

Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

82–388 Ellis, Rod. Informal and formal approaches to communicative language teaching. *ELT Journal* (London), **36**, 2 (1982), 73–81.

The main purpose of this article is to give some clarity to the use of the term 'communicative' in describing approaches to foreign- or second-language teaching. It is suggested that a distinction be drawn between 'informal' communicative approaches which promote second-language 'acquisition', and 'formal' communicative approaches which promote 'learning'. This distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning', which is taken from the work of Stephen Krashen, is carefully explained and the conditions for achieving both in the classroom considered. There is also a need actively to teach pupils how to make use of conscious 'learnt' knowledge in order to 'monitor' their performance in a second language appropriately.

82–389 Sampson, Gloria Paulik (Simon Fraser U.). Converging evidence for a dialectical model of function and form in second-language learning. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **3**, 1 (1982), 1–28.

A dialectical model of function and form in second-language learning is proposed as a metric for evaluating and ranking facts amassed by researchers in the diverse fields of linguistics, psychology and education, and ascertaining what relationships hold among them. A list of 13 commonly accepted facts about language learning (such as 'the interlanguages of L2 learners are systematic in nature') is presented and discussed. The model integrates two opposite poles in theorising about language learning: gradual quantitative change (progress towards some norm) or qualitatively different rule systems acquired over time. The model suggests that the transformation of quantitative into qualitative change is mediated by the functions of language. There is no one-to-one relationship between functions and linguistic forms. The learner uses the new form in a given function. Meaning is inherent not solely in form but in the activity of speaking. Each instance of connection of form with function is construed as an encounter stored in episodic memory. Not only do functions push the learner to attend to new forms: it is a push/pull or dialectical relationship.

The model predicts that systematicity in form will be related to the functions of language which motivate the learning of the forms. It predicts greater variability among groups of adults learning an L2 than among primary children learning an L1, because the social roles of adults necessarily confront them with manifold functions. Fossilisation is related to the fact that some learners either do not want to engage in, or are denied access to, some functions (e.g. those denied access to the power structure of the society using a specific L2). Because the model postulates that language learning is the interiorisation of socially created signs, the role of the 'other person' in the

learner-tutor dyad is critical, because he/she can expose the learner to all the functions available in the society, or restrict his access to them. Discourse types are culturally elaborated forms of the functions; simpler function-forms must be learned before their elaborations.

The model thus accounts for the fact that second languages are learned and can be taught. A biological substrate is assumed, but functional settings must be created to enhance the learner's access to the many functions of language. The curriculum helps to shape the learner.

82-390 Widdowson, H. G. (U. of London). Teaching language as and for communication. *SPEAQ Journal* (Quebec), 4, 2 (1980), 15-29.

'Teaching language *as* communication' focuses attention on the nature of what is to be taught, with the implication that the teacher should preserve the communicative character of language. 'Teaching language *for* communication' shifts the emphasis from language as such to the activity of using it to achieve communicative ends. This is the current aim, but which pedagogic course of action will promote it most effectively? A redefinition of syllabus content in terms of communicative categories, notions and functions, and the presentation of language *as* communication, will not automatically trigger off the use of language *for* communication. This must involve the use of procedures for negotiating meaning within predictable outlines; the learner must engage in language use as a dynamic problem-solving activity within the confines of the classroom. The main responsibility rests, as always, with the teachers.

82-391 Widdowson, H. G. (U. of London). Les fins et les moyens d'un enseignement de l'anglais en vue d'objectifs spécifiques. [Ends and means in teaching English for Specific Purposes.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), 43 (1981), 8-21.

The approaches of Halliday and Munby, with their stress on the content of courses and the linguistic needs of students, are rejected. Emphasis should not be on the selective choice of material but on more effective presentation and on activating student learning strategies. English for Specific Purposes enjoys an advantage over general English in providing problems to motivate students and in approximating more closely to a real communication situation. The methodology of ESP has no distinctive features; principles basic to good language teaching apply.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

82-392 Arndt, Horst and Stewart, William E. Articulatory perfection in L2 phonology: are we overtaxing the brain? *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), 80, 4 (1981), 323-36.

Evidence for the existence of a critical period for language acquisition is conflicting; it seems that ease of acquisition diminishes with age more gradually than hitherto realised and in a minority of cases may remain constant or even increase. The case for cerebral lateralisation as a possible explanation for diminishing ease of L2 acquisition has been severely weakened by research on lesions which shows that lateralisation is

complete as early as age five, research on dichotic listening which shows that left-hemisphere dominance for speech is present in children at age five, and neonate studies which show left-hemisphere dominance in infants from one week to ten months old.

A three-dimensional model of language neurology is proposed as preferable to existing two-dimensional models; it comprises both transcortical associations and reciprocal cortico-subcortical projections.

Implications for the development of L1 phonology are that as L2 learning begins later than L1 learning it will initially be out of phase with the total personality development, hence will require some *post hoc* anchorage at deeper brain levels. This anchorage will be subject to 'interference' from the circuits already established for L1 phonology, and hampered by the high activation threshold of deep-brain nerve cells once they have been 'functionally validated' for L1 performance. The difficulty of *post-hoc* anchorage will increase as a linear function of age: in extreme cases, where exposure to L2 phonology is at a very late stage of development, primary access can be gained only at the metalinguistic level – a complete inversion of the L1 acquisition process. L2 acquisition in school exemplifies this extreme case. Even so, in some individuals, and against the odds, motivation and intellect may simulate L1 learning conditions so closely that subcortical anchorage of L2 phonology still takes place and a near-native accent is acquired. A narrowly conceived neurobiological determinism plays a much lesser role in L2 achievement than was formerly supposed.

82–393 Bogaards, Paul. Een mens is nooit te oud om (talen) te leren. [You're never too old to learn (a language).] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **367** (1981), 989–97.

A brief review of some of the available empirical work on age and second-language learning. The work discussed falls into two main sections: (a) research in neuro-linguistics shows that language is predominantly handled by one cerebral hemisphere; this work suggests that after a certain age it becomes impossible for the other hemisphere to handle language, though there is some dispute over the full extent of this 'critical period'; (b) a number of experimental studies have attempted to investigate the relationship between age and second-language learning directly, but the results of these studies are confusing. Some suggest an advantage for younger learners, especially children, while others point to an advantage for older learners. A number of theoretical attempts to explain these discrepancies in terms of either affective factors, cognitive factors or social factors also exist, and these are briefly summarised. The author concludes that it is never too late to learn a language; advantages and disadvantages exist at any age.

82–394 Eckman, Fred R. (U. of Wisconsin–Milwaukee). On the naturalness of interlanguage phonological rules. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 1 (1981), 195–216.

Two interesting questions which are raised by the interlanguage (IL) hypothesis are (1) to what extent are ILs independent of the native language (NL) and the target

language (TL)? And (2) do the grammars of ILS contain the same type of rules as the grammars of other languages?

To address these questions, data were gathered from two native speakers of Spanish and two native speakers of Mandarin, all of whom were learning English as a second language. A partial phonological analysis of the IL data revealed that (1) at least some of the IL rules were independent in that they were motivated for neither the NL nor the TL, and (2) one of the IL rules, Terminal Devoicing, is motivated for the grammars of numerous languages whereas another rule, Schwa Paragoge, is apparently not part of the grammar of any other language. This conclusion raises the question of the extent to which ILS can be considered to be 'natural languages'.

82–395 Ganguly, S. R. and Ormerod, M. B. (Brunel U.). Ego-attitudes in second-language learning: an analysis of sex-related differences. *British Educational Research Journal* (Oxford), **7**, 2 (1981), 155–65.

Using a pool of items collected from the free expression of a sample of the population studied, factor analysis revealed five distinct aspects of the ego-attitudes of adolescent bilinguals of Asian origin living in and around London. These factors comprised anxiety about the self-image when using English; appreciation of the use of English in the community; the suitability of English in praying; perception of interest in the use of English at home and an 'own-language factor'. These constituted the 'Linguistic Self-Concept Inventory'. An additional 'Linguistic Motivation Scale' was shown to be factorially distinct from these measures. The relationships between scores on these ego-attitude factors and a range of cognitive, social and personality variables, together with the use of 'judges' in constructing the attitude scales provide them with validity. The reliabilities are also satisfactory for attitude scales. There are a considerable number of sex differences among the correlates of the attitude measures. These present a complex picture in which the same attitude is positively related to different levels of cognitive capacity, social and personality measures in the two sexes. This leads to implications for teaching English to this class of second language learners.

82–396 Rogers, Margaret (U. of Surrey). A reappraisal of the notion of 'carelessness' in L2 production. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **19**, 2 (1981), 73–7.

Three types of errors are: pre-systematic (random and arbitrary), systematic (revealing the learner's hypotheses about L2), and post-systematic (the practice stage in which practice may not match theory – the student knows the rule but fails to apply it correctly). 'Carelessness' is frequently cited as a cause of learner error, but since the learner's system is unstable, so-called 'careless' errors are inevitable. Correction is helpful because it is necessary input, and provides a model against which learners can match their productive use of language.

82–397 Tahta, Sonia (City U., London) **and others**. Age changes in the ability to replicate foreign pronunciation and intonation. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), **24**, 4 (1981), 363–72.

This study looked at the abilities of 5–15 year old monolingual English schoolchildren to replicate foreign pronunciation and intonation. Performance was judged after only one exposure and repetition. Ability to replicate pronunciation declined fairly steadily over the whole age-range studied. By contrast, ability to replicate intonation remained steadily good until 8, then dropped rapidly until 11. There was a slight, not wholly reliable improvement after 11, but, basically, 11–15 year-olds replicated intonation poorly. When given a sufficient amount of practice, all subjects tested could replicate intonation well; the number of trials required showed a rapid change from 8–11. The findings agree well with long-term studies of fluent L2 speakers, in which younger ages of acquisition are associated with better chances of a native pronunciation and intonation. Other studies of learners still acquiring an L2 have showed, however, that older learners have better chances of a native accent: an attempt is made to reconcile these findings with those of the present study.

RESEARCH METHODS

82–398 Claessen, J. F. M. and others (Inst. for Applied Sociology, Nijmegen). Foreign language needs in the Netherlands: an educational research project. *ITL* (Louvain), **54** (1981), 27–43.

A study of foreign language needs was carried out during 1975–78 in Holland, prompted by a new law passed in 1968 which concerned the freedom of students in secondary education to choose their own examination subjects. After 1968 the teaching of French declined, German classes increased less than the growing numbers of students warranted, whereas the teaching of English increased. The study aimed to discover who needs to know what languages, and what target level is required. It comprises (i) a study of secondary education, (ii) a study of various social sectors in which foreign languages may be important, i.e. business and industry, public administration, research and tertiary education, and (iii) an inventory of miscellaneous published sources of information about language needs (not reported on here).

Under (i), questionnaires were filled in by students from 16 different types of school, some of which offer vocational training. The main part of the questionnaire was a list of 24 language-use situations, covering leisure, professional and study activities: respondents had to indicate how often each situation required the use of French, German and English, and whether their knowledge of these languages enabled them to cope (reasons for using such a format; appendix lists the situations).

Three 'language use profiles' were then drawn up for each language: a minority, average and majority profile. These show which situations are important for which groups. Frequency scores were used to calculate average frequencies for each language, situation and group, and the 'indices' which indicate the ratio of certain types of use (e.g. reading) to overall use. [Appendices give questionnaires and results.]

82–399 Richards, D. R. Problems in eliciting unmonitored speech in a second language. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* (Utrecht), 5, 2 (1980), 63–98.

The conventional method of data collection through observational samples of spontaneous speech or writing is unsatisfactory, as the data is likely to be biased by the learner's avoidance strategies. The investigator may have to wait a long time for less frequent features to come up spontaneously. To assess what a student will be able to do in a real communication situation test formats need to be developed in which opportunities to monitor are reduced. For the psycholinguist, understanding of the process of L2 development depends on procedures which circumvent the learned system and lay bare the acquired system.

An adequate elicitation task must meet the following requirements: (i) the informant's attention must be on the meaning of the utterance rather than on the grammatical form; (ii) the task must constrain him to attempt to produce the construction the investigator is particularly interested in. A variety of tasks are described: oral reconstruction, oral picture composition, contrived situations, imitation, sentence completion. Certain procedures proved to be more productive than others: the contrived situations seemed most satisfactory.

A wider experimental validation of the results was then carried out with 30 French students taking English as a required subject at an Institute of Technology in France. The stimulus was provided in French, and the response was used by a full question in English. Oral responses to three tasks of 20 items each (imitation, sentence completion and situations) were recorded on tape and processed onto analysis grids for each subject. Results showed that the situations again gave the best results. [Appendixes give pilot elicitation procedures, and tasks for the investigation proper, together with response rates.]

82–400 Titone, Renzo (U. of Rome). Research trends in foreign-language teaching. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata* (Rome), 13, 3 (1981), 35–56.

Present-day methodology is eclectic, willing to incorporate suggestions from many different fields. But methodological models need to be tested empirically before being turned into theory. Recent methodological trends include: an emphasis on oral learning on the basis of systematic listening and repeated exercises; prevention of interference between L1 and L2 through contrastive error analysis; direct assimilation by means of repetition of basic patterns tied to meaningful communicative situations; minimal use of mother tongue and avoidance of translation; constant interaction of language and culture. Research can either isolate certain procedures (e.g. use of the mother tongue) or can try to embrace all the constituent parts of a method. The former is not very realistic, but the latter presents enormous problems (e.g. controlling variables). A compromise is to devise small-scale 'miniaturised' experiments, preferably during a regular language course, when a few days are set aside to stage a variety of teaching methods.

Two comprehensive research projects are compared: one by Agard and Dunkel (1948) of a situation-survey type, on the use of traditional or new methods, the other by Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) comparing the grammatical and oral methods. The first study was a survey rather than an experiment but it showed what could be done

with the new oral courses. The second study was carefully documented and analytically analysed, but it yielded only the results for which it had been devised. Research on ESL reading in a psycholinguistic perspective is a significant current trend, which is briefly reviewed.

ERROR ANALYSIS

82-401 Laforest, Marie Hélène. Towards a typology of lexical errors. *Anglistica* (Naples), **23**, 1 (1980), 1-30.

A taxonomy of lexico-semantic errors was made by analysis of free compositions written by 53 Italian university students who were advanced learners of English. It was expected that with advanced learners, more errors of overgeneralisation and hypercorrection would be found than errors of under-differentiation or transfer which are prevalent with beginners. Ten error types were identified, and grouped in four major classes: (1) errors of interference (false or partial cognates, extension of L1 senses to L2 'equivalent', one-to-several correspondence between L1 and L2); (2) intralingual errors (misapplied analogical formation, formal similarity, misheard utterances); (3) errors of under-differentiation (semantic field); and (4) errors of co-occurrence (semantic restraint; collocational oddities). Many errors eluded any attempt at classification. The largest category of errors was, unexpectedly, L1 interference, 37.6 per cent, followed by intralingual errors, 17.8 per cent, errors of co-occurrence, 14.6 per cent, and under-differentiation, 11.4 per cent. The performance of this group was below that expected of advanced learners. They show strong reliance on the L1 lexical system, but there is some evidence of a restructuring process.

TESTING

82-402 Bachman, Lyle F. (U. of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign) and **Palmer, Adrian S.** (U. of Utah). The construct validation of the FSI oral interview. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 1 (1981), 67-86.

The validation of oral language proficiency tests has long been problematical. The most common approaches to this problem have involved concurrent validation procedures for relating 'indirect' measures to so-called 'direct' measures. The most frequently used criterion in such studies has been the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) oral interview. In validating the FSI interview itself, however, criterion-referenced procedures are not possible since an adequate operationally defined criterion for comparison is not likely to be found. Therefore construct validation procedures are necessary.

In this study a multitrait-multimethod matrix comprising six measures representing combinations of two traits (speaking and reading) and three methods (interview, translation, self-rating) was used to examine the construct validity of the FSI oral interview. The six measures were administered individually to 75 native Mandarin Chinese speakers of English. Data were analysed using the Campbell-Fiske criteria for convergent and discriminant validity and using confirmatory factor analysis.

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The results indicate both convergent and discriminant validity for the FSI interview. Of the numerous factor models tested against the data, the model which provides the best fit comprises a general factor, two trait factors, and three method factors. A more parsimonious model, with two correlated trait factors and three method factors, fits the data nearly equally well and provides a more interpretable factor structure. These results provide strong evidence against a model of unitary language competence and support a model of partially divisible language competence.

82-403 Buckby, Michael (U. of York). Graded objectives and tests for modern languages: an evaluation. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **19**, 1 (1981), 13-14 and 33.

A summary of the findings of a research project on graded objectives and tests carried out at the Language Teaching Centre at the University of York in 1979-80. Two experimental groups were formed, one in Leeds and one in York, with corresponding control groups in which pupils continued with French in the normal way. Most pupils were aged 13+. All pupils, parents and teachers first completed an attitude questionnaire, and later in the year took an aptitude test. At the beginning of the year the attitudes and aptitudes of experimental and control pupils were almost identical: the full ability range was represented. Parental support was at the same level for all pupils.

At the end of the year, pupils, parents and teachers completed the attitude questionnaires again, after the experimental pupils had taken a graded test, learned the results and, where appropriate, received a certificate. These pupils showed very significantly more positive attitudes to learning French than the control pupils, at all points of the aptitude scale. Results in Leeds and York were similar, but gains were more marked in York schools, where graded tests had been used for three years. More experimental pupils expressed a wish to continue French than did control pupils. The experimental group's parents likewise tended to become more positive over the year, whereas the control group's remained unchanged or became less positive. This suggests that the attitudes of children and parents influence each other. Both groups of teachers seemed well disposed towards graded syllabuses and tests, and believed they helped both the higher and lower ability ranges.

82-404 Cohen, Andrew D. (Hebrew U. of Jerusalem) and **Olshtain, Elite** (Tel Aviv U.). Developing a measure of sociocultural competence: the case of apology. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 1 (1981), 113-34.

For a number of years, there has been interest in measuring sociocultural competence (Ervin-Tripp, 1972; Hymes, 1974; Canale & Swain, 1980). This study focuses on one important aspect of such competence: the ability to use the appropriate sociocultural rules of speaking, by reacting in a culturally acceptable way in context and by choosing stylistically appropriate forms for that context. We chose to look at productive performance in sociocultural aspects of speaking, focusing on the speech act of 'apology'. The research question that prompted this study was, 'Can a rating scale be developed for assessing sociocultural competence?'

The subjects were 32 native Hebrew speakers, 20 of whom served as informants for apologies in English L2 and 12 as informants in Hebrew L1, and 12 Americans who served as informants in English L1. These subjects were asked to role-play their responses in eight situations in which an apology was expected. The findings show that it is possible to identify culturally and stylistically inappropriate L2 utterances in apology situations. The authors feel, however, that the results so far provide at best a crude measure of sociocultural competence and that further work with this speech act and with others is called for.

82–405 Grundin, Hans U. (Open U., Milton Keynes) and others. Cloze procedure and comprehension: an exploratory study across three languages. *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), 4, 2 (1981), 104–22.

This cross-cultural study of cloze procedure and comprehension involved samples of 10- to 11-year-old schoolchildren in Canada, Japan, Sweden and the United States. The aim of the study was to explore the nature of what might be called ‘cloze comprehension’ in relation to overall or ‘global comprehension’ of a passage; in particular to establish (a) whether cloze procedure measures the same facets of comprehension regardless of what language is being read; and (b) to what extent cloze procedure, in different linguistic areas, measures ‘global comprehension’, or comprehension of the general ideas contained in a passage, as distinct from literal comprehension.

The results of the study indicate that cloze procedure is a valid and reliable measure of certain aspects of reading comprehension in all the linguistic and cultural areas sampled. Furthermore, comprehension as measured by cloze procedure seems to be a necessary, albeit not sufficient, condition for overall or global understanding of the meaning of a passage. The study also shows that the ability measured by cloze procedure is more generalised (i.e., less text specific) than the ability measured by our global comprehension task. One implication of this seems to be that the higher-order skills necessary for global understanding do not always develop automatically once children have mastered the skills necessary for literal comprehension of simple texts. On the contrary, the higher-order skills may have to be taught systematically at an appropriate stage in the children’s reading development.

82–406 Holec, Henri (CRAPEL, U. of Nancy). Plaidoyer pour l’auto-évaluation. [The case for self-assessment.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 165 (1981), 15–23.

Assessment is an essential component of the learning process. The great majority of learners already practise an informal kind of self-assessment but need to acquire the skills necessary to observe, analyse and evaluate their linguistic performance. There are also psychological obstacles to students making their own assessment of their progress, which can only be overcome by changes in attitudes to teaching and learning and to the role of the teacher. Self-assessment could constitute a potential fruitful source of innovation and renewal for language teaching.

82–407 Koster, C. J. MO-studenten kunnen niet vertalen. [Secondary school students cannot translate.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **363** (1981), 578–90.

Very poor results are obtained by secondary-school students in translation tests both from English to Dutch and from Dutch to English. These students perform notably worse than students in universities on translation tasks, even though on other tasks both groups are broadly comparable. Explanations often put forward to account for this discrepancy are considered: (1) the school examiners have pitched the pass mark at the wrong level; (2) the students get too little practice in translation; (3) secondary-school students cannot translate; (4) the teaching of translation is inadequate; (5) it is impossible to learn how to translate; (6) translation is totally different from other language skills; (7) the examiners are careless in their work; (8) the marking schemes used are unsatisfactory. Evidence is presented which leads to the rejection of all these explanations except the first and last, and it is concluded that there is something basically wrong with the examination itself.

82–408 Low, Graham (U. of Hong Kong). Communicative testing as an optimistic activity. *Working Papers in Language and Language Teaching* (Hong Kong), **4** (1981), 1–18.

The term 'use-of-language test' is perhaps preferable to 'communicative test'. It is important to be able to test syntax, where this forms part of a language-related activity that the testee is required to perform, and to see this as a language-use test. A strong case can be made for making not just individual test questions but a whole test or series of questions purposeful. Even if the tester does not adhere to one particular model of competence/performance, he should nevertheless have a clear theoretical stance, even if this is simply to state that a broad view of language competence is being taken. Performance testing is likely to lead to a generally more satisfactory test, it being very difficult to define competence satisfactorily.

The main stages in the production and exploitation of a use-of-language test are, first, establishing what is to be tested. This involves making a profile of what the testee is supposed to do when writing essays, etc., and a statement of what will be tested. Secondly, constructing a good test. Can the directness of a test actually be measured? How should context be manipulated and presented? The ideal test would present the testee with full contextual data; any restriction or selection that the tester cares to introduce for the purpose of testing should be justified explicitly. The tester should realise that 'authenticity' includes the testee's mental processes as well as the content of what is written or spoken. Questions which look like questions, rather than like parts of a language-related activity, are often not perceived as 'authentic' by the testee, who promptly fails to produce the behaviour which the test is aiming to test. The concept of what a test question is and what it should look like needs re-thinking. There is a case for altering the examiner's role to one where he personally engineers problems and communication breakdowns.

A questionnaire designed to accompany the test is helpful in validating it, also interview follow-ups. The question of 'reliability' is problematic because the term itself is unclear as to scope. If natural language use is the object, theoretical and

practical objections can be raised as to the suitability of test–retest reliability as a tool of test development. Since the tests involve complex situations and interrelating sets of variables, subtests tend partially to overlap, so total marks do not necessarily represent what the tester imagined they would. The establishment of even remotely adequate performance criteria is the hardest task of all.

82–409 Mothe, Jean-Claude (BELC, Paris). Evaluer les compétences de communication en milieu scolaire. [Evaluating communicative competence in a school environment.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **165** (1981), 63–72.

Traditional tests segmented language either into skills (e.g. reading, speaking) or language categories (e.g. vocabulary, grammar). In life such separation is rare, and tests should seek to establish how far the learner is able to use the foreign language in real communicative situations. Constructing communicative tests for pupils at school is not easy, since their future language needs are not known, but it is not impossible. Comprehension tests are easier to produce, but even communicative tests of production can be devised by using, where necessary, instructions in the mother tongue, and thereby reproducing the specificity of context and intention found in real life. [Numerous examples from *Méthode Orange 2*.]

82–410 Roger, Derek and others (U. of York). The construction and validation of a questionnaire for measuring attitudes towards learning foreign languages. *Educational Review* (Birmingham), **33**, 3 (1981), 223–30.

A questionnaire was constructed for measuring the attitudes of schoolchildren towards learning French. Factor analysis revealed a primary factor accounting for over 60 per cent of the total variance, and an empirical validation study showed that the attitudes of children who obtained high scores on teachers' ratings of attentiveness and enthusiasm were significantly better than those given low ratings. A subsequent replication using a large sample of pupils provided a clarification of the factor structure, and the results of an independent study of attitudes towards learning German showed that the questionnaire can easily be adapted to measure attitudes towards learning other foreign languages as well as French.

82–411 Schliessinger, Jacqueline (IUT, Sceaux). L'évaluation continue et son rôle dans l'accélération des processus d'apprentissage. [The role of continuous assessment in accelerating learning.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **165** (1981), 24–32.

Questionnaires completed by both trainers and trainees following a six months' course in French-as-a-foreign-language for Saudi Arabian students – to be followed by six months' vocational training – indicated the need for continuous assessment. Appropriate evaluation procedures can contribute to the success of language courses by inculcating a serious sense of purpose, checking at every stage on progress achieved, promoting more active student participation in the learning process and ensuring that courses continue to meet students' needs. All aspects should be assessed, including the social side and the practical organisation of the course.

82-412 Schwarz, Michel P. M. (Bundessprachenamt, Huerth, FRG). Tests de langues vivantes: tests, tests de savoir, tests de savoir-faire. [Foreign language tests: tests, tests of knowledge, tests of 'savoir faire'.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **165** (1981), 48–57.

Foreign-language tests are necessarily imprecise: there is no exact yardstick by which to measure performance, and the final score is often a sum of disparate parts; selection based on test results is thus unjust. Criterion referenced tests are justified however, provided their validity is proved. What should be tested is communicative competence, subdivided into correctness, appropriateness and pragmatic performance. In the project described here, an evaluation form calls for a judgment by three examiners whether a candidate has reached a given level under the general and the three specific headings above. In all the tests the context is fully specified and the expected performance described [examples].

82-413 Seaton, Ian (British Council, London). Principes de la conception de tests destinés à l'évaluation préalable d'étudiants étrangers venant étudier en Grande-Bretagne. [Principles of test design for an initial evaluation of overseas students in Britain.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **43** (1981), 67–78.

Language tests are changing from discrete item tests, based on a structural analysis of language, to communicative performance tests, related to the testee's language needs. Objective tests satisfy the criteria of reliability and validity, though the latter is in the end determined by real performance. Communicative tests, however careful the description of needs may be, can never predict language behaviour fully. The two approaches can be combined in a model based on a precise description of criteria of performance, down to its linguistic levels, and satisfying the criteria of reliability and validity through its ability to predict real performance. Such a model has inspired the new English Language Testing Service, designed by the British Council for overseas students in establishments of higher education in Britain. It is the result of a detailed analysis of performance criteria and language use in the life sciences, medicine, physical sciences, social sciences, technology and the humanities. The battery comprises multiple choice tests and 'authentic' integrated activities, common general tests of written and aural comprehension and modular tests differentiated according to disciplines and concerned with study skills and appropriate written and oral tasks.

CURRICULUM PLANNING

82-414 Christ, Ingeborg. Richtlinien in Tertiärsprachen. Probleme und Möglichkeiten der Innovation bei der Erstellung von Richtlinien für Schulfächer ohne Lehrtradition. [Guidelines for minority foreign languages. Problems and possibilities for innovation in establishing guidelines for school subjects with no teaching tradition behind them.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **81**, 1 (1982), 88–107.

Curricular guidelines (*Richtlinien*) have the function of providing orientation, steering the learning process, and guaranteeing a certain didactic flexibility (*didaktische*

Freiräume). These functions are normally realised on the basis of a consensus grounded in tradition and experience in the teaching of the respective subject. Formulating guidelines which make these functions concrete is problematic for tertiary languages that do not have teaching traditions as school subjects. Such subjects in particular require orientation and steering, yet the experiential basis for designing curricular guidelines for them is small. The solution lies in the guarantee of flexibility, the third of the functions named above, which is used to initiate didactic testing.

82–415 Schröder, Konrad. Vom Regulativ zum Rahmenplan: Versuch einer Entwicklungsgeschichte des neusprachlichen Lehrplans. [From regulations to framework: a history of the modern languages curriculum.] *Die neueren Sprachen (Frankfurt am Main)*, **81**, 1 (1982), 5–29.

The article attempts to describe the development of teaching guidelines (*Lehrplanelentwicklung*) in Germany diachronically from the beginning of the national educational system in the late 18th century. Points of special emphasis are Prussian and Hessian planning during the early 19th century, Richert's curricular guidelines (*Richtlinien*) in 1925, the teaching guidelines for the gymnasium during the years after 1950, as well as framing planning (*Rahmenplanung*) in Niedersachsen and the curricular teaching guideline (*Curriculare Lehrplan*) of Bavaria. On the basis of original textual sources, the author discusses more general questions of the influence of the state on schools as well as on educational theory and educational ideology.

82–416 Van Bömmel, Heiner. Rahmenrichtlinien Sekundarstufe I Neue Sprachen für das Land Hessen. [General guidelines for the teaching of modern languages in the first four years of secondary education in the state of Hessen.] *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart, FRG), **60** (1981), 270–4.

The 1981 official guidelines, issued by the education authority of the state of Hessen on the subject of modern language teaching in *Sekundarstufe 1* (a large school complex which caters for children aged 12–16 from the three traditional types of school), are geared to very general criteria, no longer specifying exactly how and what is to be taught. The teachers and the writers of educational material are free to decide how to shape their lessons. The guidelines apply to pupils of a very wide ability range and to any modern language, and they are seen in the perspective of the educational goals across the whole curriculum. Modern-language teaching should aim at comprehension and achievement in communication. Authentic communication is only possible if the subject matter coincides with the pupils' own interests and experience. The lesson should be geared to situations such as the pupils may one day find themselves in. There should be no isolated vocabulary and grammar learning. Acquiring a foreign language should help the learners develop their social skills through group work. The pupils' linguistic contribution should be comprehensible and relevant, but absolute accuracy is not essential. Occasional use of the mother tongue in lessons is acceptable. Oral skills are no more important than reading and listening comprehension. The successful application of these principles depends on the development of new teaching material and of intensive refresher courses for the further training of teachers.

MATERIALS DESIGN

82-417 Andersen, Helga (Aalborg U. Centre, Denmark) and **Risager, Karen** (Roskilde U. Centre, Denmark). *ITL* (Louvain), **53** (1981), 23–36.

A project is described which aims to prepare French language-teaching materials for beginners in which the social and the linguistic content are consciously integrated. The institutional framework is the general school system in Denmark, pupils of about 17 years old. The first phase is an analysis of language-course materials for elementary French, German and English currently in use in Denmark. Education acts lay down that the school shall provide pupils with general education in preparation for adult life and more specific training with a view to their future occupation or further education. The teaching of foreign languages ought therefore to develop awareness of foreign-language communities, but the curricula refer to foreign languages as consisting primarily in the teaching of skills.

The analysis of elementary French teaching materials (1952–1973) shows that (1) the section of French society shown is largely middle class. Whereas families used to be shown, the emphasis is now on individuals. Occupations are only vaguely categorised. No social problems are presented: few manual workers, no blacks, arabs, immigrants, other minority groups, or unemployed. No adults are over 50 and no children under 10. The scene is always set in a city, the country being only a place for spare time activities. (2) The spheres of activity illustrated are predominantly spare time and shopping. No interest is shown in social or political matters. (3) Analysis of verbal interaction between persons appearing in the text reveals that all social relationships are smooth and characterised by traditional patterns of sex- and generation-roles. No sexuality appears. (4) Information on France is centred on the classics, popular singers and actors, the topography of Paris, everyday leisure activities and the geography of France. No information on other French-speaking societies appears.

Nowhere are these selections explicitly discussed, nor do they seem to be consciously planned. An analysis of language use in the materials shows an increase in the amount of direct speech (dialogues) but without proper contextualisation. There is no acknowledgement of the country's great linguistic diversity. New materials should show different social groups in a realistic way, and likewise realism in language use.

TEACHER TRAINING

82-418 Soule-Susbielles, Nicole (Université de Paris VIII) and **Weiss, François** (Institut Français du Royaume-Uni de Londres). Un outil d'observation: la grille linéaire. [The flow-chart – an observational tool.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **75**, 2 (1981), 197–207.

The flow-chart constitutes a flexible system of recording what happens in the classroom. The categories used can be adapted to correspond to whatever objectives and priorities may be selected. Used in conjunction with a recorded tape of the lesson, the flow-chart provides teachers with a simple means of noting events exactly as they

occurred, of evaluating their own and their students' contributions, and of analysing any errors or weaknesses or failures of communication with a view to remedying the situation. It has an important role to play in teacher training by affording teachers the opportunity for self-assessment.

TEACHING METHODS

82-419 Baddeley, A. D. (Applied Psychology Unit, Cambridge) and others. Developmental and acquired dyslexia: a comparison. *Cognition* (Lausanne), **11**, 2 (1982), 185-99.

Jorm (1979) has drawn attention to similarities between developmental dyslexia and acquired deep dyslexia, an analogy which has been criticised by A. W. Ellis (1979). A series of three experiments compared the two syndromes, using the techniques applied by Patterson and Marcel (1977) to adult deep dyslexics, to study a group of 15 boys suffering from developmental dyslexia. Patterson and Marcel's patients were able to perform a lexical decision task but showed no evidence of phonemic encoding of nonwords; the dyslexic children in this study performed this task very slowly and with reduced accuracy but showed clear evidence of phonemic coding of the nonword items. Patterson and Marcel observed that their patients could not read out orthographically regular nonwords; these dyslexic children were able to do this task, although more slowly and somewhat less accurately than their chronological age or reading age controls. Finally, Patterson and Marcel observed that highly imageable words were more likely to be read correctly than words of equal frequency but low imageability; the authors observed a similar effect in both the dyslexic group and in their reading age controls. This implies that the imageability effect may not be peculiar to dyslexics but may be characteristic of normal reading under certain conditions. It is concluded that developmental dyslexics differ from the patients studied by Patterson and Marcel in demonstrating a pattern of reading which, though slow, is qualitatively similar to the reading of normal readers of a younger age. As such, these results do not support Jorm's position.

82-420 Bejoint, Henri (U. of Lyon II). The foreign student's use of monolingual English dictionaries: a study of language needs and reference skills. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **2**, 3 (1981), 207-22.

Dictionary users can be classified according to their language needs and their reference skills. Foreign students' primary study need is not to be more fully informed about the language but to gather information that will enable them to communicate more effectively in English. They will need access to different kinds of words according to whether they are encoding (*thème*) or decoding (*version*): for encoding, they need detailed guidance on syntax and collocation, but for decoding, they need information on denotative meaning. They also need information about the connotative value of words. The information needed for encoding is difficult to provide and arrange so that the information is accessible. If the lexicographer is too detailed or subtle he risks

outwitting the user, who must (a) find the lexeme he is looking for and (b) retrieve the specific information he needs. A dictionary cannot and should not try to give all the possible shades of meaning [some principles of design are discussed].

A questionnaire was given to 122 French trainee teachers studying English at the University of Lyon in order to find out how they used their monolingual English dictionaries. Conclusions were that the vast majority of foreign-language learners and speakers use dictionaries. Monolingual dictionaries are considered more satisfactory than bilingual dictionaries: they are not, however, used as fully as they should be (introductions and coding systems are commonly not referred to). They are used primarily for decoding activities, which is discouraging for teachers and lexicographers. The students need to be taught how to get the most out of their dictionaries.

82-421 Davison, Alice (U. of Illinois) and **Kantor, Robert N.** (Ohio State U.). On the failure of readability formulas to define readable texts: a case study from adaptations. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), 17, 2 (1982), 187-209.

In the past 30 or 40 years there has been much discussion of objective formulas to measure the readability of texts. These formulas measure variables such as sentence length and familiarity of vocabulary, but do not define the actual features of texts which make them easy or hard to read. In this study, two versions of four texts were compared, the original versions intended mainly for adult readers, and the adapted versions for less skilled readers. The specific changes made to make the texts easier to read, with their apparent motivations, are discussed. Some changes, such as splitting complex sentences into component clauses, changing vocabulary items, etc., may have been made to make the text conform to a certain level of readability defined by formulas. But these changes are not always the most successful, and some actually make the text harder to understand. Other changes could not have been made solely because of the effect they would have on readability measurement. They were influenced by factors such as definition of discourse topic, logical ordering of ideas, background knowledge assumed in the reader, and choices of syntactic structure which do not affect length. Adaptations were found to be most successful when the adaptor functioned as a conscientious writer rather than someone trying to make a text fit a level of readability defined by a formula. The implicit use of readability formulas as guides to writing graded texts is argued against; experimental research should define the real factors constituting readability.

82-422 Ehnert, Rolf (U. of Bielefeld). Bausteine zu einer Video-Didaktik für den Fremdsprachen. [Elements of a methodology for foreign-language teaching using video.] *Bielefelder Beiträge zur Sprachlehrforschung* (Bielefeld, FRG), 2 (1980), 135-48.

Films have been used in foreign-language teaching for some 50 years, TV and video coming in during the 1970s. This article indicates some of the problems involved in using video in foreign-language teaching and with the aid of tables sets out the criteria for selecting video films for different teaching purposes, e.g. length, make-up, picture-sound relationships, time-space relationships, appropriateness of subject

matter and language level. Video should be used in conjunction with other teaching aids; it is indispensable in teacher-training for letting teachers see themselves in action.

82-423 Elson, Nick (U. of York). The loneliness of the long distance learner: adult ESL. *TESL Talk* (Toronto), **12, 4** (1981), 7-13.

The article refers mainly to immigrants (in Canada) who have to combat such factors as inconvenience, tiredness, alienation and loss of self-confidence before successfully learning English. Language often becomes the scapegoat for other problems they may have. Teachers should help them to maintain a realistic outlook, appreciate their individuality, encourage them to talk about their backgrounds, establish realistic goals, give encouragement, try to avoid a teacher-oriented classroom, and keep the classes active and varied. Simple assignments help the learning process to continue between classes. The language used in the classroom should be relevant and realistic, and students should be put in situations where they actually function in the language. Although the language may need to be simplified, the content should not seem childish.

82-424 Galisson, Robert (U. de la Sorbonne nouvelle, Paris). Approches communicatives et acquisitions des vocabulaires (du concordancier à l'auto-dictionnaire personnalisé). [The communicative approach and the acquisition of vocabulary (from concordances to personalised dictionaries).] *Bulletin CILA (Neuchâtel)*, **34** (1981), 13-49.

Vocabulary is learnt, not taught. Various techniques – from concordance tables to personalised dictionaries – are suggested to accelerate the process, replacing the traditional memorisation of bare lists of words devoid of context. The communicative approach accords primacy to extra-linguistic and situational factors, and to understanding how words are formed and used. The ways they can be categorised and combined require close, systematic study, but student choice with regard to what and how to learn is recognised. [Tables; diagrams.]

82-425 Hartig, Paul. Minoritätenprobleme im landeskundlichen Unterricht? [Should we include minority problems in 'Landeskunde' courses?] *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart, FRG), **61** (1982), 3-7.

In cultural studies, very little attention was given to problems relating to minorities. In *Landeskunde* (regional, social and historical studies relating to a country), the significance of these problems has continued to be consistently disregarded. However, the present situation demands that they be given serious attention and examined from three angles – from the point of view of national and international law, and from the sociological angle. As existing publications show, it is the sociological considerations which take precedence. They serve to provide information about minority problems. By tackling these problem areas, prejudices can be identified and overcome, and this in turn awakens and promotes a sense of social justice and is thus of great educative value in foreign-language teaching.

82-426 Hayes, David A. (U. of Georgia) and **Tierney, Robert J.** (Harvard U.). Developing readers' knowledge through analogy. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **17**, 2 (1982), 256-80.

Unfamiliar information is often introduced to readers through analogy. The effect of this practice was investigated by examining three possible explanations of the function of analogy: to activate specific analogous knowledge, to activate generally related knowledge, or to supply information which readers use to fashion their own comparisons. American high-school students attempted to learn about the game of cricket from prose materials which were variously augmented with analogies drawn from the game of baseball. The students subsequently read and recalled newspaper accounts of cricket matches and made predictions and discriminations about open-ended cricket match situations. Across seven different dependent measures subjected to regression analysis, the consistent finding was that two factors – student prior knowledge about sports and baseball, and the provision of instructional texts about either baseball or cricket – explained more variance than any other factor or combinations of factors. In some instances, the more specific provision of analogies proved beneficial, especially for groups with differing levels of prior knowledge, or in conjunction with an informational text about baseball. These data were interpreted as providing strong support for a general knowledge activation hypothesis and modest support for a specific knowledge activation hypothesis, both of which were interpreted as consistent with recently emerging schema theoretic notions.

82-427 Henrici, Gert (U. of Bielefeld). Authentischer Fremdsprachenunterricht – einige Anmerkungen. [Some observations on authenticity in foreign-language teaching.] *Bielefelder Beiträge zur Sprachlehrforschung* (Bielefeld, FRG), **2** (1980), 123-34.

Reasons are suggested for the lack of success in incorporating authenticity into foreign-language teaching up to now; role-play and situational approaches are considered here. An alternative approach is suggested in which the learning situation itself serves as the natural/authentic situation for learning. From the start the learner must be encouraged to take much more responsibility for his learning and for the aims, make-up and materials of the course, so that he is able ultimately to perform competently and independently in the target language. Learner and teacher should interact as partners and learning should not be teacher-controlled as in behaviourist-based methods. Motivation should be integrative and learners prepared for sojourns in the target-language country.

82-428 Kühn, Jürgen and others. The demand for foreign languages in selected businesses in Lower Saxony. *Incorporated Linguist* (London), **20**, 4 (1981), 131-42.

A questionnaire was sent to 59 medium to large business firms with a relatively high ratio of overseas trade in order to assess the need for foreign languages in the area of the Hanover-Hildesheim Chamber of Commerce, and thence to determine whether these requirements could be better met through adaptation and/or expansion of the

courses of study currently being offered. A second questionnaire was sent to 10 export managers in the sample. Key points were an inventory of the use made of foreign languages in the companies; the importance attached to foreign-language proficiency compared with other qualifications relevant to the job; and an enquiry into possible foreign-language knowledge in a wider sense. [Questionnaires given, with detailed findings.]

It is concluded that there is a significant demand, probably because the West German economy is strongly export-oriented. The prominent position of English was underlined, though three or four languages are often needed simultaneously for trading purposes. Foreign-language training is frequently provided by the companies themselves, or staff are seconded to training courses elsewhere. It is stressed that the absolute demand for linguists in trade and industry is relatively slight; foreign-language knowledge is given a lower priority than technical and commercial competence; career prospects for permanent employment as a linguist are slight. The standard of foreign-language knowledge required does not warrant a university course in which training in foreign languages is the main priority, but could be attained as a component of a technical or commercial course. Foreign language study alone is not an adequate qualification for a job in trade or industry.

82-429 Leonard, Laurence B. (Purdue U.). Facilitating linguistic skills in children with specific language impairment. *Applied Psycholinguistics* (Cambridge), 2, 2 (1981), 89-118.

This paper presents a critical review of studies designed to teach language production skills to children with specific language impairment. The evidence reviewed suggests that a number of training approaches are effective, often resulting in gains that exceed the rate seen in normal development. Close analysis of children's post-treatment usage reveals that these gains go beyond rote learning, and may even result in response classes that are different from those seen in the adult linguistic system. The chief limitations in these training studies are that children seem to make use of the target linguistic form only in untrained utterances that share certain topographical features with the utterances used in training, and that there is little evidence that children's use of the target form will extend to speaking situations that bear little resemblance to the training/testing situation.

82-430 Mosenthal, Peter (Syracuse U.) and **Tong Jin Na** (State U. of New York at Albany). Classroom competence and children's individual differences in writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), 73, 1 (1981), 106-21.

The aim of this investigation was to show that students demonstrate individual differences in the manner in which they compose text. These differences are related to the type of speech register, or verbal response pattern, students most often adopted in verbally interacting with a teacher. Children were first classified as employing either a non-contingent, an imitative, or a contingent response register. Students were then asked to compose a description of a picture stimulus. It was found that, given this

task, non-contingent students tended to write more creative essays and used more text-creative or schema-creative propositions in composing their descriptions than did the other two register groups. Imitative students tended to write more descriptive essays and used more descriptive propositions in devising their descriptions. Contingent students tended to write more interpretive essays and used more interpretive propositions in devising their compositions than did the other two register groups. These results are discussed in terms of a classroom competence model of writing.

82–431 Noss, Richard B. (Regional English Language Centre, Singapore). Listening, learning and reading. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), 12, 1 (1981), 23–36.

‘Reading’ usually implies comprehension. Although we can differentiate between ‘listening to’ and ‘hearing’, convention forces us to refer to all consumers of written texts as ‘readers’ without differentiating between deliberate, accidental or potential consumers. Yet the student must ‘look at’ and ‘see’ written French before he can learn to read it. It is false to claim that the reader has some sort of advantage which is not present when a listener/hearer interprets a spoken text. The inputs the reader provides to a text are similar to those a listener/hearer provides to an oral text. ‘Mechanics’ refers to the ways in which the encoding devices of the spoken and written versions of the ‘same’ language correspond (or do not correspond) to each other. An individual’s ability to deal with these correspondences is his ‘literacy’. Both competences are necessary for genuine reading; but they are separable.

All orthographic systems are deficient in some respects, for example, they cannot represent all the phonetic information conveyed through oral channels. Conversely, it is impossible to represent in speech all the semantic information conveyed by the typical writing system (e.g. distinguishing between ‘write’ and ‘right’). One of the advantages claimed by reading experts for the looking-at and seeing of written texts, i.e. the possibility of inferencing from context, is really more relevant to the listening-to and hearing of oral texts. Written texts are potentially more ambiguous than comparable oral texts (for example, the headline *Call girls’ numbers up, says Governor*). The textbook writer should anticipate the possibility that what he writes may be ‘read’ in different ways by exploiting the natural redundancy of language: (a) being over-redundant if phonetic detail may be wrongly supplied, or (b) being under-redundant when the necessary semantic detail is supplied by the graphic system. The principal reading skill students need to develop is therefore not inferencing from context so much as text scanning. This uses to advantage the reader’s flexibility in choosing which part of the text to focus his eyes on (though he cannot always control the accessibility of the text).

In Southeast Asian schools, the types of reading programmes in use may not be the most suitable, either as to methods or materials. Learning to read first in one of the national languages is probably better than learning in English or Mandarin. Local experts on reading abound, but they lack the prestige of their Western counterparts. Textbooks are often written by people with poor control of the national language.

82–432 O’Neill, Robert. Why use textbooks? *ELT Journal* (London), **36**, 2 (1982), 104–11.

A reply to an article by Allright (*see abstract* 82–271). Reasons for using textbooks are (1) much of their material, though not specifically designed for any one group, will probably be relevant to their needs, (2) they make it possible for a group to look ahead or back at what has been done, (3) the materials will be well presented, and could only be replaced by the teacher or someone else at great cost of money and time, and (4) they allow for adaptation and improvisation. Almost any group studying technical English will have various things in common, including a common core of needs. The textbook offers a grammatical and functional framework, a jumping-off point for teacher and class.

82–433 Paivio, Allan and Desrochers, Alain (U. of Western Ontario). Mnemonic techniques in second-language learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **73**, 6 (1981), 780–95.

A review of research on mnemonic techniques as used in second-language learning, emphasising imagery-based techniques. The keyword technique involves using a specific word in the familiar language to establish an acoustic and an imaginal link between the unfamiliar or target word and its translation equivalent in the native language (e.g. to learn Fr. *couteau* ‘knife’, think of a knife cutting one’s *toe*). Laboratory experiments show that the technique clearly facilitates the learning of second-language vocabulary when learning is measured by a comprehension test that requires subjects to translate the new words into their native-language equivalents. Adolescents and adults benefit most from generating their own interactive images, but younger children require the support of (given) interactive pictures or sentences. The method does not have an immediate facilitating effect on productive recall unless the new response items are already available in memory.

The hook technique aims to increase expressive or productive skills in the target language by providing a scheme which permits the learner to retrieve vocabulary units from memory without relying on external clues (i.e. it is a handy mental rehearsal technique). The standard hook technique is applied to native-language recall tasks, and involves two stages: the first stage consists of learning a standard list of ‘peg words’, each of which can be translated into a number according to a number-consonant word code. The consonants in turn are expanded into peg words by selecting concrete nouns that contain only the consonant sound(s) associated with their numerical position, according to the coding scheme. English peg words with relevant consonants italicised are *1-tea*, *2-Noah*, *3-emu*. The second stage consists of the application of the mnemonic to the memorisation of new items of information. Each item in a target list is given a numerical position. The ‘hook-up’ is achieved by generating an interactive image that includes the referent of the peg word and the referent of the item to be remembered. As used in foreign-language learning, the peg words are chosen from the target language. [The two techniques are compared, and research cited; two other techniques, dual coding and elaborative processing, are also described.]

Imagery mnemonics have been shown to be highly effective in certain experimental situations. The hook method is convenient because it requires no apparatus. Imagery-based techniques provide a naturalistic context for language use; they can make language learning interesting because they render the new language meaningful. Neither method, however, is currently favoured. Classroom experiments have so far failed to show any overall learning advantages for keyword instruction. Nevertheless, they may be helpful for intensive vocabulary study. The hook technique may be extended to the learning of simple grammatical rules.

82-434 Palmer, Adrian S. (U. of Utah). Measures of achievement, communication, incorporation and integration for two classes of formal EFL learners. *RELJ Journal* (Singapore), 12, 1 (1981), 37-61.

An investigation of the effects of using a particular type of highly controlled, pseudo-communication activity in the foreign-language classroom. Materials were developed to encourage controlled communication and were introduced into a classroom in Thailand. [Other relevant studies are briefly reported.] Subjects were 52 first-year engineering students who had studied English for four to five years; both control and an experimental group were taught using the same materials, but the experimental group's materials were further developed, first by an analysis of words, grammar points and teaching points, then by inventing contexts which would require students to use the language in the corpus for communicating in Information Sequences (a mnemonic device using drills with multiple utterance interchanges in which each utterance is related in a natural way to the preceding one). Each communication task was called a 'communication game', and consisted of corpus (the teaching points), cues (short expressions for use in initiating or continuing short conversations or reacting to the meanings of single utterances), and instructions (the rules, specifying the order in which the students are to speak, the kind of information to be communicated, monitoring and scoring procedures). Each player is given different information (on worksheets) which must be exchanged in a specified way.

Teaching procedures for the control group were the traditional ones for accuracy-based instruction. There was little real communication and a high degree of teacher control. The experimental group completed two games per period; there was hardly any informal communication in English in the classroom. The instructor spoke mainly Thai. Both groups received the same tests of proficiency and communication ability [details of tests used].

Results showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups on only one achievement test: the control group performed better on the pronunciation test. There were no significant differences on tests of proficiency, of formal communication, or of informal communication. Significant differences on some measures of incorporation (the relationship between performance on achievement and proficiency tests) and integration (relationship between performance on achievement and communication tests) were found, all in favour of the experimental group. One significant attitude difference was found, also in favour of the experimental group.

The groups differed significantly in the degree of relationship between their abilities to satisfy the course objectives, and their ability to perform under other conditions.

Limitations of the games are that they do not encourage native-like pronunciation (pidgin was often used) or linguistic accuracy; they require a highly ritualised pseudo-communication of limited relevance to informal communication. They may be of most use in large classes where personal communication with the teacher is limited. They are fun and therefore motivating.

82-435 Potter, F. (Edge Hill Coll. of H.E.). The use of the linguistic context: do good and poor readers use different strategies? *British Journal of Educational Psychology* (London), **52**, 1 (1982), 16-23.

This study investigates whether good and poor readers use different strategies when making use of the linguistic context, and in particular whether good readers make better use of the succeeding context by using a better strategy or whether they do so simply because of their superior knowledge. A cloze test was specially constructed to control for the readers' knowledge and, after successive refinements, was administered to 121 seven- and eight-year-old children in their first year at junior school. The children were better at using the preceding context than the succeeding context ($P < 0.001$), and the better the reader the better was his use of the succeeding context ($P < 0.01$). As the knowledge of the readers had been controlled this must have been a consequence of some difference in the strategies used by the better and poorer readers. It was not, however, because the good readers made better use of an overt self-corrective strategy, as self-corrections were not found to be related to reading ability. No conclusion could therefore be drawn as to whether the good readers used a more efficient strategy, or whether they used the same strategy more skilfully. It was also argued that, as poor readers are less able to use the context, it might well be a mistake to conclude that they are reluctant to do so when there is graphic information available, simply on the evidence that they make less use of it.

82-436 Roe, Peter J. (British Council, Paris). L'EAP ou l'anglais enseigné dans les études supérieures: un guide pour le débutant. [English for Academic Purposes: a guide for beginners.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **43** (1981), 124-35.

English for Academic Purposes has been defined as 'when a school of languages tries to assist a student to overcome a linguistic handicap which would have prevented that student from following a course at an institution of higher education'.

The language of the language course should approximate as closely as possible to that of the subject of study. The 'task', where students are assigned practical work on a specific project intimately connected with their field of study, is the 'last bastion' of EAP. The would-be EAP teacher should be well informed concerning the students' technical specialisms, be prepared to make his or her own materials and also to work harder than those less enlightened.

82-437 Shimron, Joseph and Navon, David (U. of Haifa). The dependence on graphemes and on their translation to phonemes in reading: a developmental perspective. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **17**, 2 (1982), 210-28.

This study compared children and adult readers in the degree to which they are able to avoid grapheme-to-phoneme translation; in how much they benefit from redundant phonemic information; and in the degree to which they are disturbed by minor changes in graphemes which are still phonemically appropriate. Hebrew readers begin reading instruction with words in which vocalic information is transmitted by vowel signs written below and above the letters; later on, they learn to read the same words without the vowel signs. Also, a change of vowel signs in Hebrew may or may not involve a change of phonemic value of the words. These facts were exploited experimentally in this study (following Navon & Shimron, 1981). Subjects were asked to name Hebrew words by their letters only. The words were sometimes vowelised correctly, and at other times, they were either unvowelised or misvowelised in a way which either preserved or did not preserve phonemic values. It was found that both children and adults were unable to resist grapheme-to-phoneme translation, that both children and adults benefited from redundant information in their normal reading, and that children but not adults were sensitive to minor changes in graphemes which still preserved phonemic values.

82-438 Singer, Harry and Donlan, Dan (U. of California, Riverside). Active comprehension: problem-solving schema with question generation for comprehension of complex short stories. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **17**, 2 (1982), 166-86.

A problem-solving schema for comprehending short stories was augmented by construction of schema-general questions for each story element. Fifteen eleventh-grade students, randomly assigned to the experimental group, were taught to derive story-specific questions from the schema-general questions as they read complex short stories. The control group read to answer questions posed beforehand by the teacher. Each group read six short stories over a three-week period. Criterion-referenced tests administered after each story resulted in statistically significant differences between the two groups. This evidence implies (1) that instruction can help students improve in reader-based processing of text and (2) that story grammar structures acquired prior to or during elementary school may be adequate for processing simple fables, but more adequate and more appropriate cognitive structures with strategies for making schema-general questions story-specific are necessary for processing, storing, and retrieving information derived from reading complex short stories.

82-439 Smithies, Michael (U. of Papua, New Guinea). The summary. *World Language English* (Oxford), **1**, 1 (1981), 31-4.

The ability to summarise is essential for ESL students, particularly at upper secondary and tertiary levels, if they are to read, understand and retain the essence of texts (usually scientific, technical, etc., rather than literary). A common reduction is one-third of the original, or reducing each paragraph to a sentence: with the latter method, the student is more likely to retain the main theme of the original.

The method recommended is to read the passage, underline the main points in pencil, and have a second reading to check. The main themes then need to be reassembled into coherent sentences – each word need not be different from the original, as long as the sentences are meaningful. Poor summaries reveal surprising errors of interpretation. Some familiarity with the passage is helpful, especially to weaker students. The teacher should write the summary beforehand and distribute marks according to the inclusion or omission of the main points, and the correct expression of them.

82-440 Taylor, D. S. (U. of Leeds). Non-native speakers and the rhythm of English. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **19**, 2 (1981), 219–26.

The most widely encountered difficulty among foreign learners of English is rhythm. Of 50 non-native speakers of English examined in a survey, half were found to experience such difficulty. Of these, the majority had syllable-timed rhythm (where stressed and unstressed syllables occur at equal intervals) instead of stress-timed rhythm (in which stressed syllables only occur at equal intervals). This is caused by failing to differentiate between the vowels in stressed and unstressed syllables and by a general ignorance of the principles involved in determining vowel length. It is suggested that if a correct application of the principles of gradation in English (which govern the use of weak forms and reduced vowels in unstressed syllables) were made, then correct rhythm would almost automatically follow.

82-441 van Kessel, Louis. Taal leren in een groep: de docent als begeleider van lerende volwassenen. [Learning a language in a group: the teacher as a facilitator for adult learners.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **366** (1981), 879–90.

This article discusses the general problems of teaching adults, and the problems of teaching languages to adults in particular. Adult students differ from younger students in a number of ways, most notably in the wide range of motivations which lead them to take up a course of study. This means that the teacher's role in adult education must be quite different from that of an ordinary classroom teacher. There is also a strong case for using materials, methods and course content designed with adult learners in mind. It is particularly important for adult learners to take responsibility for their own learning. This can be done by allowing them to set their own learning goals, and also by making use of the very rich interactions which arise when adults work together in groups. All this means that the teacher's role is to act as a facilitator rather than an instructor.