Non-native raters determining the oral proficiency of EFL learners. *System* (Oxford), **16,** 1 (1988), 61–7.

This study attempted to investigate whether non-native speakers of English give similar ratings to the oral proficiency of EFL learners and whether the components – pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension – measure different skills of oral proficiency. The ratings of these judges given to 58 examinees were studied using correlation and regression analyses. The results reveal significant differences among the judges' ratings. Considering the high reliability of the total of the judges' ratings, it is concluded that the average of three ratings is a better appraisal of the testees' true ability than that of any single judge's or pair of judges' ratings. The data also indicate that any two of the five components may correctly predict the oral proficiency of the subjects.

**88–428 Kruse, Heleen and others** (U. of Utrecht). A multiple word association probe in second-language acquisition research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), **9,** 2 (1987), 141–54.

L1 word association tests could provide, in theory, a possible convenient measure of an L2 learner's 'nativeness' and a baseline indication of proficiency. The question of how lexical associations are developed (and their dependence upon shared knowledge of the world/knowledge of the language) is discussed, as is the background to word association tests. In the latter case, studies reveal that the current tendency to use as test items words occurring in standard lists (e.g. Thorndike & Lorge, 1944) is valid.

The use of word association in L2 research is considered, and findings suggest that the present state of a learner's associative behaviour could reflect the current state of his/her proficiency level and lexical store.

A 10-stimulus word association experiment is described (based on Randall, 1980), wherein stereotypy (the extent to which subjects produce similar responses to prompts) and the number of responses (maximum 12 per item on the test used) were the main qualitative/quantitative factors scrutinised. The results were disappointing [tabular data] as the tests did not produce either a high test/retest correlation or an obvious proficiency/word association connection (a linked cloze test was used to provide language level ratings).

**88–429 McCrory, D. P.** Orals – the real issue in foreign languages. *Modern Languages* (London), **68,** 4 (1987), 229–35.

Although the development of oral competence should be the primary and most practical goal of FL learning/teaching, it frequently provides, in classroom and public testing terms, an example of educational failure. For instance, the new GCSE examinations vary greatly in their definition of oral skills and the scoring systems used to assess them. Some examinations rate spoken performance as 25% of total marks, in line with an outmoded 'four skills' view of language teaching which does not take account of the necessary dominance of spoken performance in the real world. The lack of importance accorded to speaking ability in public examinations has a negative 'washback' effect into the FL classroom, where the acquisition of oral skills is seen as a low priority activity by learners. Indeed, much FL teaching still evinces the unbalanced concern for written forms which it has inherited from Classics teaching.

The London Chamber of Commerce and Industry FL Examinations are discussed as models of examining practice representing, it is believed, the right emphasis on oral ability.

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**88–430 Perkins, Kyle** (Southern Illinois U.). Measuring ESL readers' ability to apply reasoning in reading: a validity study of the TOEFL reading comprehension subtest. *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), **11**,1, (1988), 36–49.

This paper reports the results of an attempt to measure English as a Second Language (ESL) students' ability to apply reasoning in reading. The elicitation instrument was an experimental test which was developed from a model of reading comprehension based upon cognitive activities which Piaget referred to as concrete operations. The experimental test delineated Piaget's concrete operations in prose text and set them against difficulty criteria. The experimental test which measured the ability to apply reasoning in reading and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) were administered to a pool of adult ESL subjects. The results indicated that the TOEFL reading comprehension subtest does not measure the ability to apply reasoning in reading; thus, its validity as a measure of reading is in doubt. Significant effects were also shown for the paragraph types and the item types in the experimental test. The items based on the classification paragraphs were significantly more difficult than the items based on the serial paragraphs. In like manner, the items based on the multiplication

paragraphs were significantly more difficult than the items based on the addition paragraphs. And finally, the intention questions which concerned the properties of a class were significantly more difficult than the extension questions which dealt with the members of classes.

The results of this study indicate a need for further, increased attention to the measurement of reading to solve problems in ESL reading assessment and to the effects of the different structural organisations of ideas (e.g. addition, classification, multiplication, and series) and the interrelations of ideas on the comprehension process. The motivation for this line of research derives from the pragmatic interest of those researchers concerned with the communicative aspects of a text and the manner in which authors organise their ideas. Current research is beginning to explain the complex interaction between text structure and the reader's processing of such structure which further explicates the comprehension process.

**88–431 Reinwein, Joachim.** Le test de closure: un outil pour mesurer l'effet de l'illustration sur la compréhension de textes. [Cloze testing: a tool for measuring the effect of pictures on the comprehension of texts.] *Revue Québécoise de Linguistique* (Montreal), **16**, 2 (1987), 29–83.

This study examines the effect of pictures on the comprehension of readers by means of the cloze procedure. Two texts were presented both with and without pictures, to approximately 250 third-graders, attending French primary schools. When the dependent measure is the number of responses which are identical to the deleted target-words, the pictorial effect is significant ($P < 0.01$). The analysis

of the individual words illustrates how to determine more precisely the pictorial effect on the target-words depending upon their syntactic and semantic characteristics and the picto-verbal relationship of the illustrated text. Approximately 20% of the target-words are influenced, positively or negatively, by illustration in a significant way ($P < 0.05$).

**88–432 van Weeren, J. & Theunissen, T. J. J. M.** (National Inst. for Educational Measurement, The Netherlands). Testing pronunciation: an application of generalisability theory. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37**, 1 (1987), 109–22.

This article considers various arguments for including pronunciation as an important subskill in FL teaching/testing, not least because it has a high educational pay-off; the number of sounds/intonation patterns in any language is finite, but infinite in communicative scope. Problems exist in separating pronunciation from such aspects of oral performance as fluency and grammatical accuracy; the author describes a ranking procedure which achieves a

narrower focus via marked elements in German and French texts [appendix] read aloud by Dutch speakers. The reliability of assessing atomistically the correct/incorrect realisations of each marked item, as compared with methods using overall subjective impression marks, is good.

The data resulting from the test were not analysed with reference to classical indices of reliability, since the observations exhibited multiple sources of

variation (e.g. the testees/raters themselves). Instead, a G-study was done, which identified those factors having any influence on the final results, and which assumed that these factors were non-random, and therefore representative of the respective universes of possible conditions [formulae/tabular data]. It was concluded that an atomistic pronunciation test is empirically effective, particularly if it comprises at least 40 items, preferably gleaned from an actual analysis of learner errors.

# Curriculum planning

**88–433 Clarke, John L. and Macrae, Joan.** Curriculum development *is* teacher development. *Modern Languages* (London), **68**, 4 (1987), 221–9.

This title would only be true in a perfect education system. In the present system, change is seen as the preserve of a higher body of so-called experts, who package change as a methodology or syllabus guidelines and leave teachers to implement it. Over the years, classical humanism and reconstructionism have established a largely ineffective, top-down model of curriculum development. Classical humanism entrusts innovation to the universities and the inspectorate. Reconstructionism leaves policy-making to government-appointed committees which ask subject working parties to conduct curriculum research. The teacher is reduced to the role of servant of the curriculum, responsible merely for bringing about pre-determined behavioural changes. Teachers easily become alienated from an innovation on which they were not consulted and in which they have no personal investment. The radical alternative is progressivism, a bottom-up model which argues that teacher development is curriculum development and not vice versa.

Breen and Candlin in a study of in-service training in Denmark give a possible taxonomy of staff development activities. *Transmission* brings in an external authority figure to lecture teachers and provides no opportunity of gaining practical experience. Traditional in-service training in Britain follows this model. *Problem-solving consultancy* is the setting up of workshops where participants discuss and share practical classroom problems with trainer consultants. The onus is still on the teacher to apply the experience to classroom reality, often without follow-up support. *Classroom decision making and investigation* is however directed from the classroom out. Teachers identify problems in their own classroom context and discuss and try out solutions in partnership with trainers. The best example of classroom decision making is the graded levels movement, where the impetus came from teachers suddenly faced with the problem of teaching languages across the ability range.

To this taxonomy of staff development could be added a fourth activity: *licensed anarchy*. Teachers would evolve their own professional and personal development on the basis of their individual needs. A pilot scheme for staff development of this kind is in progress in part of Lothian Region in Scotland. Results have proved very positive in terms of increased staff confidence, awareness, and willingness to take the initiative.

**88–434 Cross, David** (ENS, Abidjan, Ivory Coast). Selection, setting and streaming in language teaching. *System* (Oxford), **16**, 1 (1988), 13–22.

The progress of fourth-year pupils in two neighbouring schools was assessed over a full academic year. Within each school the gains made by an upper set were compared with those made by a lower set. In the grammar school, where sets were formed on entry to the school, the lower set's performance was inferior to that of the pupils of the comprehensive school – where mixed ability groups were kept through the first two years of French. In both schools the lower groups made gains which were just as impressive as those made by the upper groups; although of course these gains were from a lower starting base. Lower-group pupils in both schools were found to be as proficient as the upper-group pupils in certain skills; but these skills, largely receptive, are undervalued by present examinations. In consequence, subsequent examination results will appear to support the schools' criteria for forming sets. A relationship between attitudes, motivation and proficiency was clearly evident. Although the conclusions are based on a specific schools system, their implications have much wider applicability.

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# Materials design

## 88–435 Holmes, Janet (Victoria U. of Wellington, New Zealand). Doubt and certainty in ESL textbooks. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford). **9,** 1 (1988), 21–44.

Learning to express doubt and certainty in English is a complex task, but an important one since epistemic devices also function pragmatically as politeness markers. Those preparing materials or writing textbooks for the ESL learner must decide which epistemic devices to include. Information on the range and frequency of such devices in naturally occurring speech and writing can provide a basis for the necessary selection. This paper provides some data on the relative frequencies of a wide variety of lexical items expressing doubt and certainty in written and spoken corpuses, and uses the data to evaluate the adequacy of some well-known ESL textbooks. Two of the books are reference grammars, namely Leech and Svartvik's (1975) *Communi-*

*cative Grammar of English* and Spankie's (1982) *English in Use*; the other two are coursebooks: *First Things First* (Alexander, 1967), and *Skills for Learning* (Morais, 1980).

Though all four textbooks provide information on lexical ways of expressing doubt and certainty, the quality and quantity of useful information varies quite markedly between the different books. While some of this variation is related to the level, audience goals, and scope of the books, many of the weaknesses or inadequacies which have emerged in the analysis cannot be accounted for by attributing thoughtful selection procedures to the textbook writers.

## 88–436 Patrikis, Peter C. Consortium for Language Teaching and Learning. *Modern Language Journal* (Madison, Wis), **71,** 4 (1987), 422–4.

The Consortium for Language Teaching and Learning was created in 1986 to enhance the quality of language teaching and learning, to consolidate and build upon the strengths of the programmes of its member institutions and to reaffirm the central importance of the study of foreign languages. Eleven private research universities constitute the Consortium: Brown, Chicago, Columbia, Cornell, Dartmouth, Harvard, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Pennsylvania, Princeton, Stanford and Yale. [Financing and government of the Consortium.] The Consortium aims to serve four functions. It will (1) direct collaborative projects for the development of curricular materials; (2) support projects at a single institution when such projects show promise of being of wide benefit; (3) promote and coordinate common services in the Consortium; and (4) serve as a clearinghouse for the Consortium and other colleges and universities. Accordingly, the Consortium plans to sponsor workshops, conferences, seminars, and curriculum development projects.

The Consortium has identified three principal areas of concern: (i) the need for curricular materials; (ii) the need for the study and adoption of technology; and (iii) the need for improved teacher training. The need for curricular materials is manifested in the widespread lack of culturally authentic and accurate materials that can support the most effective teaching methodologies in many languages but, above all, in the uncommonly taught languages. These materials include textbooks, anthologies, and data on audiocassette, videocassette, videodisc, and computer. The Consortium will initiate and coordinate the efforts to develop, evaluate, and distribute these materials.

Two important areas of discussion initiated by the Consortium are governance, i.e. organisation and management of foreign language programmes, and the role of foreign language education within undergraduate education (particularly the division between languages as an aspect of liberal education and languages for professional purposes).

## 88–437 Williams, Marion (British Council, Singapore). Language taught for meetings and language used in meetings: is there anything in common? *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **9,** 1 (1988), 45–58.

Several business meetings in various companies were observed, and it was concluded that the language taught by textbooks claiming to teach the

language needed for business did not in fact reflect the language commonly used in meetings, nor was it of any particular use to students when they

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participate in meetings. Many textbooks employ a functional approach, teaching 'functions' such as 'suggest' or 'agree' together with various possible linguistic realisations such as *May I suggest* or *Yes, I quite agree*. These realisations are generally one sentence long, complete sentences, and are often not sequenced or considered in combination with other utterances.

In the meetings examined, the speakers' use of language was far more complex than simply realising functions with suitable exponents. There was evidence of care being taken by speakers in selecting strategies and planning their tactics in order to achieve their purpose in the most effective way. Speakers tended to build up arguments and support their information and views in consistent ways. They appeared to exhibit an awareness of the needs of the listeners and of how the listeners might react, and select their strategies accordingly. A look at strategies might provide a more promising starting point for teaching materials than do lists of over-polite, over-explicit, one-sentence-long exponents for functions.

# Teacher training

### 88–438  Britten, Donard. Three stages in teacher training. *ELT Journal* (London), 42, 1 (1988), 3–8.

When non-native speakers are trained to become EFL teachers, they not unnaturally bring with them deeply rooted preconceptions about language teaching derived from their own experience as learners. Even if trained to teach differently, they may return afterwards to the old ways. Pre-service training, however, can pre-empt this by paying attention to the trainees' attitude development. It is therefore useful to see training in terms of successive stages in a changing process. Identifying these different stages and their different and sometimes conflicting requirements can suggest in which ways training methods should change as training proceeds.

The centre of authority should shift in training, from the teacher trainer to the small peer group and later, well before the end of training, to the individual trainee. In the initial period, the teacher trainer draws the conceptual map of the terrain – this is the stage of trainer-dependence. In the second stage, group planning and evaluation and discussion are the vehicles for collective, public endorsement of the conceptual map and the various routes for travelling over it – this is the stage of group-dependence. What should follow is the stage of self-reliance, when the trainee travels the terrain on his own and becomes personally committed to the map while still, to some extent, professionally answerable to teacher trainer and peer-group. Implications for programme design are listed as features of either awareness-raising components or experiential components of the training syllabus.

### 88–439  Edge, Julian (U. of Durham). Applying linguistics in English language teacher training for speakers of other languages. *ELT Journal* (London), 42, 1 (1988), 9–13.

Knowledge about language and language learning ought to form a bridge between trainee roles as language learner and language teacher. The challenge is to develop language study in such a way that it supports both language learning and decision-making in language teaching, while also making accessible to teachers an expanding field of study into which they can travel just as far as they decide to. This article describes a framework which has been used for the development of such procedures.

TEFL trainees have three major roles to take on: language user, language analyst, and language teacher. Three major course components which correspond are: language improvement, applied linguistics, and methodology. Applied linguistics has a specifically integrative role, supporting the other two components. It is used to refer to two types of language study: (1) improving the trainees' own command and use of English and (2) explicit study of language and language learning, necessary to support pedagogical decisions. What needs to be taught to the trainee is awareness of when linguistic knowledge is what is needed, and the ability to locate, interpret, and apply that knowledge. These three course components all interact and should be integrated throughout the programme. The overall emphasis moves from language improvement to methodology.

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**88–440 Fanselow, John F.** (Teachers Coll., Columbia U.). 'Let's see': contrasting conversations about teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **22,** 1 (1988), 113–30.

Two common aims of supervision and observation are to evaluate and to help. Supervisors and observers with these aims provide products to those they visit: 'helpful' prescriptions for improvement or a rating of the observed performances. The aims of supervision and observation presented in this article are to explore, to see teaching differently, not to evaluate or help; the emphasis is on a process – visited and visiting teachers sharing ways of looking to discover self. This process includes taping and transcribing excerpts from classes, grouping parts of the excerpts, arriving at a common language to discuss them, and making multiple interpretations about them, based not only on preconceived notions but also on a range of contrasting beliefs and goals. This article tries to provide ways of looking so that teachers can see their own teaching differently through observing others.

**88–441 Hundleby, Sarah and Breet, Felicity.** Using methodology notebooks on in-service teacher-training courses. *ELT Journal* (London), **42,** 1 (1988), 34–6.

In 1984 the authors ran two one-year in-service teacher-training courses at the University of Nanjing in the People's Republic of China. The students on these courses were experienced Chinese teachers of English from universities and colleges throughout the country. This article illustrates one practical solution to the problem of teacher-training courses in which the timetable emphasises language improvement rather than the teaching of methodology. The device employed by the authors was the 'methodology notebook', a file compiled by each student during the course which developed into a personal collection of items related to teaching English as a foreign language: notes about (and if possible examples of) materials used during language-improvement lessons, to provide a resource bank for later use; a critical analysis of methods used by the teachers on the language-improvement course, as well as of other lectures on the teacher-training course; and a collection of items, materials or points for discussion taken from books. The methodology notebooks were considered to be worth 25 per cent of the course's final assessment. Some monitoring of the notebooks was essential. Different ways of exploiting the notebooks were: as a basis for individual tutorials, for writing lesson plans and schemes of work later used as a basis for peer-group teaching activities; and creating personal reading programmes based on areas focused on by individual students. The collection of material and the writing of notebooks was integrated into the study-skills component of the course, providing a context for developing the skills of notetaking, summary writing, etc. The notebooks provided the framework for research into techniques and methods considered in the methodology course. As records of developing awareness, as well as being a useful resource, the notebooks have great potential for EFL/ESL teacher training courses.

**88–442 Rounds, Patricia L.** (U. of Oregon). Characterising successful classroom discourse for NNS teaching assistant training. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21,** 4 (1987), 643–71.

As the number of foreign-born graduate students in U.S. universities has risen over the past few years, a steadily increasing proportion of undergraduate education, especially in large public universities, has come into the hands of non-native-speaking (NNS) teaching assistants who have limited English proficiency. Although ESL teachers and researchers have recently begun to design training programmes suited to the special needs of the NNS graduate student teaching assistant, these programmes are most frequently based on general-purpose language-learning materials. The suggestions offered in this article for a more specific-purpose model of instruction are based on a quantitative and qualitative discourse analysis of a corpus of videotapes of native speakers and NNSs teaching university-level mathematics classes. This analysis and the researcher's own experience as a mathematics teacher were used to develop a characterisation of what constitutes teaching discourse that is communicatively competent for mathematics, related disciplines, and perhaps other educational contexts as well.

Successful classroom discourse can be characterised as what emerges from the teacher's ability to develop an atmosphere of co-operative interaction

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and consensus – a sense of working together to achieve a common goal. Such discourse includes a clear articulation of what that goal is and when and to what extent it has been achieved. Furthermore, it arises from an appreciation, elicited by both linguistic and non-linguistic means, of where students stand in relation to their achievement of that goal.

More specifically, communicatively competent classroom discourse is based on (1) an understanding of the student–teacher relationship expected in American university classrooms; (2) an understanding of the ability of silence to contribute to or detract from the creation of fluency; (3) an awareness of what students are doing while the teacher is performing, especially a sensitivity to their note-taking task; and (4) an acceptance of the fact that

teaching involves more than proficient transmission of information and that elaboration is highly valued by students.

Specific-purpose language materials purporting to aid students in developing classroom communicative competence can offer concrete suggestions for effective elaboration. In the case of mathematics teaching (and perhaps for the teaching of other disciplines), this would include linguistic means for (a) naming processes; (b) overtly marking major points, both to evaluate and reinforce student achievement; (c) developing cohesion and continuity within and between classes by repetition and 'linking talk'; (d) explicitly organising topics and marking topic change; (e) stating the scope of the students' responsibility; (f) using questions in a timely fashion; and (g) using persuasive techniques.

**88–443  Wajnryb, Ruth.** Error and the beginning teacher. *Prospect* (Adelaide, Australia), **3,** 2 (1988), 185–96.

Four perspectives on error are discussed: (1) error is the phenomenon that makes the language of the learner what it is, language-learner language, rather than another dialect of English; (2) the learner's error represents a certain identifiable place on the interlanguage continuum and reflects the reality of the language learner's identity; (3) error is the mirror to the soul of the learner, revealing where he comes from, what resources he calls on, his former learning experiences, what he risks and what he avoids; (4) error serves as a barometer of the learner's progress (or lack of it), signalling the development of his 'approximative system'; it provides data on the basis of which the teacher can make diagnostic assessments of progress and informed choices as to context teaching materials.

Recognition of the creative and cognitive element in the committing of errors by learners gives a greater importance to the skills of error analysis in the language teacher. Acquiring such skills is one of the more difficult of the tasks confronting the beginning teacher. Teachers can be broadly categorised in terms of their response to error: (i) those who recognise error, identify and classify it, then choose an appropriate correction procedure (the

more experienced teacher); (ii) those who respond uniformly to every error, pouncing on it and insisting on native-like behaviour (behaviourist approach); (iii) those with a 'complexed' reaction to errors – either responding inappropriately, or failing to notice the error, not wishing to correct it, or realising there is an error but not knowing what the problem is (especially beginning teachers). Some possible explanations for this third category of 'complexed' responses to error are offered: (a) the teachers are not sure of themselves in the teacher's role and feel that as a friendly native-speaking interlocutor they cannot correct their students; (b) they are unfamiliar as yet with language-learner language, and behave in the classroom as they would outside it, by focusing on the communicative intention rather than on the actual words. They need to do this but also to pay close attention to the form of the learner's message; (c) they lack practice in classroom correction procedures; (d) they are influenced by the need for survival on their course: if they do not acknowledge an error they are not obliged to try to correct it and possibly stumble and lose marks.

**88–444  Wright, Tony.** Instructional task and discoursal outcome in the L2 classroom. *Lancaster Practical Papers in English Language Education* (Lancaster), **7** (1987), 47–68.

The article examines a small range of communicative activities in the classroom with a view to improving (1) the use of classroom time, and (2) teacher training programmes. The data were obtained from transcripts of recordings in an African school,

and revealed variable constraints on classroom talk. These resulted from sociocultural differences (the institutional environment, role relations) and from the nature of the activities, all of which are subject to interpretation by teacher and students.

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# Teaching methods

**88–445  August, Diane L.** (Children's Defense Fund, Washington, DC). Effects of peer tutoring on the second-language acquisition of Mexican American children in elementary school. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21**, 4 (1987), 717–36.

The purpose of the two classroom experiments reported in this article was to examine the effects of a peer-tutoring intervention on the second language acquisition of elementary school children. English acquisition by limited English-speaking Mexican American children was measured in the first experiment, and Spanish acquisition by limited Spanish-speaking Mexican American children was measured in the second experiment. A matched-pairs experimental design was employed. Subjects were matched on an overall language proficiency score and on a verbal-interaction score. They were then assigned to treatment and control groups. The peer-tutoring treatment provided a structured setting for natural language practice between the tutor, who was a limited English-speaking or limited Spanish-speaking child acquiring a second language, and the tutee, a child fluent in the target language. It was found that in Experiment 1, there were significant group differences in frequency of English utterances to peers in a structured setting, with the difference favouring the treatment group. Correlation analyses indicated a significant relationship between English proficiency and verbal interaction in English with peers. For the children in both treatment and control groups in Experiment 2, the frequency of Spanish utterances to peers in free play decreased, resulting in the almost total absence of Spanish use. These findings suggest that peer tutoring may be an effective means of encouraging interaction between Mexican American children acquiring English and their fluent English-speaking peers. On the other hand, the study points out the difficulty of helping limited Spanish-speaking children acquire Spanish in an environment in which English is the language with considerably more status.

**88–446  Barnett, Marva A.** (U. of Virginia). Teaching reading strategies: how methodology affects language course articulation. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **21**, 2 (1988), 109–19.

This study examines whether university-level French students trained during the second semester to use effective reading strategies and skills demonstrate better reading comprehension and hence perform better in the third semester than their untrained peers. The experimental reading activities were derived from recent L1 and L2 reading process theory and research; a sample text, exercises and lesson plan appear together with teacher and student reactions to the experimental reading practice. These self-report data show widely varying responses to the experimental approach to reading and provoke considerable reflection about the impact of both the teacher variable and cognitive styles on language learning. The repeated measures experiment compares the performance of experimental and control groups on a standardised reading test at the end of the second- and third-semester courses. Although it shows that students given special training in reading made somewhat more progress in reading comprehension than did their peers in the traditional course, it does not solve definitively the problem of articulation within language courses. The experiment results, together with the analysis of student and teacher reactions, prompt further questions about how to examine the impact of various language teaching methodologies and about the value of encouraging students to analyse their own learning processes.

**88–447  Bourguignon, Ch.** (U. of Grenoble III) **and Candelier, M.** (U. of Paris V). La place de la langue maternelle dans la construction par l'élève des notions grammaticales requises pour l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère. [The place of the mother tongue in the pupil's construction of the grammatical notions required for the learning of a foreign language.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **82**, 2 (1988), 19–34.

It is now increasingly accepted that explicit grammatical knowlege forms a proper part of language learning. This can be satisfactorily taught only if the learner's L1 is brought into play, because (a) learners

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cannot help using it as a starting point and (*b*) certain pedagogically desirable procedures, e.g. hypothesis testing, inferencing, discovery learning, are more widely usable in L1. Even when teaching, for example, the two kinds of passive in German or Spanish, which are not overtly distinguished in French, extensive work on French examples is justified to clarify the concepts.

**88–448 Bygate, Martin** (U. of Reading). Units of oral expression and language learning in small group interaction. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **9**, 1 (1988), 59–82.

The subject of this article is a data-based discussion of some possible connections between the tactics of small group oral interaction and language learning. The aim is to map out some ways in which oral interaction in small group work may characteristically contribute to language learning, rather than merely hastening the development of specifically oral skills. After surveying previous studies of L1 and L2 learning through oral interaction, an argument is outlined for viewing language knowledge as a largely fragmented, non-homogeneous store, growing partly out of the tactical manipulation of units for specific interactive purposes, rather than a unified and integrated body of knowledge.

Units of particular relevance to the study of oral language production – 'satellite units' – are then defined, and their possible relationship to the learning of language is discussed. Data are then presented and analysed in order to demonstrate some of the uses of language forms in oral interaction. Through these uses of the formal features of language, learners engage in an aspect of language learning which is peculiar to oral interaction, and which has been largely ignored by most language courses. For some learners at least, these features of oral tasks can be a particularly fruitful way of approaching language learning.

**88–449 Clark, John L. D.** (Defense Language Institute, Monterey, Ca). Toward a research and development strategy for computer-assisted language learning. *CALICO Journal* (Provo, Utah), **5**, 3 (1988), 5–23.

This article describes and recommends an approach to CALL-related research and development activities in which the CALL portion of the learning process is not addressed in isolation but as part of a total instructional system which also includes the live teacher, textbooks and other print materials, outside-of-class learning opportunities, and numerous other non-technological components. In order to determine the optimum instructional strategy (including CALL) to be used in a given language learning situation, the instructional developer must first assemble detailed information about the intended outcome goals of the instruction, as well as about the language background, language learning aptitude, and other input characteristics of the students to be taught. Only after these crucial initial steps have been taken does it become possible to consider the appropriate instructional strategies to be used in developing the intended outcome performance abilities on the students' part.

Eight procedural steps are discussed for developing, refining, and evaluating the efficiency and effectiveness of language teaching programmes based on the input-process-output model described. (1) Carefully define the input-output characteristics at issue in the programme development or research project. (2) Develop or refine testing instruments fully adequate to the task of measuring the intended outputs. (3) Develop standardised and uniform means of measuring and reporting instructionally relevant characteristics of the input students. (4) Gather state-of-the-art information on the instructional strategies best suited to particular components of the language learning process. (5) Select the media/procedures most suited to the effective delivery of instruction based on the identified strategies. (6) Design instructional programmes, embodying CALL components as appropriate, based on information obtained in (4) and (5). (7) Conduct 'microresearch' as necessary to develop and refine the instructional programme. (8) Conduct 'macroresearch' as necessary to validate the efficiency and effectiveness of the overall instructional programme.

**88–450 Cohen, Andrew D.** (Hebrew U. of Jerusalem) **and Cavalcanti, Marilda C.** (U. Estadual de Campinas, Brazil). Giving and getting feedback on composition: a comparison of teacher and student verbal report. *Evaluation and Research in Education* (Clevedon, Avon), **1**, 2 (1987), 63–73.

Teacher feedback on compositions is often unclear, inaccurate and negative, and does not match learners' expectations. Students are, however, often poor at handling the feedback they receive. A study of

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feedback in Portuguese (first language) and EFL compositions at university level in Brazil was designed to study teacher and student behaviour and attitudes. The two teachers tape-recorded their comments while marking the compositions of six selected students, and these students reported their reaction to the feedback by completing a question-naire. The Portuguese L1 teacher believed she had focused on accuracy of vocabulary and organisation (cohesion, sentence structure and type of text), but the students felt that the emphasis of her comments was on content (quality of ideas and argument). They perceived her as a judge, and questioned the usefulness of her comments. The EFL teacher reported focusing above all on content, but stated the belief that students benefit most from comments about organisation. Her students perceived her as both a judge and an interested adult reader, and said they found her comments useful. This group might

be expected to be more receptive to comments because of their obvious language difficulties, unlike the L1 students. The favoured strategy of all the students for dealing with teacher feedback was to make a mental note and ask for teacher explanation, rather than consulting grammar books, dictionaries, peers, or previous compositions. The authors noted a discrepancy in the EFL teacher's feedback to a low-ability student between the teacher's reported emphasis on content and organisation and the student's perception that the comments emphasised grammar and mechanics. This may reflect teachers' general preconceptions that certain students have certain types of problem requiring comment, and may inadvertently deprive low-ability students of other beneficial types of feedback. The authors also felt that the two teachers in the study were missing an opportunity to motivate and improve writing by offering more praise and positive comments.

**88–451  Ellis, Rod** (Ealing Coll. of Higher Ed.). Investigating language teaching: the case for an educational approach. *System* (Oxford), **16,** 1 (1988), 1–11.

Most language teaching methodologists support the view that controlled practice in the classroom leads to language acquisition; empirical research both supports and rejects this view. The author argues against mechanical practice and suggests that teachers review their methods and move towards activities in which the learner is less restricted.

This can be achieved by adopting an educational approach. There are five stages involved: (1) identi-fication of a pedagogical issue reflecting one or more factors in the education process – learner/

teacher characteristics, conditions, for example; (2) establishment of the current position of language teaching methodologists on the issue; (3) investiga-tion of educational opinion by reference to relevant theories and research; (4) development of an educational theory based on the investigation; (5) assessment of the theory through teaching and by including it in teacher training programmes, by generating specific hypotheses based on the theory and carrying out empirical research.

**88–452  Esling, J. H.** (U. of Victoria, Canada). Methodology for voice setting awareness in language classes. *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons, Belgium), **85** (1987), 449–73.

This paper presents a methodology for introducing the voice setting component of pronunciation to second-language students. Experimental evidence is cited that voice setting is a part of accent, reflects emotion, indicates language group, is differentiated regionally and socially, and differs from L1 to L2. Sociophonetic research on English is presented to identify the indexical role that voice setting plays in communication and to support the argument that exposure to a range of accent varieties is critical in the development of a learner's accent in an L2. Theoretically, the methodology is task-oriented and

input-based. Performance tasks include voice recog-nition, preference selection, linguistic appreciation and discrimination of a variety of L1 characteristics, L2 native speaker observation and contact, gambits, stereotypes, debate and reporting, and speech and drama activities. Practically, the teaching techniques described represent the presentation of pronuncia-tion through 'collection not correction', a 'target-ting' rather than a 'modelling' approach to L2 accents, and an emphasis on the organisation and manipulation of perceptual categories by language students themselves.

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**88–453  Hall, David and Kenny, Brian** (Asian Inst. of Technology, Bangkok). An approach to a truly communicative methodology: the AIT pre-sessional course. *English for Specific Purposes* (New York), **7** (1988), 19–32.

The eight-week pre-sessional course for students at the Asian Institute of Technology in Bangkok is designed to focus on methodology rather than content. Students work in groups, carry out fieldwork, and frequently determine tasks by themselves. Activities include analysis of findings, discussion, explanation, and criticism of specialist articles and of the work of other groups.

The teacher's role is to develop student's ability to organise and articulate their thoughts and purposes, the emphasis being on the learners themselves and what they want to say. S/he must identify the student's essential purpose in wanting to study a particular subject and, by means of the new methodology, develop the individual's competence in learning, understanding and practice.

**88–454  Hammerly, Hector.** The immersion approach: litmus test of second-language acquisition through classroom communication. *Modern Language Journal* (Madison, Wis), **71**, 4 (1987), 395–401.

Immersion programmes are the most highly developed form of second-language acquisition through classroom communication. They have been given their most thorough test with French in Canada, where they have been a cultural and political success. Numerous studies have revealed that the students involved develop very good listening and reading comprehension, learn other subjects well through the second language, and suffer no loss of control of their native language. It has, however, also been observed that the students are far from competent in the productive skills of speaking and writing. A study of six students after 13 years (7,000 hours) of immersion in French revealed a very high error rate in spoken language, even when familiar topics were under discussion. Their language was repetitive, with frequent false starts, circumlocutions and omissions, and a preference for structures common to both languages. The students managed to communicate their ideas, but in 'Frenglish' rather than in French. This bore out the findings of an earlier study (1976) that there was no apparent progress in the grammaticality of immersion pupils between grade one and grade six. Yet these are the children whose 'great success' in becoming functional bilinguals in the classroom led to the promotion and adoption of French immersion programmes throughout Canada. What im-

mersion students speak is not an imperfect French, but a very defective and probably terminal classroom pidgin, which has proved virtually impossible to correct even at university level. The weaknesses of extended immersion programmes derive from unsupported assumptions, in particular the folk-linguistic belief in 'the younger the better'. A natural sociolinguistic language acquisition setting simply cannot be reproduced in the classroom. The results of immersion programmes also belie the theory of comprehensible input (Krashen's $i+1$). Given comprehensible input and encouraged to communicate freely beyond their linguistic competence, students soon fossilise a faulty interlanguage.

The author proposes a different approach to classroom development of bilinguals, consisting of several stages: (1) an exploratory course on languages and peoples of the world, to foster interest and motivation; (2) semi-intensive systematic teaching of the second language for two hours a day for three years, to establish a solid foundation; (3) partial immersion, in which other subjects are taught in the foreign language, over three to four years; (4) total immersion or submersion, preferably interacting with native speakers in an authentic second-language environment. Immersion, whether partial or total, does not properly belong at the beginning of any language programme.

**88–455  Harlow, Linda L.** Individualised instruction in foreign languages at the college level: a survey of programmes in the United States. *Modern Language Journal* (Madison, Wis), **71**, 4 (1987), 388–94.

A survey was carried out of foreign-language departments in four-year colleges and universities in the United States. The survey focused on the number of individualised instruction (II) pro-

grammes currently in existence, the characteristics of these programmes and respondents' perceptions of the problems involved in this field. Findings were that only 15% of the respondents are continuing to

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offer individualised programmes; a further 25 % were interested in developing new II programmes and 43 % indicated interest in attending a further national conference on the topic. Spanish was the most commonly-taught language, with French and German equal in second place (though total enrolments for German are less than half of those for French). Russian is offered in only two fewer departments than French and German yet has about one-eighth as many students as French. The large number of less commonly taught languages offered in an individualised track (18 in all) points up the practical function of II programmes in making available instruction in such languages, for which low enrolments would not justify classroom time.

All levels of instruction were offered, as well as reading, literature and culture courses. Beginning and intermediate courses featured most frequently. Computers were utilised by 38 % of those offering II programmes, mainly for testing and materials preparation but 31 % utilised them as an integral part of instruction. Reasons for adding II to the curriculum were a desire to provide an alternative

mode of learning (48 %), and student demand (41 %). Increased enrolment was a reason for 11 %.

Reasons for discontinuing II courses (14 % of respondents) were (1) low enrolment, (2) perceived inability of students to learn on their own, (3) high cost, (4) difficulties with record keeping, (5) disagreement with the philosophy of II, and (6) budget cuts. The greatest problems with providing II were cited as staffing problems and high attrition rates (student drop-outs).

The 50 % discontinuation of II programmes and the obvious dearth of publications relating to them throughout the 1980s, shows that individualised instruction no longer enjoys the enthusiastic support it had a decade ago. Yet it still continues, partly due to the commitment of faculty and administrators to provide an alternative mode of learning and, on the part of students, motivation and enthusiasm; it has potential for new developments such as helping learning disabled students, and individualised remedial courses.

**88–456 Jacobs, George.** Co-operative goal structure: a way to improve group activities. *ELT Journal* (London), **42,** 2 (1988), 97–101.

Group activities are used in many aspects of second-language instruction. Among the reasons cited for their use is that they encourage students to work together, helping each other. However, simply putting students together in a group is no guarantee that co-operation will occur. One factor affecting the success of group activities is the goal structure present in the classroom. This article explains the concept of goal structure, illustrates three principal types of goal structure (co-operative, competitive, and individualistic), and highlights the benefits of a

co-operative goal structure, which has been shown to be superior to competitive and individualistic goal structure on measures of student attitude and achievement. Additionally, the article discusses the effect of learning about goal structures on the author's teaching methods. Although the students worked in groups, the grading system encouraged them to be individualistic or competitive. Averaging grades over a group, when they had worked together on, say, a composition, fostered a willingness to assist each other.

**88–457 Johnson, Keith** (U. of Reading). Mistake correction. *ELT Journal* (London), **42,** 2 (1988), 89–96.

It may be fruitful in both theoretical and practical terms to look at language learning in terms of skills. The concept of feedback (viewed as the provision of information rather than reinforcement) is central, i.e. the sequence is not *learn → perform*, but *learn → perform → learn*. Why do students get things wrong? One reason is that they do not have the appropriate knowledge, or have some false knowledge: this results in an error. The other reason is that they lack processing ability – they know what they should do, but are unable to 'perform their competence' in difficult operating conditions: this results in a mistake. In language teaching, more attention has

been paid to errors then to mistakes: certainly there are more techniques for handling the former than the latter.

In order to eradicate mistakes, the student will need (1) the desire or need to eradicate the mistake, (2) an internal representation of what the correct behaviour looks like, (3) a realisation that he/she has given a flawed performance, and (4) an opportunity to repractise in real conditions. The article considers how (2) to (4) can be provided in the classroom. Internal representation can be formed by initial guidance. How such guidance is best given is an area where the skills literature has much to offer

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(saturation with music for the Suzuki method of violin playing, mimicking the movements of a great tennis player). A technique which 'models after the event' is reformulation, usually used for the teaching of writing; it offers information (not offered in the usual method of correction, reconstruction) on how a proficient speaker would have said the same thing. The learners may not, under difficult conditions, be aware of having made a mistake. They need to see for themselves what has gone wrong, rather than being told by the teacher – video is ideal for this. The sequence being discussed is *mistake occurrence → corrective action → retrial*. It may be more important how soon retrial (having another try) takes place after corrective action than how soon after mistake occurrence corrective action occurs. Free practice offers the language learner ready-made sets of operating conditions of the kind in which mistakes are likely to occur. The stage of corrective action and retrial are both crucial to mistake eradication.

**88–458  Kagan, Dona M.** (California State U. at San Bernardino). Evaluating an individualised reading programme. *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), **11,** 1 (1988), 15–25.

A study was conducted as part of an attempt to evaluate an individualised reading programme in which elementary school teachers prepared written prescriptions for students, targeting specific deficiencies for remediation. Teachers were free to prescribe any combination of seventy different instructional materials, including worksheets, tapes, computer software, or basal readers. Subjects were 37 teachers and 104 students for whom a total of 569 prescriptions were written over a three-month period. Regression analyses were used to examine relationships between teachers' cognitive styles and the numbers and kinds of materials they selected for students. Regression was also used to identify significant predictors of positive reading attitudes among students. Teachers who tended to be more affectively (as opposed to analytically) oriented tended to use more instructional materials, perhaps because they appreciated the flexibility it afforded them. Among students, preferences for independent modes of learning were significant predictors of positive reading attitudes. Parental reading habits and the total number of materials prescribed were also positively related to reading attitude.

**88–459  Knibbeler, Wil** (U. of Nijmegen). Research on a humanistic language teaching model. *Journal of Applied Linguistics* (Thessaloniki, Greece), **1** (1985), 34–45.

According to the Explorative–Creative Way (the name given by the author to various non-conventional approaches to foreign-language learning) successful acquisition is related to the type of personality and the learning style of the student. Recognition of this enables a formulation of principles and methods recommended for adoption by the successful teacher. S/he will build on the linguistic knowledge students have, and present new knowledge in an unclear way to encourage exploration which will lead to the creation of new utterances. The expression of feelings, and the use of existing vocabulary will also be encouraged. Students will use a simple register and participate in games involving risk-taking to lead to the production of spontaneous speech. Acting merely as a guide the teacher is required to be imaginative, responsive to the learner's needs, adaptable and sensitive. There must be no indication of the point that is to be learned.

Research findings point to the importance of the teacher, rather than the approach, but it remains unclear whether teachers will be able to follow the approach, or the extent to which students can respond to it.

**88–460  Molholt, Garry** (West Chester U.) Computer-assisted instruction in pronunciation for Chinese speakers of American English. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **22,** 1 (1988), 91–111.

This article represents a synthesis of concepts from contrastive phonology, speech processing, TESOL, and computer-assisted instruction for the purpose of improving the communication skills of international teaching assistants in U.S. colleges and universities. Although the focus is on speakers of Chinese, most of the concepts are equally applicable to speakers of other East Asian languages. Methods of interpreting and utilising visual displays of speech patterns are presented throughout, with examples of both segmental and suprasegmental phonology.

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**88–461 Moore, Phillip J.** (U. of Newcastle). Reciprocal teaching and reading comprehension: a review. *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), **11,** 1 (1988), 3–14.

Reading researchers recently have turned their attention to co-operative forms of learning and teaching. One particular form of co-operative teaching is reciprocal teaching which involves the reciprocal interaction of experts and novices in explicit, overt demonstrations of strategy use. Scaffolding, active meaningful involvement, feedback, and fading of the expert's leading of the interactions are seen as critical elements of the technique. This paper outlines the theoretical underpinnings of the technique and reviews research examining the effects of reciprocal teaching of comprehension strategies (summarising, predicting, clarifying, questioning) on comprehension-disabled subjects. In general the findings show powerful effects, effects that transfer and generalise. The potential of the technique for enhancing other reading skills is discussed.

**88–462 Morris, David.** Resources for modern language teaching. *Modern Languages* (London), **68,** 4 (1987), 211–16.

The Modern Language Association sent out a questionnnaire in 1987 to all its members asking for information on the resources available to modern language departments in schools in the United Kingdom. 212 replies were received, 151 from maintained schools, 60 from independent schools, and one from a maintained special school. 56% of the schools covered the 11–18 age range.

Replies showed that French is taught in almost all institutions, with German a close second. There is a much wider variety of language provision in the independent sector than in the state schools. On the provision of books and resources, the survey revealed some startling but not unexpected facts: all the independent schools could supply each pupil with an individual textbook, but maintained comprehensives could only supply just over half of their pupils with an individual book. Library provision revealed a similar pattern. State schools fare better in the provision of language laboratories and technical assistance, but non-comprehensives still fared better than comprehensives. Over half the independent schools had video systems but only one third of maintained schools. When asked what items of equipment they needed, language teachers wanted a video cassette player most (over 20% of all respondents); a fast tape copier and good quality cassette players were also high on the list. But apart from video, equipment was seen as less important than the provision of books. In the matter of financial support for attendance at in-service courses and conferences, 7% fewer teachers in maintained schools received help than in independent schools. The provision of Foreign Language Assistants was evenly spread over all types of schools, half of which had them. There was marked dissatisfaction with the level of GCSE training provided. The final part of the questionnaire asked teachers how they compensated for the shortcomings in their schools: private purchase of video recorders, recording or collecting authentic material at home or on holiday, were common. Typically, respondents said they needed much more time for their work.

**88–463 Porter, Lewis P.** (Walsh Coll., Oh). Using the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines to achieve goals of exploratory language courses. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **20,** 4 (1987), 323–30.

This article maintains that a communicative teaching model for French, derived from the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, could meet the goals of novice-level exploratory language programmes, i.e. the development of a basic proficiency profile, the facilitation of student choice in deciding which language(s) to pursue in greater depth, the provision of insights into foreign cultures and the generation of learner enthusiasm for FL study itself.

The author examines the fragmented, culturally naive and potentially demotivating nature of traditionally taught courses, in which, for example, atomistic grammar items are detached from meaningful discourse or authentic situations; this is contrasted with the needs-related possibilities purportedly inherent in the Guidelines. The functional items provided for each competency level (e.g. identifying conversational topics, using short

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dialogue forms including fixed questions/answers, writing short, simple messages) reflect real world language use.

A 'slice of life' approach is discussed, wherein identified language and sociolinguistic elements are realised via a culturally authentic, contextualising photograph or slide [appended sample materials]. The student is then able to compare actively his/her own environment with the target culture, thus avoiding recourse to stereotypes.

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**88-464 Raimes, Ann** (Hunter Coll. and City U. of New York). Language proficiency, writing ability, and composing strategies: a study of ESL college student writers. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 3 (1987), 439–68.

This study was designed to examine ESL student writers at different levels of instruction, to describe their writing strategies as shown in think-aloud protocols, and to compare their composing behaviours with what we know about native speaker student writers. Eight ESL students, four in remedial ESL writing courses and four in college-level writing courses, were given two different writing tasks for think-aloud composing. The resulting protocols were coded and analysed. The data were examined in relation to course placement, holistic evaluation of the students' writing, and scores on a language proficiency test.

The study showed that: (1) L1 basic writers and L2 writers had many strategies in common, the main difference being that the L2 writers did not appear to be inhibited by attempts to correct their work; (2) the students in non-remedial courses consistently engaged in more interaction with the emerging texts; (3) there was little correspondence demonstrated among proficiency, writing ability, and the students' composing strategies; and (4) a specified purpose and audience had almost no observable effect on composing strategies.

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**88-465 Régent, Odile.** L'apprentissage auto-dirigé dans les grands groupes: quelques expériences. [Self-directed learning in large groups: some experiences.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy, France), 1986/7, 129–38.

A two-year experiment in self-directed language learning has been conducted, which has involved each year about 700 science students and five teachers. There are three groups: (*a*) 450 students in eight groups with three teachers; (*b*) 100 students in four groups with two teachers; and (*c*) 100 students in four groups with two teachers. Students see the teacher in small groups and work independently. They use the teaching aids provided and are encouraged to find their own material. The need to relate coursework to future employment demands is stressed.

First-year students have some difficulty adapting to such an independent system and attempt to follow previous academic practices. Most become motivated, although a few beginners would prefer more help. Advanced students are able to determine objectives and work independently. Lack of time is a problem. Individual working methods vary greatly. Teachers' workload is increased – there is more work to correct, more organisational ability demanded and large numbers of students to supervise. The degree of autonomy given to students varies greatly. The marking system is somewhat imprecise as it is based on subjective ideas.

The system's success depends on both teachers and students understanding and accepting its fundamental principles, and on the provision of sufficient teaching aids.

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**88-466 Santos, Terry** (California State U., Los Angeles). Professors' reactions to the academic writing of non-native-speaking students. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **22,** 1 (1988), 69–90.

The study reported in this article investigated the reactions of 178 professors to two 400-word compositions, one written by a Chinese student and the other by a Korean student. The professors, 96 of whom were in the humanities/social sciences and 82 of whom were in the physical sciences, were each asked to rate one of the two compositions on six 10-point scales, three of which focused on content (holistic impression, development, and sophistication) and three of which focused on language

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(comprehensibility, acceptability, and irritation). The results were as follows: (a) content received lower ratings than language; (b) professors found the errors highly comprehensible, generally unirritating, but academically unacceptable, with lexical errors rated as the most serious; (c) professors in the humanities/social sciences were more lenient in their judgements than professors in the physical sciences; (d) older professors were less irritated by errors than younger professors, and non-native-speaking professors were more severe in their judgements than native speakers. The results suggest the need for greater emphasis on vocabulary improvement and lexical selection.

**88–467 Stern, Otto** (Seminar für Pädagogische Grundausbildung, Zürich). Vers l'intégration des pédagogies des langues. [Towards the integration of language pedagogies.] *Bulletin CILA (Neuchâtel, Switzerland)*, **47** (1988), 122–31.

Since an article by Roulet in 1980 there has been interest and theoretical work in the bringing together of approaches to L1 and FL teaching, but little progress in practice: the justified fear is that the present theoretical emphasis on cross-language grammar could lead to learners having a descriptive knowledge of the FL, but failing to acquire it adequately. The author proposes a different sort of integration, on the level of activities and based on the twin principles of active and interested participation and of global comprehension in concrete situations. The first goal of language activities should be the treatment of information (problem solving, peer interaction); learners must use their own initiative, and there must be within-class differentiation to enable all to work at their own pace and according to their own interests. Comprehension must be fostered as an end in itself, not only as a waystage to production. [Brief discussion of materials for teaching Swiss German to non-native children and for the teaching of writing to Swiss Germans.]

**88–468 Zamel, Vivian** (U. of Massachusetts at Boston). Recent research on writing pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21,** 4 (1987), 697–715.

Process studies provide insight into the complexity of composing and may also reveal a relationship between instruction and writing. However, recent surveys of writing instruction indicate that what we have learned from process research is not informing pedagogy. Writing continues to be taught according to reductionist and mechanistic models, perhaps because of the problematic nature of incorporating change in the classroom or perhaps because process studies have typically not investigated writing in the naturalistic settings in which it takes place. Researchers have therefore undertaken classroom-based investigations, often ethnographic in nature, in an effort to understand better the links between writing behaviour and writing pedagogy and to demonstrate that alternatives to the teacher-dominated paradigm are possible. This research is making us aware of the ways in which contextual factors impinge on the development of students as writers. These studies challenge traditional practices and imply a pedagogy that establishes a supportive environment in which students are acknowledged as writers, encouraged to take risks, and engaged in creating meaning. Finally, recent research suggests that teachers should become researchers themselves and investigate the relationship between teaching and writing development in their classrooms.

**88–469 Zubrick, Ann** (Curtin U., Perth, Australia). Some strategies for developing reflective language in Year 1 children. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy* (London), **3,** 3 (1987), 251–8.

The transition from oral language to early literacy is associated in part with the development of reflective language: language for planning, monitoring and evaluating experiences. Reflective language is often coded through the use of propositions incorporating cognitive verbs such as *think, know, remember*, and *understand* – verbs which occur frequently in all teacher talk, especially teachers' questions. Observations of young children beginning school revealed that many did not either understand or use cognitive verbs. Strategies used in Year 1 classrooms to help children understand and use cognitive verbs in appropriate contexts are described and briefly evaluated.

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